

Karanam Pushpanadham *Editor*

Teacher Education in the Global Era

Perspectives and Practices

 Springer

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*DEDICATED TO MY BELOVED
PARENTS SHRI.KARANAM RAJARAO AND
SMT. KARANAM NIRMALA MARY*

*I grew up cocooned in your love, comforted
by your hugs and motivated by your lives...
Thank is a very little word to express. This is
a humble gratitude for you both....*

Prof. Karanam Pushpanadham

Foreword

Globalization has been defined as ‘the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa’. This phenomenon of escalation of relationships across nations has been made possible by various factors, the most important being the global communication network supported by fast development in digital connectivity in unbroken ubiquitous manner. Emerging socio-economic, political and cultural processes in local communities can never be independent of those happening elsewhere leading to a globalized society.

Impact of globalization in the entire spectrum of learning informal to all organized systems of learning has been phenomenal. Formal education curriculum in the globalized context should therefore explore alterations in its content as well as in transactional modalities. Curricular content across all levels and sectors of education should focus on areas such as interdependence, identity and diversity, pluralistic nature of communities, peace building, poverty and wealth, sustainability and global justice which are very crucial in peaceful living in a globalized society. These themes will be appropriately linked with specific issues and problems in the local context, and curriculum transaction should include instructional processes where learners can be exposed to situations in different parts of the world and get opportunities to interact with other learners across continents using the digital learning possibilities available today. Teaching encompasses a range of interests that can cover anything from how other students live in another culture to environmental issues. Curricular practices thus should incorporate activities that facilitate cooperative learning and action and shared responsibility with emphasis on positive thinking and healthy communication. Such an approach to global education would enable learners to develop positive and responsible values and attitudes, important life skills and an orientation to active participation. All teachers should be equipped with the required mind-set and competencies to be effective facilitators in such a teaching–learning context, and this focus has to be reflected in all forms of teacher education. A global teacher today and more so in the future is expected to incorporate global issues into the school curriculum including multiculturalism, and economic, environmental and

social issues. A teacher expands the scope of learner's understanding and outlook beyond boundaries of the local classroom, as students learn about pluralism and diversity. Global teaching facilitates an open-minded approach; it implements lessons that illustrate the perspective of other people in the world that may not have the same cultural values and traditions as the students. It is important to learn about other cultures to gain a deeper understanding of how to approach global issues and communicate more effectively. As the world becomes more interconnected, teachers are diversifying their approach to education. Today, global teaching is applied not only in the classroom, but on social media platforms which expose students to a large and diverse population of ideas and cultures.

Global teacher education is an emerging concept impacting on the manner in which teaching and teacher education are perceived and organized with a cross-cultural perspective. Teacher education needs to be viewed in a continuum from initial teacher preparation, i.e., pre-service training, to induction training that bridges the gaps in the pedagogy practices learnt in simulated and supportive environment to those in the reality of contexts at all levels and modes of education followed by continuous professional development that sharpens and strengthens the previous learning and updates with the novel skills in the profession supporting teachers in all aspects of the teaching profession throughout one's career.

International policy documents have been stressing the global concern on the scope and quality of teacher education, in terms of amending their contents, delivery and effectiveness to the requirements of current societal demands. UNESCO's policy development guide on teachers recommends minimum requirements to enter teacher training, as well as relevant curriculum contents and practicum periods leading to qualification. This guide also mentions the possibility of carrying out a probationary period before certification or licensing and recognizes the potential contribution of non-state partners in teacher training. In a similar line of argumentation, the main international teachers' union declared in its 6th World Congress that teacher training should be provided at higher education institutions and an additional phase of induction should be offered for newly qualified teachers in recruitment.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2030 adopted by UN in 2015 form a program of sustainable, universal and ambitious development, a program of the people, by the people and for the people, conceived with the active participation of UNESCO. Education is a human right and is considered critical for sustainable development and peace. Every goal in the SDG Agenda requires education to empower people with the knowledge, skills and values to live in dignity, build their lives and contribute to their societies. Ambitions for education are essentially captured in Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4) of the 2030 Agenda which aims to 'ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all' by 2030.

The quality and capability of a teacher to effectively perform in a dynamic socio-cultural and communication context influenced by changing digital environment are considered to be the most crucial factor influencing the effectiveness of any organized educational endeavor, and hence teacher education programs for

preparing teachers for all levels and sectors of education are of utmost priority. Thus, it is imperative for nations to invest in the preparation of teachers, so that the quality and higher public participation in the education are achieved and sustained.

Pre-service teacher preparation programs, also called initial teacher training or initial teacher education, vary greatly across countries. In spite of variations, pre-service teacher education programs are highly organized and regulated globally and considered as obligatory for school teaching. The structure, coursework and field experiences of pre-service programs are important to consider when designing or reforming teacher training because they all contribute to the level of preparation. High-quality teachers need high-quality training, but many countries may need to consider cost-effectiveness in deciding on the specific combination of pre-service and in-service training experiences needed in order to deploy enough teachers for growing education systems.

The present publication attempts to bring together a number of case studies from different continents with specific focus on pre-service or initial teacher education programs from across continents. Countries do differ in the duration and structure of teacher education programs. However, all such programs do aim at developing certain common competencies including competencies in school subjects, foundational aspects of education, pedagogy-related theory, teaching practice and school organization and administration. The perspectives and practices in teacher education have been undergoing transformation influenced by major developments happening in the larger globalized context. It would be interesting to see how different countries have responded to the demands of globalization to what extent the teacher education programs of these countries are reflecting the required transformation in the content and teaching practices. The case studies are expected to provide a comparative perspective and some valuable insights into the changes in the teacher education curriculum and practices influenced by global education perspective and agenda within the Sustainable Development Goals.

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Preface

Teaching is a profession that is least preferred but most respected. Teachers are our last and best hope to bring transformation in the society. The Education Commission in India (Kothari Commission-1964–66) had reported that the destiny of any nation is shaped by the teachers in the classrooms. Teachers can inspire and influence the students to learn and develop desirable personality. The National Education Policy of India (1986) advocates that there can be no nation which can rise above the level of its teachers. Teachers are the most important resources for improving quality in education.

The global concern today is ‘quality education.’ The system of education is being criticized by everyone, no matter who they are and what profession they are engaged. Existing educational systems are properly reviewed by the stakeholders and comment on the new systems around the world and suggest new ways of teaching and learning. Education has become the matter for all as the impact of education on human life and social development is unquestionable. One of the major challenges for quality education across the world is the teacher and teacher professional practice. The transformation in education is only possible with effective teachers and efficient educational leaders who actually perform in the grass-roots levels. How should these role models be educated and trained? What should be the curriculum inputs, delivery mechanisms and quality assurance? This has long been debated, and no perfect model was found to address this argument.

Teacher education has been unfolding amid a range of developments associated with globalization. Global transformations in economic, political and cultural spheres, that resulted in the growing global mobility of people, the impact of rapid technological change such as Internet access and the use of social media, increasing knowledge and information flows as well as rapid economic changes necessitated the development of skilled, flexible and mobile labor forces worldwide. The highly mobile nature of information and technology, made possible by the widespread use of the Internet, is one example of how globalization processes have influenced higher education in general and teacher education in specific.

Teacher education cannot be understood without consideration of the broader processes associated with globalization. These global transformations have influenced and, to some degree, driven a range of international initiatives implemented in teacher education including the internationalization of curricula; the growth of international service, field and internship experiences; cross-border initiatives; and the increasing use of English as a medium of instruction and using a comparative and case study methodology.

The teaching profession is one of the most profound in society because it is called upon to underline, accompany and promote the spiritual value formation of young people, their personal growth and transformation into highly educated people adequate to meet today's global challenges. Thus, by actively contributing to the development of younger generations, teachers as representatives of educational institutions, together with parents and local communities, are becoming an instantaneous factor in ensuring the socio-cultural reproducibility of the societies in which we live. The quality of education depends on many determinants and components, but undoubtedly the most important among them is the quality of the initial preparation. The importance of teacher education for the quality of teaching and the learning success of students has increased significantly in recent decades. Education, and with it the question of good teachers and their professional education, is also given high priority in Sustainable Development Goals.

The infusion of multicultural, global and comparative education content into teacher education programs and increasing cross-border mobility of students have enabled the process of internationalizing the curriculum, study abroad programs, faculty and student mobility, international research partnerships, global rankings, and intercultural extracurricular programming.

To capture these developments, this book is planned to present the experiences of different countries of different continents to understand in a holistic way of the emergence of Teacher Education in Global Era to facilitate the scholars and policymakers to gain insights on global trends in teacher education.

The authors have presented in detail the nature of teacher education programs in their respective countries. Summarizing these models of teacher preparation programs, one can understand that each model is unique and reflects the needs and priorities of the respective countries.

Two things make Bhutan a fascinating country to study—its unique governmental philosophy known as Gross National Happiness (GNH) and its education system that is a relatively recent phenomenon starting in the 1950s—transiting from a monastic system to a modern secular Western-style education system. The introduction of modern education opened a new chapter in the history of learning and scholarship in Bhutan. Its development took place in leaps and bounds affecting all sections of the society, bringing about unprecedented changes in social, cultural, political and economic structures in Bhutan and in particular revolutionized the country's education system. Additionally, the national goal of self-reliance necessitated the need to nurture and support teacher training as education is a key to

development. The chapter explores teacher education in Bhutan and discusses the development of teacher education programs in the country, and the challenges and opportunities of internationalization of the programs offered.

Swedish model describes the pathways of the Swedish development of teacher education through major reform periods leading to the current era of globalization. Since teacher education in Sweden is a publically driven system, the authors presented a brief overview of the institutional context and a short overview of the Swedish school system. The paper also highlighted the impact of education reforms on the teaching profession and teacher education and concluded by deliberating on the professionalized teaching profession in the wake of globalization, migration and an increased need of multidimensional integration efforts.

Germany and Turkey perspectives of teacher education were compared. This work discusses two significant global trends—migration and digitalization—with regard to teacher education, as well as the trend toward the professionalization of the teaching profession. Both countries have a long history of institutionalized teacher education that can be traced back to the nineteenth century. Furthermore, teacher education in both countries is currently affected by the global trends of migration and digitalization as well as by current reform efforts to further increase the professionalization within teacher education. Although both countries have a long history of teacher education and face similar challenges, the countries differ in cultural, economic or political aspects, so that a comparison of the two cases highlights how the trends and associated challenges are dealt with specifically. The results of the comparative analysis have provided the prospective information on how to deal with challenges in the field of digitalization and migration in professional teacher education for other countries. Besides, the internationalization of teacher education and research on teacher education, the global exchange of ideas and best-practice solutions, and the comparison of education and teacher education systems (considering the different historical, social and cultural backgrounds) may be a further perspective to improve teacher education in all areas instead of focusing just on accountability and harmonization of teacher education systems.

This chapter presents the aspects of challenges for teacher education in an era of globalization and transformation in Germany and Turkey with respect to the global trends through three sections. The first section describes the history and the current structure of each teacher education system. The second section outlines current trends and challenges within teacher education programs in both countries: firstly, how migration influences teacher education; secondly, how teacher education is affected by digitalization; and thirdly, how professionalization in teacher education is being fostered. The third section discusses the similarities and differences with regard to the previous outlined trends between Germany and Turkey and gives a cautious and discursive projection for what might develop in the next years.

The chapter on the Malaysian teacher preparation highlights the entry qualification into pre-service, types of teacher training institutions, challenges in teacher education, the rise of professional learning communities and teacher leadership for the twenty-first century in Malaysia.

The Bulgarian teacher education program based on the national representative survey commissioned by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Bulgaria, identified the actual state and crucial issues in key areas, such as teacher preparation and their continuous professional development from the perspective of key stakeholders—the teachers themselves, educational managers, inspectors from regional inspectorates, university lecturers, students preparing to become teachers and active citizens. Another main focus of the research was to propose working measures to tackle socially negative trends in the teaching profession within Bulgarian context, such as overcoming the ‘aging’ of the profession, young people refusal to choose the teaching profession as their professional carrier, outflow or premature leaving of highly qualified teachers from the school education system. The analysis of the collected data confirms a stable and negative trend regarding the status of Bulgarian teachers. It is clearly established that this status, especially in its two main aspects—social prestige and material well-being, is extremely low. Another finding from the study concerns the preparation of teachers from middle and upper secondary school grades. It turns out that it is insufficient, in terms of both volume and content, which in itself is an obstacle in the process of providing quality education to adolescents. These and other similar results are indicative of the strongly diminished confidence in the teaching profession in Bulgarian society and at present.

The African model of teacher education realizes the importance of globalization. The global socio-economic landscape today is characterized by high-technology investments, high-technology industries, more highly skilled labor and association productivity gains (Organization for the Economic Co-operation and Development). This trend, termed as the ‘knowledge economy,’ has led to the emergence of new economic, social, political and cultural challenges. Presently, there is a push for economies around the globe to fulfill the Sustainable Development Goals. Consequently, there is protracted pressure on teacher education institutions to produce individuals with the appropriate competencies to effectively function in this constantly changing complex environment.

In Bangladesh, the importance of education as the best weapon for both individual and collective developments has never been more realized than today. The dawn of independence after a long struggle and frustration has given the people of this country an opportunity and a great responsibility for evolving a new order in society. Quite in conformity with the belief, the demand for more and better education is increasing. In response to the demand, long-term and short-term plans are being drawn up for reorganizing the different stages of education on a national basis. In every country, attention is focused more on teachers than on anything else for the success of any educational plan. The training of teachers and teacher education, as important contributory factors toward the qualitative progress of education, are included as an integral part of all educational schemes.

Of recent times in Bangladesh, a new interest in education has been generated as a reaction to the implementation of recommendations of the Commission on National Education appointed by the government. The meaning and the scope of education have widened enough to include the schooling of all children including those who are impaired. Further, the present tendency is to shape education

according to age, ability and aptitude and to provide the basis for the new type of education in conformity with the genius and needs of the people of the twenty-first century. The study of education as a social institution which is a vital part of general education has increasingly been recognized. This has marked a turn in the academic history of the country. However, effective implementation of the teacher education curriculum requires an effective effort of suitably qualified teachers.

In the chapter on the teacher education in India, the author highlighted that the quality of teachers is an important element influencing learning outcomes, employment possibilities and overall development of the graduates of higher education. Traditionally, teaching and learning processes revolved around the course contents, textbooks, teachers and lectures. Moreover, teaching, research and extension were linked to one's discipline and delivering them was the primary work of a teacher in higher education. In the present context of technology-mediated, fast-evolving lifelong learning contexts, teaching and learning processes demand a transformation from a classroom-based institutional-level activity to a globally connected interactive process. The changes influenced the teachers to evolve to train skills and competences to the learners, which is essentially much more than just content delivery. Today, a teacher needs to be constrained as a professional, in order to represent multiple roles more effectively. In contemporary higher education, a teacher is assigned with many tasks, including communication, interactions, dealing with varied levels of students and handling individual and collective students' queries, manage discussions, develop competences and so on to achieve desired learning outcomes. The analysis of Panda (2018) in the India Higher Education Report on Teaching, Learning and Quality shows that 'the qualities of good teachers include deep content knowledge, good pedagogic skills and capacity to manage classroom situations.' 'Further, he/she is responsible for the evaluation of learning, not mere memorizing capacities of the students, as well as engages in formative and summative evaluations. These require a combination of competence in assessment and evaluation and a strong ethical commitment to undertake the tasks without prejudices'. It is perhaps not difficult to understand that to achieve these qualities and constantly improving them require training and/or different forms of teacher professional development.

The chapter on metagogy in teacher education delineates strategies, methods and techniques for instruction in the context of metagogy, a fundamental **conceptual framework** that guides adult education professionals to select appropriate practices for facilitating learning.

Within the clarification of the varying roles and tasks in the education, training and development processes of adults, the authors provide nuts-and-bolts descriptions of fundamental adult education practices. These include principles of andragogy and universal components of Instructional System Design models, prevalent in adult education practices in the USA. Expanding on these with the values and tenets of metagogy, the chapter aids practitioners in analyzing needs, designing programs and curricula, developing and implementing instruction and evaluating outcomes. A teaching-learning spectrum illustrates the proper use of learning technologies, guiding the educator in developing and improving their teaching to

achieve intended outcomes. A metagogy praxis offers a theoretical grounding and specific instructional practices. It deliberately and strategically combines fundamental design elements with instructional techniques and roles that best fit a particular need of an adult learner at a particular moment in their learning process. The chapter is sprinkled with illustrative vignettes to make the tenets accessible and lead to easy implementation of suggested practices.

The main purpose of this book is to highlight teacher education programs in some of the countries and highlight their teacher education policy and practice, challenges and future directions. There are nineteen papers in this book, and they highlight the country-specific teacher preparation models. This book covers the four continents that include Europe, Asia, Africa and USA and presents the detailed teacher education program inputs and an academic critique that helps the readers to ponder upon the critical challenges for quality improvement in teacher education.

It has been a great learning for me to be the editor of this book and working with teacher educators across the globe. I am sure that readers enjoy reading the chapters and understand the multicultural perspectives in global teacher education.

Vadodara, India

Prof. Karanam Pushpanadham

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Prof. Karanam Pushpanadham, Ph.D.

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Teacher Education: Global Practices

Teacher Education in Global Era: Retrospect and Prospect



Karanam Pushpanadham

Quality education has been the concern world over, and concerted efforts have been made to improve the quality of education at all levels as education is the source of development. Traditionally, education as an active change agent has been more pre-occupied and focused with the needs and pressures of the present rather than the anticipations of the future. But a new context is unfolding, in which the future has to be more deliberately thought of as ever before as the changes of the current century are rapid and unimagined due to various factors. Therefore, education must be visionary and future-oriented, in the face of disruptive scientific and technological innovations and changes, unprecedented socio-economic challenges and opportunities, surprising socio-political reforms, globalization and amazing cultural reawakening. In rethinking education to cope with rapid changes at the threshold of the twenty-first century, innovation, technology and research are indispensable tools of education. Failure to innovate in education means and repeating yesterday's educational programs and strategies tomorrow will further jeopardize education's reputation to development efforts. Educational innovations are imperative and would no doubt be effective if they are research-based and imbued with modern technology with human values and ethics.

Teachers' role is crucial in the process of education. The success of educational reforms has been decisively dependent on the 'will-to-change' as much as the quality of the teachers. No education system can rise too far beyond the level of the teachers. Educational reforms which have its roots in the commitment of the teaching force have not only prospect of success but also of constancy. Such change, like any human-based change, may appear to be slow, but its rate of obsolescence is also very low, compared to machine-based changes. Techno-pedagogic skills, Human-technology interface and transdisciplinary orientation are very important to address the future challenges of the human race.

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It is also important to realize that the role of education is not to follow and react to the emerging social trends but to be the lead and play a major role in social reconstruction for future development. The future is not some place where we will go; it is the one that we are creating. Creation implies a vision and choice. It redefines knowledge; no longer is it sufficient that to know is only to distil from the past; to know is also to question and to exercise choice and discernment about the future and to act accordingly. A new vision for education and its practices has been in the intellectual debate in recent times. Teachers are the torch bearers of education, and therefore, quality teacher education is the key for global development. The quality and standard of an educational system largely depends on the quality, characteristics and commitment of the teachers to their profession. The Education Commission 1964–1966 observes ‘For the qualitative improvement of education a sound program of professional education of teachers is essential. It is essential for developing the teacher education system with due importance to best teacher professional practices.’

Teachers are the key for any education system. Teacher quality is therefore crucial and has been globally accepted to be significantly associated with the quality of education in general and students’ learning outcomes in particular (Jason, 2010). In order for teachers to influence the learners, they must successfully demonstrate appropriate behaviors. Those behaviors can be observed, adjusted, replicated, internalized and applied appropriately to learners of all levels and styles. Teacher modeling is necessary in the teaching and learning process. According to Kauchak and Eggen (2005), modeling means exhibiting behavior that is observed and imitated by others. Effective modeling of desired practices is at the heart of successful teacher education programs at pre-service and in-service levels. Teachers are the powerful and meaningful role models for students at all levels, and the way they act influences both learning and motivation (Bandura, 1989). Delors report (1996), UNESCO report on Teacher and Educational Quality: Monitoring Global Needs for 2015 (2006) and the European Commission Report ‘Communication on Teacher Education’ (2007) are all observed that teacher quality is significantly and positively correlated with pupil attainment, and it is the most important within school aspect that explains students’ performance.

The UNESCO Report of the International Commission on Education in the twenty-first century envisages that the rethinking of teacher education is necessary in order to bring future teachers with human and intellectual qualities that will facilitate a fresh approach to teaching (UNESCO, 1999).

Teacher education across the world has undergone a sea change amidst a range of developments associated with globalization. Global transformations, which are economic, political and cultural, include the growing global mobility of people; the impact of rapid technological change such as Internet access and the use of social media; related increasing knowledge and information flows; as well as rapid economic changes that necessitate the development of skilled, flexible and mobile labor forces worldwide. Teacher education cannot be understood without consideration of the broader processes associated with globalization. These global transformations have influenced and, to some degree, driven a range of international initiatives implemented in teacher education including the internationalization of curricula; the

growth of international service, field and internship experiences; cross-border initiatives and the increasing use of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education.

The infusion of multicultural, global and comparative education content and discourse into teacher education programs and increasing cross-border mobility of teacher education students have provided as examples of how teacher education programs are internationalized across the globe. As a result, an increasing attention has been paid to a wide range of strategies that enable teacher education institutions to develop and strengthen relations across national borders. These include the recruitment of international students, internationalizing the curriculum, study abroad and other international experiential experiences, faculty and student mobility, international research partnerships, global rankings, and international and intercultural extracurricular programming.

Traditions of Teacher Education

It is very interesting to review the developments in teacher education. A wide range of literature is available and the synoptic view of various traditions of teacher education include as follows.

The Knowledge Tradition

This reform focused on the importance of disciplinary knowledge for pre-service teacher education that has been gained through a classical liberal arts education combined with an apprenticeship in schools. Here, the mastery of subject matter is considered to be the most important goals in educating teachers (Zeichner & Liston, 1990). Knowledge tradition reforms advocates that teachers need to be educated not only in their subject matter at specific institutions, but also learn how to teach in the presence of more experienced teachers.

The Social Context Tradition

This tradition believed in the concept that classroom teaching provides the basis of building repertoire and teacher's education curriculum. The important task from this point of view is to enhance teacher's capabilities to exercise judgments about the use of teaching skills in a specific social setting. The success of a teacher lies in the understanding of classroom context and applies appropriate methods to engage the learners in the teaching and learning process.

The Tradition of Progressivism

Progressivism emphasizes the progressive nature of learners and believes that it is the base for determining the content and methodology. Teachers are described in the twenty-first century as a facilitator that implies that teachers are the enablers for students learning, as an Edutainer that implies that teachers continuously inspire and motivate learners by creating joyful learning experiences and as a lifelong learner that implies that the necessity of teachers' continuous professional development and upgradation of knowledge and skills in the area concerned.

The Social Transformation Tradition

Social transformation tradition highlights the social responsibility of schooling and teacher education for a more equal, happy and healthy society. This tradition believes that novice teachers be exposed to social order, issues and challenges that are related with education. Teacher is a social reformer, and he empowers learners to understand their rights and responsibilities. Teachers as a change agent are highly believed in and therefore teacher education needs to go beyond class rooms and work closely with the social fabric of the society.

The above traditions help us to conceptualize teacher education and understand that there are different perspectives of teacher education and institutions adapt the best possible approach looking into their socio-cultural context. If we understand the teacher education systems in different countries from these perspectives, we come across the teacher education reforms centered on the knowledge base of teachers, and similarities can be observed in teacher education programs across various countries.

Perspectives of Teaching: Didactic and Evocative

The review of the literature on teacher education provides two broad perspectives of teaching—didactic and evocative (Axelrod, 1973). Didactic teaching believes in passing on traditional knowledge. Teachers use teaching methods/lecture to inculcate traditional knowledge about teaching and demonstrate a model action by which students learn. In this context, learning implies the replication of what has been taught or demonstrated. Seeing teaching as a process of passing on knowledge has persisted. The oldest form of teacher education is the observation and emulation of a master. Plato learned to teach by sitting at the feet of Socrates. Aristotle, in turn, learned from Plato. Teaching was initially highly didactic. Teachers taught both the processes of learning to read and the morals attendant to a proper life through moralistic texts.

The evocative type of teaching advocates the intellectual dialogue and questioning in the classrooms for in-depth understanding of the phenomena. The teacher's role is to ignite, encourage questions, elicit conclusions and formulate hypotheses from the students in the classrooms by posing questions.

Didactic and evocative teaching perspectives are the two modes of teaching among other related ways in which teachers teach and learners learn. Teacher education must provide opportunities for prospective and practicing teachers to master a range of teaching modes that enable the learners to enjoy the learning process..

Teacher education programs across the world have very specific characteristics. Most of the teacher education programs generally tend toward one of several theories—behaviorist or competency-based, humanistic and developmental. The most promising models of teacher education are the competency-based teacher education and performance-based teacher education programs. These models have isolated the discrete tasks of teaching and developed protocols for training teachers to master the tasks, and produced tests to assess whether or not the teachers could perform the tasks. As a result, several teacher competencies were identified and efforts were made to train them in the teacher education programs systematically.

The roles of teachers are changing so are expectations about them. The professional context of teachers has drastically changed and is dynamic. Teachers are teaching in increasingly multicultural classrooms, students with special needs, use ICT for teaching effectively, engage in evaluation and accountability processes, and involve parents in schools (OECD, 2009). Teachers need to help students acquire not only 'the skills that are easiest to teach and easiest to test' but more importantly, ways of thinking (creativity, critical thinking, problem-solving, decision making and learning); ways of working (communication and collaboration); tools for working (including information and communications technologies); and skills around citizenship, life and career and personal and social responsibility for success in modern democracies (OECD, 2011).

Professional learning is a continuum starting in initial teacher education, carrying on through the induction phase and continuing throughout the rest of the career. Two basic requirements are fundamental in the preparation of quality teachers: the capacity to systematically assess one's own knowledge base and professional practices, on the basis of a wide range of criteria coming from practice, theory and research; and critical and responsive attitudes to innovation and professional improvement (Hagger & McIntyre, 2006). The professional standards of teachers are important to focus on the specific competencies with regard to the assumptions about learning and the purpose of education. Listing out the competencies of teachers, the following are the task responsibility areas of teachers:

- **Information:** Teachers need information regarding the various aspects of human life and content knowledge to share with the diversified learning groups.
- **Guidance:** Teachers are constantly engaged in guiding and mentoring the learners.
- **Modeling:** Teachers display ideals of professional quality in terms of thinking, doing and being.

- **Management:** Teachers as managers need to handle variety of tasks within the classroom context and school. Managerial competencies are necessary for the teachers to perform effectively.
- **Monitoring:** Teachers need to be familiar with the developments taking place in academic domain and continuously monitor self, students and the institution where works.

Teacher education programs must provide adequate inputs on the above task responsibility areas so that the novice teachers are well trained and will be able to perform the tasks effectively and efficiently.

Global Teacher Education: Emerging Models

Teacher education programs over the years have undergone developmental changes due to technological, economic and cultural forces. More fundamentally, the access to digital information and network technologies prompted the need for new competencies for teachers.

- Pedagogical content knowledge is essential for the teachers for effective practice in diverse, multicultural, inclusive learning environments as it directly influence students learning (Bierema & Hill, 2005). Techno-pedagogic skills and even the integration of content, techno-pedagogic skills became essential for teachers to perform their duties effectively in the classrooms. Preparing students for their complex and increasingly technological futures were probably never thought of in any teaching methodology or policy.
- Adaptive expertise is essential for teachers as they need to adapt their teaching plans and practices to meet the dynamic and diversified students learning needs (Hatano & Oura, 2003; Vogt & Rogalla, 2009).
- Classroom negotiation skills are very important for teachers as teachers need to mediate with the stake holders regarding the content, methodologies and values and choices. Whatever their level of competences, teachers' actions and effectiveness are bounded by the social, cultural, institutional opportunities and constraints of their professional settings (Putnam & Borko, 2000).
- Research and a practice of inquiry are necessary for teachers to generate new body of knowledge and continuously work for the pursuit of knowledge (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, 2009; Hagger & McIntyre, 2006).
- Reflective, interpersonal skills for learning in professional communities are important, together with research skills. Teachers need to have critical, evidence-based attitudes to their own practices, grounded in input from different sources—students' outcomes, theory and professional dialogue—in order to engage in innovation (Wenger & Lave, 1991; McLaughlin, 2001; Wenger, 1998).

With yesterday's knowledge, tomorrows' problems can never be addressed. Students in the twenty-first century are well equipped with the Internet instant messaging, video games,

video conferencing and networking. Therefore, key questions need to be addressed by the teacher's education program such as how teachers learn and refine knowledge, skills and proficiency to teach such a digital literate audience.

Cross-cultural and multicultural social settings are increasing day by day with the international mobility and employability. There is a need to develop a comprehensive framework for global teacher education program in which the skills and competencies for twenty-first-century educators are focused.

Discussion

Teacher education is at cross-roads and emerging on an evolutionary path to meet the ever changing needs of the society. Teacher education in this knowledge-based society should emphasize on reconstructing the professionalism of a teacher and stress on humane teacher.

A new teacher education system must evolve by redefining itself in the spectrum of modern age. Getting teachers prepared and getting prospective teachers with mentors into real classroom settings are two important variables in this teacher's education model. There is research that supports such a teacher's teaching model. If anyone asks teachers what is most important to them in developing competencies to teach, the first is that they are acquiring competencies by teaching and secondly, that they are working with other experienced teachers to bring it to a newer level. This indicates that a field-based teacher's education model with mentor and teachers needs to be advocated in the future days.

To prepare more teachers to teach in underdeveloped and developed regions, a professional collaboration between universities and schools should be created. The seasoned veterans should be groomed and hired and appropriately compensated to bear this great responsibility. It will not only serve the quality school teaching for the present generation in those communities but also serve as an effective means to help and induct new-generation qualified teachers. The best teaching hubs and schools are mostly located in urban areas, serving youngsters and adults from that community only. Teacher education programs should take care and make ample opportunities to implement such models in the interior parts of the country. That would propagate quality education among the next generation by the expert educationists and teaching professionals in the absolute grooming of the next-generation teachers.

Teaching is a complex activity, and it requires complex and dynamic combinations of knowledge, skills, understanding, values and attitudes. The acquisition of these is a career-long endeavor that requires a reflexive, purposeful practice and high-quality feedback. Effectiveness of the teacher education system largely relies on a shared understanding of the competences that teachers need to deploy in different levels of schooling, or at different stages in their career. Such a profile or professional standard framework of teacher competences helps to improve the effectiveness teachers who can create joyful learning organizations.

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Teacher Education in Germany: A Holistic View of Structure, Curriculum, Development and Challenges



Martin Drahmman

The institutionalized teacher education system in Germany has a long history that can be traced back to the nineteenth century (Terhart, 2016). Even though some aspects remain almost unchanged, for example, a marked difference between the teacher education programs for primary and secondary school systems, the quality of the system has continuously improved over time (Meissner, Bohl, & Beck, 2017) and has undergone various transformations (Terhart, 2016). Over the last two decades, there have been many developments affecting the teacher education system in Germany. One development is the adoption of the Bologna Process that reshaped the higher education system in Europe (Döbrich & Frommelt, 2004). Another change is the result of large-scale assessment studies like the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) (Blömeke, Kaiser, Hsieh, & Schmidt, 2014) or the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) (Frederking, Heller, & Scheunpflug, 2005). A third development is the inclusion of implicit or explicit accountability mechanisms in the education system (Blömeke, 2007; Huber, Gördel, Kilic, & Tulowitzki, 2016).

Since 2014, the federal government and the states (*Länder*) of Germany have additionally supported teacher education through the program 'Qualitätsoffensive Lehrerbildung' (Teacher Training Quality Campaign). Through this program, they plan to spend 500 million euros over the next ten years to improve teacher education (Meissner et al., 2017; Prenzel & Gräsel, 2015). The major areas of this support program are: the improvement of teacher training programs at universities, improving the link between theory and practice, enhancing the mobility of pre-service teachers (nationally and internationally) and placing a focus on new topics like digitalization, heterogeneity, and inclusion. Furthermore, the program increases financial aid to support research on teachers and teacher education (Meissner et al., 2017; Muders

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K. Pushpanadham (ed.), *Teacher Education in the Global Era*,
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& Weishaupt, 2013) that evaluates, for example, the impact teacher education has on improving the quality of the educational system and the performance of pupils.

Besides the ongoing developments in the structure, research and practice of teacher education, there are some additional challenges. A study in 2017 enumerated several of these challenges in Germany: (1) dealing with recent topics like migration and multilingualism, inclusion, dealing and working with multiprofessional teams, digitalization, leadership and teacher ethos; (2) issues in the structure of teacher education like improving the link between the different phases of teacher education and the support of international mobility in teacher education; (3) research on teacher and teacher education, for example, on effectiveness of the reforms, research on teacher educators and the continuous professional development of teachers (Drahmann & Huber, 2017).

In summary, the teacher education system in Germany appears to be a permanent work in progress (Terhart, 2014), especially the preparation of pre-service teachers at universities and the need for continuous professional development—as teachers must adapt to the constantly changing conditions around them—including further aspects like the changes in society due to globalization or digitalization.

This article presents a general overview of teacher education in Germany through four chapters. The first chapter describes the history and the current structure of the teacher education system. The chapter also investigates the curriculum framework, but in a more holistic view because of the very differentiated structure and content organization of teacher education in Germany. The second chapter outlines recent developments within teacher education programs during the last two decades and emphasizes impacts of those developments on teacher education. The third chapter presents recent trends and challenges in Germany's teacher training program, based on current teacher education support programs as well as research studies. The fourth chapter discusses and summarizes the given information about teacher education in Germany and gives a cautious projection for what might develop in the next years.

History, Structure and the Curriculum Framework of Teacher Education

Germany's institutionalized teacher education system can be traced back to the nineteenth century (Craig, 2016; Kemnitz, 2014; Terhart, 2016). To understand the structure, development and curriculum framework of current teacher training programs, a short review of the history is helpful. Some of the present structures of the teacher education system and even the composition of the curriculum framework have their roots in this history. Therefore, this chapter is divided into three sections: (1) the history of teacher education, (2) the current structure of pre- and in-service teacher training programs and (3) the holistic curriculum framework of pre-service teacher training programs at universities.

The History of Teacher Education

The development of professional teacher education programs in Germany is connected to the establishment of a nationwide school system at the beginning of the nineteenth century (Kemnitz, 2014). Although the history of the teaching profession can be dated back to the ancient world (Terhart, 2016), the following section focuses on the history of the teaching profession, particularly in Germany, since the nineteenth century. The institutional structures that were implemented during this time are still partially reflected in the present teacher education system, for example, the difference between lower (elementary school and lower secondary) and higher (high school/upper secondary) teaching. The focus of the further remarks in this section is on a general overview of the historical developments, although the structures and developments during national socialism (NS) and in the German Democratic Republic (GDR) will not be discussed [for further information; see Klewitz, 1987 (NS) or Kemnitz, 2004 (GDR)].

With the implementation of state compulsory education and the establishment of an institutionalized school system that subdivided students into elementary school and high school (graduation from high school was the only way to enter university at that time), teacher education became institutionalized as well (Kemnitz, 2014). The division between a teaching post for elementary school (so-called lower teaching post) and grammar/high school (so-called higher teaching post) has its roots here and is still partially reflected in the current teacher education system (see Section “[The Current Structure of Pre- and In-service Teacher Programs](#)”).

Elementary school teachers In the nineteenth century, the education of elementary school teachers underwent its first push toward institutionalization. The teachers were trained using a seminarian training concept for their teaching activities. They were prepared for the profession at specialized training centers—so-called pedagogical seminars—by experienced teachers. These preparatory courses lasted two to three years and were followed by a position as a teacher (Terhart, 2016). The contents of the courses were very teaching experience-oriented and strongly influenced mostly by Christian denominations, whose roots can be dated back to previous developments in German history (Hellekamps & Musolff, 2014). The expansion of elementary school and the enforcement of compulsory education in the countryside were achievements that positively affected elementary teacher training. From the beginning of the twentieth century, high school graduation was required to enter elementary school teacher education, and the training took place at educational academies, which were more academic than the previous pedagogical seminars, but less than universities (Kemnitz, 2014; Terhart, 2016).

After the Second World War, the division between lower and higher teaching posts remained, but with the educational reform and expansion of the 1960s (in West Germany), there was a growing appreciation of elementary school teacher education and an increasing academization of their education. During the 1980s, the universities of education (former educational academies) were integrated into

the regular universities (Baden-Württemberg being the exception even today with teacher education at universities of education for elementary and lower secondary teachers and regular universities for upper secondary teachers). Thus, the education of all teaching posts is now completed entirely at the universities. An increasing orientation toward the sciences has been a significant developmental step since the institutionalization of elementary school teachers' educations that is also reflected in the development of the institutions for elementary teacher training from pedagogical seminars to universities (Terhart, 2016).

High school teachers With the enforcement of the *Abitur* (general higher education entrance qualification) for admission to a university (the only possibility in Prussia beginning in 1834), a high school teacher became the central figure for the qualification and certification of students who wanted to study at a university. For this task even today, the high school teacher is licensed after completing a degree course at a university and taking state professional examinations (Mandel, 1989). The institutionalized training of high school teachers always took place at the university level and was highly specialized; there were hardly any practically-oriented parts and employment was accessed only through certification by the state. At the end of the nineteenth century, a practical, two-year training phase was added to schools (preparatory service), which followed directly after graduation and had to be completed with another state examination (Kemnitz, 2014; Terhart, 2016).

In higher education at the end of the nineteenth century, the concept of a two-subject teacher with two training phases (university and preparatory service) and two state examinations was established (Terhart, 2016). This was clearly different from the other teaching posts (elementary/lower secondary) in other ways, as well, including training, reputation, pay and self-image. Only over the course of time, and especially after the Second World War, did the training of high school teachers undergo increasing pedagogical influence, and in the 1960s and 1970s the highly specialized study of secondary school teachers was extended to include practical training and pedagogical elements. After the integration of teacher training colleges (colleges of education) into the universities, courses are partially taken by all teacher training students together (Terhart, 2016).

Summary of historical context Overall, the education of elementary teachers has experienced an increasing alignment with that of high school teachers over the last few centuries. Elementary school teacher education has been increasingly academic, and high school teacher education is slightly more pedagogical. The separation of the different teacher training institutions has been repealed, and instruction takes place exclusively at universities, concluding with a preparatory service at a school. In view of the current developments, it can be assumed that the subdivisions and different requirements in teacher education programs will be further aligned in the future. Already in many *Länder*, the duration of university education for all teacher levels has been adjusted to ten semesters (six semesters for bachelor's degrees and four semesters for master's degrees). Also, the preparatory service at schools covers usually 1.5 years for all teaching posts (Walm & Wittek, 2014; see Section "The

Current Structure of Pre- and In-service Teacher Programs”), and in some *Länder*, teachers (more specific some teacher unions) are actively seeking adjustments to their salaries to match their counterparts in different posts (Drahmann & Huber, 2017; Terhart, 2016).

Finally, it should be noted that whereas from today’s perspective, the history and development of the teaching profession can be seen as precursors, they are sometimes also shortcomings. However, to consider these developments only as precursors to the current situation would be short-sighted, unhistorical and ultimately naïve. The various stages of development must each be interpreted and assessed within its historical context (Terhart, 2016).

The Current Structure of Pre- and In-service Teacher Programs

The current structure of teacher training in Germany can be characterized on the one hand by a basic two-phase model: first, higher education (generally) at universities but also at colleges of education, institutes of technology or colleges of art and music; and afterwards, practical teacher training (preparatory service). On the other hand, there is a high degree of difference in the content and structural organization of the individual phases that can be traced back to the federal system of the Federal Republic of Germany (Blömeke, 2014; Craig, 2016; Eckhardt, 2017; Walm & Wittek, 2014). In Germany, each state (*Länder*) is responsible for its own education system and consequently for teacher education. However, the *Länder* discuss education issues at the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* in the Federal Republic of Germany and pass joint resolutions for all *Länder* to follow (Tulowitzki, Krüger, & Roller, 2018). This section outlines teacher training in Germany on the basis of the two phases (for further detail information: Eckhardt, 2017), even though great differences may arise at the different teacher training institutions regarding the content and organization of each training program (Walm & Wittek, 2014).

First phase—higher education In all of the *Länder* in Germany, the general higher education entrance qualification is required to access teacher training studies. In some *Länder*, and at the individual teacher training institutions, there are additional criteria, such as subject-specific performance tests (e.g., for sport or music), practical training or participation in a selection interview. Teacher training has been converted to bachelor’s and master’s degree studies in most of the *Länder* following the Bologna Process. The scope of teacher education is usually ten semesters (six semesters of undergraduate and four semesters of master’s degree), although in a few *Länder* the standard period of study may vary between 7 and 10 semesters. In general, the following six types of teacher training can be studied, which correspond to the levels and types of schools in the different *Länder* (Eckhardt, 2017, p. 186):

1. Teaching careers at primary level (*Grundschule*),
2. General teaching careers at primary level and all or individual lower secondary-level school types,
3. Teaching careers at all or individual secondary-level school types,
4. Teaching careers for general education subjects at upper secondary level or for the *Gymnasium*,
5. Teaching careers in vocational subjects at upper secondary level or at vocational schools,
6. Teaching careers in special education.

Second phase—preparatory service After graduating higher teacher training education and taking the First State Examination, a school-practical preparatory service is to be completed (Eckhardt, 2017). The preparatory service usually covers 1.5 years, but it can also be shortened to 12 months or in some *Länder* increased up to two years (Walm & Wittek, 2014). During this time, prospective teachers attend introductory seminars and have advanced training at seminar events at specialized teacher training institutions for the preparatory service and also attend sit in on lessons, teach under observation and teach independently at their training school (Eckhardt, 2017). The phases in the preparatory service are similar in the individual states: (1) acclimatization phase, (2) main phase (especially teaches under observation and teaches independently at the training school) and (3) examination phase. The preparatory service is completed by taking the Second State Examination and entitles the individual to teach independently at schools (Eckhardt, 2017; Walm & Wittek, 2014).

In a holistic view on teacher education, there is a third phase to be added: continuing teacher education. The third phase is subdivided into the career-entry phase (first to third year of employment) and the continuous professional training phase. The third phase is minimally structured compared to the first two phases. Only two *Länder* have compulsory training for teachers at work. A few have voluntary training, and many *Länder* have hardly any special training for young professionals (Walm & Wittek, 2014). There are different regulations for continuing education in the individual *Länder*. For example, in some *Länder*, teachers are required to go to continuous teacher training programs 30 h or three days each year. Providers of continuous teacher training programs are very diverse: Some are offered by individual institutions by the *Länder*, but foundations, church-related institutions, and other social actors like trade unions can offer continuous teacher training programs as well. These programs may take place at a seminar location or directly at the individual school (internal school continuous teacher training programs) (Drahmann & Huber, 2017; Eckhardt, 2017; Walm & Wittek, 2014).

Overall, the structure of teacher education in Germany is very heterogeneous, although in all *Länder* in Germany teacher training is divided into two similar phases. It is in principle an open teacher education system that provides the possibility to choose between the different higher education institutions for teacher training or to go to a different state (*Länder*) for preparatory service afterward. This mobility is hampered not only by the sometimes difficult-to-survey structure of teacher training

programs, but also by the different curricular structure of the first phase depending on which higher education institution a pre-service teacher attends.

The Holistic Curriculum Framework of Pre-service Teacher Programs

In addition to the structure, the content of teacher training programs is also important. The curriculum determines which content must be dealt with within the first phase and which within the second phase. This structure is determined by the aspiration to prepare prospective teachers as best as possible for their future profession. Although the content of teacher education is the responsibility of the *Länder* and is further developed by the individual higher teacher training institutions, the curriculum during the first phase basically covers four areas: (1) subject/subject area, (2) subject-related didactics, (3) educational sciences and (4) practical training periods in schools (Walm & Wittek, 2014). Furthermore, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* in the Federal Republic of Germany introduced in 2004 general competence standards the subject-related and educational sciences area for all pre-service teachers, which have to be achieved at the end of the first and second phase of the teacher training programs (Kultusministerkonferenz, 2014; Tulowitzki, 2015). In particular, subject area dominates in the first phase of teacher education at universities. Nevertheless, there are some major differences between the sixteen *Länder* and between the individual types of teaching careers (see Section “[The Current Structure of Pre- and In-service Teacher Programs](#)”) in regard to the percentage distribution of total studies at universities (see Tables 1 and 2). For example, it becomes clear when making comparisons between teaching careers at the primary level (*Grundschule*) and teaching careers for the general education subjects at upper secondary level (*Gymnasium*) that the individual study areas as well as the individual states (Bremen, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern and North Rhine-Westphalia) differ considerably.

Table 1 Curricular distribution for teaching careers at primary level, or *Grundschule*

	Subject	Subject-related didactics	Educational science	Practical instruction	Examination
HB	192 ECTS-Points		43 ECTS-Points	27 ECTS-Points	21 ECTS-Points
	64%		20%	9%	7%
MV	150 ECTS-Points		90 ECTS-Points	15 ECTS-Points	15 ECTS-Points
	55%		33%	6%	6%
NW	177 ECTS-Points		70 ECTS-Points	25 ECTS-Points	28 ECTS-Points
	59%		23.3%	8.3%	9.3%

Note HB Bremen; MV Mecklenburg-Vorpommern; NW North Rhine-Westphalia; ECTS European Credit Transfer System (Walm & Wittek, 2014)

Table 2 Curricular distribution for teaching careers for the general education subjects at upper secondary level or for the *Gymnasium*

	Subject	Subject-related didactics	Educational science	Practical instruction	Examination
HHB	192 ECTS-Points		54 ECTS-Points	21 ECTS-Points	33 ECTS-Points
	64%		18%	7%	11%
MMV	210 ECTS-Points	30 ECTS-Points	30 ECTS-Points	15 ECTS-Points	15 ECTS-Points
	70%	10%	10%	5%	5%
NNW	200 ECTS-Points		47 ECTS-Points	25 ECTS-Points	28 ECTS-Points
	67%		16%	8%	9%

Note HB Bremen; MV Mecklenburg-Vorpommern; NW North Rhine-Westphalia; ECTS European Credit Transfer System (Walm & Wittek, 2014)

On the one hand and in general, the percentage of educational science in the curriculum for pre-service teachers attending a teaching career for primary level (20–33%; Table 1) is higher in comparison for pre-service teachers attending upper secondary level (10–18%; Table 2), but also differs between the different *Länder*. On the other hand, the percentage of the subject and subject-related didactics area dominates the curriculum for pre-service teachers attending upper secondary level (64–80%; Table 2).

There is no comparable list and distribution of the curriculum for preparatory service. However, in contrast with teacher training at university (first phase), during the preparatory service, the gaining of school practices and its reflexion is in the foreground, especially through guided and independent teaching. In addition, there are also discussions about educational theory, especially during trainings at seminar events.

Overall, there is barely any research on the curriculum of teacher education in Germany today (Hallitzky et al., 2016; Terhart, Bennewitz, & Rothland, 2014). But with regard to the Standards for Teacher Training (Kultusministerkonferenz, 2014) that define the requirements to be met by teaching staff, there are four areas of competence: (1) teaching, (2) education, (3) assessment and (4) innovation. After graduating, first-phase pre-service teachers should have (1) compatible subject-related knowledge, (2) subject-related cognitive and working methods and (3) compatible subject-related teaching methods, and after graduation from the preparatory service they should additionally be able to (4) plan and structure subject-related learning, (5) deal with complex teaching situations, (6) promote sustainable learning and (7) manage subject-specific performance assessments (Eckhardt, 2017; Tulowitzki, 2015).

Recent Developments in Teacher Education

Teacher education in Germany is subject to constant change and can be characterized as a permanent work in progress (Terhart, 2014). Even though the educational system, and with it teacher education, is ‘very much influenced by their respective national settings, historical developments, as well as cultural notions of good teaching [...], there seems to be a global trend towards accountability and a standard-based educational system’ (Roters, 2015, p. 32f.). After the so-called PISA shock for Germany following what were considered to be mediocre results in the OECD¹ large-scale assessment in the late 1990s, the educational system was transformed to a more output-oriented and standard-based educational system. This has also affected the teacher education system (for further detailed information: Blömeke, 2007). Therefore, the Standards for Teacher Training (see Section “[The Holistic Curriculum Framework of Pre-service Teacher Programmes](#)”) were established by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* in the Federal Republic of Germany in 2004 (Kultusministerkonferenz, 2014). In general, there has been a noticeable increase in the general importance of teacher education in public discourse, politics and science during the last two decades (Drahmann & Huber, 2017). Furthermore, the recent developments and reforms are the ‘farthest reaching change[s] in the German education system in the last 200 years’ (Blömeke, 2007, p. 60). Some of these recent developments will be described in the following four parts (for further and detailed information, see also: Bauer & Prenzel, 2012; Blömeke, 2007).

Founding and Establishing Schools of Education at Universities

In comparison with the medical faculty or the faculty of law, teacher training at universities takes place across different faculties and departments depending on the chosen subjects. Therefore, there are many different contact people and teacher educators who are responsible for pre-service teachers. Because of this complexity and mix of different contact people, in recent years, almost every university that offers teacher training programs has established so-called centers for teacher education or schools of education at the structural level. These centers or schools are usually understood as central, interdisciplinary institutions for coordination and control of teacher training between the different departments at the university (Weyand & Schnabel-Schüle, 2010, p. 9). In other words, these new institutes organize and coordinate tasks between the subject sciences, subject-related didactics and educational sciences in regard to teacher education, and they ensure the systematic and evidence-based development

¹Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.

of teacher education on the content level at the university (Scheunpflug & Drechsel, 2016; Weyand, 2012).

Bachelor's and Master's Degree System in Higher Education

One of the most recent reforms within German teacher training is the conversion of State Examination courses to a consecutive bachelor's and master's system. This change is based on the decision of the European ministers of Education at a conference in Bologna (Bologna Declaration) to unify the degrees of European universities (Blömeke, 2007). Several years have passed, and the structure of teacher training is now modularly-based at all universities. With just a few exceptions, all pre-service teachers now graduate with a bachelor's degree and afterward with a master's degree (equivalent to the former First State Examination) that allows them to attend the preparatory service (Walm & Wittek, 2014; see also Section “[The Current Structure of Pre- and In-service Teacher Programs](#)”). Now that the programs are connected with the modularized bachelor's and master's degree system it should be possible to compare the degrees internationally and to establish accountability mechanisms for teacher education systems as well. The modularized bachelor's and master's degree system will increase the mobility of students, especially in the European Union through programs like ERASMUS. With the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) as a new currency for university courses, student exchanges should be easier as well (Blömeke, 2007, 2009). Overall, ‘the Bologna Process has catalysed structural and curricular transformations [in teacher education]’ (Bauer & Prenzel, 2012, p. 1643).

Increasing Practical Training in Higher Education for Pre-service Teachers

Along with the new bachelor's and master's degree system, the meaning of practical instruction in teacher training programs has been emphasized, especially for pre-service teachers at universities (Weyland, 2012). In comparison to the history of teacher education in Germany, the proportion of practical learning within teacher training has increased dramatically (Terhart, 2016). In the past, the teacher's subject area dominated the content of teacher education at university, especially for high school teachers. Only a few weeks of an internship at a school was necessary. Now, there is a slight shift to include more classroom teaching practice during the training at university. For all teaching career types (see Section “[The Current Structure of Pre- and In-service Teacher Programs](#)”), practical training in school is obligatory during university study (Eckhardt, 2017), even though the structure, content and organization of those practical phases are very diverse (Reinhoffer & Dörr, 2008; Weyland, 2012).

In general, long-term practical study at a school during teacher training has the potential to contribute to the professional development of pre-service teachers, but there are still more questions than clarification and therefore more research is needed (Weyland, 2012).

‘Qualitätsoffensive Lehrerbildung’ (Teacher Training Quality Campaign)

An important funding program is the ‘Teacher Training Quality Campaign’ that was launched by the federal governments (*Länder*) and the state governments in 2014. With a 500-million-euro budget for ten years, it aims to improve teacher education, focusing on teacher training programs in the first phase and the increased visibility of teacher education in higher education institutes and with the public (Meissner et al., 2017; Prenzel & Gräsel, 2015). During the first funding phase (first five years), 59 out of more than 120 universities which offer teacher training will be participating with different projects in the following program areas:

- Profile and increase visibility of teacher education at universities
- Increase practical relevance in teacher education at universities
- Optimize professional counseling and reflection services for pre-service teachers
- Support the national and international mobility of pre-service teachers
- Further development of teacher education in relation to the requirements of heterogeneity and inclusion
- Further development of teacher education in relation to the requirements of digitalization and digital media in teaching.

Along these program areas, the federal government and the *Länder* ‘are hoping to set incentives for teacher training in Germany by assuming that successful projects will have a positive impact on other universities’ (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2017, p. 6). However, so far there is no reliable and empirical data on the success and impact of the program, so more and longitudinal research seems necessary.

Challenges in Teacher Education

In addition to recent developments in teacher education (see Section “[Recent Developments in Teacher Education](#)”), teacher training is also facing new challenges in Germany in the era of globalization. While the future is impossible to predict, there are global (Dugarova & Gülasan, 2017) and national (Zweck et al., 2015) trends that the German educational system—and therefore, the German teacher education system—has to deal with. The global trends based on the 17 Sustainable Development

Goals (SDGs), which were signed in 2015 by the world's governments to achieve following aims like to 'eradicate poverty, improve the living standards and well-being of all people, promote peace and more inclusive societies and reverse the trend of environmental degradation' (Dugarova & Gülasan, 2017, p. 11). Even though these global topics and trends are important for Germany as well, there are also national trends and topics for future German society (Zweck et al., 2015). Based on the work of Zweck et al. (2015) there are 60 social trends in the following three areas: (1) society, culture and quality of life (exemplary trend: digital competency), (2) business (exemplary trend: replacement of currently well-paid jobs through information technologies) and (3) politics and governance (exemplary trend: cultural transformation as a result of immigration). However, there will be developments and challenges in the future and the education system, and so the teacher education system, will have to react to these upcoming trends, as well. For example, there is currently a greater influx of people with a refugee background, and an ongoing secularization and an erosion of traditional values and living concepts.

Based on the recently initiated 'Teacher Training Quality Campaign' funding program (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2017), the official report of the second Foresight Process by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (Zweck et al., 2015) and a current research study on the future of teacher training in research and practice in Germany, Austria and Switzerland (Drahmann & Huber, 2017; Huber & Drahmann, 2017), the following section reviews aspects of change and possible challenges for teacher education in an era of globalization and transformation in Germany.

Recent Topics

There are a few rather recent topics in teacher education and teaching that need both more attention in the research and an ongoing consideration in practice. The main recent topics can be identified as the following:

Inclusion and heterogeneity This is defined as 'eliminating unequal treatment of migrants, people with disabilities, the elderly, children and young people with special challenges, etc.' (Zweck et al., 2015, p. 160). Teachers not only have to take care of the social inclusion of their pupils in schools, but also must prepare them to eliminate unequal treatments in their futures, too. Therefore, adapting the curriculum at university for pre-service teacher training, as well as incorporating further vocational trainings for in-service teachers, will be necessary to deal with and prepare for this new topic (Drahmann & Huber, 2017; Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2017).

Immigration Immigration (and in the widest sense migration, too) might be not a *new* topic, but nevertheless it is an important one in the education system and hence for teacher education. According to the census in 2014, 31% of those aged 6 to

under 20 living in Germany had an immigrant background (Federal Statistical Office, 2016). Immigration seems to be a highly relevant topic for future German society because questions about integration and how immigrants identify with the current values of German society are still unanswered (Zweck et al., 2015). Furthermore, educational success in Germany often depends on the immigrant background of the pupils (Schwabe & McElvany, 2014). Therefore, teachers have to deal with the challenges and opportunities of immigration in schools every day. They have an important role in the context of integration, shaping the multicultural society of tomorrow and reducing the huge gap of educational success between pupils with and without an immigration background.

Digitalization Technology and the handling of social media are new and important topics in teacher education (Drahmann & Huber, 2017). Based on the Foresight report by Zweck et al. (2015), there is an ongoing integration of digital technologies into every area of daily life. As a result of free and fast access to knowledge, learning processes have changed and communication has been transferred more and more onto social media. Therefore, how we should use new technologies in education processes and how we should ‘design a future canon of education and competencies, if knowledge that used to be necessary to learn can now be easily researched in the internet’ (Zweck et al., 2015, p. 38) are important questions. It is also important to prepare pre- and in-service teachers for the handling of new digital and social media in the teaching process. Ethical questions in this context have not yet been answered and may not have been asked (Huber & Drahmann, 2017).

Other important topics regarding the teaching profession and focus on professional development include diversity within the teaching profession, which in the future could be of importance because of the increasing international mobility of teachers. The professionalism of school leadership might also become an important topic in a time of global perspectives on leadership, comparable with educational pathways to and equal competence standards for school leadership (Drahmann & Huber, 2017). Furthermore, professional learning networks seem to be an important topic for the future, too (Tulowitzki, Duvneck, & Krüger, 2018). Finally, in a holistic view on teacher education, lifelong learning as a crucial component of ongoing professionalism should also be taken into account in the discussion about the future of teacher education in an era of globalization (Drahmann & Huber, 2017).

Relationship Between Practice and Theory

The German teacher education system is subdivided into three parts (Section “[History, Structure, and the Curriculum Framework of Teacher Education](#)”). At university level, the main focus on teacher education is theory and knowledge, and the second and third parts of the teacher education system focus mainly on practice and experience. As a result of their research study, Huber and Drahmann (2017) pointed out that the interrelation between theory and practice does not appear to be sufficiently

answered or handled between the different parts of the current teacher education system. So, there will still be a need for an implementation of new concepts to optimize the link between theoretical and practical elements in teacher training programs (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2017).

Teacher Education in a Time of Teacher Shortage

In Germany during the last several decades, there have been phases of both an overflow and a lack of teachers on the job market due to, for example, the oscillation of the number of pupils (Boecker & Drahmann, 2016; Klemm & Zorn, 2017). Current research forecasts identify the need for teachers in Germany for the next few years, first in primary schools and then in secondary schools as well, although there are regional differences (Klemm & Zorn, 2017). The open positions cannot be filled with the current number of pre-service teachers who have graduated from university or, more accurately, who have finished their preparatory service (Klemm & Zorn, 2018). So, it will be a huge challenge in the coming years to find suitable candidates for open positions in the teaching profession. One quick solution might be the recruitment of career changers (Klemm & Zorn, 2018), but there are still many questions about the quality of the education programs catering to those who are changing careers into the teaching profession (see Rothland & Pflanzl, 2016).

Increasing the National and International Mobility of Pre-service Teacher

In times of increasing globalization, the adoption of the higher education standards in Europe through the Bologna Process and the use of mobility programs like the ERASMUS program from the European Union make the increasing mobility of pre-service teachers over the last decades (Jaritz, 2011) an interesting topic. In Germany, the internationalization of teacher education is an increasing issue (Bölling, 2014). Also, researchers have identified a ‘strong consensus that the international mobility of education students and teacher educators is highly beneficial for a number of reasons: these students and teachers are likely to be more globally minded educators who can develop new professional horizons and a fresh perspective on the educational system of their home country, as well as gain access to jobs in other countries’ (Goetz, Jaritz, & Oser, 2011, p. 1). But within the German context, focusing on the national mobility of pre-service teachers (e.g., change to another university, change between two *Länder*) shows that the mobility rate is low at 15% (Bönsch & Müller, 2013). Furthermore, only 29% of German pre-service teachers gain study-related international experiences. Even though there are differences in regard to the subject

areas, it is a significantly smaller number compared with, for example, 46% of business students (Stifterverband, 2017). The reasons for the low mobility of pre-service teachers include the differences in content and structure of teacher training programs at each university, the difference in the combination of subjects, the differences in graduate degrees, and also financial and organizational aspects (Bönsch & Müller, 2013; Stifterverband, 2017). One important reason for the low international mobility might be ‘due the fact that the school systems differ considerably between countries, mainly in their political and cultural dimensions’ (Jaritz, Goetz, & Oser, 2011, p. 93). Another reason might be that there is no administrative need to go abroad if the goal of teacher education is to teach in the home country, especially if teacher training is public-funded like in Germany. But nevertheless, the ‘mobility of student teachers and teacher educators is an important tool in the effort to graduate teachers with cross-cultural experience and an understanding of today’s interconnected world’ (Jaritz et al. 2011, p. 93).

Discussion and Summary

The institutionalized teacher education system in Germany contains over 200 years of history and can be described as a long-lasting stable system that in the past has steadily but very slowly undergone a process of transformation. The German teacher education system has recently undergone the most far-reaching structural changes in the shortest possible time because of the German TIMSS, PISA and other large-scale assessment results at the beginning of the twenty-first century (e.g., Blömeke, 2007). Another major reason is the outcome of the European Bologna Declaration and regard to both changes its implementation process that inclusively introduced accountability mechanisms at universities and other higher education institutes. These changes in the last two decades, especially the accountability mechanisms, can be modeled on Blömeke (2007, p. 71) ‘to be typical of the present globalisation process’ (in general, harmonization of structures and introducing accountability mechanisms for comparison). But the teacher education system is still changing and facing new challenges in the era of globalization that cannot be answered just with a harmonization of structures and accountability mechanisms. In particular the topics *inclusion*, *(im)migration* and *digitalisation* seem to be important for the future education system and thus will have an impact on teacher education. For these topics, new concepts are needed. This is evidenced in the fact that these topics were included in the state-funded program ‘Teacher Training Quality Campaign’ as project funding areas at universities to improve future teacher training (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). Thinking locally, universities that participate in the program can try out new concepts to deal with these topics and other challenges in teacher education. However, these issues are not only a regional phenomenon for Germany or the European Union, but also a global phenomenon requiring the education systems of different countries to find solutions, especially with regard to teacher training. Therefore, acting globally, the internationalization of teacher education and research

on teacher education, the global exchange of ideas and best-practice solutions, and the comparison of education and teacher education systems (considering the different historical, social and cultural backgrounds) may be a further perspective to improve teacher education in all areas instead of focusing just on accountability and harmonization of teacher education systems.

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Teacher Education in Times of Migration and Digitalization: Comparative Examples from Germany and Turkey



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The importance of teacher education for the quality of teaching and thus for students' learning success has increased significantly in recent decades, which is reflected not only in the intensive scientific discourse on teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2017; Loughran & Hamilton, 2016) but also in the educational policy agenda (Musset, 2010; OECD, 2005). Even though institutionalized teacher education has a long tradition in many countries, it has been subject to numerous transformations (Darling-Hammond, 2017; Terhart, 2016) and ongoing reforms in the European context (Bauer & Prenzel, 2012; Cramer, Bohl, & du Bois-Reymond, 2012). Therefore, this paper discusses two significant global trends—migration and digitalization—(cf. Dugarova & Gülasan, 2017) in terms of teacher education, as well as the trend toward the professionalization of the teaching profession, using Germany and Turkey as examples. Both countries have a long history of institutionalized teacher education that can be traced back to the nineteenth century (Akyüz, 2006; Terhart, 2016). Furthermore, teacher education in both countries is being affected by the global trends of migration and digitalization and by current reform efforts to further increase professionalization within teacher education. Despite their long history of teacher education and similar challenges, the two countries differ in cultural, economic and political aspects, so a comparison of the two highlights how the trends and associated challenges are dealt with in detail. The results of the comparative analysis can also provide prospective information on how to deal with the challenges of digitalization and migration to teacher education in other countries.

This paper is divided into three sections to compare trends in teacher education in Germany and Turkey. The first describes the history and current structure of each teacher education system. The second outlines current trends and challenges in teacher education programs in both countries: first, how migration influences teacher

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education; second, how teacher education is affected by digitalization; and third, how professionalization in teacher education is being fostered. The third section discusses the similarities and differences in the previously outlined trends in Germany and Turkey and offers a cautious, discursive projection for what might develop in the years to come.

History and Structure of Teacher Education

To understand current developments and the influences of global trends on teacher education, it is essential to examine the history and structure of the two countries' teacher education systems. Dealing with the challenges posed by current developments can only be understood in the context of their respective historically evolved structures. Therefore, the history and structure of teacher education programs in Germany (Section "[Germany](#)") and Turkey (Section "[Turkey](#)") are briefly described.

Germany

Germany's professional teacher education programs are closely connected to the establishment of a nationwide school system at the beginning of the nineteenth century (Kemnitz, 2014), and their structure is woven into the structure of the country's school system. There are different teachers and paths of teacher education for five different school types (Terhart, 2019). These school system structures, despite having been established at the beginning of the nineteenth century, remain partly present in today's teacher education system. This is especially reflected in the distinction between lower (elementary school and lower secondary) and higher (high school and upper secondary) teaching. With the implementation of compulsory education and the establishment of an institutionalized school system that divided students into elementary and high school, teacher education also became institutionalized (Terhart, 2016).

Teacher education for primary school teachers has undergone many transformations. Formerly, they were trained in non-academic seminars (normal schools) with a focus on pedagogical topics when teacher training was established, and a high school diploma was not yet mandatory. Today, all primary school teachers are required to attend university, and teacher education has become academic. Secondary school teachers have required a high school diploma since the establishment of institutionalized teacher education. Their formal qualification took place at university from the beginning, when teacher education was focused almost exclusively on subject-related content. The proportion of pedagogical content slowly increased over time, but even today secondary school teacher education remains characterized by a strongly subject-related orientation. In sum, elementary school teacher education has become more and more academic over time, and teacher education for

(upper) secondary schools has moved from strictly domain-specific content to more and more pedagogical content. The separation of different teacher training institutions has been abolished; instruction now takes place exclusively at universities and concludes with a compulsory preparatory service at a school.

The current structure of teacher training in Germany can be divided into three phases: an initial phase of theoretical education at university, a second phase of practical teacher training at teacher training institutions (preparatory service) and a third phase of professional development. During the five years of the first phase, student teachers attend courses at university and study two or three subjects, their specific subject didactics and education sciences; they also undertake internships in schools (Cramer & Schreiber, 2018; Terhart, 2019). In the second phase, the prospective teachers enter a specialized teacher training institution focused on training them for the practical challenges of a classroom. This phase lasts between 18 and 24 months. There is a significant differentiation regarding the content and structural organization of these two phases that can be traced back to the federal school system in Germany (Blömeke, 2014; Craig, 2016; Eckhardt, 2017; Walm & Wittek, 2014). The third phase of teacher education involves in-service professional development. It is subdivided into career-entry—for the first three years of employment—and continuing professional development. Compared to the first two phases, the third phase is weakly structured. Only 2 of 16 federal states (*Länder*) have compulsory training for in-service teachers. A few offer voluntary training, but most have scarcely any special training for young professionals (Walm & Wittek, 2014).

Even if teacher education (and professional development) is not regulated by Germany's federal government but by the 16 individual federal states, there is a joint conference of all federal states on teacher education issues. In the context of The Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* in the Federal Republic of Germany, questions about teacher education and other education fields are discussed and common resolutions are adopted by all *Länder*; see Eckhardt (2017) for further details. Designing curricula is also the responsibility of the federal states. Although each university is mandated to design its own curriculum for teacher education, all curricula are bound by the framework requirements of their federal state and the requirements of the Standing Conference; finally, they have to meet the requirements of relevant federal legislation. On the whole, teacher education curricula are heavily subject oriented. Smaller proportions are allocated to subject matter teaching and learning (subject didactics), educational sciences and elements of practical training (Walm & Wittek, 2014).

Turkey

Turkish teacher education dates to the mid-nineteenth century, which saw the Ottoman Empire promulgate a series of reforms called the *Tanzimat*. These reforms included remarkable changes in the educational structure, which paved the way for developing a new, secular school system. The introduction of a new school type

called *ruṣtiye*, corresponding to lower secondary schools, into the school system raised the question of educating qualified teachers. The *Darülmüallimîn* (the first college educating teachers for lower secondary schools) was established in 1848 to fulfill the need for qualified teachers. This marks the beginning of institutionalized Turkish teacher education (Akyüz, 2006; Öztürk, 1996).

The development of professional teacher education continued in the Republic Era, which began in 1923, and is divided into two main periods. During the first (1923–1981), the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) was the sole institution responsible for teacher education. Pre-service teacher education programs for elementary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools, which varied in duration, were provided by separate institutions affiliated with the MoNE. There were also institutions educating teachers solely for schools in villages. This division between educating teachers for urban and village schools is unique in the Turkish context, and these teacher education institutions, especially the Village Institutes, successfully fulfilled the need for village teachers until the distinction was eliminated in 1953 (Öztürk, 1998).

Teacher education underwent a fundamental change in 1973 with the enactment of a new National Education Act stipulating that all teachers must hold a higher education degree, regardless of the school level they would serve. In line with this development, all teacher education institutions became affiliated with universities, and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) became primarily responsible for teacher education in 1982. The CoHE undertook a renewal of all pre-service teacher education programs in 1983, which reduced the differences among them in terms of duration and school level. This process was followed by restructurings in 1997, 2006 and finally 2018, as part of a comprehensive reform initiative in teacher education, the results of which are discussed in sections below.

The current structure of teacher education in Turkey comprises pre-service teacher education programs offered by faculties of education at universities. These programs are four-year undergraduate programs leading to a bachelor's degree. There are three types, based on school level (4 + 4 + 4 system): (1) preschool and primary level, (2) lower secondary level and (3) upper secondary level. The curricula of pre-service teacher education programs continue to be determined by the CoHE, which indicates the centralized nature of teacher education in Turkey. The current curricula were updated by the CoHE in 2018 in a comprehensive effort involving 25 programs and lasting over 2 years (CoHE, 2018a). The guidelines issued by the CoHE on implementing the new programs state that the reasons behind this change were the need for rearranging the educational science and subject didactics components of the existing curricula, the need for a more structured student teaching component, and recent changes in national curricula for elementary and secondary schools (CoHE, 2018b). The updated curricula cover courses in three main areas: educational sciences (30–35%), subject didactics (45–50%) and general knowledge (15–20%). The percentages of these areas do not vary across teacher education programs.

Pre-service teacher education is followed by a one-year induction program encompassing in-service trainings. In addition, teacher candidates are expected to undertake tasks inside and outside school environments under the responsibility of mentor

teachers and school administrators. Teacher candidates who succeed on performance-based assessments during the induction process and the final examination at the end of the process can begin to serve as teachers. The induction program is also centralized; it is carried out nationwide under the relevant regulations (MoNE, 2016). The induction program is complemented by nationwide semi-yearly in-service trainings provided by the MoNE to support teachers' personal and professional development.

Current Challenges in Teacher Education

Globalization means teacher education is facing new challenges (Darling-Hammond, 2017). While the future is of course impossible to predict, there are worldwide trends (Dugarova & Gülasan, 2017) that educational systems in many countries—and the German and Turkish teacher education systems are no exception—must confront. The global trends are reflected in the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) signed by the world's governments in 2015 to, among other aims, 'eradicate poverty, improve the living standards and well-being of all people, promote peace and more inclusive societies and reverse the trend of environmental degradation' (Dugarova & Gülasan, 2017, p. 11). The following section reviews aspects of the challenges for teacher education in an era of globalization and transformations in Germany and Turkey with respect to global trends of migration (Section "Migration"), digitalization (Section "Digitalization") and a focus on professionalization in the teaching profession (Section "Professionalization").

Migration

While migration is hardly new, it has been widely noted as one of today's central global trends (Dugarova & Gülasan, 2017); it is thus important for the education system and for teacher education. In the context of the discussion on migration, it must be remembered that, as of 2018, 20.8 million people in *Germany* have a migration background, 10.92 million people with foreign passports live in Germany, and 1.78 million people are currently seeking protection while residing in Germany on humanitarian grounds, all within Germany's total population of 82.79 million (Federal Statistical Office, 2019). The group of people seeking protection in Germany has increased significantly in recent years, from 0.46 million in 2008 to 1.78 million in 2018, with the largest increases occurring in 2015 and 2016. Approximately 16.7% of that number are school-age children and adolescents, so there is an indisputable impact on the school system. Migration is certain to be highly relevant for German society in the coming years because questions about integration and how migrants identify with current German values remain unanswered (Zweck et al., 2015). Furthermore, educational success in Germany often depends on the students' migration background (Schwabe & McElvany, 2014). Clearly, then, teachers have to deal with

the challenges and opportunities of migration in schools every day. These challenges, such as language barriers or cultural differences, extend not only to refugees per se but also in part to school-age children from with a migration background. For this reason, teachers have an important role in the context of integration, shaping the multicultural Germany of tomorrow and reducing the enormous gap in educational success between pupils with and without migration backgrounds (Massumi et al., 2015). There is thus an increasing need for teachers who teach German as a second language or teach German at all for children who are seeking protection in Germany and cannot yet speak the language. In addition, there will be a need for additional and continuing courses as part of teacher training to deal with these new challenges; these courses, however, are not (or cannot be) offered to the same extent at present (Cramer, Johannmeyer, & Drahmman, 2019). Furthermore, the increase of children of people who are seeking protection in Germany also has an impact on the overall demand for teachers, and there is presently a shortage (Klemm & Zorn, 2017). This in turn has implications for the recruitment and professionalization of teachers (see Section “[Professionalization](#)”).

Over the last decade, migration has also become a high-priority topic in education in *Turkey*, especially as a result of the continuing flows of refugees from Syria since the Syrian Civil War broke out in 2011. As of July 2019, Turkey hosts approximately 4 million refugees, over 3.5 million of them Syrian, under temporary protection (UNHCR, 2019). The Syrian school-aged population in Turkey has reached one million, and two-thirds of a million were enrolled in an educational institution in the 2018–2019 school year (DG Life Long Learning, 2019). The Turkish government has made efforts to meet the educational needs of the Syrian refugee population. Two options are provided for Syrian refugee children: (1) public schools offering education in Turkish in line with the national curricula and (2) temporary education centers in refugee camps providing education in Arabic exclusively for Syrian refugee children, who also take a compulsory intensive Turkish language course.

Recent research focusing on the educational needs of Syrian refugee children in Turkey points to the fact that, while the efforts to date have yielded some favorable results, such as a significant increase in the schooling rate among Syrian refugee children, urgent problems remain. It is undisputable that these problems have repercussions for teacher education. Teachers, especially in public schools that refugee children attend, have to deal with many unexpected challenges. The fact that Syrian refugee children living outside camps face more problems than those residing in camps is also indicative of the challenges faced by teachers in public schools (Seydi, 2013).

The challenges teachers in Turkey experience and most often cite are language barriers and problems of social integration. These challenges are high on the agenda, given that—together with economic hardship—they are also the main reasons for the low level of school enrolment outside camps (Human Rights Watch, 2015). Language barriers have been reported to have dramatic effects on educational processes, leading to a lack of communication among teachers, refugee parents and students, as well as between refugee and other students (Aykırı, 2017; Başar, Akan, & Çiftçi, 2018; Mercan-Uzun & Bütün, 2016). Although the government offers intensive Turkish

language courses for refugee children in camps to overcome the language barrier and facilitate their transition to education in Turkish, refugee children that have already enrolled in a Turkish-medium public school are not offered this language support. Most importantly, teachers in public schools have not been prepared to organize their courses on the basis of the markedly different language learning needs of refugee children (Bulut, Kanat-Soysal, & Gülçiçek, 2018). The language barrier, apart from its academic consequences, makes it hard for refugee children to accommodate themselves to the social life in schools. Consequently, these students feel isolated in classroom and school settings (Şimşir & Dilmaç, 2018). Teachers also face great difficulties in supporting refugee children's social integration processes, since they also suffer from communication problems with these children and lack the support of their parents because of the same language barrier (Sarıtaş, Şahin & Çatalbaş, 2016).

On the one hand, teachers are regarded as playing an important role in dealing with the challenges of migration, but they feel the pressures of being incapable of fulfilling this expectation (Erdem, 2017; Mercan-Uzun & Bütün, 2016), especially due to the lack of essential support mechanisms. Some steps have been taken to alleviate this pressure in cooperation with the EU Facility for Refugees in Turkey within the scope of the Project on Promoting Integration of Syrian Children into the Turkish Education System, which encompasses teacher trainings on relevant issues. However, some research has challenged the effectiveness of these trainings (Çoban-Sural & Güler-Arı, 2017), while other studies have revealed that many teachers in public schools still have not received any of the relevant trainings (Aykırı, 2017; Bulut et al., 2018; Er & Bayındır, 2015). The lack of support for teachers of refugee children who face a language barrier and postwar traumas hampers the provision of quality and inclusive education for these children (Tüzün, 2017). There is thus an urgent need for more attention to be devoted to empowering teachers to cope with the demanding effects of migration on education in Turkey.

Digitalization

Digital technologies and social media, as dealt with in the discourse on information and communication technologies (ICT), represent new and important topics in society, school and by extension in teacher education (Chaib & Svensson, 2005; Drahmman & Huber, 2017; Enochsson & Rizza, 2009). Based on the foresight report by Zweck et al. (2015), there is an ongoing integration of digital technologies into every area of daily life. As a result of free and rapid access to knowledge, learning processes have changed, and communication has been transferred more and more onto social media. Therefore, how to use new technologies in education processes and how to 'design a future canon of education and competencies, if knowledge that used to be necessary to learn can now be easily researched in [sic!] the internet' (Zweck et al., 2015, p. 38) are crucially important questions.

At a political level, there have been intensive discussions in *Germany* in recent years on digitalization, its implementation and its influence on school life. A so-called Digital Pact is currently being discussed between the federal government and the *Länder* to support schools with new digital technologies in the coming years as part of an investment boost of 5.0 billion euros (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2019). Furthermore, the topic of digitalization is highlighted in the context of the Quality Initiative of Teacher Education, a ten-year program to promote teacher education with a budget of 500 million euros (Prenzel & Gräsel, 2015). Several projects are about to establish links between teacher education and digitalization, to promote digitalization in teacher education and to encourage the use of ICT among student teachers. However, the issue of digitalization has scarcely been taken into account in teacher education thus far (Monitor *Lehrerbildung*, 2019), and major challenges like the establishment of a binding, comprehensive and curricular implementation of digitalization in teacher education remain unmet. Furthermore, ethical questions in this context have not yet been asked or answered frequently.

In the *Turkish* context, the early signs of digitalization in education and its implications for teacher education were noted in key policy papers. The Knowledge Society Strategy Paper for the period from 2006 to 2010 stressed the importance of ICT to Turkey's sustainable growth and the need to develop the ability to understand and use technology effectively in individuals (State Planning Organization, 2006). The Tenth Development Plan (for 2014–2018) also underlined technology literacy as one of the basic skills to be developed in students as a result of educational processes (Ministry of Development, 2013). Accordingly, the ability to effectively use ICT in teaching processes has been identified as one of teachers' competencies within the General Competencies for Teaching Profession (MoNE, 2017b). These policy-level efforts were accompanied by projects, carried out by the MoNE, that include teacher education as a main component. The most far-reaching project so far—with a remarkably high budget—in the field of educational technologies in Turkey is the Fatih (Movement to Increase Opportunities and Technology) project launched by the MoNE in 2010 (MoNE, 2018a).

All in all, this work toward transforming educational process in line with today's trend toward digitalization within education has resulted in a challenging turn in teachers' roles and responsibilities. Obviously, teachers are a crucial component for the success of digitalization in education, and they are expected to keep up with ever-changing technologies and integrate them successfully into their teaching practices (Kayaduman, Sarıkaya, & Seferoğlu, 2011). However, the problems teachers face in this respect appear to have gone unaddressed. Most teachers still have difficulty integrating ICT into their courses (Uslu & Bümen, 2012); a lack of infrastructure and technical support and problems in pedagogical terms combine to prevent teachers from managing this process successfully (Pamuk, Çakır, Ergun, Yılmaz, & Ayas, 2013). In-service teacher trainings, especially those provided within the scope of relevant projects, appear to encourage teachers to develop basic technology skills but fail to empower them to use these technologies effectively in their courses (Education Reform Initiative, 2013; Kayaduman et al., 2011; World Bank, 2004). Teachers who lack the required knowledge and skills find themselves caught unprepared for the

rapid changes in educational trends (Pamuk et al., 2013). This indicates that, while policies and recommendations have put ICT on the teacher education agenda and emphasized the need for taking the necessary steps to provide teachers with support mechanisms, they lacked specific suggestions about these steps and how they can be implemented in both pre- and in-service teacher education.

Professionalization

The history of the development of the teaching profession through the professionalization of both student and in-service teachers in Germany is as long as institutionalized teacher education itself. In recent decades, discussions about professionalization have been very much present (Terhart, 2016), but at the same time have been repeatedly confronted with challenges posed by new social developments (cf. Sections “Migration” and “Digitalization”) or by developments within the profession itself, such as teacher shortages (Klemm & Zorn, 2017).

For *Germany*, it is clear that the Quality Initiative of Teacher Education involves substantial financial and organizational expenditures intended to further promote the professionalization of (prospective) teachers. Topics like digitalization, dealing with heterogeneity, strengthening practical elements, and a strong science orientation have been demanded by the universities selected for this special funding.

In addition to general efforts to professionalize the teaching profession and the teacher education system, we focus now on the recruitment of the brightest teachers and on supporting their development of professionalism. This is important not least because of the shortage of teachers in Germany, especially in primary schools (Klemm & Zorn, 2017). Various strategies are being used in Germany to compensate for the shortage of teachers: More and more lateral entrants are being recruited and prepared for teaching careers in courses of different length and intensity (Rothland & Pflanzl, 2016). However, secondary school teachers are also being recruited to work at primary schools when needed. These examples show that the standard approach to teacher education is being confronted by shortened recruitment paths that challenge the idea of teachers as professionals, like doctors or lawyers, who need a complex academic education and that question the process of individual professional development (Drahmann & Cramer, accepted).

There is little empirical knowledge about the professional development of teachers in Germany, although this phase of teacher education is often referred to by politicians and cited as very important for the professionalization of teachers through lifelong learning. Only some of the *Länder* have a binding concept for professional development activities, and little is known about the effects of professional development courses on the knowledge, skills and beliefs of teachers (Cramer, Harant, Merk, Drahmann, & Emmerich, 2019; Lipowsky & Rzejak, 2012).

The discourse around the need to strengthen the status of teaching as a profession occupies a central position in the *Turkish* context, as it does in Germany. This aspiration manifested itself first as a consequence of the call for quality teachers

following the emergence of an institutionalized school system. One of the initial political actions to this end was to incorporate a definition of teaching as ‘a profession responsible for education as a public service’ into key official documents like the National Education Law of 1973 (Akyüz, 2001). Subsequent policies and their practical reflections, on the other hand, were questioned and continue to be questioned frequently on the grounds that they are not supportive enough of this definition of teaching as a profession; indeed, they have been said to hamper professionalization efforts. Akyüz (2003) argues that, as a result, the professional status of teaching has been challenged in one way or another in different periods since the early years of the professionalization of teaching, which led to the perception of teaching as ‘work anybody can do.’ Similarly, Bursalıoğlu (2015) underlines the crucial role of policies concerning teachers’ education, recruitment and working conditions in promoting teacher professionalization, pointing out that the policies pursued in this sense have proven unsatisfying, complicated and paradoxical.

There appear to be two dominant tendencies in relevant policies and resulting practices that have an impact on teachers’ professional status. First, they tend to follow the latest developments and trends in education and inevitably draw on and seek to catch up with ‘modern’ or ‘global’ advancements and priorities affecting the field of education in general. In this respect, policies and practices around education and teacher education are frequently implemented on the basis of global trends that are cited in relevant policy papers, as exemplified below. On the other hand, it has also been argued that the aspiration to catch up with global developments serves as a convenient excuse to rationalize changes to the current educational system and hence teacher education (Akınoğlu, 2008; Gür, Çelik, & Özoğlu, 2012). The second tendency is that these policies and practices are primarily shaped by and address issues pertaining to teachers’ education and recruitment. The belief that teacher performance has a critical role to play in the success of any initiatives aimed at improving teaching processes, including those perceived as a natural result of global priorities and necessities, underlies this tendency. Accordingly, it is assumed that making sure that teachers are provided with quality pre-service education is of great importance, that suitable candidates are recruited as teachers, and appropriate continuous teacher education is offered for teachers in the profession.

As one effect of the abovementioned tendencies, Turkish teacher education has faced repeated changes that intensified after the affiliation of all teacher education institutions with universities in 1982. One of the initial reforms in this sense was the 1997 restructuring initiative, which included comprehensive changes in teacher education. This initiative came to the fore as a consequence of the Basic Education Project funded by the World Bank. Subsequent restructuring work was carried out in 2006 to complement the 1997 initiative (CoHE, 2007). This work was followed up and again resulted in changes to the national curricula in 2006 which was the first time a curricular reform was directly rationalized by using the educational discourse of a globalized world (Akınoğlu, 2008) and by using the results of international tests as reference points (Gür et al., 2012). The need to improve the quality of pre-service teacher education programs was again put on the agenda with the publication of the Teacher Strategy Paper 2017–23, which was developed by the MoNE to overcome

the problems of the teaching profession (MoNE, 2017a). In line with this objective, the structure of faculties of education and the existing pre-service teacher education programs were renewed yet again in 2017 and 2018, respectively. The reasons for this reform initiative were the latest curricular reform of 2017 and the ambition to comply with global priorities for teacher education (CoHE, 2018b). In the latest development for teacher education, Turkey's Education Vision 2023 (MoNE, 2018b) has signaled that pre-service teacher education programs will soon feature a longer and more intensive student teaching component and that continuous professional development of teachers will be supported by graduate degree programs. The need for these advancements has again been expressed by using a discourse that sees teacher quality as central to managing a successful reform initiative, especially in the areas of national curricula, teaching materials and technology (MoNE, 2018b). Obviously, the common goal of all the reform initiatives in teacher education to date has been to increase the quality of teacher education, which appears to be a powerful ambition both shaped by and addressing global priorities and challenges.

Discussion

The institutionalized teacher education systems in both Germany and Turkey can boast over 200 years of history. During that time, teacher education systems have undergone significant changes in both countries, especially in recent years. The German teacher education system has undergone its most far-reaching structural changes in the last two decades because of the German-specific TIMSS, PISA and other large-scale assessment results at the beginning of the twenty-first century (Blömeke, 2007). Another major reason for shifts in teacher education systems is the European Bologna Declaration, which has led to new structures for study programs and other mechanisms at universities. In a similar way, successive comprehensive changes in the Turkish teacher education system have been observed over the last couple of decades on the grounds of international large-scale assessment results and, more importantly, due to the need to catch up with global developments (Gür et al., 2012). The changes in Germany in the last two decades, especially the accountability mechanism (Huber et al., 2016), are described by Blömeke (2007, p. 71) as 'typical of the present globalization process': the harmonization of structures and introducing accountability mechanisms for comparison. This also marks a commonality between the two countries, because in Turkey the discourse also positions teachers as key players in successfully managing the current challenges in education, which results in an increasing role for accountability (Kavak, 1999). In this respect, as in Germany, the effect of global trends can easily be found in Turkish teacher education (Güven, 2008). But the teacher education system is still changing and facing new challenges in an era of globalization that cannot be answered merely by a harmonization of structures and the employment of accountability mechanisms. In particular, the previously analyzed topics of *migration* and *digitalization* are important for the future education system as a whole and thus will have an impact on the teacher education

system. Thus, these topics have been included in the state-funded Quality Initiative of Teacher Education to improve current and future teacher education in Germany (Federal Ministry of Education and Research, 2017). In the Turkish context, too, digitalization is in the high-profile position of receiving considerable funding from government within the context of large-scale projects like the Fatih project. Migration, unlike the German context, has only recently arisen as an issue in Turkey as a result of the unprecedented influx of refugees to the country in the 2010s. Despite this difference in timeline, in both cases migration is an urgent issue that needs to be handled in a more intensive and systematic manner.

This overview of teacher education in Germany and Turkey has identified ways in which countries with different cultural, economic and political backgrounds are interacting with common global issues and challenges. Acting globally, the internationalization of teacher education and research on teacher education, the global exchange of ideas and best-practice solutions, and the comparison of education and teacher education systems (given their different historical, social and cultural backgrounds) all help provide an important perspective on how to improve teacher education in all areas instead of focusing solely on accountability and harmonizing teacher education systems. This implies that a broadly accepted understanding of what characterizes a professional teacher must always be considered from more than one angle and that professionalism has to take into account multiple perspectives on societal challenges and global trends (Cramer et al., 2019).

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Bulgarian Teacher Preparation and Continuous Professional Development—Problems and Perspectives for Change



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Abstract The teaching profession is one of the most profound in society because it is called upon to underline, accompany and promote the spiritual-value formation of young people, their personal growth and transformation into highly educated people adequate to meet today's global challenges. Thus, by actively contributing to the development of younger generations, teachers as representatives of educational institutions, together with parents and local communities, are becoming an instantaneous factor in ensuring the socio-cultural reproducibility of the societies we live in. The quality of education depends on many determinants and components, but undoubtedly the most important among them are the quality of the initial preparation and the continuous professional development (CPD) of the teachers. There is unequivocal empirical evidence that the high quality of preparation and continuing qualification of pedagogical staff is related to students' motivation for learning and achievements, while at the same time verifying the assumption that their importance as a cumulative factor in influencing learning success is greater than factors such as the nature and type of school organization, the way the school is managed and the financial conditions in it (Vasquez Heilig et al. in *Kansas J Law Public Policy* 20(3):388–412, 2011). In 2015, a national representative survey was commissioned by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Bulgaria, aiming to identify the actual state and crucial issues in key areas, such as teacher preparation and their continuous professional development from the perspective of key stakeholders—the teachers themselves, educational managers, inspectors from Regional Inspectorates, university lecturers, students preparing to become teachers and active citizens. Another main focus of the research was to propose working measures to tackle socially negative trends in the teaching profession within Bulgarian context, such as overcoming the 'ageing' of the profession, young people's refusal to choose the teaching profession as their professional career, outflow or premature leaving of highly qualified teachers from the school education system. The analysis of the collected data confirms a stable and negative trend regarding the status of Bulgarian teachers. It is clearly established that this status—especially in its two main aspects, social prestige and material well-

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being—is extremely low. Another finding from the study concerns the preparation of teachers from middle and upper secondary school grades. It turns out that it is insufficient, in terms of both volume and content, which in itself is an obstacle in the process of providing quality education to adolescents. These and other similar results are indicative of the strongly diminished confidence in the teaching profession in Bulgarian society at present.

Keywords Teaching profession · Teacher training in the Republic of Bulgaria · Attracting young people to the teaching profession

Introduction

The recognition of the teaching profession as one burdened with extremely significant social functions is indisputable because its mission is not only to develop talents and potentials of people but also to facilitate knowledge, skills and competences acquisition on the way to successful realization of the learners as self-aware individuals, active citizens and efficient specialists on the labor market.

EUROSTAT data, published in the report by the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA P9 Eurydice), shows that the total number of qualified teachers in Europe comes to over 6 million people. The 2013–2014 number of employed pedagogical specialists in the area of secondary education in Bulgaria is over 89,000 people according to data from the Information Services Centre for Education at the Ministry of Education and Science (MES). The challenges in the development and establishment of a guild so numerous—both on a European and national level—are great and complex and stem from the dynamics and the changes of the world we live in. The adequate reform of the teacher preparation and qualification systems in the countries of the European Union, including the Republic of Bulgaria, and the creation of a closer link between them and teachers' professional development is one of the key prerequisites for providing quality teaching and education, for ensuring growth and stability of the profession itself as well as regeneration through attracting capable and young people in it.

During the past ten years, several stable trends have been observed and recorded concerning key characteristics of the teachers in Europe and the Bulgarian context, the main ones of which we summarize briefly below (the statistical data supporting the established trends is from Eurydice (2012, 2013):

First, we have to take into account that the teaching profession is peculiar for its female overrepresentation. In a general European context, this trend concerns in an especially powerful way the two educational stages of primary and secondary education. The percentage of women in the system of school education (primary, middle and upper secondary levels) varies between 60% (in 24 member states of the EU) and over 80% (in four of the EU countries—Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania) (Eurydice, 2012). According to data from the Information Services Centre for Education at the Ministry of Education and Science (MES), the trend of women

teachers to prevail over men teachers in Bulgaria has marked an increase, whereas for the past five years, their percentage varies within 84–85% from the total number of teachers.

Second, the age structure of the profession in a number of European countries is characterized by an ageing tendency probably caused by the demographic crisis and the ageing of the population in Europe as a whole. Rooted in this fact is probably the cause of the insufficient number of qualified pedagogical staff in some countries. In more than half of the countries, members of the EU, between 40 and 50% of the teachers in primary and secondary education, are over 50 years of age, whereas the percentage of young teachers, less than 30 years of age, is extremely low and varies within the interval of 1 and 20% of all teachers employed in the field of school education. Similar tendencies are observed in relation to the teaching guild in Bulgaria. For 2007–2013, a decrease in the relative share of young specialists up to 34 years of age and an increase in the relative share of specialists aged 55 and older have been recorded.

Third, the increase of the net teacher remuneration in the past years has not always been an effective means for guaranteeing teachers' decent existence. Among EU countries, there are great differences in terms of teacher remuneration as rationed against the average income in the country and the gross domestic product per capita of the population. A common tendency in the EU is that during the past decade, governments have introduced an increase of the basic teacher salary. In some cases, this increase within a decade is over 40% (according to data from Eurostat for 2000–2009). Regardless of this, we could not possibly say that the salary increase leads to a subsequent actual increase due to phenomena such as inflation and the rising cost of living.

The tendency toward a gradual increase of teacher remuneration for the past decade is observable in Bulgaria as well. The difference is that at such a low share of GDP allocated for education costs (1.5%), there is no way we could expect for the Bulgarian teachers to receive a high net base remuneration. The low costs paid by the state for education in general and respectively for teachers' salaries affect in a negative way the entire image of the profession in the Bulgarian society which leads to its unattractiveness for young people, an outflow from pedagogical specialties and to a feeling of underestimation in the teachers currently working as such.

Last but not least, a number of peculiarities of the profession stem from the specifics of the initial teacher preparation in a European and national context. Common policies and guidelines in the EU outline the following picture related to this preparation: Usually (in most EU countries), the basic teacher preparation requires a bachelor degree with a 4-year course of study and this refers to all stages of school education as well as to preschool education (Eurydice, 2013). Bulgaria makes no exception from the general European tendency for a 4-year initial teacher preparation within a bachelor degree program. Broadly speaking, in Europe there are two models of initial teacher preparation, which can be provisionally called concurrent and consecutive. In the concurrent model, the 'professional education' component is envisaged from the beginning and is effected along with the general course of education and/or a specific subject (or multiple subjects) course, which the teacher

intends to teach. In the consecutive model, students first complete an academic program/specialty, and after their graduation or upon obtaining a bachelor's or a master's degree, they would complete a professional training course.

Presently, in most European countries, including Bulgaria both models of basic teacher preparation are applied as complementary (Eurydice, 2012). A relatively small number of countries in the EU (approximately 1/3) have special admission requirements for initial teacher preparation such as eligibility tests or interviews for determining candidates' motivation to become teachers. Not unlike many European countries, the admission for initial teacher preparation is mainly on the basis of the common requirements for admission into higher educational institutions, rather than any special criteria or selection procedures. In basic teacher preparation in European countries, there are two main distinct content cores: (1) general and subject-specific preparation—it includes general and knowledge specific to the subject which is going to be taught as well as general and specific methodological knowledge necessary for teaching the subject; (2) pedagogical and practical preparation—it includes school practice plus a number of other courses related to the teaching profession (e.g., theoretical courses in didactics, children's and adolescents' psychology, methodology, educational history, ICT in education) (European Report on the Quality of School Education. Sixteen Quality Indicators, 2001). In terms of content, the initial professional teacher preparation in Bulgaria includes the abovementioned key components and is currently carried out in over 500 academic hours for students in full-time courses and for at least 50% of this number of hours in part-time study courses.

Common European Priorities in Teacher Professional Development Policies

Several main strategic European documents and programs set the goals and key policies in the area of teacher professional development in the EU member countries. These are The European strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth 'Europe 2020,' The strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training 'Education and Training 2020,' The European Commission communication from 2008 'New skills for new jobs,' The Cohesion programs and policies of the European Union for 2014–2020 and, more specifically, the grounds for the thematic objective to invest in education, curricula and extra-curricular learning and lifelong professional qualification. The mentioned documents set strategic aims and measures reflecting the awareness and the acceptance that quality education is a basic requisite for ensuring a smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, development and prosperity of societies in united Europe. A crucial place in these policies is allotted to the priorities related to taking care of teachers. Therefore, the main efforts of all EU member states are directed toward the implementation of reforms regarding the professional development of pedagogical specialists and improving the quality of their preparation and continuing qualification.

Among the main priorities in the common European policies aimed at the teaching profession are the following:

- *Retaining the qualified teachers in the profession*

The reasons for formulating this priority are found in the worrying trend observed in many European countries in terms of the age structure of the teaching profession. It is related to a decrease in the number of young people who actually start work as teachers after obtaining the necessary education as well as those applying for pedagogical university programs. One of the reasons for the unattractiveness of the profession for many of its qualified representatives is that in a number of European educational systems, the schools themselves lack not only the specific tools for achievement recognition of teachers' with high results but also the measuring tools for educators who demonstrate a low level of professional performance.

- *Teacher competence and qualification development*

In many European countries, there have been serious concerns regarding the shortage of adequately qualified teachers and teachers who are motivated to further develop their professional skills. There is also concern about the fact that there is no relevance between the initial teacher preparation, their professional career and development, and the specific requirements of the school they work for.

- *Improvement of the procedures and mechanisms for selection, appointment and providing employment opportunities for teachers*

In many of the EU countries, an uneven distribution of the qualified teachers in schools has been registered with economically weaker regions being strongly affected in this regard which essentially are not in the students' best interest. Schools themselves in many of the EU countries have a limited role in teacher selection and appointment which additionally hinders the attracting and retaining of qualified specialists. Measures are needed to provide a greater autonomy to schools and the school management boards so that they can themselves create teacher appointment and selection procedures based on highly differentiated professional profiles relevant to the needs and the image of the school itself.

- *Raising the attractiveness of the teaching profession both for young people as a whole and for representatives of other professions*

The reasons for outlining this priority are the worrying findings in studies and analyses by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development since 2004 that already in almost half of the EU countries, there have been great difficulties in providing adequately qualified teaching staff for basic school subjects like mathematics, natural sciences, foreign languages, ICT, as well as with their retention in the profession (OECD, 2004). In most of the European countries, there is a need for creating more flexible systems for providing teacher preparation and qualification for people from other areas (who have decided to move to the teaching profession), for

example, by postgraduate qualifications or special programs which combine modules with a reduced number of academic hours focused on subject-specific preparation including general pedagogical and methodological courses.

The National Priorities of the Republic of Bulgaria for Teacher Professional Development

The national priorities reflect the common European tendencies but have their own distinct specifics. A basic strategic national document determining the guidelines for reform in the policies regarding teachers and their development is the National Strategy for Development of Pedagogical Specialists (2014–2020). The priorities and the political will reflected in this document refer to the solution of some of the most pressing issues regarding the status of the teaching profession in Bulgaria that have been put on the back-burner for decades now. Part of these problems can be summarized as follows:

First, the demographic and social structure of the teaching profession have been tampered due to the ageing of the professional guild and an outflow of young people both from the profession in general and the teacher preparation as well. Data shows a low property status of the profession, bad working conditions, related to low motivation, stress and decreased psychological well-being.

Second, the existing national regulations are outdated and irrelevant to modern educational and professional concepts and as such they do not contribute to the attractiveness of the profession and the rising of its prestige.

Third, there are no national professional standards and profiles for the exercising of the profession linked to the initial teacher preparation, their subsequent qualification and career development as well as to the selection, appointment and subsequent teacher attestation procedures.

Fourth, the system for continuing teacher qualification turns out to be too rigid. It lacks mechanisms regulating the exact place of qualification activities in the career advancement of teachers and the range of entities authorized to organize them and provide for their high quality.

Fifth, there is an unreformed career development system which does not interrelate the professional achievements of teachers to their students' outcomes, and it does not provide a quick career advancement for young teachers (up to 30–35 years of age).

From a national perspective, we could emphasize that some of the reforms regarding the outlined issues have already started. The newly adopted Preschool and School Education Act (promulgated in 2015 and effective 2016) sets out the most pressing changes in the system for teacher professional development concerning the continuing qualification and career development of pedagogical specialists. By 2020, the

elaboration and adoption of an integral, unambiguous and updated legislative framework is anticipated that would effectively contribute to the rising of the status and prestige of the teaching profession as a key factor for providing quality education for all students in Bulgaria.

Aims and Scope of the Empirical Study

The functioning of the systems for teacher preparation and qualification within the preschool and school education system in our country is not without its problems. Both the successful professional realization of teachers themselves and the provision of quality education for sustainable development and prosperity for the society as a whole depend on the rise of efficiency in these systems. And as much as good knowledge of the problems is the best prerequisite for their solution, as part of the national plan for implementation of the activities from the national strategy for the development of pedagogical staff (2014–2020), a research was commissioned by the Ministry of Education and Science to a team from the Faculty of Education at the University of Sofia ‘St. Kliment Ohridski.’ Its objectives are the identification of the current status of the system for preparation of pedagogical staff at higher education institutions and performing a comparative analysis of the systems for continuing qualification and career development in the Republic of Bulgaria and the EU countries.

The research aimed at identifying main problems related to the initial teacher preparation and development as well as at studying the key factors contributing to the attraction of young people to the teaching profession in Bulgaria. Not least, on the basis of the analyses carried out, it was necessary to determine measures for overcoming negative trends regarding the teaching profession on a national level.

The current chapter presents and analyzes only few of the main findings in the conducted research which provide an answer to three specific research questions:

1. How is the teacher preparation system perceived, and is there a need for change in it?
2. What is the prestige of the teaching profession in Bulgaria and which are the key factors for attracting young people in it?
3. What are the existing measures and practices in the preschool and school education system in Bulgaria for attracting young specialists as teachers?

Main target groups of the research were teachers from the preschool and school education system, school managers, experts from the Regional Inspectorates of Education (RIE), university teachers, university students and members of the public. Table 1 shows data about the sample in greater detail.

The research instruments included six different questionnaires for the six target groups which were specially designed, tested and definitively approved. Each questionnaire took into account the specifics of each group it was designed for. The

Table 1 The Sample

Target group	Method	Research questions	Number of participants
Teachers	Survey	1, 2, 3	1260
School managers	Survey	1, 3	158
RIE experts	Survey	1, 2	240
University teachers, teacher educators	Survey	1, 2	194
University students in teacher preparation programs	Survey	1, 2	156
Members of the public (active citizens)	Survey	1,2	311

questionnaires were submitted to the Ministry of Education and Science, and respectively, approved. Due to technical and financial considerations, the survey was carried out online, via the SurveyMonkey platform.

Findings

Regarding the perceptions of the six target groups of respondents about the teacher preparation in Bulgaria, we will begin by presenting and analyzing the data from the question—‘Overall, how would you rate teacher preparation conducted in our country at the moment?’—present on the questionnaires in each of the target groups. In this question, respondents were asked to rate five aspects referring to teacher preparation in Bulgaria and its current status on a five-point bipolar scale from ‘Strongly agree’ to ‘Strongly disagree.’ Table 2 shows the response distribution to the following statements: (1) Satisfactory; (2) Sufficient; (3) Entirely relevant to their career development; (4) Offering a good balance between theory and practice;

Table 2 How would you rate the teacher preparation conducted in our country?

Responses	Frequencies	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
(1)	Relative/Absolute	20,32% (205)	42,81% (432)	21,61% (218)	12,78% (129)	2,48% (25)	100% (1009)
(2)	Relative/Absolute	13,78% (139)	38,95% (393)	22,99% (232)	20,52% (207)	3,77% (38)	100% (1009)
(3)	Relative/Absolute	8,82% (89)	28,05% (283)	30,82% (311)	25,37% (256)	6,94% (70)	100% (1009)
(4)	Relative/Absolute	10,80% 109	24,28% 245	16,55% 167	41,53% 419	6,84% 69	100% 1009
(5)	Relative/Absolute	12,88% 130	30,23% 305	23,39% 236	27,95% 282	5,55% 56	100% 1009

(5) Offering a good balance in terms of pedagogical, psychological, methodological and subject-specific knowledge.

There is a very mixed picture of the teachers' attitudes toward the currently conducted initial preparation of their future colleagues. The total percent of the rankings within the positive end of the scale is as follows: (1) for the 'Satisfactory' aspect—63.13%; (2) for the 'Sufficient' aspect—52.73%; (3) 'Entirely related to their career development'—36.87%; (4) 'Offering a good balance between theory and practice'—35.08%; (5) 'Offering a good balance in terms of pedagogical, psychological, methodological and subject-specific knowledge'—43.11%. It is striking that after the first two aspects, the total percentage of the two positive points of the scale falls under 50%.

Quite similar are the scale ranking data distributions for each of the statements and for the sets of the school managers, the RIE experts, university teachers and students. What stands out, however, is that the school managers and the students give quite a high 'Satisfactory' total percentage to the existing teacher preparation. For school managers, the total percentage of positive-range ranks is 81.89%, whereas for students it is 83.34%.

Things are somewhat different as far as members of the public are concerned. In this sample, the highest total rankings percentage in the positive range ('Strongly agree' and 'Agree') is also under the 'Satisfactory' criterion but comes down to 42.06% while the strongest positive rank has a relative percentage of merely 6.35%. Along all other aspects, the total positive rates equal approximately 20%, while the strongly positive varies between 1.59 and 5.56%. The total negative ratings ('Disagree' and 'Strongly disagree') supplied by public members of the existing teacher preparation along all of the offered aspects are the highest in comparison to all other target groups in the survey—between 36.51 and 70.64%. Due to the fact that this group does not reflect any group professional interests, probably its ratings can be accepted as a rather objective indicator of the status of teacher preparation.

The data presented so far shows a mixed but tending to negative attitude with respect to the question about the current status of the existing teacher preparation system as a whole.

A different picture emerges outlined by the answers to the question: 'Is there a need for change in teacher preparation for obtaining a teaching qualification?' which was asked to the five groups without the one of the students. Table 3 shows the data distribution on this question.

The data presented speaks for themselves. The Strongly agree responses range from 74.30% upward, whereas the most definitive are the members of the public—90.03% and the RIE experts—91.25%. The respondents from all five of the target groups who were asked the question about the need for change in the teacher preparation are definitive in their opinion that a change in teacher preparation is needed.

In order to look into what direction the change in teacher preparation needs to be implemented, the participants from the five groups (without members of the public) were asked questions about two types of ratios regarding teacher preparation. The

Table 3 Need for change in teacher preparation

Datasets	Responses				Total	
	Strongly agree		Strongly disagree		Relative frequency (%)	Absolute frequency
	Relative frequency (%)	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency (%)	Absolute frequency		
Teachers	74.30	868	25.70	300	100	1168
School managers	83.62	97	16.38	19	100	116
RIE experts	91.25	219	8.75	21	100	240
University teachers	85.05	165	14.95	29	100	165
Public	90.03	280	9.97	31	100	311

Table 4 Datasets' distribution from responses to the question: 'If it depended on you, what should be the ratio of the following types of knowledge and skills?'

Target groups	Number of responses	% theoretical knowledge (%)	% practical knowledge (%)
Teachers	999	46.17	53.79
School managers	103	47.62	52.38
RIE experts	212	49.70	49.93
University teachers	142	46.58	51.80
Students	150	43.27	54.60

first question referred to the ratio between theoretical and practical knowledge in teacher preparation. Table 4 presents the data on the opinion about this ratio.

It is evident from the data distribution in the table that according to almost all participants in the study, the relative share of the practical preparation of would-be teachers, though in a relatively small degree, has to be higher than this of their theoretical preparation. An exception in this respect present only the representatives from the RIE whose opinion is that there must be a total balance in this respect.

The second question regarded the ratio among the four types of knowledge composing the content core of teacher professional preparation—pedagogical, psychological, methodological and subject-specific. Data analysis from the responses of the five target groups (all without the members of the public) who were asked the question shows that according to the respondents, the balance among the four types of knowledge is the formula for the best teacher preparation. A more in-depth and objective analysis, however, leads us to the conclusion that the relative share of

subject-specific knowledge is quite underestimated considering the indisputable circumstance that even the teacher with the best qualification in pedagogical, psychological and methodological aspect cannot possibly be a good teacher, if they do not have command of the academic content which they have to present to the students and whose acquisition they have to facilitate. It is apparent that an optimal balance is what has to be pursued among pedagogical, psychological and methodological preparation within a total relative share ranging between 50 and 60% from the entire preparation. The decrease in the relative share of subject-specific preparation especially for teachers in the primary and secondary levels of education pre-conditions a drastic slump in educational quality as a whole.

The analysis of the collected opinions from the participants in the study on the questions related to the teacher professional preparation gives us reason to conclude that this preparation undoubtedly is in need of change both in terms of volume and in terms of achieving an optimal ratio among content components in order to be able to meet the ever more dynamically changing societal requirements to the system itself and the specialists it educates.

A key moment in the conducted national study was related to the task of finding out the positions of some of the main groups of participants regarding the status of the teaching profession in Bulgaria because it is an essential aspect predetermining its attractiveness for young people. The studied aspects of the teacher status referred to two of its dimensions—social prestige and living standard. Regarding the social status which is ordinarily associated with what people perceive as social importance, prestige and value of the profession, the picture of the studied groups' opinions is definitive. More than two-thirds of the teachers themselves (77%) rate the social status of the profession as negative (by selecting the categories 'Relatively Low' and 'Low'). Consistent with these findings are also the ones from the opinions of RIE experts, according to 95% of whom the social prestige of the profession seems unfavorable. University teachers as well as members of the public do not differ at all from the positions expressed by teachers and RIE experts concerning the social significance devaluation of the teaching profession in the past years (decades), evident from the very high relative shares from both groups in the study, where 78% of the university teachers and 84% of the representatives of public opinion who took part in the survey have rated the social status as lowered.

The situation is not different regarding the living standard ratings of the profession either. All target groups in the study agree about this question whereby the negative ratings on this aspect prevail. For a significant majority of the teachers (a sum total of 90% who rated the material status as 'Relatively Low' and 'Low'), the living standard within the profession is of clearly negative character. The observed response trend with the RIE experts is analogous to that of the teachers. 92% of them expressed an attitude rating the living standard of Bulgarian teachers, in general, as low. The trend is not different in the other groups either (university teachers and citizens) and here, without exception, a common feature is that the total negative ratings of the living standard (indicated by the 'Relatively Low' and 'Low' points on the scale) are supported by the majority of the respondents—91% of the university teachers and 94% of the citizens.

The conclusion based on the opinions from the study about the status of the teaching profession tends to indicate that both the social and the material dimensions of this status are rated as unsatisfactory and low. In comparison with the social prestige, rated as more unfavorable, is the living standard within the profession. All this calls for an immediate mobilization of political, economic and social resources for raising the status of the Bulgarian teacher if we want the outflow of young people and qualified teachers to stop!

Following the negative positions of teachers in Bulgaria, a certain degree of optimism can be found in students' answers—would-be teachers who within the study were asked to rate the attractiveness of the teaching profession. For 80% of the studying-to-become-teachers participants, the profession seems attractive. At first sight, this result appears a bit surprising at the backdrop of the already outlined range of negative positions and ratings concerning the two status dimensions of the profession mentioned above. For the purposes of explaining this finding, we could say that it is highly likely for the students—would-be teachers—to be more far-seeing and quite more positive in the search for those manifest and so 'visible' characteristics of the profession which make it an attractive and significant one 'beyond' social prestige and living standard. In order to trace and establish these specific characteristics which have the potential to motivate the young people to work as teachers, we asked this question to the students-participants in the current study. What do the data from the opinions of this group show?

As shown in Table 5, the payment for the teacher's work is among the factors with the highest negative effect on the attractiveness of the teaching profession for this group in the study. More than 60% of the students have rated this aspect of the teaching profession as 'Much Unattractive' or 'Slightly Unattractive.' There is a serious dispersion of opinions in terms of its social status—from 49.61% who have selected a positive response ('Completely Attractive' or 'Moderately Attractive') to 34.35%—in the negative range ('Much Unattractive' and 'Slightly Unattractive'). Some of the most attractive characteristics they see are 'Working with Children and Adolescents' (93.13% of the positive responses), 'Feeling of Personal Satisfaction' (86.26% of the responses in the positive range), 'Working Hours' (82.44%) and 'Continuing Qualification Opportunities' (70.23%). Encouraging and logical as it may be, the attractiveness of this profession for the young is associated with inner motives (idealistic, value-related and emotional motivations) which have always gone along with the choice of the teaching profession. These motivations can form a stepping stone in the process of building a strategy for attracting young people to schools. Meanwhile, it is necessary to ensure such economic parameters of the teaching profession so that to allow for the non-economic factors to dominate when taking the decision for a choice. At the stage, we are at, currently, the economic factors overshadow all other motivations.

By asking an open-ended question, we studied would-be-teachers students' argumentation about their choice of or withdrawal from the teaching profession. The analysis and categorization of their responses made it clear that among the strongest motivations for turning to the job of a teacher or educator, what comes first is the

Table 5 Characteristics of the teaching profession which make attractive/unattractive?

	Completely attractive	Moderately attractive	Neither attractive nor unattractive	Slightly unattractive	Much unattractive	Total
Payment	4.58%	19.08%	12.98%	35.11%	28.24%	
	6	25	17	46	37	131
Social status of the profession	16.79%	32.82%	16.03%	22.90%	11.45%	
	22	43	21	30	15	131
Career development opportunities	22.14%	36.64%	21.37%	15.27%	4.58%	
	29	48	28	20	6	131
Feeling of personal satisfaction	51.91%	34.35%	9.92%	3.05%	0.76%	
	68	45	13	4	1	131
Continuing qualification opportunities	33.59%	36.64%	19.08%	7.63%	3.05%	
	44	48	25	10	4	131
Working hours	48.09%	34.35%	12.21%	3.82%	1.53%	
	63	45	16	5	2	131
Working with children and adolescents	58.78%	34.35%	3.82%	1.53%	1.53%	
	77	45	5	2	2	131

love for children and the work with them, job satisfaction, work experience accumulation and professional realization opportunities. For a great part of the students, the teaching profession is a childhood dream or a calling. Some are guided by pragmatic motives like: ‘this is what I would be most educated and qualified for’ and ‘convenient working hours.’ It is noteworthy that along with these basic motivations, as a whole the students’ group is guided in their choice by many different motivations—together with the professional and value-based motivations, there are pragmatic, personal and even political reasons. This leads us to the conclusion that students cannot be perceived as one coherent mass whose motivations and ambitions to enter the teaching profession can be interpreted in a single and simplified way. Most probably, these develop very dynamically over time. Therefore, it is necessary for them to be permanently studied so that they can serve as a reliable basis for taking political decisions in terms of attracting young specialists to school.

The question about the existing practices and measures in the preschool and school educational system in Bulgaria for attracting young specialists as teachers is really key; therefore, two out of the six target groups in the conducted study—the teachers and school managers were invited to share their ideas about the way they attract and retain young specialists in their educational institutions. Due to the fact that

the responses supplied by teachers and school managers do not differ significantly, their systematization by means of a thematic categorization as a qualitative content analysis procedure was carried out simultaneously and in summary form.

What emerges are the following more significant categories of good practices applied in Bulgarian kindergartens and schools for the purposes of attracting and retaining young teachers in them:

- A good working environment and an atmosphere of collaboration and continuity between generations. A particular example in this respect is the practice of informal mentoring where young teachers get support and professional advice from senior teachers or from methodologists.
- Conducting intensive project and partnership activities with higher educational institutions which have established national and international professional networks. In order to conduct such activities, young teachers are attracted to professional teams which stimulates their further development and raises their motivation for higher professional achievements.
- Providing opportunities for additional professional qualification of young teachers. A frequent practice is inclusion in trainings which are budget-funded by the respective educational institution or by alternative sources such as programs and projects.
- Searching for and providing additional financial incentives for young teachers for the purposes of raising their living standard. Incentives are provided by the use of special reserves of the delegated school budgets, by providing material support in the immediate professional environment (teaching equipment, ICT investments, funds for study trips) among others.
- Introducing a real competitive beginning for the position of ‘a junior teacher’ on the basis of clear criteria placing young specialists in positive competition among each other.

Unfortunately, there is no shortage of responses by teachers and school managers alike which emphasize the lack of practices whatsoever for attracting young specialists at the level of the educational institution, explaining this by the lack of political will and effective statesmanship decisions for preserving and developing the teaching guild in our country.

Discussion

The analysis of the data collected within the study about the current state of the system for teacher preparation and professional development in the Republic of Bulgaria leads us to draw several essential conclusions:

- The preparation of future pedagogical staff and, above all, future teachers at primary and secondary school grades is not sufficient as a volume, it does not correspond to the requirements of quality education of adolescents.

- There is a serious imbalance among the separate components of the basic preparation of pedagogical specialists.
- It is obvious that an optimal and at the same time most favorable solution to the problem needs to be sought for the high professional qualification of future teachers who lack adequate practical preparation.
- The status of the teaching profession in Bulgaria in its two main dimensions—social prestige and living standard—has been extremely lowered. This negative fact affects the regeneration of the professional teaching guild within which the share of young specialists under the age of 35 has been progressively decreasing during the past ten years.
- The main subject in the process of considering a package of measures for motivating young qualified staff has to be the state with a comprehensive policy regarding pedagogical specialists in Bulgaria. The abdication of the state from this obligation within a relatively centralized system such as our educational system will probably lead to a deepening of the problems.

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Perspectives and Practices of Teacher Education in Kenya in a Globalized World



F. Q. Gravenir, M. K. Miheso-O'Connor, and O. M. Thuo

Abstract Although definitions of globalization as a multifaceted phenomenon continue to evolve due to its complex nature, operational implications that have lent themselves for empirical investigation have drawn the interest of scholars, researchers and policymakers in all spheres of life, including education. In particular, its political, socio-cultural, economic and technological manifestations have had some important implications for the various dimensions of teacher education, its concept, practice, policy and research. There is a growing body of theoretical and empirical literature that documents confluences and divergences in global scholarly discourses on the influence and impacts of globalization on teacher education (Paine et al. in *Globalization and teacher education* 2017; Canli and Hasan Demirtas in *J Educ Training Stud* 1:80–95 2018; de Guzman et al. in *Educ Res Policy Pract* 4:65–82 2005; etc.). This chapter presents perspectives and experiences of globalization on teacher education in Kenya from a review of educational policies, reflections of scholars in teacher education as well as from field officers in teacher education. The chapter demonstrates the pervasiveness of globalization, its growing influence and the role of teacher education policy and practice as its important agents.

Keywords Globalization · Global education · Teacher education

Introduction

This chapter presents Kenya's experience with teacher education with the onset of missionary and colonial authority entry into what is modern-day Kenya. It highlights the emphases in the educational efforts of the two stakeholders and the lasting impact on Kenya's TE scene. The chapter argues that a political–economic perspective is therefore required in understanding the underlying roots of TE, foundations that weaken TE that responds to the real needs of Kenya's educational efforts and creates a conceptual space within which globalization could take root. The chapter explores how globalization has influenced the theory, practice and research in TE. Finally,

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the chapter points that all is not lost as globalization has the potential of availing platforms upon which to address persistent policy challenges in TE for the country.

The Foreign Roots of TE in Kenya

Education in Africa pre-dates Western education as all African communities had developed their systems of training their younger generations for their future roles in their societies (Sifuna & Otiende, 1992). Christian missionaries are widely acknowledged to be the founders of formal western education in Kenya. Of course, this implies that there were other pre-existing efforts in the development of education in both the continent and Kenya, such as informal indigenous education and those from Islam. Missionary education emphasized rote learning, simple literacy, vocational training, religious indoctrination, the rejection of African philosophy and culture with its disturbing underpinning assumptions about the African and embracing of the universal 'gold standard' contained in westernization. With the onset of colonization during the last quarter of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, the 'scramble for Africa' swept across the continent and oversaw the establishment of colonial administrative and policymaking structures in the African colonies driven by primarily economic and political motives. Colonization policy emphases differed between Anglo- and Franco-phone Africa as partitioned, and this was reflected in educational policymaking. In the former's indirect adaptation approach, educational policy was to create a group of African civil servants based on British models but who were supposed to be concerned with adaptation to African conditions of life. The latter, driven by notions of 'egalite' and 'liberte' emphasized an initial extreme form of assimilation of the Africans and their worldview and culture into the image of the French ideal but later diluted into the flexible 'associationist' model that respected native institutions and rewarded those who adopted French standards with French citizenship. The school curriculum at the primary level incorporated environmental education, vernacular languages and vernacular media of instruction before giving way to a narrow Western curriculum at secondary and higher levels that would develop a middle class to serve the ideals of western 'civilization'.

Thus, the twin influences of evangelism and colonization converged in nascent missionary-colonial government educational policy including teacher education and management policy. Initially, teacher education was an appendage of central primary schools and secondary institutions (Bogonko, 1992; Sifuna & Otiende, 1992). In Kenya, as the recognition of teacher education to the missionary and colonial agenda grew, deliberate plans were instituted, targeting this sub-sector by both missionary efforts and by colonial government through such initiatives as the 1924 Phelps-Stokes Commission and Education Ordinance, 1925 Inquiry into the Grants-In-Aid system, 1931 Education Ordinance and 1937 De La-Warr Commission Report. The first of these efforts in teacher education development targeted the establishment of teacher training centers for primary school teachers. The scope of these initiatives expanded

to include teacher registration, remuneration and certification. There were also pockets of indigenous efforts in teacher education such as the African Teachers' College at Githunguri. After the Second World War, the 1945 Colonial Development and Welfare Act, subsequent Ten-Year Development Programme, Beecher Report and the 1952 Binns-Education commission maintained the focus on expansion of teacher education institutions, teacher education and certification. Gradually, as provision of education extended to the secondary level, secondary education teacher training was developed through the opening of such institutions as Kagumo College in 1944. By around this time, universities had also entered the teacher education scene in several parts of Africa. For the East African region, the opening of Makerere in 1922 and the fact that it included teacher education are worthy of mention. Unfortunately, by the time the country got independence, teacher education was inadequate both in its ability to meet demand and in quality with the explosion in the increasing demand for education.

After independence, educational policy initiatives contained in periodic recommendations from government-appointed Education Commissions, commissions of inquiry, taskforces, working parties, national committees as well as in sessional papers and national development plans have maintained this focus on expansion in teacher training though there were newer emphases such as Africanization of teaching staff and syllabi, quality of teacher training, among others (Republic of Kenya 1964, 1965, 1976, 1981, 1988a, 1988b, 1988c, 1999, 2005a, 2005b, 2012). Worth mentioning is the influence on educational policy of international stakeholders such as the UN itself and affiliate bodies such as the UNESCO, United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, the World Bank and other donor agencies as well as a host of foreign NGOs among other players in or related to education, including on teacher education policy.

Within teacher education policy in Kenya itself, a dichotomy can be made between the policy literature itself as contained in official government publications and policy review scholarly studies that provide critical reflections on the gains, challenges and prospects in teacher education (Bogonko, 1992a, 1992b; Eshiwani, 1993; Otiende, Wamahiu, & Karugu, 1992; Sifuna & Otiende, 1992; Sifuna, 2014 etc.). What is absent in most of these studies is reflections based on clearly articulated theoretical lenses that relate educational development, educational policymaking, teacher education policy on the one hand and national development on the other within their global and national contexts, an omission that limits the appropriation of benefits that attend the use of worldviews in permitting a critical isolation of pertinent issues such as globalization within educational discourses. Thus, the point of entry in the discussion of globalization here is the adoption of a political-economic theoretical framework within which to isolate pertinent trends in globalization and teacher education in Kenya.

Globalization and Teacher Education in Kenya: A Political–Economic Analysis

The policy basis for education and teacher education is the link between education and development, with attendant implications for development planning and educational policy. Thus, a theory of development is critical in providing a conceptual paradigm within which to make sense of educational events that constitute educational development. As noted earlier, the development of large-scale educational efforts in Kenya is attributable to missionary and colonial government agenda rooted in the economic and political realities in industrializing Europe. Thus, teacher education in the form that it was done reflected the policy priorities of the British government and of the missionary enterprise. The hurried training of vernacular teachers/pupil-teacher to man ‘bush’ schools by competing mission groups and the fact that majority of the missionaries had no educational training was worsened by their emphasis on religious indoctrination to ‘clothe the savage, topple the pagan idols, silence the drumming, break up the extended family, encourage individualism, and abolish polygamy, and combat the well-observed inferior African characteristics of indolence and depravity.’ When and where the colonial administration intervened, it was to foster missionary-government cooperation in the development of a race-based education, with such elements as giving grants to the missionaries, opening up of teacher training institutions which did not meet the demand in both quantity and quality for teachers, among others. Thus, a common commentary across the literature is that the legacy of these roots at independence was an underdeveloped teacher education and education system that was lacking in quality and quantity.

To worsen this is the observation by Sifuna (2014) in a 50-year reflection on teacher education and the teaching profession in Kenya since independence that this sub-sector continues to be neglected by policymakers, researchers, donors as well as within international forums and conventions on or with implications for, education. This is supported by a sad admission by the Government of Kenya (GoK) itself in Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012 of the questionable impact of much teacher training. A glance at the teacher education section in the policy document outlining the challenges that bedevil the sub-sector reveals this neglect (GoK, pp. 71–75). To get a feel of what they are, they are hereby presented by sub-sector. Common across these challenges are the absence of continuous professional development (CPD) for teacher educators to enable them keep abreast with the dynamic changes in the various sub-sectors; failure to fully embrace performance contracting from the pre-primary level up to secondary schools institutional level; and weak institutional-based quality assurance mechanisms.

For the Early Childhood Development and Education (ECDE) sub-sector, they include: diverse employers with the majority are not well remunerated resulting in high attrition rates and low morale; lack of recognition of the preschool teachers by the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) for the purpose of registration; majority of teacher trainers in the teacher training institutions do not have teacher education

training qualifications; need for constant review of the initial teacher education curriculum for ECDE to conform to current demands; absence of proper procedures as at now for administering teacher education at the ECDE level in the country; a discrepancy between theory and practice in pre-primary teacher education, with the theory emphasizing that teachers cater for the total development of the child's personality but in practice teachers are put under pressure to provide the child with the academic head start needed for primary school learning; lack of clear career and professional route to becoming an ECDE teacher educator, among others.

At the primary level, there is no curriculum for teacher trainers for primary teacher training colleges. Majority of staff in the teacher training institutions do not have recent and relevant primary school teaching experience to keep them in sync with current practice. The initial teacher education curriculum primary school teachers require constant review to conform to classroom changing demands. There is no clear policy framework for teacher education at the primary level. In-service training (INSET) offered by various stakeholders is uncoordinated and is not linked to teachers' career development. There is an apparent emphasis by teachers to link INSET and career progression at the expense of professional development. There is no clear career and professional route to becoming a teacher educator at the teacher training institutions. Although there have been changes in teacher training towards specialization, the bulk of primary school teachers are trained to teach all the subjects offered at primary school curriculum. There is a disconnect between the primary teacher training and pre-primary level and hence the problem of poor transition in lower primary. The balance of time allocated to theory and practice is currently a matter of concern with the argument now moving toward a greater emphasis on teaching and teaching methods, leaving the more theoretical aspects of education to be addressed in postgraduate study. Due to the upgrading of some teacher training colleges (TTCs) by tertiary institutions, this has led to loss of the initial mandate and decrease in access to teacher education. Teachers and teacher educators receive no induction or CPD and indeed, there is lack of a coordinated CPD of teachers and teacher educators. The recruitment of teacher educators in TTCs is on deployment basis and not on an established standard that evaluates their teacher educator training, specific classroom experience, competence and evidence of the capacity to train others. The time allocated for pre-service is not sufficient for delivery of the specified curriculum content effectively. Arising from financial constraints, there is serious understaffing in primary schools.

At the secondary level, it has been noted that a number of the lecturers at the universities offering teacher training do not have teachers' trainer education qualifications and fewer have recent and relevant secondary school teaching experience. There is no proper preparation or training for teacher educators. The teacher education curricula at the university are not based on well-researched needs assessment and hence do not address the teacher needs at secondary level. The concepts of initial and INSET in teaching profession as well as teachers' career development are not well defined. Due the autonomy of various university senates, there is no harmonization of the teaching profession, leading to differences output of graduates in curriculum, teaching practice and delivery methods. Under the centralized nature of admission to

university by the Kenya Universities and Colleges Central Placement Service (KUC-CPS), majority of those who undertake university courses did not select it as a first priority and may not have passion for the teaching profession. The balance of time allocated to theory and practice is currently a matter of concern with the argument now moving toward a greater emphasis on teaching and teaching methods, leaving the more theoretical aspects of education to be addressed in postgraduate study. There is a weak link between teacher training colleges and higher education institutions, especially universities who train them.

For the special needs education (SNE) sub-sector, teacher educators have the subject matter but are not grounded in andragogy to train special needs teachers who are already in service. Further, there is only one in-service training institute in the country based at the Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE). Finally, the teachers who undertake the SNE training program may not have the passion to handle children with special needs.

Thus, the pertinent point from the foregoing is that teacher education and the teaching profession were not been structured to meet the educational needs and aspirations of the indigenous African population in the colony then and are still is not, for the country presently with the almost inescapable impression of sabotage of an indigenous education system and national development, if the centrality of the teacher in development is acknowledged.

Given the observed weak roots of teacher education policy in Kenya through the systematic displacement of its indigenous philosophical bases and its redefinition within subtle but increasingly bold global discourses alien to its context and needs, the next important dimension in the discussion of teacher education policy is to explore its scope within its current philosophical realities. Where the forces of overt colonial expansionism were held back by the decolonization wave that swept across many previous colonies, much stronger undercurrents in the political-economic sphere were and still are unfolding and taking shape globally. Through dynamic processes of transference, transformation and transcendence a network of accelerated supraterrestrial exchanges in shared same symbols, markets and commodities are emerging and sweeping across the globe, resulting in fresh identities, unities and values (Bartelson, 2000). This phenomenon has enjoyed various characterizations in literature (Reich, 1998; Neubauer, 2007, etc.). As internationalization and interdependence, it has taken the form of 'reciprocal effects among countries or among actors in different countries,' the 'internationalization of enterprise or growth of the flows of trade and factors of production between countries,' 'cultural globalization,' 'multilateralism' through 'increased cooperation between states' and 'internationalism as a joint effort of states to make the international realm more like the domestic one.' This is gradually giving way to the growth of the idea of 'humankind as a whole' and of a 'world system of national societies in the global human circumstance' where the 'fate of the units is inextricably intertwined with that of the system as a whole.' The stronger variant sees the last stage of the phenomenon as being constituted by 'information and communication structures' due to 'increased mobility,' and the global itself is constituted by 'networks of flows' rather than by 'pre-constituted units or agents.' The 'world of objects' is gradually replaced by a 'world of signs.' And these 'flows rather than

organizations' constitute the basic units of an informationalized global economy. In the political sphere, is envisioned the 'possible dissolution of the sovereign state and the corresponding international system or society as a spatialized form of political life' and the entry of 'of coordination among networks' and of 'cosmopolitanism.' The visible pillars and drivers of these changes include science and technology (especially platform technologies such as ICTs, nanotechnology, biotechnology, robotics, artificial intelligence); multilateral agreements on the movement of economic factor goods, finished commodities and services across cities, regions and countries, among others; and education (Neubauer, 2007).

The pertinent question here is: Has globalization drowned an indigenous teacher education policy, practice and research that responds to local circumstances to the point that the link between teacher and educational policy are agents of development agenda that has little to do with real development needs of the country national or have and can its forces been and be sources of rejuvenation to actually redeem both the image of the teaching profession and the practice and impact of teacher education? It is to this question that we now turn to.

Globalization and Teacher Education in Kenya: Reflections on Evidence from Policy, Practice and Research

As expressly set out in Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012 which is the basis for Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2019, the 'objectives of teacher education programmes aim at developing communication skills, professional attitudes and values that equip teacher with the knowledge and ability to identify and develop the educational needs of the child' (Republic of Kenya, 2012:71). In fact, good teacher education equips the teacher with adequate competencies in both pedagogical and academic contents that prepare the teacher for the challenges of modern life. These make a good teacher education dynamic and responsive to global trends and lifelong learning. Looking at the challenges that confront the sector presently as outlined in the previous section and the opportunities that globalization has presented, it is possible to argue that certain of its aspects have been and can continue to be leveraged to the advantage of TE. This discussion looks at existing initiatives in this direction, while the possibilities that can be harnessed will be highlighted in the next section.

In line with changes to the Constitution of Kenya 2010, the adoption of a long-term national development framework, Kenya Vision 2030 both which dedicate significant sections to changes happening globally, there is now a change in the education structure that takes cognizance of international standards and a new curriculum, the Competency Based Curriculum (CBC). From the prescribed program that trains primary and secondary teachers, the new structure organized into three levels: Early Years Teacher Education, Middle School Teacher Education and Secondary Teacher Education. All cadres will have a minimum diploma certificate to encourage quality teacher output. The TE content will be fashioned along core competencies that

will include communication skills, self-efficacy, critical thinking, citizenship, digital literacy and professionalism.

A second area has to do with the now embraced fact that the global teacher requires knowledge skills and attitudes to interpret, plan and implement ‘active learning’ (Ginsburg, 2009), ‘child-centered pedagogy’ (Sriprakash, 2010), ‘education for quality’, ‘reflective pedagogical approaches’ otherwise commonly referred to as Learner Centered Pedagogy (LCP). This emphasizes a commitment to transforming teacher-driven didactic approaches to teaching and putting students’ active learning at the centre, a practice that takes cognizance of the twenty-first-century learner and global of trends to promote inclusivity and special needs. The idea of LCP as ‘best practice’ gained significant momentum from the late 1980s on, especially after the 1990 Jomtien World Conference on Education for All (EFA): Meeting Basic Learning Needs, jointly organized by the UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF and the World Bank. The World Declaration on Education for All argued that ‘active and participatory [instructional] approaches are particularly valuable in assuring learning acquisition and allowing learners to reach their fullest potential’ (UNESCO, 1990, Article 4). Based on this understanding, ten years later, the Dakar Framework reiterated the importance of ‘well trained teachers and active-learning techniques’ (UNESCO, 2000, p. 17). Since then USAID’s global Education Strategy has focused on a similar theory of change: ‘Improving instruction is a complex task that entails... supporting improved teacher training. ... [toward] adoption of teaching methods that involve students in the learning processes (2005, p. 9). The case of Kenya’s home grown concept of ASEI-PDSI, acronym for Activity, Student, Experiment and Improvisation (ASEI)-Plan Do See and Improve (PDSI), which was developed by the project that focused on Strengthening of Mathematics and Science at Secondary Education (SMASSE), was a direct interpretation of LCP, remains a driving concept across the school curriculum and has been replicated in 33 African countries. Initiated in 1998 to support secondary school teachers of mathematics and science at secondary school level, the program now hosted by the CEMASTEIA center in Nairobi provides resources and INSET training programs for both secondary and primary teachers of science and mathematics based on the latest global trends. Mathematics and science teachers undertake specially designed courses in modern pedagogy, technology integration, gender awareness and inclusive education.

A noteworthy challenge noted from review of studies indicates the wide circulation of ideas about good teaching and what this means for teacher development does not mean that LCP professional development effort has in fact transformed teaching. In reviewing the experience of PAKEM in Indonesia, one study found the policy’s effort to introduce active learning had basically failed ‘due to a combination of technical, political and cultural factors’ and the borrowing of external approaches without sufficient regard for the ‘cultural context’ (Heyward, 2014). Perceptions of LCP in Kenya are similar to what Vavrus and Bartlett’s (2013) study of teacher learning efforts in Tanzania revealed. They document teachers’ mixture of appreciation for some aspects of LCP and incorporation of LCP activities in their practice with rejection of LCP’s epistemological assumptions and limited ability to enact it due to material and contextual constraints such as the entrance examination. LCP is often

treated as 'best practice' and is often presented as if it were value-free and merely technical with principles 'whose application has tended to be oblivious to the context in which they are being applied' (Tabulawa, 2013, p. 9).

A third area in which globalization has had significant influence has been the advent of ICT with its tremendous impact on teaching, research and management of institutions. It has contributed immensely to improving quality, consolidating programs and expanding intellectual networks. A technologically oriented society is posited to ensure that teachers are equipped with relevant competencies to manage emerging challenges in education and the society with specific reference to twenty-first-century skills. Kenya is making efforts to deploy these resources for the benefit of the education sector in general. An ICT policy has been developed to guide ICT integration in education. Kenya has also adapted the technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) that describes the kinds of knowledge needed by a teacher for effective technology integration. The TPACK framework emphasizes how the connections among teachers' understanding of content, pedagogy and technology interact with one another to produce effective teaching. Even as a relatively new framework, the TPACK framework has significantly influenced theory, research and practice in TE and TPD in Kenya. Further, a number of national academic virtual networks have been established in the country that are expected to play a positive role in improving the quality of and access to teaching and research resources and overall improvement of the academic environment. The African Virtual University, a World Bank funded satellite-based distance education project, is based in Kenya with over 34 learning centers in 17 African countries. The global model for the use of e-learning in TE continues to gain presence in the country for working teachers who wish to upgrade themselves to higher levels of certification. Universities such as Kenyatta University host the Digital School of Virtual and Open Learning (DSVOL) which offers blended learning for TE programs. E-learning is perceived by Kenyan teachers as convenient. However, formidable physical, institutional, infrastructural, logistical and technical challenges remain (Bon, 2010), including scarcity of resources from bandwidth to software, lack of close monitoring of learning progress, leading to high attrition rates and lengthy course completion.

As in the majority of the countries of the world, quality assurance is a major area of interest. Since universities are involved in teachers training, there are regional efforts in quality assurance. In implementing the Plan of Action for the Second Decade of Education for Africa, the African Union Commission (AUC) has embarked on a process of promoting quality assurance and developing a framework for harmonization of higher education (HE) programs in Africa. The AUC harmonization of higher education in Africa fosters cooperation in information exchange, harmonization of procedures and policies, and attainment of comparability of qualifications in order to facilitate mobility of Africans across African countries for employment and further study and hence facilitate mobility of graduates and academics across the continent. This is part of the effort to revitalize HE in Africa, creating a distinctive, attractive and globally competitive African HE space, through enhanced intra-African collaboration. The African Union Strategy for Harmonization was endorsed by the third ordinary session of the Conference of Ministers of Education (COMEDAF III),

Regional Economic Communities (RECs), relevant organizations at continental level and regional associations of universities who have also been identified as key players for the implementation of the harmonization process. This initiative is also in the process of being implemented within the member states of the EAC. Kenya has developed a National Qualification framework (NQF) as part of the several harmonization initiatives in Africa.

Kenya's TE has benefited from international actors who get involved in the development of academic and research cooperation programs. These include multinational agencies, such as the African Union, the European Union; multilateral agencies such as the World Bank, UNESCO and the African Development Bank (ADB); regional university associations such as the Association of African Universities (AAU); and overseas entities such as some major US-based foundations.

These innovations have not had a smooth sailing in the education scene. Discourses on TE today exist within global conversations. These conversations are characterized by multiple and sometimes conflicting voices. In the context of globalizing forces shaping how TE is viewed, it is more important than ever that all stakeholders in TE and indeed in education play an active role. In Kenya, the Teachers' unions such as the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT), the voice of teachers, have become the watch dog of infusion of global ideas in the Kenyan education system. They determine whether what the international community calls 'good practices' are good for the Kenyan education system and they are also influential in the implementation process. Any ideas that did not include the teachers' voice in their planning usually fail even if they are true good practices. Two cases in point are the opposition by KNUT to the adoption of performance contracting in basic education and the resistance to the new CBC education system.

Further, while mobility overseas has been considerable, movement within the region has been constrained by numerous limitations, including lack of accreditation systems, lack of awareness of study programs, financial, logistical and infrastructural constraints, persistent student and staff strikes, and overall lack of interest and predisposition toward such mobility. Most African students lack the financial wherewithal to pursue higher education, let alone regional and overseas studies, and probably the financial challenge will remain the most critical problem of regional mobility. It is hoped that programs such as the Nyerere Consolidated Fellowship program, dedicated to regional mobility, will help foster academic interaction in the region.

Few countries and universities in Africa offer specific training for academic staff in teaching and learning at higher education. The learner-centered, competence-based and output-oriented approach espoused by the Tuning methodology is emerging slowly in HE in Kenya in particular and Africa generally. However, there is no common credit system, credit accumulation or credit transfer system yet. There are different credit systems. The African Union Commission has now started a pan-African discussion on a potential African Credit Accumulation and Transfer System which is central to implementation of regional mobility of resources including ideas. ICT is positioned to catapult this initiative.

The Prospects for Globalization and Teacher Education in Kenya

Kenya has identified specific strategies to address the challenges confronting TE. In the Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012 (Republic of Kenya, 2012) and reiterated in Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2019 (Republic of Kenya, 2019). They include: (i) development of a well-defined criteria for employment of teacher educators and teachers; (ii) introduction of compulsory internships for teacher trainees for a specified period before registration; (iii) development of a mechanism for attracting the best brains into the teaching profession to inject innovativeness in the teaching sector; (iv) harmonization of teacher training within the education training sector; (v) development of mechanisms for rebranding the teaching profession; (vi) development of a standard for appointment and deployment of teachers and teacher educators; (vii) reforming the teacher education curriculum to reflect the aspirations of the Constitution of Kenya 2010 and Vision 2030 with the full implementation of the CBC; (viii) upgrading the capacity of the existing teacher educators to meet the required standards; (ix) recognition of the capacity and competencies acquired by teachers through CPD; (x) preparation at the institutional level of an action plan for retraining, which updates teachers and provides regular retraining; (xi) harmonization of the teaching practice period for all teacher training institutions of the same level; (xii) expansion of access in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) teacher training especially at graduate level; (xiii) rebranding of SNE to address emerging issues; (xiv) expansion of access to SNE training through decentralization of training institutions to the counties; (xv) development of a comprehensive policy on Teacher Education and Development, TE&D; (xvi) undertaking of an in-depth study of teacher education focusing on improving the quality of teachers and teacher educators; (xvii) developing and implementing a comprehensive teacher education, management and professional development policy; (xviii) reviewing the scheme for all teachers and teacher trainers to develop their own personal CPD plan on a three year basis, and to monitoring their performance and achievement on the basis of these plans; (xix) making ICT a priority area for CPD for all teachers; (xx) requiring all aspirant head teachers to have successfully completed an educational institutional leadership course in an institution recognized by the employer; and (xxi) building the capacity of teachers in developing and using school-based assessment of learning achievements.

In these endeavors in TE policy, research and practice for Kenya, globalization offers opportunities for the realization of the outcomes of some of these strategies or at least offers some platforms for their facilitation. One of the aspects worthy of mention is the leveraging of regional, continental and global agreements to foster the mobility of teachers, students, educational technology and ideas. This has implications for the need for more harmonized education structures; internationalization of the curriculum including international and intercultural extracurricular programming; entry requirements into the profession that reflect global standards; the

need to professionalize TE through international standards and professional development programs including continuous professional teacher development (CPTD); the recruitment of international students; study abroad and other international experiential experiences; teacher and student mobility; use of international assessments; among others. For example, Kenya is a member of the East African Community (EAC), the African Union (AU), the United Nations (UN) and among others. For example, as a member of the AU the country stands to reap the benefits from the African Agenda 2063's Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA16-35), part of which encourages teacher mobility within the continent, the provision of a holistic, inclusive and equitable education with good conditions for lifelong learning as sine qua non for sustainable development, harmonized education and training systems that are essential for the realization of intra-African mobility and academic integration through regional cooperation and provision of quality and relevant education, training and research as core for scientific and technological innovation, creativity and entrepreneurship, among other provisions. In addition, Kenya has entered bilateral agreement with other international states for teacher exchange programs or for providing teachers to alleviate shortages. Noteworthy is the fact that the SDG 4 Target 4.7. (c) focuses on a substantially increase in the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing states by 2030 and operationalized in the form of the percentage of teachers in at the pre-primary, primary, lower and upper secondary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (e.g., pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country. In Kenya, the movement of teachers and students has been occasioned by international migration, regional demands for trained teachers and exchange of student program through internationalization initiatives. In this context, possibilities for increasing the knowledge, skills and attitudes that allow teachers to support the learning of all students become necessary.

Another area that presents enormous potential for TE the capacity to harness the rapid changes brought by ICTs especially in the rapid movement of ideas across local contexts. Ideas of good teaching and what these mean for teacher education circulate with greater range and speed as a consequence of the heightened connections of globalization. The evolution of a world of networked connectivity has led to a growth in international conferences, forums such as the International Summit on the Teaching Profession (ISTP), comparative and collaborative research, international consulting that have supported the growth of new forums for the discussion and development of ideas related to TE&D. Learning Resource Centers (LRC) is one implemented global idea for supporting teachers improve their pedagogical skills. The LRCs only require updates in content delivery to sustain relevance by updating teacher with good practices such as the integration of the twenty-first-century skills and contemporary learner-centered material development and utilization of existing resources. Globalization has also brought to the fore the need to integrate contemporary issues in TE such as conflict resolution, health and social education including matters of sexuality, good governance, climate change, community service learning

and among others. There is also recognition of the need to inclusion research skills as a component of the TE course to facilitate generating of knowledge and continued learning.

Globalization has also necessitated the development of the concept of teacher education from a lifelong learning approach instead of the traditional one-off initial training that has dominated TE. It has also led to an emphasis on CPTD and also opened new opportunities for INSET. Good practices globally indicate that school-focused in-service education is potentially a powerful method for improving the quality of teaching and the existing school based in-service programs in the country are poised for strengthening. It is likely that in the next few years, the most important area for improvements in education will undoubtedly be through the teacher development programs, in recognition of the view that the teacher as a professional needs to be part of a continuing education pattern.

Conclusion

This chapter began by tracing the roots of Kenya's teacher education to the initiatives of the missionaries in evangelizing the 'dark' continent and the colonial government's efforts to establish a British colony with its attendant political and economic motivations. It was noted that systematic TE that began to incorporate the needs of African majority began to receive priority in the 1940s with the unfortunate result that at the time of independence in 1963, TE could not meet the heightened demand for education by the Africans in both quantitative and qualitative terms. It was then emphasized that subsequent efforts since independence have yet to satisfy the dynamic educational needs of the country though this is itself a reflection of the numerous challenges the Government of Kenya has faced in developing an education sector that responds to these needs.

It is in that context that the prospects and perils of globalization were appraised in aiding the development of sustainable solutions to the identified challenges or accentuating their negative influences. Noting that the development of TE itself traces its roots to foreign influences, it was also emphasized that regional and international forces that constitute the pervasive nature of globalization have also made their mark in TE. We have isolated some of these such as the adoption of new educational structures and curricula which obviously determine the nature of TE; the role of ICT in the spread of ideas; creation of networks of practice, and in influencing pedagogy; the role of multilateralism in creating legal infrastructure upon which the movement of expertise, technology and services can occur. As noted, these innovations have had their challenges in implementation owing to costs and capacity as well as resistance by stakeholders who question their relevance. In light of challenges related to the policy and practice in TE, the opportunities and prospects that globalization presents were highlighted.

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Teacher Education in Bhutan



Deki C. Gyamtso

Abstract Two things make Bhutan a fascinating country to study—its unique governmental philosophy known as Gross National Happiness (GNH) and its education system that transited from a monastic system to a modern secular Western-style education starting in the 1950s, making it a relatively recent phenomenon. The introduction of modern education opened a new chapter in the history of learning and scholarship in Bhutan bringing about unprecedented changes in social, cultural, political and economic structures in Bhutan and in particular revolutionized the country's education system. The national goal of self-reliance necessitated the need to nurture and support teacher training as education is key to development. This chapter explores teacher education in Bhutan. It discusses the history and progress of teacher education in the country, and the challenges and opportunities of internationalization and globalization of the programs in teacher education. It is a qualitative description based on extensive desk review and document analysis supported by interviews with teacher educators.

Keywords Teacher education · Educating for gross national happiness · Internationalization · Globalization · Bachelor of education secondary · Bachelor of education primary · Postgraduate teacher education programs

Nested between China and India, Bhutan has endeavored to navigate its own course of educational opportunity with the goal of retaining traditional values while providing quality education. To a considerable extent, education in Bhutan is shaped by its history. From the eighth century AD to the early twentieth-century, monastic education was the predominant form of education in the country. Secular education only began, albeit in a very small way, at the beginning of the twentieth century (Schuelka & Maxwell, 2016). Modern secular schooling is a relatively recent phenomenon starting in the 1950s (Wangmo & Choden, 2011) and yet by the early twenty-first century, near-universal mass education has largely been achieved (Schuelka & Maxwell,

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2016). Introduction of modern secular education made education increasingly available to the common people (Maxwell, 2008; Phuntsho, 2000). Education is recognized as a central player in the transformation of Bhutan from a traditional society to a dynamic, confident participant in regional and global affairs (Education Sector Review Commission, 2008). It affected all sections of society and brought about unprecedented changes in the social, cultural, political and economic structures in Bhutan.

For many years, the Bhutanese system strongly reflected educational models of assessment and instruction of other countries. Of considerable influence was the import of the Indian system of education with its roots deep in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries' British system (Brooks & Jones, 2008; Gyamtso & Drukpa, 2000; Maxwell, Rinchen, & Cooksey, 2010). It was only after 1985 the need for its own curriculum and instruction that is uniquely suited for Bhutanese was strongly recognized and effected. The education department started 'Bhutanising' the education system so that teaching and learning in schools were in accordance with national needs and aspirations (Ministry of Education, 1989, p. 8).

One of the central goals of the Royal Government of Bhutan, as inspired by the Fourth King's vision of Gross National Happiness (GNH), is that Bhutanese people should be the ultimate beneficiaries of any development activity. Not surprisingly, one of the main sectors that GNH has the most traction is in education as it is seen as directly being responsible in enriching and creating more fulfilling lives for the population that it serves (Royal Government of Bhutan, 1999). Education has always been accorded priority as a means of building the human resource base for supporting political, social and economic development programs in Bhutan (Maxwell, 2008). It is the glue that binds all the pillars and dimensions of Gross National Happiness and the key to their realization (Gross National Happiness Commission, 2013). The national goal of self-reliance necessitated the need to nurture and support teacher training as education is key to development (Royal Government of Bhutan, 1999).

In December 2009, Bhutan launched the Educating for GNH Initiative (EdGNH) as an attempt to operationalize GNH in practice. EdGNH is a 'radical' educational policy as it aims to shift a previously academically oriented curriculum to one which also incorporates happiness as the key goal for education, indeed for life (Gyamtso, Sherab, & Maxwell, 2017). This nationwide implementation of the EdGNH is by far one of the most expansive attempts at the operationalization of GNH in Bhutan (Tshomo, 2016).

An understanding of the background of education in Bhutan and the GNH initiative in education will enable an appreciation of the chapter on teacher education in Bhutan.

The methodology used is a qualitative description based on an extensive desktop review of the policies and documents of the Royal University of Bhutan, Ministry of Education and the two Colleges of Education supported by interviews with teacher educators.

Teacher Education in Bhutan

Teacher education policies—Tertiary education (of which teacher education is a key component) is fully supported by the state in accordance with the provisions in the Constitution of Bhutan that:

The State shall endeavour to provide education for the purpose of improving and increasing knowledge, values and skills of the entire population with education being directed towards the full development of the human personality;

The State shall provide free education to all children of school going age up to the tenth standard and ensure that technical and professional education is made generally available and that higher education is equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(Royal Government of Bhutan, 2008).

Policies are developed consistent with these constitutional provisions recognizing it as fundamental in steering Bhutan into a knowledge-based society that values lifelong learning.

An analysis of the national education policies shows Bhutan places a high priority on investment in education (Maxwell, 2008; Namgyel & Rinchen, 2016). Further, as education is one of the nine domains of the policy of Gross National Happiness (Gross National Happiness Commission, 2013); the Royal Government sees it as a key approach to fulfill the happiness of people. The Ministry of Education has introduced educational policies to ensure quality, equitability and accessibility to education. Such policies are epitomized in the Education Policy Guidelines and Instructions series (1974–2017), ‘Education for All’ document, *Bhutan 2020: A Vision for Peace, Prosperity and Happiness* (1999), *Education Sector: Realizing vision 2020 Policy and Strategy* (Royal Government of Bhutan, 2003) and the 11th Five-Year Plan (Gross National Happiness Commission, 2013) [to name a few important documents] outlining the education policies that is followed in Bhutan. In 2014, the launch of *Bhutan Education Blueprint 2014–2024* further streamlined the existing policies acknowledging the challenges and planned for innovative changes in the Bhutanese education system focusing on quality, equity and system efficiency at all levels of education. The policies clearly state that tertiary education should be nationally rooted and globally competitive with the aim to develop productive, socially responsible, culturally grounded, ecologically sensitive and spiritually aware citizens who can resolve complex social, economic, political, environmental and technical problems (Ministry of Education, 2014a, 2014b).

The two colleges of education provide the human resource requirements of teachers for the primary and secondary schools of Bhutan. Prior to their establishment in the early period of modernization of education in Bhutan, teachers were mainly recruited from India as there were very few or no trained Bhutanese teachers to meet the human resource requirements. In the 1980s, overseas volunteers from UK, Ireland and other European countries were also recruited (in addition to the Indian teachers) to help fill the gap. By then many Bhutanese had trained as teachers (in country as well as in overseas higher education institutes) and gradually over the

years the reliance on expatriate teachers diminished. Teachers in the Bhutanese education system graduate from the two colleges of education. Over time, the number of teachers provided by the two CoEs has increased from the first cohort of teachers-trainees—39 in Samtse College of Education and 8 in Paro College of Education. In 1994, the total number of teachers provided by the two CoEs was 1743 teachers for the community, primary, junior, high and private schools in the country (Ministry of Planning, 1996). As of 2018, 9574 teachers with bachelor's, diploma, postgraduate diploma, and master's qualifications have graduated from the two colleges of education (Ministry of Education, 2018). The numbers of teachers graduating were steadily on the increase from the time of the launch of the two colleges in the last 15 years or so. It is only recently (since 2016) that there is a slight decrease in the numbers from 2707 in 2014 to 2430 in 2016 (Ministry of Education, 2017).

Teacher Education Institutes

Samtse College of Education (SCE)—The country's first teacher training institute has an impressive profile as the premier teacher education institute and a pioneer of several educational initiatives in Bhutan. The establishment of SCE (erstwhile Teacher Training Institute) coincided with the historic development efforts with Bhutan's Five-Year Plan in the 1960s wherein the need for the skilled human resource was seen as imperative for the country's social, economic development. With the establishment of several schools during the decade, teachers were brought from India as there were very few trained Bhutanese teachers. Thusly, it seems imperative to have teachers who were home-bred, educated and trained not only in the emerging academic disciplines and secular methods but were knowledgeable and experienced in the country's history, culture and heritage (Samtse College of Education, 2018). As a result, the premier teacher education institute—Teacher Training Institute (TTI)—was established by the Royal Government of Bhutan in 1968 at Samtse. On the onset, a two-year pre-service certificate course in primary teacher training with an initial enrollment of 41 students was offered. Of these, 39 graduated successfully and became teachers and teacher educators and later played important roles in the educational development of Bhutan. In 1983, drawing on models and best practices in teacher education programs in the UK, Australia, Switzerland and the Philippines and with assistance from UNESCO, the country's first undergraduate program in secondary teacher education was launched (Samtse College of Education, 2018). The institute was also renamed the National Institute of Education (NIE). Subsequently, several programs were launched, i.e., Postgraduate Certificate in Education [PGCE]; Bachelor of Education program (B.Ed. Primary), Postgraduate Certificate and Diploma in Higher Education and M.Ed in Science and Math. Till 1993, the B.Ed. Secondary and PGCE programs were affiliated to the Institute of Education, London, UK, for quality assurance and enhancement of the courses.

In 1999, the Primary Teacher Certificate program was phased out to meet the increasing needs for qualified teachers at the primary education level (pre-primary–Class VI). The intention was also to create opportunities for higher secondary school (Class XII) graduates who have the attitude and the aptitude to become good primary teachers with undergraduate qualifications. The three-year B.Ed. Primary program was a blend of the B.Ed. Secondary and the best parts of the Primary Teacher Certificate course.

Since its establishment, the college has given the country's education system over 5000 graduates with a primary teaching certificate, bachelor's, diploma, postgraduate diploma and master's qualifications. The programs have diversified over the years, and currently, master's, postgraduate, bachelor's and diploma programs in diverse fields of teacher education including science and mathematics, contemplative counseling, social sciences and humanities, social work, language and literary education, information technology, and commerce and business education to both pre-service and in-service teacher candidates are offered in full-time and part-time modes (Table 1). The college had also launched the first Postgraduate Certificate in

Table 1 Details of programs offered at Samtse College of Education since its inception

Programs	Award level	Year of launch	Mode	Entry level	Comments
Primary Teacher Training Certificate	Certificate	1968	Full time	Grade 10	Phased out in 1999
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Secondary	Bachelor	1983	Full time	Grade 12	Secondary teachers
Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE)	Postgraduate diploma	1989	Full Time	University graduates	Secondary teachers Upgraded to a diploma course in 2008
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Primary	Bachelor	1993	Full time	Grade 12	This program is phased out as the college focuses on secondary education
Postgraduate Certificate in Higher Education (PGCHE)	Postgraduate diploma	2013	Part time	University graduates	University academics

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Programs	Award level	Year of launch	Mode	Entry level	Comments
Postgraduate Diploma in Higher Education (PGDHE)	Postgraduate diploma	2016	Part time	University graduates	University academics
Master of Education (M.Ed) in science and maths	Master	2017	Full time	University graduates	Secondary school teachers
Diploma in Library and Information Management (DLIM)	Diploma	2014	Part time	Grade 12	Library assistants
Diploma in School Science Laboratory Management (DSSLM)	Diploma	2010	Part time	Grade 12	School laboratory assistants
Postgraduate Diploma in Contemplative Counseling and Psychology (PGDCCP)	Postgraduate diploma	2013	Full time	University graduates	School counselors
Master of Arts in Contemplative Counseling and Psychology (MACCP)	Master	2017	Part time	University graduates	School counselors
Postgraduate Diploma in Contemplative Counseling and Psychology (PGDCHE)	Postgraduate diploma	2016	Part time	University graduates	School counselors

Education program for Dzongkha teachers (national language of Bhutan) but later the program moved to Paro College.

SCE is the pioneer in initiating a distance education program in the country for in-service primary teachers. A Bachelor of Primary Education program through distance mode (supported by Moodle for off-campus learning) was launched to provide greater access to teacher education for the Bhutanese primary school teachers in all regions of the country who wanted to upgrade their credentials.

The entry requirements for the programs vary—for the B.Ed. programs, a Class XII or equivalent certificate is required wherein students are selected based on merit ranking using an online system. Entry to the postgraduate programs requires a degree certificate and pass certificate from the Bhutan Civil Service Examination. For in-service candidates, Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL) is applied where relevant and appropriate. Similar practices for admission are followed in Paro College of Education.

Currently, the college has 1132 students enrolled in its various programs with 49 faculty members (Samtse College of Education, 2019).

Paro College of Education (PCE)—Paro College of Education was initially established as a Preschool Care Training Center in 1975. Today, the college has evolved and progressed offering a wide range of programs at the diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate levels for both pre-service teacher candidates and in-service teachers in English as well as Dzongkha.

The college shared the common Primary Teacher Training Certificate (PTTC) with Samtse College and conducted joint curriculum reviews and evaluations. It initiated an 18-month Zhunkha Teacher training Certificate (ZTC) program supporting and promoting the national language in 1993.

1993 was also the year when the college began to expand its physical infrastructure with funding from SDC/Helvetas and the Bhutanese government with the long-term plan to upgrade its programs and facilities. Several programs were introduced keeping with the infrastructural development such as the Bachelor of Primary Education in both modes (regular and distance) in English as well as in the national language Dzongkha; Postgraduate Diploma in Education in Dzongkha; Diploma in Sports Education and Coaching; Master's degree in Dzongkha, Master in Education in Educational Leadership and Management for school heads and Diploma in the Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) as part-time program (Table 2).

The Curriculum and Professional Support Division of the Ministry of Education amalgamated with the College in 2000, recognizing the significant role teacher educators played in the development of the school curriculum. The lecturers were closely involved in the development, evaluation and review of the school curriculum.

Besides being a teaching institute, the College set records by initiating its own Centre for Educational Research and Development (CERD) in 2001 prior to the establishment of the University with the aim to support, encourage and foster a culture of research and scholarship leading to improvement and development of education programs and practices in the country (PCE, 2018). The college also pioneered in introducing a Master in Education level program much before the other colleges

Table 2 Details of programs offered at Paro college of education since its inception

Programs	Award level	Year of launch	Mode	Entry level	Comments
Primary Teacher Training Certificate	Certificate	1975	Full time	Grade 10	Phased out by the introduction of B.Ed Primary programme
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Primary	Bachelor	1999	Full time	Grade 12	Primary teachers
Master in Education (M.Ed) Educational Leadership and Management	Master	2002	Part time	School principals, education officers and managers	
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Dzongkha	Bachelor	2006	Full time	Grade 12	Dzongkha language teachers
Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) Secondary	Bachelor	2002	Full time	Grade 12	Same program as the one implemented in SCE
B.Ed Primary Dzongkha (Distance Education)	Bachelor	2003	Part time	Grade 12	Dzongkha language teachers
Diploma in Physical Education	Diploma	2015	Full time	Grade 12	School physical instructors and coaches
PGDE in Dzongkha	Postgraduate diploma	2007	Full time	University graduates	Dzongkha language teachers
Diploma in Early Childhood Care and Development	Diploma	2015	Part time	Grade 12	Facilitators in ECCD centers
M.Ed in Dzongkha	Master	2014	Part time	University graduates	Dzongkha language teachers

in RUB and launched the Bhutan University Sports Federation (BUSF) in 2006, promoting sporting values and sporting practices in the university.

The current student enrolment is 1011 full time and 473 part time in the various programs with 70 faculty members (Paro College of Education, 2019). The college offers a favorable learning environment with its excellent boarding facilities, IT laboratories, gymnasium, writing centre, library, cafeteria and a campus bookshop (Paro College of Education, 2019).

Programmes and Culture of Collaboration

The two colleges of education (CoEs) have their own unique culture and identity particularly in relation to areas of interest in teacher education, types and levels of programs developed over the years (since their establishment). While the essence of teacher education programs in Samtse College of Education focuses on secondary education, the programs in Paro College of Education center on primary education.

The B.Ed. Primary program (offered in the two colleges but being phased out in SCE) focuses on the education of pre-primary—VI children (6–12 years), including modules such as creative arts, children with special needs, play development, action research and foundations of early childhood. Whereas the B.Ed. Secondary and postgraduate programs focus on the education of VII–XII (13–18 years) and also at the tertiary level (university lecturers) including modules such as biology, chemistry, physics, mathematics education; contemplative counseling psychology; educational psychology, curriculum studies, learning process, teaching skills and strategies, educational assessment and evaluation, Bhutanese education system, education for development, and the curriculum and pedagogy of their subjects of specialization (English, geography, history, biology, chemistry, physics, mathematics, economics, business studies and information technology (in particular in Samtse College of Education). In Paro College, similar modules are taught in the B.Ed. Secondary program but since the emphasis is on primary education, it offers only a few subjects of specialization such as English, maths, information technology and health and physical education.

It is observed that as part of aligning the colleges with the larger policy changes in the Ministry of Education and at the national level, there is a shift to offer programs in keeping with these demands. For instance, SCE plans to offer Master of Education in 11 subjects starting with Master of Education in geography and English and Bachelor of Arts in social work from 2019 July (Samtse College of Education, 2018), whereas PCE has aligned itself with programs concentrating on primary education such as early childhood care and development.

Besides the formally structured programs, the colleges also organize short training courses, workshops, seminars, conferences as part of supporting the professional development of teachers and university lecturers. The development and upgrading of programs are evidence of the two colleges progress to continually keep abreast with the changing needs of education in general and in particular in the country. Thus,

programs in the two CoEs have been upgraded or discontinued in response to the current educational climate in Bhutan by preparing teachers with higher academic and professional qualifications to teach and provide competent instructional leadership at different levels of education.

Faculties in both the colleges actively promote an environment of continual innovation in learning and teaching, including the use of technologies and a broad context of knowledge within which their students can locate and understand the content of their more specific studies; make efforts in creation of a learning environment in which students are encouraged to think carefully and critically and express their thoughts, constantly monitoring and reflecting on the processes of teaching and student understanding and seeking to improve them (Samtse College of Education, 2018).

The two CoEs work together on curriculum development, implementation, evaluation and review of the programs they share. Besides teaching, the lecturers are also actively engaged in policy-relevant research, policy and program development for agencies in government and private sectors, and community service. A noteworthy example is the introduction of Life Skills Education Module. Since 2009, faculties from both the colleges were involved in promoting Life Skills Education later renamed as Comprehensive Sexuality Education (CSE). CSE was formally offered as a non-credited 30-hour module in both the CoEs in 2014 with other colleges in RUB to follow (Paro College of Education, 2019). Further, with support from Ministry of Education, annual in-service training for numerous groups of schoolteachers and school guidance counselors were conducted to prepare them to competently and sensitively address sexuality issues within the classrooms; to promote and protect the health of adolescents in schools. A sum total of 7106 teachers and School Guidance Counselors were trained in LSE (Paro College of Education, 2018).

International conferences and seminars on pertinent issues in education are organized as the 32nd Annual Seminar on International Society for Teacher Education themed ‘*Professional Development of Teachers and Educators*’ in 2012 by Paro College; and the International Conference on ‘*Emerging Social Work Practices and Education*’ in 2019 by Samtse College. Such events have brought immense educational and social benefits—networking, broadening knowledge through interaction with like-minded people for the organizing colleges and the participating countries. Paro College will once again host the 40th Annual Seminar on International Society for Teacher Education in 2020.

Educating for GNH (EdGNH)

Gross National Happiness (GNH) is the guiding philosophy of the Royal Government of Bhutan and has been receiving increased attention from around the world. The phrase Gross National Happiness (GNH) was first articulated by the 4th King in the early 1970s as a fundamental principle of Bhutan’s development philosophy. Studies on GNH have advocated that for it to survive and flourish as Bhutan’s guiding

development philosophy, it is essential that Bhutan's educational system is fully transformed to embody and reflect GNH values and principles (Hayward, Pannozzo, & Colman, 2009).

Educating for GNH in Bhutan is viewed as one of the fundamental ways to achieve GNH (Gyamtso et al., 2017) and became a focal point of education reform in Bhutan (Tshomo, 2016). Teachers have the power to reshape teaching and so the way that students learn (Gyamtso et al., 2017), and it is expected that the two colleges should play a critical role in disseminating EdGNH as every teacher in the Bhutanese education system graduate from these colleges and is likely to make a long-term impact. The primary focus of this policy is to infuse the country's education system with GNH values and principles thus providing conditions that lead to quality, equity and efficiency in education. As a pedagogical innovation, EdGNH is congruent with values aligned with the Bhutanese ways of life and exemplified by Buddhist practices in a country that is culturally conscious. EdGNH intends for educational change consistent with the concept of GNH to take place in the schools (MoE, 2010a, 2010b) and form the moral and intellectual foundation for tertiary education (Thinley, 2010). It is a radical policy as it intends to shift a previously academically oriented curriculum to one which also incorporates happiness as the key goal for education (Gyamtso et al., 2017).

Fittingly one of the key aspirations of the Royal University of Bhutan is to use GNH values and principles as the educational foundation for the university's programs (Royal University of Bhutan, 2018a, 2018b). The 2011 Annual Report of the University (Royal University of Bhutan, 2011) set out plans for implementation of EdGNH focusing both on pedagogy and curriculum as well as extra-curricular programs:

1. All the colleges were encouraged to provide a GNH consistent environment encompassing governance, environment, culture and other material aspects of life that offer opportunities for mindful living and practicing GNH values and principles in the overall campus life and classrooms.
2. Comprehensive Student Services including opportunities for games and sports, counseling and skill-based vocational education, and clubs and societies, as well as other amenities for good living, were encouraged to be created in the colleges. These were envisaged to enhance out-of-class learning, which the university considers to be the other 50% of learning and development that the students should acquire during their study at the university.
3. A GNH approach to teaching and learning involving critical pedagogy and contemplative education was instituted across the whole university, thus enabling all the colleges to enhance the quality of instruction. A GNH Participatory Action Research (GNH PAR) study was conducted beginning 2012 to develop GNH pedagogy in collaboration with Naropa University and RUB. Such an approach was expected to make learning more enquiry-based, reflective, engaging and enjoyable, which is consistent with GNH values and principles. The project was envisaged to continue for the next ten to twelve years eventually leading to the award of Ph.D.s in GNH pedagogy.

Although endeavors have been planned to integrate GNH in the university activities and programs, they are not without its challenges in their implementation.

A project cofunded by Erasmus Plus focusing on *Enhancing Mental Health, Counselling and Wellbeing support for University students in Bhutan* has commenced at Paro College of Education in collaboration with Vrije Universiteit, Brussels. The project aims to establish counseling service centers at all colleges of RUB in keeping with the GNH initiative.

The two CoEs have also among other initiatives been involved in university-wide activities such as conferences on GNH Values Education/Universal Human Values (Royal University of Bhutan, 2015), the GNH PAR project (2012) and the establishment of the Institute for GNH Studies (RUB, 2014–15), which have had some impact in introducing GNH values and principles to the colleges of RUB.

Tacit learning of EdGNH values and practices is taking place, as the focus of this initiative has been more on enhancing student services and extra-curricular activities in RUB and not so much as a pedagogical innovation.

Internationalization and Globalization of Teacher Education in the Royal University of Bhutan—Challenges and Ways Forward

The internationalization of teacher education has been unfolding amidst a range of developments associated with globalization (Larsen, 2016). Internationalization, ‘the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education’ (Knight, 2004, p. 11) has become a significant feature of higher education over the past two decades. Indeed, a majority of universities and colleges now view internationalization as a significant policy strategy and include it as a key goal in their institutional mission statements and strategic plans (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Processes of internationalization and globalization have influenced higher education worldwide due to various factors such as the highly mobile nature of information and technology, and the spread of neoliberal or new public management reforms that operate in ways to marketize higher education through performance-based appraisals, increasing competition between and within institutions, and pressures to reduce costs through the commodification of research outputs (Larsen, 2016). These global transformations have influenced and, to some degree, driven a range of international initiatives in teacher education such as internationalization of curricula; the growth of international service, field and internship experiences; cross-border initiatives and the increasing use of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education outside of the Anglo-speaking world.

The Royal University of Bhutan is no exception to this global trend. Although it is a relatively young university (established in 2003), as the premier higher education institution (HEI) in the country, it has been affected by this global trend and without

even realizing, over time, internationalization practices have pervaded the colleges of RUB.

Overall at the university level, several practices have been implemented as illustrated (Director, Academic Affairs, personal communication, 23 April 2019) by the following:

1. The programs offered in the colleges (except the ones associated with Dzongkha) are delivered through English as the medium of instruction.
2. As internationally practiced, the RUB follows a modular system of organizing teaching and learning through two semesters in an academic year.
3. RUB's award structures (confer of degrees, diplomas, certificates) are very similar to those used by universities in countries like the UK and Australia.
4. The quality assurance and enhancement processes in RUB are similar to practices in the UK and Australian universities. RUB has well-defined mechanisms for assuring academic quality and standards prescribed in the *Wheel of Academic Law* (definitive compilation of policies, regulations and guidelines governing academic matters of the Royal University of Bhutan). The framework covers a range of processes and decision points including approval, review, monitoring, adoption and other related activities. Quality enhancement processes are also contained in the framework to effect improvement in the learning experience of students. All programs offered in the two CoEs are monitored through these processes (Royal University of Bhutan, 2018a, 2018b).
5. The subject matter, approaches to teaching and learning and approaches to the assessment of student learning of most programs are similar to what is implemented in other universities.
6. RUB academics have substantial exposure to practices from their overseas higher degree or short-course studies. Such exposure has been advantageous as they bring back international perspectives and lessons learned to the RUB colleges.
7. Some of the colleges have educational collaborations with foreign universities that facilitate student and staff mobility (e.g., European Union projects).
8. Some colleges have established external collaborations with external institutions, universities and agencies to network and forge links with relevant stakeholders for projects, partnerships, scholarships, faculty internships, secure research grants, enhance research and publication culture.
9. Most of our colleges have teaching staff from abroad. This adds to international practice and culture to our learning and teaching.
10. Study-abroad programs have been launched in several colleges for students from foreign universities.
11. Collaboration with foreign universities is carried out to enhance learning and teaching approaches through staff professional development programs.

In this context, some examples of internationalization in the two CoEs are:

1. Accredited study-abroad program in collaboration with Naropa University, USA, wherein PCE one of the partner colleges receives undergraduates for a semester. This has been in practice since 2014.

2. Short-term study program with students from the University of New England, Australia, in PCE.
3. SCE has educational collaboration with Malmo University (Sweden) as a partnership program on Student-Teacher Exchange Programme, 2017, to facilitate student and staff mobility.
4. The Department of Health & Physical Education and Sports Coaching in PCE collaborates with JOCA Japan Overseas Cooperative Association (JOCA) to conduct workshops and training program such as Training of Trainers to implement the activities of Sport For Tomorrow.
5. The two CoEs are involved in the blended learning courses for teacher education between Asia and Europe (BL_Teae Project) representing Bhutan among the eight nations (Pakistan, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Denmark, France, Belgium and Estonia) in a European Commission Erasmus + Programme grant, 2017. The project supports teacher educators' professional development through the introduction of blended learning based on innovative constructivist theories.
6. SCE has collaborated with the Teton Science Schools, USA, and Aalborg University, Denmark, to develop the Master of Education (Science and Mathematics) program.

(Samtse College of Education, 2019; Paro College of Education, 2019).

While it seems natural to emulate what is taking place in the teacher education around the world, in Bhutan while developing new programs or revising existing programs, a comprehensive study of international trends is carried out and applicable global themes such as twenty-first-century competencies, digital literacy, creativity and innovation, international education, community service, multimedia and communication, life skills and entrepreneurship culture are considered and included (where pertinent) in the curriculum.

The global teacher education model wherein the best practices of the world's best educational systems are benchmarked has been happening in teacher education in Bhutan ever since the launch of the two colleges as observed from the descriptions (earlier sections). The colleges have always embraced good practices from other education systems as majority of their academics studied overseas for their higher degree or short-course studies. The academic rigor and discipline, higher levels of knowledge, and research abilities have broadened understandings of teacher education and to a large extent influenced the culture of learning-teaching in the colleges (Brooks & Jones, 2008). The good practices experienced and observed are incorporated in the Bhutanese teacher education curriculum only after careful study and deliberations of the practices' applicability and cultural appropriateness in the Bhutanese context. Exchanges and interaction with teacher educators from other universities have enriched the professional repertoire of the faculty members. Academics are also encouraged to disseminate innovative learning ideas and research activities through in-house professional development programs which are organized regularly thus creating an enabling environment for innovation and creativity in teacher education.

As teacher education in Bhutan continues to progress and embrace internationalization and globalization trends in higher education, it is at the same time important

for RUB to maintain its cultural identity and have it firmly embedded across the curriculum, particularly by promoting EdGNH as a distinctive initiative in education.

Therefore, in conclusion, it can be said that the state of teacher education in Bhutan has made rapid progress over the years. The programs have endeavored to reflect the country's tendency to bring traditional values and modern practices together while continuing to look forward to further advancement in teacher education. In this context, it is important to keep the aspiration of teacher education in Bhutan at the forefront and ensure graduates are equipped with knowledge, skills and attitudes to participate fully and confidently in the education system in particular and in the Bhutanese society in general, and be able to function as an effective agent in significant areas of national development (Samtse College of Education, 2018).

Glossary

CoEs	Colleges of Education
Dzongkha	National Language of Bhutan
EdGNH	Educating for GNH
GNH	Gross National Happiness
MoE	Ministry of Education
PCEPCE	Paro College of Education
RUB	Royal University of Bhutan
SCE	Samtse College of Education

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Teacher Education in Sweden: Revisiting the Swedish Model



Meeri Hellstén, Larissa Mickwitz, and Jonas Scharfenberg

The advent of globalization is one of the most transformational projects in modern society. As such, its impact has been urgently sensed in the field and the institutions of education, which are publicly recognized as the most effective instrument in nation building. Sweden is the largest of the five Nordic countries, the other four of which are Norway, Denmark, Finland and Iceland. A remarkable history of social engineering of an entire nation through comprehensive educational reform and mass schooling has harnessed the reputation of Sweden as the pinnacle of global social conscience. The educational system has gained a global reputation for what has been more generally known as *'the Swedish Model'* (Regeringskansliet, n.d.). This 'common good' that the Swedish education resembled was admired and praised across the world for its progressive, student-centred learning and level playing field in classroom teaching. An aligned national curriculum policy steering this progressively designed social constructivist educational schooling apparatus, centered on equity and access to public education by all school-aged children living in Sweden.

In this chapter, we describe the pathways of the Swedish development of teacher education through major reform periods leading to the current era of globalization. Since teacher education in Sweden is a publically driven system, we begin with a brief overview of the institutional context and a short overview of the Swedish school system. We then describe the impact of education reforms on the teaching profession and teacher education and conclude by deliberating on the professionalized teaching profession in the wake of globalization, migration and an increased need of multidimensional integration efforts.

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Teacher Education in the Advent of Globalisation

Generally, the public policy resembling the era of the Swedish model was entitled ‘One School for All.’ It administered a centralized schooling system ideologically embedded into and justified by way of the statutes of the human rights treaty on the *Conventions of the Rights of the Child* (UN, 1989). The Swedish national curriculum was closely linked to the UN treaty where quality in and of education meant quality of life through equity, equality and the right to education:

The education provided in each school form and in the leisure-time centre should be equivalent, regardless of where in the country it is provided (SFS, 2010:800, 1: 9 §).

However, in the aftermath of the torrents of globalization, this peaceful and inclusively constructed ‘Swedish model’ of an egalitarian, equity-oriented, civil rights-based society began to crumble during the 1990s grip of considerable system reforms, which in the main were brought on by the political upheavals. At the core of the public discontent was the system educating future teachers. The attention on the failing of the Swedish schooling system was accelerated by the declining PISA results and politically motivated constraints.

The combination of a series of politically driven imperatives and educational reforms placed the Swedish teacher education under siege for provisions of better accountability of quality education. The debates centred on the key issues seeking consolation on the long-term quality aspects of a teacher education system that is assumed by the public to lead a nation from here into the future. The issues of tenability in teacher education can also be expressed by way of sustainability aspects, and be aligned for instance with the Agenda 2030, in which Goal 4 is directed toward the provision of quality education for all.

It raises the issues of how to appropriate teacher education outcomes in the face of rapid societal changes: How might future teacher education respond to and enact on an evolving globalised society? If Swedish teacher education forms a building block in the construction of social justice, how does it engage meaningfully with the current global flows of displaced peoples, with migration calling for a critical need for professional, social and cultural integration?

The Institutional Context of Swedish Schooling

Sweden has a publically funded education system and consequently, nearly all schools are free of charge. In most cases, schooling begins at preschool between age one and five. The voluntary form of early childhood education, which is funded by the government at three hours per day, is attended by approximately 90% of all children aged 3–5 years. Since 2018, compulsory schooling begins at age 6 with a preparatory preschool class (‘class 0’) that offers transition into comprehensive school which caters for years 1–9.

In UNESCO’s ISCED classification, this comprehensive school combines ISCED levels 1 (years 1–6) and 2 (secondary level, years 7–9), while ISCED 3 comprises a separate school type called ‘gymnasium’ that caters for upper secondary level education. Gymnasium provides schooling during years 10–12 and offers a range of specializations. While all of them lead to a matriculation that allows school leavers entry into higher education, some of them are specialized to prepare for tertiary education while others offer degrees that prepare for vocational training, e.g., in the technical sector or within tourism. Entry into university-based tertiary education is made possible from vocational education through adding academic curriculum degree content offered within respective programs, or through community education also known as *Folkhögskola* (Folk College). The provision of special needs education is integrated into the mainstream curriculum: Special needs education is provided as an integrated or distinct mode to mainstream schooling. While this system is regulated nationwide, since 1991 the schools themselves are administered at municipal level.

During the 1990s, the Swedish school was subjected to several educational reforms. These have been largely aligned with international trends based on neoliberal ideas about how to manage and administer the public sector (Ball, 2009; Lingard, 2010; Popkewitz, 2012). Political changes opened up for a more market-driven school system encouraging competition between schools, parental choice (introducing a voucher system) and privatization as optional alternatives. Today, Swedish education has changed from having one of the most centralized school systems compared to other European countries (Lundahl, 2010), to being very decentralized with a unified basic structure (see Fig. 1).

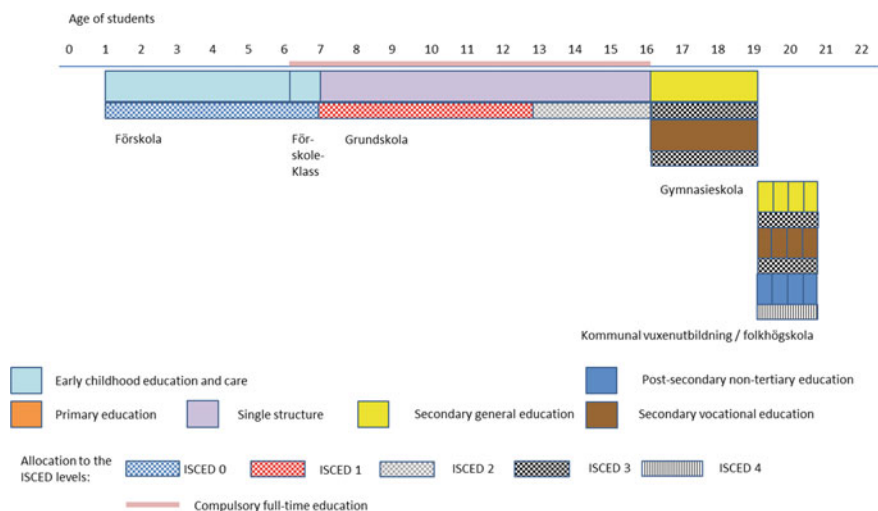


Fig. 1 Swedish school system [modified after Eurydice (2019 n.d.)]

After the 1990s reform period, it became increasingly easier to establish both non-profit and for-profit private schools through public and private funding administered by the municipalities.

Education Reform and the Teaching Profession

The 1990s was marked by intense public debates about the quality of the Swedish schools. These are affected by both the politics and the public media, and resonate in the aforementioned structural changes. They also give meaning to the debates about declining achievement levels on international achievement tests, such as PISA and TIMSS. In many countries, the quality of the school has been increasingly in focus since the introduction of international knowledge tests and the raise of new opportunities for comparisons between countries. In the Swedish case however, much emphasis has been placed on the teaching profession and a need to secure teachers' professionalism (Mickwitz, 2015). In the 1990s, a long tradition of great confidence in the Swedish school's quality began to change. Issues to do with classroom management and falling achievement-level results were raised in political debates. Many of the Swedish school's issues were largely explained by teachers' lack of professionalism. This case of alignment between improved quality of teacher education programs and improving conditions for teachers and rising PISA results is not unique for Sweden. It is discussed in other countries as well, with some researchers going as far as Dolton and Marcenaro Gutierrez (2011), who argue for a direct connection between the salary of teachers and the PISA results in the respective OECD countries.

A more competitive and market-oriented school system changed the schooling landscape in Sweden in several ways. The introduction of a voucher system and parental choice led to increased segregation between schools. Public schools in more socio-economically vulnerable areas in the larger cities lost many students due to a student flight from the suburban areas toward schools in the inner city (Forsberg & Lundgren, 2010). Concurrently, the amount of independently run schools (a.k.a. 'free schools', 'friskolor') expanded during the years to follow. As these schools, although privately run, receive their funding from the government, they are not entitled to charge school fees. Nor are the few private schools that are running in the system allowed to have selective enrolment of students. This can be linked to the policy of 'A school for all' which stipulates that students may not be excluded from schooling due to economic reasons. In Sweden, the requirement for an equivalent school for all is legislated within the School Act and in the national curriculum (SFS, 2010:800, 1: 8 §). School enrolment is conditional to placement on the waiting lists (private compulsory schools) or grades (private and public upper secondary school). In larger cities in Sweden, a landscape of schools has been formed where students from socially more privileged backgrounds and higher levels of grade achievement attend the more prestigious schools, while the other schools receive students with lower levels of grade achievements. Therefore, the issue of parity among schools is increasingly questioned in Sweden today, and this has resonated also at international

levels (OECD, 2016) expressing concern over the system becoming increasingly segregated. At the same time, this has led to considerable differences for the teaching profession, for example, to increasing differences in the working conditions or salaries offered by different schools.

Lately, teaching is increasingly seen as an unattractive profession. This can be explained by a growing administrative workload that has increased significantly due to school reforms, the comparatively low salary and a low degree of professionalization in the field (Bertilsson, 2014). Especially the salary has to be regarded as low compared to other OECD countries: In 2015/2016, Swedish teachers earned between 67.8 and 109.6% compared to the GDP per capita. Especially the maximum salaries are significantly lower than in other European countries, as teachers usually can earn significantly more than the per capita GDP in most countries (European Commission, EACEA, & Eurodice, 2016). Furthermore, Swedish teachers have a rather high amount of work hours during the school year (in part as compensation for a long summer holiday).

At the same time, the social status of the teaching profession and its status compared to other courses of studies declined due to the decentralization, communalization and market orientation of the education sector during the last decades (Calander, Jonsson, Lindblad, Steensen, & Wikström, 2003; Mickwitz, 2015). Consequently, the teacher training programs have had major problems attracting students, which in turn has led to drastically reduced admission requirements of entry into teacher training. Today's teaching profession has seen an increasing shift in demographics due to recruiting more students from the lower socio-economic levels who in turn have limited cultural and social capital (Calander et al., 2003). Government reactions to the lowering of quality in teacher education have yielded the launching of several smaller teaching colleges in the regional urban areas. Today, the low quantity of students graduating from teacher training programs does not meet the needs in the teacher workforce. The lack of qualified teachers in Swedish schools spurs on debates about both the graduate capability of teacher induction into the workforce and the lack of appeal of the teaching profession as a whole. It creates a domino-effect where the low or no entry requirements into teacher training programs drain away any competition, which leads to even lower levels of teacher graduate induction into the Swedish schooling system.

Education Reforms and Teacher Education

The current institutional changes discussed above also had implications for the teacher training programs. The reforms of the Swedish teacher education that are described in more detail in the next section can be traced back to a politically driven attempt to professionalize teachers as an occupational group. They stand in a long tradition of increasing governmental influence on and ongoing professionalization of teacher training efforts in Sweden.

A professionalization of teachers can be deemed an unusual turn considering Sweden's long history of education where teachers have traditionally been held in high regard. Sweden is one of the countries recognised for pioneering public schooling, dating back to the earliest scripture-based reforms of the sixteenth century (Carle, Kinnander, & Salin, 2000). The training was in these early days limited to the future clergy of the church. The following two centuries saw major reforms inspired by the ideas of enlightenment. The most notable of these was the modernization of the training of teachers from a mainly female-oriented vocation called 'child-gardening' to 'folk-schooling' and training in health and welfare and natural sciences (Linné, 2010). One of the pillars of Swedish teacher education was the formation of folk-schools which had an impact on the development of teacher training. As in other countries (e.g., Kemnitz & Sandfuchs, in print), the government took hold of the training of teachers through the widely enforced folk-school reforms during the nineteenth century (Linné, 2010). This meant increased state control of future public education through a policy-based encouragement of learners who realized a 'call' to teach.

As it became mandatory for all children to attend school as the general public school was established in the mid-1800s, a transfer of responsibility for children's education from the home and the church to the state began. It was now considered that the parents were unable to take the primary responsibility for their children's education and fostering. Herein lies one of the foundations of the institutionalized teacher education (Tallberg Broman, 2009). Formally trained teachers would compensate for the inability of the home to educate and foster their children. In the 1840s, the first teacher education began taking shape at the 'Normal School' in Stockholm where tuition was offered in the arrangement of seminars, which albeit did contain some practical content on how to enact instruction (Linné, 2010). The new folk-school reform was ratified by law and gave the state influence over the curriculum content which remained Christian Lutheran and had a strong moral and civics education focus and which was drilled onto students through rote learning. Teacher training was still considered significant as being affected by the strong influences of the church and educational institutions. In 1868, 30% of all teachers with a university education (usually teaching in secondary schools) descended from a priest household (Skog-Östlin, 1984).

This type of education was dominated by women. One the one hand, they became a cheaper form of workforce, while on the other hand, teaching was one of the few academic occupations available for women from the upper classes (Linné, 2010). What signified the folk-school model was its focus also on early years of education, which gave many women access to higher education in an otherwise male-dominated environment. Regardless of the initiatives to make teacher training a state-based public education, the socio-economic upper classes were educated through private tuition until late nineteenth century (Carle et al., 2000; Landahl, 2016). Toward the mid-twentieth century, the first formal teacher education institution was launched in the capital of Stockholm and was followed by similar education programs in the other main cities (Linné, 2010). The curriculum was based on a respect for the development of the child and for underlying scientific evidence. It was also possible to undertake

an education as teacher in special needs. The reform on public teacher education was a major social achievement in Swedish state politics and was forged by a general advocacy toward societal progressivist vision.

Teacher Education Today

During the last decades, Swedish teacher education was subjected to a cascade of reforms that often had contradictory effects on the structure of the teacher education programs. Until 2001, national teacher training programs were offered in eight different program structures that were not always compatible with parallel structures. The curriculum was merged into one core component that could be combined through several specializations. The restructuring was motivated by allowing more freedom of curriculum choice for students. The reform work received heavy criticism after its implementation (Hultqvist & Palme, 2009). An evaluation of the reform in 2005 criticized the low standards in the new program curriculum, particularly within the core components as well as on the low-level academic effort that the new curriculum required from students (who it claimed allowed for a 'slipping through the program,' Hultqvist & Palme, 2009, p. 78).

In 2006, a government inquiry was assigned with the task to investigate the need for a national teacher accreditation system. The decision to appoint a government inquiry had been influenced by the public rhetoric about the lack of teachers with proper teacher training. This was seen as jeopardizing the quality of schooling. At the same time, the report by OECD, *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers* (2005), had gained much attention in educational politics both internationally and in Sweden. The report states that teachers hold the most important influence over students' school achievements implicating the need for a quality assurance of the teacher profession and the need to oversee teachers' competences. Consequently, Swedish education policy declared that teachers with appropriate teacher training are important in order to ensure schools' national equivalence, quality and the state's control over schools (The Swedish National Audit Office, 2005, pp. 11–12).

While for a long time many teachers had taught without a formal qualification, a new teacher accreditation reform was ratified in 2011 and which to regulate the work of unqualified teachers. Formal requirements for teachers' competencies were formulated in policy, thus articulating professionalism in terms of formal competence where it had previously been missing. Furthermore, teacher education experienced a general upward academization process as teacher training programs were amalgamated into the university system from their former position at college of advanced education level.

Since 2008, teacher education in Sweden is delivered as part of a university degree system. Initiatives have also been taken to strengthen the alignment between the teacher education and the national curriculum of the Swedish school. As a result, the formal academic competencies of teachers are more in focus today. The policy

reforms within the field of teacher education as well as the introduction of a teacher certificate in 2011 can be seen as an attempt to professionalize teacher education and raise its status in society. In the perspective of the teaching profession, these changes may be seen to resemble a disciplinary mechanisms to promote occupational change and control (Evetts, 2003).

The tendency to strengthen the political regulation of teacher education is not only observed as a Swedish phenomenon. The same tendencies can be seen internationally, for example, by an intensified reporting and accountability culture aimed at increasing control of teacher education policy and practice (Darling-Hammond, 2001; Peck, Gallucci, & Sloan, 2010).

Thus, in 2011 the national system was—again—revised and replaced by a new system that consists of a stream of completely independent teacher training programs. Today, teacher education is anchored in university study and the institutions of higher education. Teacher education programs are delivered at preschool, leisure-time school, elementary school, gymnasium and special vocational levels. Teachers for comprehensive schooling choose among programs catering for years F-3, 4–6 and 7–9. This leads to a rather compartmentalized landscape of independent teacher training programs. While teacher education programs are mainly centred on core pedagogical content knowledge up to year 6, including a broader subject range offered for years 4–6, from year 7 onward teacher education at upper secondary level has a compulsory subject-specialization of at least two major subjects. Consequently, teachers in lower grades will usually teach one single class in almost all subjects, while teachers in higher grades will teach multiple classes in two or three subjects.

Teacher training programs usually have a one-tier structure spanning three years (preschool) to five years (gymnasium) duration and include curricula on pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge and vocational knowledge usually taught in cooperation with local schools. Therefore, even though there is no mandatory period of induction into teaching after graduation, most Swedish teachers will have acquired practical teaching experiences within their teacher training programs. Regardless of the one-tier structure, the different subjects offered within teacher education programs are usually studied consecutively. A teacher student who wants to become an upper secondary-level teacher in languages at Stockholm university will, for example, study his or her first subject in the first two terms and the second subject choice in the terms four and five. The terms seven, eight and ten are subsequent studies in both subjects including time for independent work while terms three, six and nine contain the pedagogical classes (Stockholms universitet, n.d.). Teachers who wish to specialize in teaching children with special needs must enrol in an additional module after finishing their primary teacher training (Eurydice, 2017).

Increased Need for Professionalization and Diversification of the Workforce

The real situation of teacher training programs is different to this model, however. As the current policies place a strong emphasis on increasing the amount of teachers with formal qualifications as part of the efforts to professionalize the profession, a range of short programs options was established in order to support the upskilling of qualifications among teachers lacking a formal teaching degree. Those programs are called KPU ('complementary pedagogical training') which covers 1.5 years. Due to these programs, the amount of teachers with a pedagogical education has increased significantly over the last decade.

On the other hand, most universities discontinued programs for elementary school teachers for the grades from 7 to 9 due to crumbling numbers of students: There is little to no incentive to enrol in these programs, as students who decide to enrol in teacher education programs at upper secondary level are also eligible to teach the grades 7–9, but not vice versa.

This can be criticized in the context of efforts to professionalize the profession as there is no guarantee that teachers who are trained to work at upper secondary level receive the specific structural and pedagogical knowledge that is necessary for teaching at the higher levels of comprehensive schools. In any case, the current situation contradicts the idea of having extraordinary compartmentalized teacher training programs that offer tailor-made education for specific age groups. Another current challenge faced by Swedish teacher education today is the ongoing teacher shortage that is expected to continue increasing during the next decades (SCB, 2017). The reasons for the impending shortage include not only exit to retirement during this period, but also the need to shift the low qualification rates of teachers and the rising number of students, e.g., a result of the growing number of immigrant children (SOU, 2016).

There are several options to curb a teacher shortage depending on the location of the bottleneck limiting the inflow of new teachers into the system. As the Swedish system does not lack a sufficient number of places in teacher education programs, but has issues filling the existing places, several strategies were implemented to enhance the number of future teachers. Next to increasing the attraction of the profession by raising salaries and offering new career positions within schools for experienced teachers, the Swedish government decided to open new teacher training programs in areas with inhabitants that are less likely to visit classical universities.

Together with implementing KPUs, these measures aim at enhancing the potential to attract new teachers without de-professionalizing the workforce by allowing an influx of unqualified personnel to cover the shortage. At the same time, these measures—new locations to target new, specific groups of the population and KPUs which allow access to people from other occupations—can be seen as measures to diversify the teaching workforce. Teaching workforces are known to be less diverse than the population of students they teach (e.g., OECD, 2005).

Teacher education and globalization

Enhancing the number of teachers with an immigrant background can be seen as important, especially in regard to the increasing number of students with immigrant background in many European and non-European countries (OECD, 2016). At the European level, recommendations of increasing diversity among teacher staff are linked with assumptions that teachers with immigrant background can strengthen immigrant students' educational results (Donlevy, Meierkord, & Rajania, 2016). The same conclusion is made in Swedish educational policy (SOU, 2016:35). The possibilities for having former teacher education validated vary between countries according to the differences in national migration policy and structures of the teacher education. Sweden has offered Complementary Teacher Education Programs for foreign teachers since 2007. Foreign teachers with at least a two-year postsecondary teaching degree from another country and sufficient knowledge in the Swedish language at the level of upper secondary school are admitted into the program.

In 2016, due to the high influx of migrants, the program was accompanied with an introducing 26-week fast-track for immigrated teachers to cut the pathway of newly arrived teachers toward establishing themselves in schools and preschools (SOU, 2016: 35).¹ The fast-track is an introduction into the Swedish school system. One main aim of education was to align immigrant teachers' attitudes and norms with those inherent within the Swedish school system for becoming a teacher in a Swedish context. The newly arrived teachers, mainly from Syria, are educated in Swedish, the history and organization of the Swedish school system and attend in-school practice during the fast-track program. After the fast-track, many of the immigrated teachers continue to the Complementary Teacher Education at the universities. The complementary education varies in length depending on their previous education and professional experience and includes teacher training courses and/or subject studies as well as in-school practice. Thus, Sweden hopes to increase the number of teachers with immigrant background and at the same time fill the teacher shortage gap.

Teacher education in Sweden as well as elsewhere is not uncommonly described as a localized institution, building on the premise of nation-building from regionalized knowledge management. The content and interest in the education curriculum remain focused on the Swedish national interests. This has, for example, been made evident through the relatively low commitment to international exchanges in and out of the Swedish teacher education system. Despite rewarding economic incentives and national drivers lobbying for increased activity in the internationalization of teacher education sector in Sweden, the mobility rates have remained at minimal levels for several decades. Neither did the remarkable growth in global advocacy, so prevalent in abroad make a notable impact in the context of Swedish teacher education, where expressions of interest to undertake a mobility period during teacher training have remained unrealized by many. One of the explanations to this derives from the sheer structure of the teacher education program curriculum, which in many cases lacks

¹Several fast-track programs have been organized for different professions. The fast-track is a labor market education based on an agreement between the government, the Swedish teachers' union, the employers' organization for the Swedish service sector and the Swedish public employment service.

embedded mobility periods. This hinders students from undertaking an exchange period in another country, for fear of involuntarily extending the duration of their study candidature (SOU, 2018:3). It resonates generally with the experience of setbacks at system level in the internationalization of higher education suffering from a bad fit in credit transfer between partner institutions. This leads in many cases to students not receiving credit for their overseas study, and needing to complement courses they have missed out on during their exchange period. These issues and a general disinterest in a global mindset contribute to the relatively localized approach found in teacher education during the twenty-first century. There is a belief that Swedish students simply travel abroad for their holidays and conduct their education, training and work at home.

However, the recent upswing in global engagement, not least through the advocacy of the UN Sustainable Development Goals and Agenda 2030, might bring about a turn in direction. For small-sized nations, such as Sweden, being part of the global sustainability agenda is fundamental to remaining in the top league among environmental world leaders. Sweden has realized the broader benefits of involving the education system in this process as it has a key role to play in developing global initiatives through education for sustainable development. In this respect, Sweden has made a notable difference involving teachers and schools, particularly through government initiatives such as 'Den Globala Skolan' (The Global School) (UHR) which has a mandate to engage schools and the public education system within the global development agenda.

A Professionalized Teacher Education

The current status of the Swedish teacher education system is a transitory one: As in many other countries, Sweden has recognized a need to enhance the professionalization of its teaching workforce. This has been carried out by certifying the teaching profession and increasing the influence of the curriculum at all levels of the school system. Today, also the preschool and before-and-after-school programs are part of the national curriculum with stated pedagogical goals to fulfill. Since July 2019, even leisure-time teachers are obliged to have a teacher certification if obtaining a permanent position in school. The reform has been launched as a way to raise the professional status of before-and-after-school teachers in the same way as the teacher certification reform that was launched in 2011. In particular, a need to assure quality in the teaching profession has been articulated politically. Simultaneously, an increased awareness of the importance of well-educated teachers has emerged.

Teaching is no easy profession with unambiguous situations that can only be mastered by following clear, simple instructions—it is a complex occupation that places high requirements on individuals working in the field. Seeing teaching as a profession acknowledges these demands and asks for professional teachers that possess specific knowledge and skills which enables them to act successfully in ambiguous situations that are common in schools and during classroom teaching. They have

better requirements to spur on lifelong learning, to adopt new developments in the field and to master complex, multidimensional settings (Cramer, in print).

In the current Swedish system, the need for a higher professionalization of teachers encounters a teacher shortage that calls for measures to attract and induct more teachers and offers possibilities to speak to a more diverse group of prospective teachers than ever before. At the same time, the 'old' Swedish model of 'school for all' faces pressure from more recent, neoliberal currents in the political debate that threaten to erode the egalitarian approach of the Swedish school system. This places demands on schools to become less equal in their pursuits for distinction. In turn, this development may move the options for people to choose teaching as their profession in an opposite direction. A more segregated school system may lead to an increasing need for ever more well-educated teachers. Such a case would require the professional competencies that are presumed necessary for catering for specialised needs in schools in marginalized areas. However, such schools are also the ones having most problems attracting expert teachers.

Swedish (Teacher) Education: Catering for a School for All

The above account raises the issue whether the Swedish teacher education system has evolved along the traditions of egalitarianism by acting as the corner stone of the appraised 'Swedish Model' to become a mere 'dice' subjected to the game of social and political construction at the hands of globalization. This is perhaps not surprising, as the potential of the 'goods' that a teacher education might deliver for societies anywhere must be geared toward meeting the needs within immediate society. The ideals of Swedish teacher education are holistic in this sense as it is aimed at catering for all of society. 'One school for All' has far-reaching implications to train teachers in competencies far broader than the mainstream. This grand plan of collective teacher training in Sweden provides for the societal range across dimensions of age, socio-economics and cultural diversity needs.

Therefore, what is also reflected in Sweden's provision of teacher training are the five constitutionally recognized minorities of the indigenous Sami, the Sweden Finns, the Meänkieli (spoken in the northern border regions between Sweden and Finland), Jiddish, and Romani Chib according to the 2000 *Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities* (Rodell-Olgaç & Hellstén, 2012). These populations range in size from 20,000 to 600,000 speakers. The Swedish government's adoption of the convention in 2013 led to an initiative to offer education for aspiring minority language teachers at four universities. Subsequently, Umeå University offers training in the Sami and meänkieli; Stockholm University caters for Finnish; Lund University for Jiddish and Södertörn University College for Romani Chib. According to the Swedish Council for Higher Education (UHR, 2014), the numbers of applicants have been relatively low calling for stronger incentives to maintain and revitalize minority education (SOU, 2017:91).

Sweden's historically and traditionally unique approach to teacher education provisions can be described to cut a transversal through the layers of society and across the lifespan. Current initiatives, however, fall short in meeting the objectives set by the patterns of system tradition. Teacher education in Sweden today needs deliberation at several points of departure. At the one end, it needs to respond to the global flows in the field of education, such as the upskilling of the profession. Concurrently, it must actualize new societal concerns in providing a robust professional teaching community that is equipped to tackle the tendency toward a mobile future society in which teachers and the teaching profession migrates across global boundaries. This raises the professional legitimacy concerns to a global level in teacher education.

The legacy of *the Swedish model* may not have morphed beyond repair. Given the state of world developments, the impact of migration and world unrest upon the historically egalitarian public system and the culture of integration within the common agenda of 'One School for All' what versions of the local and global intersect in trajectory of Swedish teacher education?

National Teacher Education Towards a Globalized Climate: Concluding Commentary

At a global glance, the Swedish case is in accordance with the state of affairs in teacher education elsewhere. According the recent Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) report published by OECD (June, 2019), all 48 countries surveyed indicate a need to attract more teachers into the workforce. One of the shared suggestions revealed by this survey of 260,000 teachers and school leaders across the participating fifteen thousand schools agree on the need to raise economic incentives in order to secure the sustainability of the teaching profession into the future. The implications for raising the status of the teacher profession are placed on, for example, technological advancement. While this chapter has not explicitly addressed ICT and teacher education, it does confirm a parameter that is also decisive in the debate on teacher training enhancement, globally. For example, ICT training and innovation in teacher education is at about 56% among the OECD TALIS member countries but is alarmingly the lowest in Sweden at only 37%. Does this observation warrant additional attention to the need for raising the bar on teacher professionalization in the context of Sweden?

It would be anticipated that these low measures have a negative impact on recruiting more students into a teaching career. Interest in choosing teaching as a profession is indicated by TALIS (OECD, 2019) by two-thirds of participants surveyed and remains more popular among women than men. The migration issues sweeping across countries show impact on the needs for adaptation also in teacher education. Approximately one-fifth of teachers are today working in schools where refugee students make up ca. 10% of total student populations. This shows a trend across the OECD region for increased adaptation to multicultural academic content, where

surprisingly, the Swedish teachers' preparedness to teach in a multicultural setting is at about 32% against the near 80% across the OECD.

To what extent do these hard facts show the shifting direction in cultural commitment of the Swedish teacher education landscape? Unfortunately, facts emphasize support for the recent international critique toward the Swedish education system. The debates resonate in the national discourse on teaching and the teacher professionalization. However, we need to further discover at what levels the current circumstances might first be understood, in order to be effectively improved upon. Further research could undoubtedly be afforded to examining the extent to which 'the Swedish model' engages the national mindset among educators. Or may there be so much implicit public trust in the schooling system at policy levels to warrant an assumed belief in any of its failures simply being attributed to inappropriate policy instruments, rather than analyzing their implementation potential (Forsberg & Lundgren, 2010)? Alternatively, does the potential of a national mindset that is built upon the values framework of yesteryear's *Swedish model* make available a silent national contentment? Further issues to be explored in future research may address whether such a belief system acts on saving its constituents from global competition and outsider influences. This type of research might shed light on to what extent the core values of the Swedish model have been affected by the societal changes and become institutionalized in the case of Swedish teacher education. These are issues which give rise to further exploration of comparative research that takes into consideration the state of affairs in teacher education globally and at the intersections across national boundaries.

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Teacher Education in Italy



Luigina Mortari and Roberta Silva

The teacher education system in Italy has had many modifications during the years, and moreover, it was and is still today organized in a differentiated way according to the different school grades. The common element that links the entire system is the logic that governs recruitment policies that is informed by the government and based on a system of placement through public competition for qualifications and examinations.

The Historical Background

From the Piedmontese State to the Republic Era

From a historical point of view, the organization of the school in Italy finds its roots in the Piedmontese state school system, because this nation was the catalyst around which the Italian unitary process took shape. The Piedmontese state was deeply committed to the construction of a modern education system and a turning point took place in 1855 with the reform project, promoted by Giovanni Lanza, called '*Reorganization of the superior administration of public education.*' This project provided for a strong control by the state authority over schools, thus implying the need to standardize the school system in order to optimize this control. Due to the approaching war with Austria, which opened the long road to the Italian unification, the project was not implemented. However, this project was at the basis of the action of Gabrio Casati that, in 1859 reformed the Savoy school system, providing the foundations for the Italian school organization (Inzerillo, 1974).

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The Casati Law posed the problem of teacher training and recruitment, underlining the need to standardize the multitude of training courses that provided teachers at the time. Therefore, it established the training of teachers in the articles 202-218, with a specific focus on gymnasiums and high school teachers and with the distinction between regular teachers (or titular) and regents (or substitutes). The Casati Law established to appoint the regular teachers by decree after the achievement of a public competition, which normally required the possession of a degree. The only exception to this procedure was represented by a royal appointment that could be granted to renowned quality scholars. As regard the regents, the Casati Law provided for the possibility to teach even without having achieved a public competition only in case of necessity and only for teachers who possessed specific academic requirements. These teachers were appointed for a three-year period at the end of which they could be extended as regents or they could take an evaluation that, if positively overcome, allowed them to become regular teachers (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014).

The Casati Law clearly showed the will to maintain a control on the teaching qualifications, whether it took place through the standard procedure (through public competition) or through the extraordinary procedure (by royal appointment). A second important aspect is the presence of a teaching assignment logic based on the elaboration of a ranking, which assigned a score to each teacher based on his or her own curriculum, favoring teachers with a higher score. Finally, it is interesting to consider the emphasis that the Casati Law placed on the qualifications that allowed teaching and in particular on the possession of the degree, as early as 1859. These elements represent important points of continuity that are still present in the education and recruitment policies of teachers in Italy today.

As previously underlined, the Casati Law was designed for the Piedmontese state, but since this nation was at the heart of the Italian unification process, it was extended to the whole Italy in 1861. The application of a regulation inspired by centralism to an area characterized by a great variability and that reached a unification after a long period of administrative and political separation was certainly quite difficult. In the years immediately after the unification, many were the pressures for a greater decentralization as regard teacher education and recruitment, in particular from Southern Italy, an area in which the education system was almost completely in the hands of the Church (De Fort, 2013). In these years, this situation of discrepancy together with the difficulty in finding teachers who met the criteria of the Casati Law suggested the need to devote even more specific attention to teacher training, but always starting from the logic of centralization (Natale, Petrucci, Colucci, & Natoli, 1976). To solve the problem of the small number of teachers in 1863, an additional examination was introduced as an exceptional procedure that issued a sort of 'license' for teaching, which remained in force (with different adaptations) until 1877, the year in which the Casati Law was reworked, however maintaining its distinctive features, in the Law 3918. In the meantime, the Italian University had strengthened, expanding the number of graduates; this consequently led to increase the number of teachers who could attend the public competitions with a degree, as required by the Casati Law and then by Law 3918. Therefore, this gradually led to a more rigorous selection process of teachers (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014).

At the beginning of the twentieth century, in Italy, the problem of population illiteracy was crucial, and in order to solve it, the Italian government posed a greater commitment in the field of education, therefore even in the training and recruitment of teachers. In 1908, a regulation was adopted which required teaching qualifications in line with what was affirmed by the Casati Law and the subsequent Law 3918. This regulation stressed the need for a rigorous selection of aspiring teachers, but at the same time highlighted a problem that would have characterized the training of teachers in Italy for a long time: the lack of education in the field of didactic competencies (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014).

In 1923, Giovanni Gentile reformed the organization of the teachers training and selection starting from the desire to further tighten the state control on them and introducing even greater hierarchies in secondary education, differentiating between a classical humanities program (reserved to the elite) and a technical training. In the Gentiles' reform emerged a different vision of teacher education because he believed that the teaching practice could not be learned and that it represented a spontaneous ability. The consequence of this thought was a divestment in the didactic training of the future teachers and a strong emphasis on the disciplinary aspects: Indeed, the professional qualification exam promoted by Giovanni Gentile was exclusively focused on disciplinary knowledge and completely omitted the didactic knowledge (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014). In addition to this, the Gentile Reform posed the basis for the fascist transformation of the Italian school, through the rejection of the principle of didactic autonomy because it required the teachers to sign a document of submission to the fascist ideology. This aim was pursued with even more harshness by Giuseppe Bottai who, in 1939, published his 'Charter of the School,' in which he affirmed the need to transform teachers into promoters of the fascist state, but eventually this project was abandoned due to the collapse of the regime (Cassese, 1970).

From the Republic Era to the Nineties

After the end of the conflict, the Italian school was in a difficult situation: Indeed, not only many schools were unusable because of the Second World War, but also the public expenditure allocated for education was low (5%) and the number of teaching staff insufficient. The Military Government, through the action of the Minister Arangio Ruiz, intervened in the scholastic programs in order to purge them from the elements of fascist propaganda, but without intervening in the organizational structure conceived by Gentile (Chiosso, 1988). Therefore, even though this action intervened in the most evident aspects of the past fascist transformation of the Italian school, it is clear that it had no intention to change its structure and structural logic (Cassese, 1970).

The Constituent Assembly which, at the end of the conflict, dealt with the reconstruction of Italy, paid also attention to the school system and in particular to the compulsory schooling, to the professional training, to the scholastic assistance and to the relationship between public and private schools, which became a battleground

issue between Christian Democracy and the Italian Communist Party. Indeed, the relationship between public and private schools called into question the role of the Church in Italian educational system, and this topic could not leave indifferent a political party that, like the Christian Democracy, had close ties to the Church. In particular, Christian Democracy complained of an excessive centralization of educational policies, since the Republican Constitution maintained its predominance over education, placing private schools in the need to obtain the approval from the Italian state. The debate on this topic was so heated that it largely polarized the attention of the Constituent Assembly as regard the school system, and consequently it did not intervene except to a minimum extent on the methods of education and recruitment of teachers (Cassese, 1970).

Article 97 of the Italian Constitution, indeed, confirmed the public competition as the privileged tool for teachers' placement: It was considered by most of the politicians committed to the subject of the school (albeit with some distinctions) as the surest way to guarantee a stringent selection of the teachers. Starting from this situation, between 1946 and 1949, Minister Guido Gonella worked on a radical reform of the school system that almost completely neglected the problem of teachers training and recruitment, if not with generic affirmation ('every professional activity must be based on a rigorously scientific professional training') (Chiosso, 2001).

In 1947, the first public competition of the Republican Era was announced, even if it was regulated by a Royal Decree of 1932 (the new regulations were promoted only in 1957), and further public competitions were promoted in 1951 and in 1953. They had national character for the first and second grade secondary schools, while they were provincial for the elementary schools, and they consisted of (a) an assessment of academic and professional qualifications (preferential was represented by a previous experience as a teacher, and further additional scores were identified for specific conditions of teachers who had obtained a previous qualification or veterans of war, etc.); (b) a written exam and (c) an oral interview. All the selection referred primarily on disciplinary qualifications and knowledge, without taking into account aspiring teachers' didactic skills (Cassese, 1970).

Despite the commitment to the promulgation of these public competitions, a general reform of the school system was still lacking, and this led to a series of sporadic interventions without a broader project framework that did not seem to be interested in the need to reform teachers' training and recruitment. The revision of the teaching qualification system began only in 1955, but also in this case it was an intervention that covered only some specific classes of teachers and had the aim of regularizing the position of the vast audience of temporary teachers (substitutes) who had a long history of teaching behind them (Berardi, 2001).

In 1962, the *Report on the state of Public Education in Italy* emphasized the need to promote the teaching knowledge of future teachers and proposed the creation of a course of improvement during which the teachers would be provided with the pedagogical–didactic bases necessary for their assignment, followed by a guided internship whose passing would have been worth as a teaching qualification. This proposal, despite its lucidity and innovativeness, was not applied, and a more extemporaneous and less programmatic intervention was preferred, such as the Bellisario

Law which in 1966 limited itself to expanding the terms of the qualification, opening the doors of the school to a large number of teachers only briefly trained (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014).

The seventies were a dark period for the Italian school because the student riots converged with the teachers' trade union protests: This situation led to the modification of the recruitment system and the adoption of the so-called permanent rankings. The permanent rankings were lists in which the aspiring teachers were inserted with a score that was calculated according to a series of indicators including the evaluation received for the qualification, the academic and professional qualifications and the seniority in the role as substitute. This system, rather foul, was ruled by a complex regulatory tangle that was modified several times by a series of laws that had as main objective the stabilization of teachers without, however, providing any specific training (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014).

At the beginning of the eighties, the stabilization of the precarious was clearly declared to be the primary objective of all the politic interventions on the school system, leading to the consistent increase of the teachers' number, just in a moment in which in Italy the demographic decline began to be felt. The Law 270 of May 20, 1982, also in view of this situation, established the Additional Organic Supply (Dotazione Organica Aggiuntiva—DOA), a sort of reserve of teachers, that represented about 5% of the entire staff of teaching staff (about 47,000 teachers), aimed to cover the staff shortages (substitutions) but also to promote specific educational and didactic projects and to provide for the education and integration of students with disadvantages or disabilities. However, despite this indication, no legislation was focused on teacher education and no specific form of training was provided for the performance of these tasks (Chiosso, 2006).

Up Today

Since the nineties, in order to effectively trace the lines of evolution of teacher training and placement in Italy, it is appropriate to differentiate between kindergarten and elementary school (later called primary) and high school of first and second degrees. Indeed in 1990, a new sensibility took root suggesting the urgency of greater integration, in the training of future teachers, between disciplinary and pedagogical–didactic subjects. This thought took form with the Law 341 of 1990, but despite the fact that it represented a real watershed for the whole Italian school system and particularly for the teacher's education and recruitment, it had different repercussions depending on the level of school.

Childhood Schools and Primary Schools

As regard early childhood schools and primary schools, until the end of 90s the degree was not required. The qualification required for teachers who taught in these grades of school was a high school diploma provided by a specialized high school with a strong pedagogical vocation. More specifically, for the teaching in pre-primary schools, a three-year diploma was required and for the teaching in primary schools, a four-year diploma. These diplomas had a qualifying value and, therefore, directly allowed access to competitions for professorships.

The Law 341 of 1990 established the necessary title for the selective competitions for the teachers of infancy and elementary school and laid the bases for the institution, in 1998, of the course degree in primary teacher education. This single-cycle degree, initially lasting four years and then increased to five, represented an epochal turning point for the teacher education and particularly for childhood and primary teacher education for two reasons: a) first of all because it subverted the naive idea, commonly accepted until then, that teaching in younger age groups required fewer qualifications; and b) secondly because it realized a professional training of teachers in which competences and disciplinary and pedagogical–didactic knowledge and competences were intertwined (Betti, 2006).

In its first stage, the course was divided into two cycles, each of which consisted of two years: The first biennium had a propaedeutic character, while the second had the task of specializing the future teacher either in childhood or in primary school (the student was called upon to make his or her choice at the end of the first two years). During the four years of the course, the students were also required to complete an internship, and moreover, it was also possible to integrate the course with an additional fifth year during which the future teacher had the opportunity to develop the necessary competencies to provide for the education and integration of students with disadvantages or disabilities (Cappa, Niceforo, & Palomba, 2013).

Despite the introduction of this degree, the decree stipulated that the high schools with a pedagogical vocation, that until then had formed early childhood and primary school teachers, would continue to work until the five-year courses were exhausted. For this reason, this high school diploma, attested that it had been obtained within the academic year 2001/2002, was considered a valid qualification for the admission to the profession of teacher in early childhood and primary school, on condition that after the diploma the teacher had matured a certain length of service. The only exception of those years was represented by teachers in the primary and childhood sectors, for whom a non-university, vocational training had been planned, whose awarded diploma was in itself qualifying (Tammaro, Petolicchio, & D’Alessio, 2017).

In 2010, through a Ministerial Decree (249), the primary teacher education degree was transformed into a five-year degree program, which issued a qualification that allowed teaching in both the school grades (i.e., early childhood school and primary school). This degree program enrolled a number of students established by the Ministry of Education, defined on the basis of the annual national needs of teachers.

The course contained both pedagogical and disciplinary teaching (mathematics, history, geography) in which the students developed not only the knowledge necessary for teaching (particularly in primary school), but also the teaching tools necessary to convey these knowledge. Fundamental elements of the degree program were the laboratories, associated with numerous courses, which allowed students to put into practice what they had learned in theory, and the apprenticeship, which covered 600 h over the course of five years. Moreover, a significant weight was reserved to the English language and to the study of the new teaching methodologies and technologies (Tammaro et al., 2017).

An important element to underline as regard this degree course is that it constituted an obligatory passage for anyone wishing to acquire a valid qualification for teaching in childhood and primary school, and it was a mandatory requirement for access to public recruitment competitions for anyone who had not obtained a qualification before the academic year 2001/2002. This situation has not been modified by the subsequent law on schools, namely the Law 107 of 2015, which however have introduced some substantial changes (Dal Passo & Laurenti, 2017).

The purpose of this law was to massively increase schools' autonomy, and it realized it through the introduction of some important innovations that took form in concrete actions that each school had to operate. One of the most important innovation was the necessity for every school to define a three-year program: Indeed, every institution was required to present a three-year program in which it specified the educational objectives and the structural or human resources that were needed to carry them out (Dal Passo & Laurenti, 2017).

The second important innovation was the reorganization of the teaching staff of each school according to a subdivision between 'ordinary' teachers, teachers destined to support activities for students with special educational needs and teachers destined to strengthen the educational projects. According to this law, the school principal could confer such assignments on the basis of a ranking organized according to territorial ambits as well as using a selection made by the principal him/herself based on some criteria (evaluation of the curriculum, of the professional experiences, of the selective interview, etc.) which should be made public through the school's Web site (Dal Passo & Laurenti, 2017).

This is connected with another important innovation that involved the way in which the ranking was organized. Indeed, according to the new law, an aspiring teacher, after having obtained a teaching qualification, could take part in the public competition and according to its result, he or she would be included in the ranking. Starting from this ranking, the school principal selected the new staff members and consequently every teacher could get more proposals from different schools and he or she could choose the offer that was most congenial to him/herself. Teachers who had not received or accepted any proposal were placed in residual places by the regional school office. However, this modality only concerned the new teachers, since for the teachers already in the role according to the old law this new law was not applicable. This implied a new way to organize the rankings, which partly took into account the positioning of the teachers in the old scrolling rankings and partly considered the merits and professional qualifications (Dal Passo & Laurenti, 2017).

These innovations concerned all school levels; however, the Law 107 of 2015 also had specific provisions particularly concerning primary school. In particular, it governed the teaching of English, music and physical education, foreseeing the need for a teaching qualification and specific and certified skills consistent with the subject of teaching (Dal Passo & Laurenti, 2017).

Secondary School

As regard the secondary school, in Italy students between 11 and 14 years of age attend a junior high school which is called ‘Scuola Secondaria di Primo Grado,’ commonly called ‘Scuola Media’ (middle school). The middle school in Italy was established in the reform of 1940 (Bottai), which partially modified the Gentile Reform which had provided, immediately after the primary school, a classic secondary education, divided into gymnasium (five years) and high school (three years), which subsequently allowed access to university, or alternatively a six-year vocational training. Middle school underwent several changes over time. In 1963, it was reformed by providing a single curriculum that unified the previous various articulations (the proper middle school, which allowed access to high schools, the pre-professional school, the lower courses of art institutes and music conservatories, etc.) while in 1977, the teaching program was revised and the division between male and female classes was eliminated (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014).

Even the high school has undergone significant changes in Italy over the years: Up to the 90s, in Italy, high schools were structured in a rather stable organization, but over the last twenty years, the structure of high schools in Italy has undergone numerous modifications. Despite that, a repartition has been mainly maintained which organized three different sorts of high schools: with a traditional schedule (called ‘licei’), technical institutes with different specialization (surveying, commercial etc.) and professional institutes (agrarian, hotel, etc.). Coherently with this complex articulation, teacher training for higher education is not easy to define, even if there is a common element which is the need to have a Master Degree in order to teach in secondary school (both junior high school and high school). Nevertheless, this requirement guaranteed to them a consolidated preparation on the discipline specific knowledge while it did not foresee any specific training regarding pedagogical and didactic competences. Indeed, these competences were at that time almost completely missing in teacher training for secondary school teachers: The result was that they knew what to teach but they did not know how to do it (Rugiu & Santamaita, 2014).

The actions taken to solve this problem have been rather sporadic in the last thirty years: A first attempt to address it was represented by the Law 341 of 1990. This law mainly aimed to reform university courses but, in the meanwhile, it also addressed the problem of teacher training without however reaching a satisfactory definition, introducing the School of Specialization for Secondary Education (Scuola di specializzazione per l’insegnamento secondario—SSIS) that nevertheless was officially

instituted only in 1998. These specialization courses included two-year postgraduate training courses divided into curriculum, addressed to different teaching profiles, which were required in order to become high-school-qualified teacher. These courses provided (a) transversal pedagogical and didactic competences; (b) teaching tools specific for the different discipline areas; experiential moments such as (c) laboratories and (d) apprenticeship. Although these courses had undoubted merits in terms of training, they were characterized by a certain cumbersomeness (Dal Passo & Laurenti, 2017).

At the beginning, these specialization courses had an impact also on the rankings because in 2000 the Ministerial Decree 123 organized them in three distinct bands: In the first one were inserted the teachers enrolled in the old rankings; in the second one were inserted the teachers that before the introduction of the specialization courses (SSIS) already possessed a qualifying title and a teaching experience of at least 360 days in the three previous years, and in the third one all the other teachers provided with an authorization. The Ministerial Decree also provided for a fourth band that would have been destined to all the teachers who would have obtained the qualification through the SSIS courses. However, this system of organizing the rankings turned out to be immediately ineffective, and within a few years, we returned to a more traditional ranking organization (Basilica & Fiandaca, 2013).

In 2003, Ministry Moratti developed a comprehensive reform of the education system (Law 53) aimed to close the experience of SSIS courses: It maintained the involvement of universities in teacher training but proposed to create interdisciplinary specialist degree courses in order to train the future teachers with different focalization based on different disciplines and school levels (similar to the primary teacher education degree). The achievement of these degrees should have been a qualification for teaching, but the final confirmation would have taken place only after passing the service in the school. Indeed, the law provided for the insertion of contracts configured as work training contracts: Only the positive evaluation provided by the schools at the end of this path would have assured to the aspiring teachers the final confirmation (Dal Passo & Laurenti, 2017).

This model has been abandoned by the initiatives of the successive ministers—Fioroni (2006–2008) and Gelmini (2008–2011). As a matter of fact, the SSIS experience was interrupted after nine cycles. The SSIS experience, through the years, has been an issue of strong debate with its lights and shades; nevertheless, it has contributed to enhance, through concrete experiences, the theoretical and methodological planning which structures today's basic training of the Italian teachers (Anceschi & Scaglioni, 2010). Actually, this debate, which particularly emphasized on the organizational problems connected with the implementations of the SSIS courses, led to its suspension in 2008, even if nothing was planned to replace them. In 2010, a Ministry Decree (249) promoted on one side the reform of the primary teacher education degree (see 2.1), and on the other side, it modified the standards training process for the secondary school teachers by the introduction of specialized courses managed by university: the Special Enabling Programs (Percorsi Abilitanti Speciali—PAS)

for teachers who already had sporadic teaching experiences and the Active Training Traineeships (Tirocini Formativi Attivi—TFA) for those who had no previous teaching experience.

While the PAS courses had an exceptional character, the TFA courses took on a significant role in teacher training. The access to the TFA courses was subject to the passing of a triple selection that included (a) a multiple-choice test; (b) a written test; and (c) an oral test. The aim of the TFA courses was to provide to future teachers both the solid knowledge as regard to the disciplines they were called upon to teach and a pedagogical and didactic preparation. That was designed in order to make teachers able to propose the contents in the most appropriate way, to manage progression of learning and to choose the most appropriate teaching strategies, as well as the pedagogical skills necessary to manage the educational and relationship aspects connected to the learning process. In order to achieve this objective, the TFA courses were diversified both by school level and discipline. Despite this diversification, every TFA course assigned a total of 60 course credits, divided into pedagogical and didactic disciplines (18 course credits), disciplinary disciplines (18 course credits) and an internship of 475 h to be carried out at a school under the guidance of a tutor teacher (19 course credits). Moreover, the course was concluded by a written paper whose discussion assumed the role of final exam (five course credits). The path of the aspiring teacher was followed by two academic tutors, who support the trainees during the academic side of his/her experience, and by a tutor linked to the school where the future teachers carried out his or her internship (Tammaro et al., 2017).

The complexity of this training proposal has had a negative impact on the quality of the TFA courses, as the organizational aspects have sometimes complicated the attendance of these courses by aspiring teachers. Furthermore, there was no coordination at a national level, and this made the different programs uneven among them and penalized the coordination with the schools that were assigned at the stage of the internship. The aspiration of the TFA courses to achieve the same educational goals as the SSIS through a considerably shorter time-consuming path without a single direction has proved to be illusory. As a result, it proved to be ineffective for real professional development, limiting itself to attribute to a large group of temporary teachers the necessary qualification to participate in selective competitions, thus becoming part of the rankings (Tammaro et al., 2017).

It was in 2015 that the law named The Good School ('La buona scuola'), officially titled as 197/2015, besides providing a reorganization of the school system focused on a straightening of the school autonomy, it also provided a new system for teachers' training and recruitment. The new system was called Initial Training and Internship (Formazione Iniziale e Tirocinio—FIT) and provided a training program for the future teachers organized in three steps. The first step involved the achievement of a master's degree, during which the students were also called upon to attend a 24 course credits program. These programs were promoted by the academic institutions, and their aim was to provide students with knowledge and competencies about anthropological, psychological, pedagogical and didactic disciplines. The second step involved the need for the aspiring teachers to take part in a competition whose winners would be awarded with a three-year training-work contract. Within

this phase, in addition to classroom activities, an indirect training course was also envisaged, which involved the support of academic and school tutors. Moreover, during these three years, particularly at the end of the first year, aspiring teachers were required to obtain a diploma of specialization that had an enabling value. The third step involved an evaluation at the end of the training contract, the passing of which involved the transition to a permanent employment contract (Tammaro et al., 2017).

This project is currently in its implementation phase, and many universities are working right now to the implementation of the first 24 course credit training program. Furthermore, the link between the training of future teachers and the selection and recruitment system needs a further definition, particularly as regard the practices that should regulate the achievement of the qualification and the subsequent recruitment. Moreover, another crucial element that should be better defined is the way in which this path should be integrated with the procedures for the regularization of the subjects who are currently teaching without having yet the necessary requisites to reach stabilization. The reflection of the Italian Society of Pedagogy (SIPED) has shown how, in order to positively implement the FIT courses, it is necessary to provide for three requirements: (a) activate a fruitful comparison between the disciplinary teachers and experts in the pedagogical and didactic area; (b) support a constant interaction between school and university; and (c) integrate training activities with reflective practices (Tammaro et al., 2017).

Glazing at the Future

Therefore, the most recent legislative interventions on the Italian training and recruitment system have dealt with the ancestral problem of the teacher training in our country, which concerns the lack of connection between disciplinary training and pedagogical and didactic training. Anyway, the indications coming from scholars and scientific associations (Mortari & Silva, 2018; Mortari, Silva, Girelli, & Ubbiali, 2017; Tammaro et al., 2017) and documentary sources (Cerini, 2012; European Commission, 2014) underline how there are still two areas on which it is necessary to invest as regards the training of Italian teachers: reflective competences and research competences. Our proposal to remedy this lack involves two tools: reflexive practice laboratories and service learning.

The Reflective Practice Laboratories

As regard the first element, the reflective practice laboratories, it is firstly necessary to declare what we mean with the expression 'reflective competencies' and why we consider them essential for the teacher education. Reflection is a questioning thinking that allows us to look at the context in which we act profitably, that is making our

experience fruitful. To cultivate teachers' reflective skills means to give them the tools they need to see their actions through an interpretative lens, designed to identify critical areas and hypothesize effective educational strategies. Reflection, in fact, is not simply a cognitive act that, starting from a given problem, analyzes the situation and proposes an effective solution: In addition to this, it investigates the dynamics of thought that have accompanied this path (Mortari, 2009). Therefore, reflection for teachers can become an essential tool in order to question one's own way of teaching and interacting with one's students, and consequently, it is an essential skill to be stimulated in future teachers in order to make them capable not only of a critical glance (and therefore improvement) aimed at their professional practice, but also to stimulate in them a propensity for continuous training (Lyons, 2002).

The reflective competencies are what allows each teacher to cover the gap between theory and practice, because it allows him/her to see the experience in a deeper way, transforming it into experiential knowledge (Mortari, 2003, 2009). This experiential knowledge can be linked to what Argyris calls 'theory of action' (1982, p. 85) and to what Sanders and MacCutcheon call 'practical theories of teaching' (1986, p. 50). Initially, this experiential knowledge takes the shape of a 'case knowledge' and is expressed through a narrative, but thanks to the reflective thinking it becomes formalized and assumes an argumentative structure and a heuristic function. The explication of this passage makes it clear that experiential knowledge does not exclude the use of given theories, but it rather assumes the latter as necessary tools to refine the analysis of the experience in a critical and constructive perspective. The ability to give life to such knowledge is central to the professionalization of teachers because it allows them not to be mere executors of theories decided by others, but to be subjects capable of constructing knowledge useful starting from the contexts in which they are immersed (Mortari, 2009).

This kind of reflexivity is not simple to be implemented and requires a specific commitment by the future teachers mainly because it needs a dedicated time, but also because it requires teachers to be able to face the complexity and the non-anticipability of the teaching experience, avoiding falling into the trap of an immobile vision of teaching that has just a reassuring value for the teacher (Mortari, 2009). Hence, in order to develop these reflective skills, a non-extemporaneous training is necessary.

At an international level, there are different projects that have promoted training courses in order to develop reflective skills, such as the one promoted by the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) or by the higher education institutions (HEUs). These organizations promote specific in and pre-service teaching programs according to the idea that these competences can be the way to solve the crisis of these professional figures (Moore, 2007). In particular, some programs start from the idea that it is possible to support the development of reflective thinking starting from the telling of one's own experience, since narrative thinking allows teachers to review their actions from multiple points of view, allowing the subject to bring in the light the values, beliefs and theories that underlie them (Conway, 2001; Jalongo, Isenberg & Gerbracht, 1995). These kinds of trainings are often classified according to the specific aspects on which the reflective practice is addressed: For

example, the ‘technical’ paths that promote a shared reflection on the tools of the teaching profession are defined encouraging the subjects to critically evaluate their effectiveness. Instead, the formative actions that, by binding themselves closely to the thought of Schön, allow starting from an examination of the experience in order to highlight the points of criticality and the possible alternatives of action are called ‘reflection-in’ and ‘on-action’ (Schon, 1991).

Anyway, this seems to be a too sectorial vision of reflectivity, which is not in line with the needs of teachers, who require a more transversal vision of reflective competencies. For this reason, it seems more appropriate to promote paths that do not define a priori specific areas of focus, but encourage the achievement of a more integrated capacity: reflective practice laboratories. These are training contexts in which subjects are encouraged to make explicit the cognitive processes from which practical knowledge is generated, bringing to conscience the theories of action that underlie them, through a writing which at the same time becomes reflection and documentation of the practical knowledge that reflection brings to light (Mortari, 2009).

The objects on which the reflective practice laboratories are focused are the actions (what is done) and the thoughts that accompany them (what one thinks of what one does) as well as the pre-understandings (how we affect what we do and what we think). As regard the first two elements, from a concrete point of view, the reflective practice laboratories can encourage teachers to describe episodes and anecdotes collected during their experience, bringing to light the thoughts that have accompanied these events and the construction processes that these thoughts have generated (Mortari, 2009). As regard pre-understandings, their weight on the educational practices is as important as it is undervalued; hence, their analysis allows to bring to light how they influence teachers’ ability to realistically assess the effectiveness of their intervention (Cooper, 2007; Mortari, 2009). Two more elements on which reflective practice laboratories can be focused are routines and bumpy moments. Routines, far from being an expression of the non-rational part of the mind, are actually the silent testimony of rational solutions that the subjects elaborate to respond to critical situations that repeatedly arise (Korthagen, 1993; Mortari, 2009; Van Manen, 1995). The bumpy moments, namely when something unexpected happens, are moments in which the teachers are called to suddenly take decisions and can be essential to analyze the way in which the teachers elaborate strategies of action, turning a deep gaze on their daily actions (Mortari, 2009). Finally, an object of reflection which is particularly useful for teachers concerns the emotional side of teaching: Indeed, teacher’s professional practice is emotionally dense and requires the ability to manage complex relational dynamics (Hargreaves, 2000). Teachers should therefore possess, among others, skills of emotional self-awareness and the ability to reflect critically on the emotional dimension in order to make it a resource and not an obstacle in the relationship with children (Mortari, 2009).

As regard the techniques, four are the main ones used within the reflective practice laboratories. The first, as mentioned, concerns the narration of one’s own experiences, which allows the teachers to develop a heuristic and critical look at reality through the detailed description of events and contexts and through the explication of thoughts

and feelings that accompanied them (Mortari, 2009). A second reflective technique consists in the realization of moments of shared confrontation among teachers with the aim to investigate and analyze the role of the innovations that the teachers have experimented (Mortari, 2009; Ross, Cornett & McCutcheon, 1992). Similar is the technique of professional conversations, such as the ‘good practice audit’ (GPA), in which teachers are asked to reflect on the experience that involves them, trying to identify, starting from concrete cases, the crucial elements that impact on their professional practice (Brookfield, 1995). Through this type of practice, teachers cannot only analyze their own professional practice, but also can collectively define useful indications for the practice through a process of critical reconciliation (Brookfield, 1995; Mortari, 2009). Finally, an effective reflexive technique consists in the ‘reciprocal’ interview, in which the teachers investigate the experience of others through an exchange that takes the form of an interview that must be recorded and subsequently analyzed (Mortari, 2009).

Service Learning

As regard service learning, firstly we want to emphasize that it is an experiential methodology widely adopted in higher education (Felten & Clayton, 2011) because it is able to develop both academic and soft skills (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Astin et al., 2006; Eyler & Giles 1999). In the service learning program, the students are involved in community contexts with the aim to contribute to the solution of a need of the community (service) and concurrently elaborate the knowledge stating from this experience (Verducci & Pope, 2001) by connecting what they have learned during their academic studies with what they have acquired through service (Carrington & Sagers, 2008). Service learning has become more and more popular in the field of teacher education for many reasons (Anderson & Erickson, 2003; Erickson & Anderson, 1997; Wade, 1997). Indeed, this strategy can be useful for future teachers because it leads to the development of (a) professional and reflective skills (Baldwin, Buchanan, & Rudisill, 2007; Jackson et al., 2018; Wasserman, 2009); (b) civic skills (Swick, 2001; Wade & Anderson, 1996); (c) a student-centered caring approach to teaching (Buchanan, Baldwin, & Rudisill, 2002); (d) a more complex vision of teaching and learning practices (Maddrell, 2014); and (e) an attention to children with special needs (May et al., 2018; Russell, 2007).

One of the elements that lead service learning to be particularly effective for future teachers is its capability to put in connection pre-service and in-service teachers. This connection is important because, as it is a practice, to be learned education needs an exchange of experiences through the cooperation between experts and novices, which allows the building of a community of practices (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Mortari, 2009, 2017; Wenger, 1998). In service learning program for future teachers, develops the vision of a community that takes sense from a mutual and reciprocal cooperation and that is at the basis of a collective improvement in which flourish

a shared knowledge that arises from working together (Farnsworth, 2010; Hart & King, 2007; Leeman, 2011; McMillan, 2011; Yogev & Michaeli, 2011).

Moreover, service learning can support the development of future teachers' research skills because it makes them familiar with the necessity to abandon the illusion of a reality that can be pre-planned (Mortari, 2009). Teachers must face the variability that characterizes the educational contexts, discovering how their role implies the necessity to analyze the everyday events, their own actions and the students' behaviors in order to produce theories rooted in experience (Mortari, 2017). Teachers' training should take into account this need, leading them to discover how to analyze the challenges that the teaching profession implies and to elaborate creative strategies to gain solutions. This is possible only if pre-service teachers are trained as professionals adhering to a perspective aimed to develop a research-based learning with a sensitive look at the community needs (DePrince, Priebe, & Newton, 2011; Harkavy & Hartley, 2010).

Indeed, Dewey affirmed that research skills are essential for teacher education, because he argued that a practice that does not consider the contribution of scientific inquiry and enforces a conventional way of educating that risks to be an uncritical routine (Dewey, 1929). Hence, learning experiences that, as service learning, promote future teachers research skills have a fundamental role in teacher education, because they give him or her the capacity to rigorously examine the acted practices and collect data useful to redefine the theory, therefore 'enabling it to promote a continuous improvement of practices themselves' (Mortari, 2009, p. 35). It is also important to underline that, even the European Commission (2014) has emphasized that education to research is fundamental in teachers' training, starting from the early stages.

According to these considerations, some universities, such as the University of Verona, are integrating their teacher training programs with service learning projects. In this specific case, the program, which has been introduced into the course degree in primary teacher education, is called 'Community Service Research Learning' (CSRL), in order to highlight the crucial role of the educational research in it. The CSRL program involves (a) pre-service teachers attending the last two years of the course degree in primary teacher education, (b) in-service teachers coming from different schools and (c) an academic team that has collectively assumed the role of supervisor. Its aims are: (1) to promote learning as a service in the classroom where the students are engaged in their apprenticeship; (2) to develop an educational research related to the future teachers' service action and (3) to give to the students the basis for the writing of a dissertation that can be really useful for the context and that answers the significant questions raised by the cooperation between the students (pre-service teachers) and the mentors (in-service teachers). This innovation within the teacher education can renew the link between school and university. Indeed, often undergraduate students' final dissertations simply consists of a written reflection that starts from a private 'intellectual curiosity' that is not connected with reality and remains unknown to the community of practitioners, leading to a cultural diseconomy.

Together, these tools (reflective practice laboratories and service learning) can lead to a new vision of teacher education in which the development of professional competencies (both the one connected to the disciplines and the one connected to

the pedagogical and didactical knowledge) are linked to the development of other skills, which are only recently becoming to be considered essential for the teachers' training, such as civic, reflective and research competencies. These skills can be used by future teachers as an interpretative lens to analyze both the needs of the contexts and his/her own educational practice; to design their teaching actions and orient them to a transformative purpose, aimed to solve the problems emerging by the contexts and meshing it up to a commitment to lifelong learning; to transform their educational experience into experiential knowledge, assuming a critical and thoughtful posture able to interrogate reality and develop a participatory vision of his/her professional practice inspired by a concretely acted civic engagement.

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Teacher Education in Malaysia: Practices, Challenges and Future Trends for the Twenty-First Century



Donnie Adams and Vigneswary Muthiah

Introduction

Global trends are redefining the current and future needs of individuals at local, national, regional and global levels. Education has been regarded as an indispensable and vital tool for social and economic growth of a country (Harris, Jones, & Adams, 2016). Efforts around the world have depended on education as a means of eradicating poverty and hunger, increasing the income of the people, assuring employment and opening opportunities for individuals to live a lifestyle of comfort and ease.

The five key themes adopted by the international community at the 2015 World Education Forum (WEF, 2015) are: (1) the right to education; (2) equity in education; (3) inclusive education; (4) quality education; and (5) lifelong learning. These themes offer a framework for education policy developments in which teachers can be prepared to face the diverse and changing world of schooling (Florian & Pantić, 2017). This framework is articulated in the Incheon Declaration, Education 2030: Towards inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all (WEF, 2015).

The new vision is aligned to the fourth Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 4) to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all (UNESCO, 2016). The continued emphasis on quality education and even greater concerted efforts at the international-level ensured countries incorporate these policies within their own national agenda. Malaysia, for example, has its 2013–2025 National Education Blueprint (Preschool to Post-Secondary) (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2012).

The emphasis on quality education in the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025 is evident throughout the three waves of transformation from 2013 to 2025 (Jones, Adams, HweeJoo, Muniandy, Perera, & Harris, 2015). In the First Wave

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(2013–2015), the focus was on raising the quality of the teacher by upskilling the existing pool of teachers, while in the Second Wave (2016–2020) a new secondary and revised primary curriculum is aligned to the twenty-first-century skills.

In the Third Wave (2021–2025), more reforms will be underway emphasizing on the cultivation of a peer-led culture of professional excellence using a school-based management model (Mohamad Johdi & Muhammad, 2018). The attainment of professional and high-quality teachers begins with the development of these teachers while they are still students in teacher training institutions or other higher education institutions offering teacher education courses.

In the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025, it was also highlighted that one of the qualities of teachers that is given much consideration is their leadership skills. Specifically, Shift 4 in the blueprint states the aims to transform teaching into the profession of choice by executing the following strategies: (i) raising the entry bar for teachers from 2013 to be among top 30% of graduates; (ii) upgrading the quality of continuous professional development from 2013; (iii) focusing on teachers' core function of teaching from 2013; (iv) implementing competency and performance-based career progression by 2016; (v) enhancing pathways for teachers into leadership, master teaching and subject specialist roles by 2016; and (vi) developing a peer-led culture of professional excellence and certification processes by 2025 (Norlia, Hamidah, Mahaliza, & Wan Mohd Nazri, 2018).

The success of implementing these educational goals at the grassroots level lies with the teachers who are responsible to impart knowledge and skills while molding the attitudes and behaviors of the students. Teachers are a key to effective, formative education. A teacher would determine the student's enthusiasm for learning, and that good teaching skills were critical (Alatas, 2018).

Teachers must be prepared adequately to carry out their duties within a very dynamic environment where they themselves must be able to address the challenges of the twenty-first century and maintain a high standard of competence to deliver quality education to the students. Thus, this chapter highlights the entry qualification into pre-service, types of teacher training institutions, challenges in teacher education, the rise of professional learning communities and teacher leadership for the twenty-first century in Malaysia.

Entry Qualification into Pre-service

Pre-service teacher education provides the opportunity for new teachers to acquire knowledge that may extend their professional intellectual capacities and enable them to teach appropriately and rigorously (Reid, 2017). Taylor (2016) explains that pre-service education is also a link between the novice and the professional in the field of education. An individual enters a teacher education program and, after a few years, graduates to become a newly qualified teacher who began the journey as a teacher

in the school setting (Deacon, 2012). These student teachers or teacher trainees are provided with a learning environment to enrich their experiences in delivering pedagogical content knowledge in a professional manner (Mensah, Boateng, & Pillay, 2018).

However, it is important to make a good choice of teacher. These student teachers must have good theoretical and moral training (Alatas, 2018). Teacher's role in educating students nowadays goes beyond with just presenting them with facts. Students acquire from their teachers a great many habits, ideas and values. Therefore, student teachers should be an excellent person, capable of discerning the values of society and moral virtues so that students will follow them as a guide and model (Alatas, 2018).

The entry qualifications for teacher educators in Malaysia vary. Firstly, teachers are required to have a university degree in the relevant field of specialization before they are recruited based on their teaching experience (Vethamani, 2011). Furthermore, there is an increasing focus toward candidates who possess a postgraduate degree.

However, a Ph.D. qualification remains an unpopular choice among candidates. Teachers in Malaysia sometimes do not see pursuing a doctorate degree as a necessity. A possible explanation for this could be due to the salary scheme offered to public service servants, academicians and teachers who obtain a Ph.D. degree in Malaysia. Presently, there is no difference to the salary scheme of a teacher with a Ph.D. degree (Ng, Muhd, Ab Rahman, & Ismail, 2011). Therefore, there is a vital need to reassess teacher's salary with a PhD degree within the government sector.

Teacher Training Institutions in Malaysia

The importance of teacher education in Malaysia and the need to produce teacher with quantity and quality to cater to the needs of education in this nation have therefore led to the emergence of two public institutions providing teacher education, i.e., the universities and the Institute of Teacher Education (ITE).

In 1922, Malaysia established its first teacher training college, the Sultan Idris Training College (SITC). However, based on the recommendations of the Razak Report, its name was changed to *Maktab Perguruan Sultan Idris* (Sultan Idris Teaching College) in 1957. Further to that, its recognition as an institute for teacher training in 1987 resulted in a rename to *Institut Perguruan Sultan Idris* (Sultan Idris Teaching Institute). Ten years later, the institution was further upgraded and given university status. Now, it is known as *Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris* (Sultan Idris Education University) (*UPSI*), and its sole focus continues to be in teacher education (Vethamani, 2011).

However, in order to meet the growing demands of trained teachers in schools, the Ministry of Education Malaysia begun to set up 27 ITEs in every state throughout

the country. These colleges could confer certificates and diplomas to candidates. In 2009, these ITEs were then upgraded into degree-awarding institutions, offering the Bachelor of Education (Primary), and were subsequently renamed to *Institut Pendidikan Guru Malaysia* (Institute of Teacher Education Malaysia).

These ITEs are under the jurisdiction of the Teacher Education Division of the Ministry of Education, mainly responsible to train teachers for the primary schools. Over the years, public universities, specifically those with faculties of education, now could provide teacher training for teachers to be absorbed in government secondary schools. Public universities offer the Bachelor of Education as a four-year program. The teacher education under these public universities is under the purview of the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE). These teachers are mainly catered to teach in secondary schools and matriculation programs. Apart from that, these public universities also offer Postgraduate Diploma in Education for candidates wishing to pursue a teaching career after obtaining a non-educational first degree.

The teacher education program in ITEs and in public universities follows a standard curriculum set by the Malaysian Qualifications Agency, but the universities are given the autonomy to structure their own curriculum. Nevertheless, five components of teacher education are adhered to: (i) the educational component; (ii) the professional practice component; (iii) the school subject content; (iv) the educational electives component; and (v) the educational specialization component. At present, both institutes of teacher education and public universities in Malaysia could train teachers for primary and secondary schools (Mahmud, Nasri, Samsudin, & Halim, 2018).

The Malaysian government also initiated the Malaysian Economic Transformation Program (METP) in 2010 to transform Malaysia into a high-income nation by 2020. Teacher training is now a priority area of the Malaysian government. Under the METP, teachers are under pressure to perform not only effectively in classrooms but also innovatively (Economic Planning Unit 2008). In fact, 'improving teacher quality in the education system is a top priority' within the METP blueprint (Goh & Blake, 2015). Consequently, the private sector was allowed to offer teacher training in order to meet increasing request for qualified teachers in Malaysian primary and secondary schools.

The Economic Transformation Program goes as far as to state, 'We will allow private providers to provide pre-service and in-service training for primary and secondary school teachers. Private providers will be responsible for determining the subject areas . . . , as well as what business model they use (e.g. face to face, e-learning, or blended models)' [Performance Management and Delivery Unit, Prime Minister's Department (PEMANDU), 2010, p. 487]. This major development has opened the doors for teacher educators of various qualifications and teaching experience to enter the teaching profession (Vethamani, 2011).

Challenges in Teacher Education

The journey of the individual in attaining pre-service teacher education can be both challenging and smooth sailing (Cherrington, 2017). Teaching is both art and science and therefore is ever changing, creating problems, challenges and new developments. In other words, these student teachers are inadvertently exposed to challenges and issues which they need to address, cope with and overcome in order to graduate as competent novice teachers.

The twenty-first century is set apart and unique compared to the previous century as within this millennium era, the impact of globalization and rapid development of technological advancement are even greater and broader. Robinson and Aronica (2015) had highlighted that classroom of yesteryear now is quite different. Care, Kim, Vista, and Anderson (2018) argued that the education system of today must be able to equip students with the ability to use and apply core knowledge and concepts. The twenty-first century demands that students must be able to solve problem, communicate clearly, make evidence-based decisions, work together and think creatively within the socio-cultural context of their own society while at the same time equipped with attitudes, values and ethics as a global citizen (Care & Kim, 2018).

Therefore, teachers are expected to contribute toward the attainment of sustainable education. In recent decades, there has been a shift from a teacher-centered learning approach in the classroom to that of classroom practices that are based on partnership among the teachers (Singh, 2014). These changes and reforms are informed to the student teachers who are taking teacher education in TEIs and public universities. Skills required to address these changes are introduced and included in their curriculum as and when required.

However, for teachers who are already in service, the MoE trains these teachers for any curriculum reforms via the in-service training programs (Jamil, Razak, Raju, & Mohamed, 2007). These trainings are carried out using the cascade model, whereby selected teachers are trained by the master trainers, and these teachers are expected to train other teachers at the state and district levels. Other than that, MoE also organized short-term in-service training and development program for teachers who are teaching critical subjects such as mathematics, science, English and ICT or encouraging the teachers to take up a Master of Education program.

Although the government through MoE has implemented various strategies to address numerous changes within the educational landscape, the adequacy and quality of the intervention during the pre-service and in-service teacher education program are often questioned. These changes and the efforts of the government to ensure quality education for the nation are reflected in the adoption of the professional learning community practice at all levels of education. Continuous professional development of the teachers became one of the main goals under the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2013–2025 to provide new competencies of the teachers as aligned to the twenty-first-century skills.

Professional Learning Communities

The professional learning community (PLC) concept has been widely practiced in many countries like Germany (Warwas & Helm, 2018), the Netherlands (Prenger, Poortman, & Handelzats, 2017), China (Lee, Zhang, & Yin, 2011), Belgium (Vanblaere & Devos, 2016) and the USA (Little, 2012) with the intent of improving teacher quality to enhance their professional skills and improving practices in the school (Dogan, Pringle, & Mesa, 2016).

PLC is a complex and multidimensional concept, but in general, it is accepted as a means of teacher quality enhancement and school improvement (Vescio, Ross, & Adams, 2008). In addition, it is also a concept that emphasizes on teacher collaboration whereby teachers work with each other to improve student outcomes. Bennett (2017) explained that the PLC model proposed by DuFour (2006) serves as a framework for teachers to work in a high-performing, collaborative team that focuses on student learning improvement.

The culture of PLC has not only been practiced in the school context but been aligned to include organizational environmental change within the higher education institution as well, including teacher education institutions. This provides the teachers to interact and develop their capabilities as teachers (Masters, 2016). It is hoped that through PLC, pre-service teachers will enhance their professional experience (Le Cornu, 2016).

Traditionally, professional experience was gained through apprenticeship approaches, but PLC presents more contemporary models for the teachers to gain more meaningful professional experience. In the PLC professional experience model, White, Bloomfield and Le Cornu (2010) explained that the pre-service teachers, colleagues, peers, mentors and educators are engaged in reciprocal working and learning relationships where they share and collaborate to attain optimal outcomes. Among other things, Johnson, Down, Le Cornu, Peters, Sullivan and Pearce (2015) asserted that the learning community minimizes professional isolation of the teachers and helps in building a culture of belonging and social connectedness.

Although PLC is a popular term at the international level, the concept is still considered as novel in Malaysia (Roslizam, Jamilah, & Boon, 2018). It was first introduced in the Ministry of Education Malaysia Interim Strategic Planning 2011–2020 (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2010) as one of the activities to upgrade the teaching and learning quality in the classroom as well as teachers' training (Roslizam et al., 2018). PLC is regarded as one of the activities of continuous professional development (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2014). This intention was stated in the Malaysian Transformational Education Bulletin (*Buletin Anjakan: Buletin Transformasi Pendidikan Malaysia*) No. 7/2015.

Some of the State Education Departments in Malaysia such as Johor and Negeri Sembilan had taken PLC as a strategy in their educational plan. In Johor, PLC is one of the ten key performance indices (KPIs) in Strategic Planning Phase 4 (Roslizam et al., 2018). PLC was included as a fourth strategic goal to ensure that schools have an efficient, effective and innovative management system. Wilson (2016) stated that

PLC is a platform that nourishes the development of teachers' professionalism and the academic achievement of the students.

In Negeri Sembilan, the State Education Department regards PLC as one of the methods to enhance the education system at the school, district and state levels. PLC was stated as a sixth strategy focusing on the purpose of producing human capitals with the twenty-first-century knowledge and skills. Hence, the PLC concept needs to be encultured during teacher education to ensure that the student teachers understand and embrace the concept and having the capability to implement PLC successfully in schools.

Teacher Leadership for the Twenty-First Century

Garcia-Martinez, Diaz-Delgado and Ubago-Jimenez (2018) commented that teacher training programs have become 'technically oriented.' Teacher education is evolving and changing; therefore, creating future leaders is utmost importance. Pre-service teachers must be prepared with the knowledge on various leadership concepts and use them in their participation in organizational activities, programs and policies (Masturah, Norlia, & Khalip, 2016). Teachers' routines are no longer restricted within classroom boundaries (Grant & Gillette, 2006). Teachers are in a unique position to promote change within schools (Adams, Samat, & Abu Samah, 2018; Adams, 2018; Mangin & Stoelinga, 2010).

A teacher with good leadership competency is also a responsible teacher (Gielen & Chloe, 2014). Teacher leadership is required in four aspects of responsibilities: (i) facilitating improvement in teaching and learning of the students in the classroom; (ii) developing school through administrative and managerial tasks; (iii) improving relationships and collaboration with other stakeholders; and (iv) becoming a role model and leader referral (Nor Asma Sheirawani Abdul Rahman, Mohd Asri Mohd Noor, Rohaila Yusof, & Hamidah Yusof, 2015).

Teacher leadership needs to be nurtured during pre-service education. The concept of teacher leadership has been in existence for some time, but with the dynamic changes, there is a need for refocus on the potential of teachers in formal and informal leadership roles to ensure school improvement (Muijs, Chapman, & Armstrong, 2013). The intentional focus on teacher leadership could also create more opportunities for teachers to take more responsibility without neglecting their main tasks of teaching in the classroom.

The traditional view of teacher leaders sees them as seasoned and expert teachers who can mentor and share their wealth of experience with others (Neumerski, 2012). Thus, in the past, teacher leader is a role open only to veteran teachers and this notion leads to the disempowerment of novice teachers who might have been able to contribute to school improvement through formal or informal leadership roles (Nolan & Palazzolo, 2011). Ado (2016) stated that teacher leadership should be seen from a different framework, as veteran teachers not leading novice teachers but empowering teachers to take actions that can provide benefits to the students and schools.

Novice teachers should be encouraged to act as teacher leaders in the informal setting (Muijs et al., 2013). Nolan and Palazzolo (2011) further added their arguments that teacher leadership should be a paradigm that include teachers at various career stages including the time that they are still student teachers and not for veteran and experienced teachers only. The embrace of a redefined concept of teacher leadership may benefit schools with high attrition (Ado, 2016).

Henceforth, preparing the pre-service teachers for teacher leadership should be incorporated in the teacher education programs so that these teachers are ready and prepared for the realities of governance and politics in the school (Xie & Shen, 2013). Ryan (2009) added that ‘teacher preparation programs must make deliberate attempts to require the analysis of knowledge, skills and dispositions of teacher leaders, and nurture these traits to ensure that change [school improvement] is embraced by new educators, leaders and our profession’ (p. 203).

According to the Teacher Leader Model Standards which was published by the Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium (Ado, 2016), there are six domains that must be presented, understood and applied by teacher leaders. These domains are illustrated in Fig. 1.

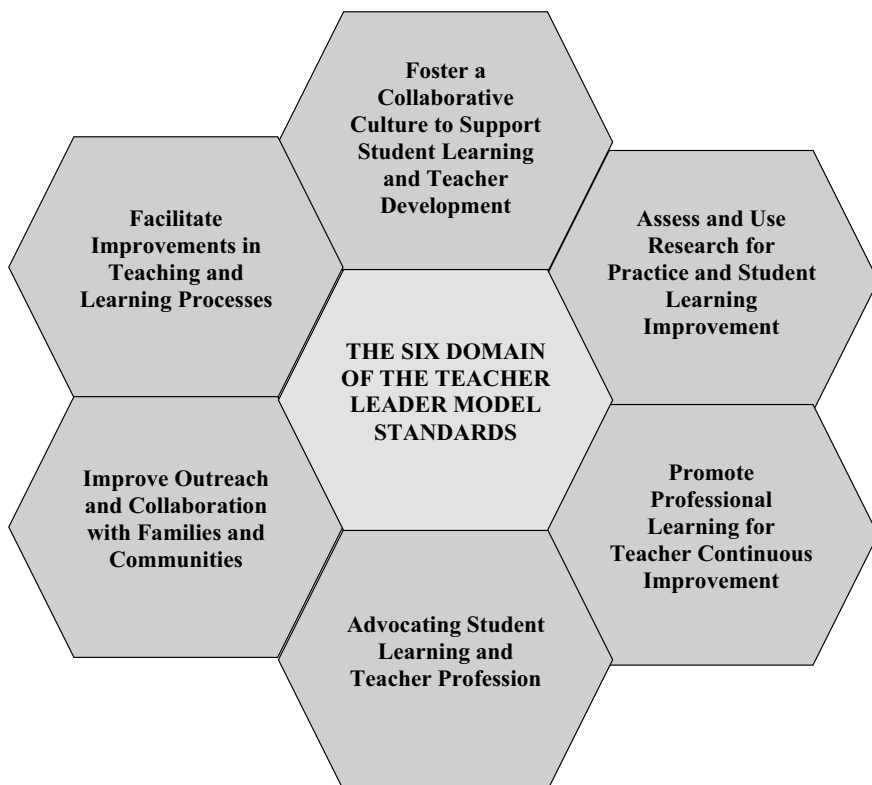


Fig. 1 Six domains of the teacher leader model standards. *Source* Adapted from Ado (2016)

The practice of teacher leadership in Malaysian schools is mainly regarded as responsibility of the head teachers or even at the principal or headmaster level. However, Ayob (2012) argued that these head teachers are merely 'head' as they execute directives from education administrators at the district and state levels. Otherwise, teachers are also supported by coaches known as School Improvement Specialist Coach Plus (SISC+) who guide and coach the teachers through a series of coaching sessions (Salwati, Ghavifekr, & Zuraidah, 2019).

It is common in the Malaysian classroom that teachers focus more on completing the syllabus and preparing the students for examination. These students become passive learners and do not reflect the students of the twenty-first century at all. Hence, coaching and mentoring are means of reaching out to these teachers in enhancing their knowledge and skills to become more effective in the classroom.

Leadership among these coaches who teach other teachers needs to be effective. According to Bush (2011), teacher leadership is a form of leadership aside from others like transformational and distributed leadership that is important to build teacher professionalism in the school where they teach.

The learning environment of today needs teachers to show critical values, knowledge and skills to provide meaningful learning in an effective teaching process with greater collaboration among other teachers and administrators in the school. Inasmuch, this calls for teacher leadership not only among the principals or headmasters and senior teachers but extended to novice teachers as well.

Therefore, the refocus and reframing of the teacher leadership in alignment with the challenges in teacher education must be considered in the pre-service teacher education so that student teachers are capable of becoming teacher leader when they enter the professional career as a teacher.

Conclusion

Teachers are responsible to produce human capital for the nation. Teachers must gain the necessary competencies before they embarked on their professional career and become an effective and efficient change agent. The Malaysian government has been putting efforts to strengthen the quality of both in-service and pre-service teachers. The budget allocations of the Malaysian government have been increased for in-service training programs and teachers' continuous professional development.

Thus, Malaysia has made a great progress in its teacher education. However, to be effective in reforming our education policy, equal weight must be given to how we recruit teachers and the quality of their education (Alatas, 2018).

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Teacher Education in Bangladesh: Curriculum Framework, Practices, Issues and Future Directions



Md. Mujibur Rahman

Abstract The Curriculum development of any level of education is an unending process, and it involves to identify the needs and contemporary problems of the society. In Bangladesh, this process for development of the teacher education curriculum is being done with great importance. This paper aims at the nature of the existing secondary teacher education curriculum of Bangladesh. This paper also aims at the framework, practices, issues and future directions of the present curriculum.

Introduction

In Bangladesh, the importance of education as the best weapon for both individual and collective developments has never been more realized than today. The dawn of independence after a long struggle and frustration has given the people of this country an opportunity and a great responsibility for evolving a new order in society. In response to the demand, long-term and short-term plans are being drawn up for reorganizing the different stages of education including teacher education on a national basis. In every country, attention is focused more on teachers than on anything else for the success of any educational plan. The training of teachers and teacher education, as important contributory factors toward the qualitative progress of education, are included as an integral part of all educational schemes.

Of recent times in Bangladesh, a new interest in education has been generated as a reaction to the implementation of recommendations of the Commission on National Education appointed by the government. The meaning and the scope of education have widened enough to include the schooling of all children including those who are impaired. Further, the present tendency is to shape education according to age, ability and aptitude and to provide the basis for the new type of education in conformity with the genius and needs of the people of twenty-first century. This has marked a turn in the academic history of the country. However, effective implementation of

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the teacher education curriculum requires an effective effort of suitably qualified teachers.

The purpose of teacher education is to help the students developing a maturity of personality and an outlook suitable for the teaching profession, that is, to help develop in them both teaching and social competence that they may adjust themselves in and outside the classroom. What is needed is a constant striving for something better than what was achieved before.

To continue the development of teacher education and teacher training in Bangladesh, the government is conducting various educational development projects along with the financial assistance of Asian Development Bank (ADB), World Bank, etc. Projects like Teaching Quality Improvement (TQI) Project phases I and II, Secondary Education Sector Improvement Project (SESIP) and ICT project have been working for enhancing the overall quality of teacher education and teacher training which is effectively contributing the quality of both students and teachers of Bangladeshi educational system. Some teacher education-based projects made effort to modernize teacher education curriculum and syllabus. For example, the present teacher education curriculum (B.Ed. curriculum) for the secondary-level teacher training has been modernized with the effort of TQI phase II project.

Bangladeshi education system has been divided into three levels. They are primary, secondary and tertiary levels. All these three levels have different curriculums, and this paper is focused on secondary-level teacher education and training curriculum.

In the year of 2012, the Government of Bangladesh has developed a new curriculum for the secondary level. The previous curriculum was developed in the year of 1995 and started its implementation from 1996 academic session. In 2010, the government developed the National Education Policy of Bangladesh. On the basis of this education policy, the new secondary education curriculum was developed. In order to increase the teaching–learning process based on the age, ability and mental maturation of the learner, the teacher education curriculum is also needed to be modernized. Teacher education curriculum and syllabus should be modernized (National Education Policy, 2010). As a result of these attempts, the new teacher education curriculum was being developed.

Background of Teacher Education in Bangladesh

The old system of education in Bangladesh was a legacy of the pre-independence system which was imported from abroad. The foreign system did not suit the genius of the people, and it benefited only a few at the top. It was not carefully geared to the demands of the national economy of the country. After independence, Bangladesh Government, however, realized the educational needs of the society, but could not meet them entirely for unavoidable reasons. There had been too many plans and proposals which were either hasty or ill-conceived. The frequent change of government had resulted in undermining some of the good plans. As a result, education in Bangladesh from primary to university stage followed the academic pattern.

After independence of the Bangladesh in 1971, the government formed the country's first Education Commission led by eminent educationist and scientist Dr. Quadrat-e-Khuda. This Education Commission was formed in 1972. The commission submitted its report to the government in May 1974. The report was formulated and is based on the socio-economic and political state and cultural heritage of the country. The perspectives and this scenario of the education system of the contemporary world were also taken into consideration. In fact, Quadrat-e-Khuda commission report reflected the fundamentals of the newly framed Constitution of Bangladesh. The concerned authority examined the report carefully, and the preparatory steps were taken to implement the report.

Quadrat-e-Khuda commission suggested some major changes in the primary, secondary and higher secondary stages of education. According to the commission report, primary education will be of 8 years (class 1 to class VIII) and secondary education will be of 4 years duration (class IX to class XII). In the field of higher education, a combined degree course of four years and a one-year master's course will be offered in the universities. Regarding curriculum, syllabus and textbooks, the commission suggested a uniform curriculum for primary level based on competence. The commission gave special emphasis on improved assessment system and suggested letter grading in the assessment of student performance in all stages of education. Teacher education should also be renovated.

According to the commission, it should be viewed as a complete and self-contained stage of education, offering such variety of courses as are suited to the varying needs and interests of pupils. The commission has also recommended inclusion in secondary stage. The students of this stage, therefore, need more of schooling and individual attention than lectures. The government has emphasized on the importance of secondary teacher education.

In order to ensure proper training for secondary teachers, the government Teachers' Training College, Dhaka, was set up in the year of 1909. Subsequently, some other teachers' training colleges were established. In Bangladesh amongst 14 government Teachers' Training Colleges including the government Teachers' Training College, Dhaka, the government Teachers' Training College (women), Mymensingh is only one college for women. There is no other government or private teachers' training college for women in the countrywide.

Secondary education has two dimensions: school building and qualified trained teachers. The unending crisis of shortage of teachers in general and trained teachers in particular is crippling the progress of education. The quality of secondary education depends on the quality of its teachers' training.

Qualified teachers are essential for proper and quality education. To ensure the quality of teachers, it is essential to recruit qualified teachers through scientific and transparent recruitment process on the one hand, and on the other, quality teachers' education and repetitive demand-driven training are imperative to develop the professional excellence of the teachers.

The existing teachers' training system of Bangladesh is very traditional, insufficient, certificate-based, loaded with theoretical knowledge, incomplete in practical

learning, based on rote learning and conventional testing system (National Education Policy, 2010). That is why the expected results cannot be achieved (National Education Policy, 2010).

The Commission on National Education has assigned a pivotal role to the teaching community. It expressed the view that no system of education could rise above the teachers who served it, and its quality depends on the quality of the teacher. The teachers form an indispensable part of Bangladesh educational system, and if they are to fulfill their obligations as potential nation builders they must be properly trained.

One of the issues in the field of teacher education is the role of curricula and syllabuses of the teachers' training institutions. The qualities of the teachers can be engendered, to a great extent, by adopting suitable curricula and syllabuses.

The effectiveness of curricula and syllabuses of the teachers' training institutions depend on the extent to which the needs and values of the society of Bangladesh are met. Not only present needs, in a developing society the immediate future needs also must be visualized and met in light of today's conditions.

As regards the teachers' training colleges and public universities, each has its own curriculum and syllabuses with different emphases on individual subjects and topics. This suggests that there is room for coordination necessary for ensuring some kind of uniformity based on core requirements. This does not mean that there should be no room for flexibility. What is suggested is a harmony between uniformity and flexibility.

The present government expressed a keen desire to reinstate education at all levels with a great resolve. It formed an 18-member Education Policy Formulation Committee in the year of 2009, and this committee started working with National Professor Kabir Chowdhury as the chair. Within four months, a draft National Education Policy was developed, but before its finalization, it was put to Web site of the Ministry of Education (MoE) and other media for sharing widely with the people of all walks of life for their feedback. There had been a large response to it. It became a subject of wide discussion and review in the media. After a wide range of reviewing and discussion in different seminars and meetings throughout the country, the final version of the National Education Policy had been accepted by the government.

According to the National Education Policy 2010, the aims and objectives of teachers' training are:

- To help teachers acquire knowledge and skills in the strategies of teaching–learning through teachers' education and training;
- To help teachers develop and update their professional knowledge;
- To develop the personality, innovative knowledge and qualities of leadership of the teachers;
- To introduce the teachers with the socio-economic conditions and immediate problems of the country and to help them to get involved in the issues concerned;
- To identify the behavioral strengths and weaknesses of the teachers and to find remedies;
- To encourage them to acquire efficiency to use the modern materials for teaching;

- To increase their efficiency in the strategies for new educational methods;
- To help grow professionalism in them to prepare research papers and report writing;
- To encourage them to teach students by creating equal opportunities for all, irrespective of religion, race and socio-economic conditions;
- To help them acquire efficiency in delivering education to the students of disadvantaged community and small ethnic groups and the disabled learners by sincerely responding to their special needs;
- To enrich their quality to analyze problems and to take decisions;
- To train teachers of all levels in information technology and to ensure wider use of IT to build up a modern and developed Bangladesh;
- To inspire them to be conscious of their duties and responsibilities;
- To encourage and make them confident to take part in research work.

In Bangladesh, there are mainly two streams into the teacher education. One consists of postgraduate training for one year in a training college, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Education (professional) or Diploma in Physical Education, and the other honors course for four years in training colleges for non-graduates, leading to the honors degree of Bachelor of Education (Honors).

At present, there are 14 government Teachers' Training colleges, one National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM) for the secondary-level teachers, one training institute for the Madrasah teachers (Bangladesh Madrasah Teachers' Training Institute—BMTTI), 5 Higher Secondary Teachers' Training Institute (HST-TIs) for the subject-based training of higher secondary college teachers, one educational and research institute (Institute of Education and Research—IER) for higher training and research under Dhaka University (started in 1960) and one educational and research institute (Institute of Education and Research—IER) for higher training and research under University of Rajshahi (established year: 2000). The 14 government teachers' training colleges offer B.Ed. courses, and some of them also award 4 years Bachelor of Education (Honors) and M.Ed. degree. The length of the M.Ed. course extends one year. The session of the B.Ed. and M.Ed. courses begins from January and ends in December every year. And the Bachelor of Education (Honors) course begins its academic session from July each year.

The Bangladesh Open University also awards B.Ed. and M.Ed. degrees through distance learning mode. For the training of the teachers of primary schools, there are 53 government and 2 private Primary Training Institutes, PTI (National Education Policy, 2010). Besides, secondary teaching certificate (STC) training course and continuing professional development (CPD) training courses are offered for secondary teachers in the government TTCs.

Rationale of the Teacher Education Curriculum Development

The present teacher education curriculum has been developed in the year of 2017 and started to be implemented from the same year. The previous curriculum had been implemented from the academic year of 2006–2007. From then, 9 academic years had been passed. In the meantime, some important and significant changes have been made in the field of education such as:

- The National Education Policy 2010 developed.
- The National Curriculum 2012 developed and started its implementation for the secondary level.
- In light of the National Education Policy 2010 and the National Curriculum 2012 newly developed textbook introduced by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB).
- Use of ICTs in the field of education increases widely.
- Fixes teacher competency standard for the secondary teachers.
- The previous curriculum was developed long 9 years ago.

Curriculum Framework

The effectiveness of curriculum depends on its framework and proper implementation which produce positive attitudes among learners and fulfill expected learning outcomes. The level for which the curriculum was being designed is also an important factor. The present teacher education curriculum is designed for Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) course. The duration of this course is one academic year. The B.Ed. course runs at both the government and private teachers' training colleges in Bangladesh. This course is divided into two semesters. The first semester is from January to June, and the second is from July to December. Total credit is 60, and credit hour is 1200. Face-to-face credit hour is 600, and 600 directed credit hour is considered on

- Library work;
- Lesson plan development;
- Teaching aid preparation;
- Digital content development;
- Assignment writing;
- Reflective diary writing;
- Undertaking research work and report writing;
- Co-curricular activities;
- National day observation;
- Morning assembly;
- Cleaning.

In the new teacher education curriculum, education studies, teaching studies and elective/optional subjects are included. Education studies is compulsory for all learners. The learners are allowed to choose two subjects from teaching studies and one from elective/optional subjects. The following learning areas are being included in the new curriculum:

Education studies (compulsory):

Subject code	Title of the subject	Credit
ES 101	Secondary education	4
ES 102	Teaching–learning skills and strategies	4
ES 103	Learning and assessment	4
ES 104	Information and communication technologies	4
ES 105	Inclusive education	4
ES 106	Research in education	4
	Total	24

Teaching studies (two teaching subjects must be chosen from any group):

Group	Subject code	Title of the subject	Credit
Humanities group	TS 101	Teaching Bangla	4
	TS 102	Teaching English	4
	TS 103	Teaching the history of Bangladesh and the world civilization	4
	TS 104	Teaching civics and nationality	4
	TS 105	Teaching economics	4
	TS 106	Teaching Bangladesh and global studies	4
	TS 107	Teaching geography and environment	4
	TS 108	Teaching advanced ICT	4
Science group	TS 109	Teaching mathematics	4
	TS 110	Teaching physics	4
	TS 111	Teaching chemistry	4
	TS 112	Teaching biology	4
	TS 108	Teaching advanced ICT	4
Business education group	TS 113	Teaching business entrepreneurship	4
	TS 114	Teaching accounting	4
	TS 115	Teaching finance and banking	4

(continued)

(continued)

Group	Subject code	Title of the subject	Credit
	TS 108	Teaching advanced ICT	4
		Total	8

Elective/optional subjects (any one subject to be chosen):

Subject code	Title of the subject	Credit
OS 101	Primary education	3
OS 102	Library and information science	3
OS 103	Art and craft	3
OS 104	Physical education, health education and sports	3
OS 105	Agriculture education	3
OS 106	Home economics	3
OS 107	Islam and ethical education	3
OS 108	Hindu religion and ethical education	3
OS 109	Buddhist religion and ethical education	3
OS 110	Christian religion and ethical education	3
	Total	3

Teaching Practice:

Subject code	Title of the subject	Credit
TP 1	College based demonstration lesson and school based teaching practice (2 + 2) week = 4 weeks	6
TP 2	School based teaching practice 8 weeks	16
	Total	22

Comprehensive Examination:

	Title of the subject	Credit
Comprehensive examination	2 h long comprehensive examination on 6 compulsory subjects	2
Viva voce	Viva voce in the presence of external and internal examiner	1
	Total	3
	Grand total credit	60

1 credit = 10 classes of 60 min/1 h. But 1 credit = 10 h should not be applicable. Mark distribution: Internal examination 40 and external examination 60. Total 100 marks. But 50 marks for TP 1 and TP 2 as internal and 50 marks for TP 2 final. 50 marks for viva voce.

Result/grading system:

Letter grade should be counted as the following grading system:

Marks range (%)	Letter grade	Grade point
80 and above	A+	4.00
75–79	A	3.75
70–74	A–	3.50
65–69	B+	3.25
60–64	B	3.00
55–59	B–	2.75
50–54	C+	2.50
45–49	C	2.25
40–44	D	2.00
Below 40	F	0.00

Convert grade into grade point average (GPA) for determining cumulative grade point average (CGPA).

Practices

In Bangladesh, there are 14 government teachers' training colleges (TTCs) and 85 private teachers' training colleges (TTCs). All these colleges run under the National University. The Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) course is being conducted under the teacher education curriculum. The learners who want to be a teacher undertake the Bachelor of Education course. After successful completion of the course, he or she earns B.Ed. degree from the National University. The educational supervisors also undertake this course.

Issues

1. Inadequate emphasis on learners' need and interest;
2. Effective implementation of the curriculum, i.e., delivery mode;
3. Assessment and evaluation procedures (not validates through research);

4. Some teachers (responsible for curriculum delivery) are not professional, i.e., untrained;
5. Teacher educators and learners' perception about new curriculum;
6. Effective partnership between teachers' training colleges (TTCs) and respective schools not established during teaching practice (TP);
7. Less participation of teacher educators (TEs) at the curriculum development level. (Data had been collected only from 3 government TTCs among the 14 government TTCs and nearly 85 private TTCs. [Revised B.Ed. Curriculum Dissemination Guidelines, Compulsory Subjects (January 2017), TQI-II Project, Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education, Dhaka, p. 9].)
8. Procedures of maintaining learners' attendance.

Accreditation of Teacher Education Institutions in Bangladesh

All government teachers' training colleges including the College of Physical Education and Madrasah Teachers' Training College are affiliated to National Universities from 1992 exercising academic control over them. The National University (NU) was established in the year of 1992 under the National University Act, 1992 (Act No. 37 of 1992 passed by the Parliament), with the responsibility for all matters relating to, and the administration of, colleges, including the modernization and improvement of syllabi and curricula on the graduate and postgraduate level of college education including teacher education, the raising of the qualitative standard of education and the training and improvement of the efficiency of teachers. This university is the sole authority for accreditation of teacher education. However, the Ministry of Education has control over the general administration, recruitment, promotion, transfer, pay scale sanction of the personnel of all these institutions. The MoE also supervises for ensuring the quality of the teachers training.

Future Directions

The aim of the present teacher education curriculum is to develop the ability of learning, creative thinking and problem-solving skills among the learners. The curriculum should be implemented in such a way so that the historical, social, cultural and legal awareness may be created in the learners in the context of Bangladesh. Besides, the following are the salient aspects of the curriculum:

1. Ensure effective pre-service training for those who want to start their career as a teacher;
2. Adequate training should be delivered according to the standard secondary teaching-learning need in order to develop skilled teachers;

3. Necessary training should be given according to the need of the education manager in order to increase the quality of education;
4. Preparing learners to be able to coordinate the cotemporary objectives and principles in relation to the human resource development;
5. Should be revised on time as to meet the national education goals and National Education Policy.

Conclusion

In the classroom situation teaching quality depends on the teacher's quality. A teacher can be knowledgeable, conversant and skilled with positive attitudes and behaviors to the students through completion of the proper teacher education curriculum. Teaching quality also depends on the modernized teacher education curriculum and its delivery mode. This is why the teacher education curriculum should be redesigned and renovated with a certain interval. In Bangladesh, the present teacher education curriculum is being implemented in the year of 2017. In the meantime, three academic year has been passed. The concrete success and acceptability of the curriculum should be measured after a short-term research. How effective the present curriculum is also to be measured by sufficient investigation. In order to redesign the teacher education curriculum with modern concepts and components the weaknesses of the present curriculum should be identified through a research based study.

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Twenty-First Century Instruction? An Analysis of Educator Course, Syllabus Preparation and Approaches in a Teacher Preparation Program in a Selected Private University, Nairobi, Kenya



Lucy A. Wakiaga

*Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to
change the world.*
—Nelson Mandela

Abstract Higher education institutions in Kenya have often been accused of preparing individuals that are unfit for the job market. Therefore, there is a need to examine the content that students learn and how they learn it because this determines what knowledge they retain, and skills and dispositions they acquire. Since graduates from teacher preparation programs shape the future of their students, it is imperative that they are adequately prepared to teach effectively. Therefore, these programs need to have effective syllabi preparation processes, coupled with formalized accountability structures that enhance the quality of preparation of their graduates. An exploratory study was carried out in a teacher preparation program of a select private university to analyze approaches its educators used in course syllabus preparation. The study was anchored on Fischer's (1980) skill theory, a theory of cognitive development. Fischer asserts that cognitive development takes place through a structure consisting of skill levels with transformational rules that dictate how the levels relate to each other. It is hypothesized that a well-prepared syllabus will engage the learner and enhance not only his/her cognitive development, but also the social and affective domains as well. Findings indicated that the educators used the knowledge-seeking (shallow learning) rather than the understanding-seeking (deep learning) approach. It was recommended that the educators should aspire to transform their learners by using the understanding-seeking approach in order to equip them with appropriate competencies for their own personal growth and for the workplace.

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Introduction

Whether a nation endeavors to join the rest of its counterparts in the ever-evolving and increasingly connected global environment or makes a conscious decision to remain inward-looking, like the imaginary African nation of Wakanda, in the recently released *Black Panther* movie, one sure constant is the need for an innovative and, therefore, productive citizenry: an essential component for the nation's survival and prosperity. Higher education has borne and continues to bear the greater responsibility of nurturing innovative and productive citizens. It not only prepares individuals to contribute to the nation's economic, social and political development, but also plays a crucial role in promoting and harmonizing international and intra-national cultural diversity and cooperation (Marginson, 2010). The world today has changed remarkably. Advances in technology have globalized the world, leading to greater physical and virtual connectivity and interactions among individuals and groups. The global socio-economic landscape today is characterized by high-technology investments, high-technology industries, more highly skilled labor and association productivity gains (Organization for the Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 1996). This trend, termed as the 'knowledge economy,' has led to the emergence of new economic, social, political and cultural challenges (Cloete, Bailey, Pillay, Bunting, & Maassen, 2011). Presently, there is a push for economies around the globe to fulfill the Sustainable Development Goals. Consequently, there is protracted pressure on higher education institutions to produce individuals with the appropriate competencies to effectively function in this constantly changing complex environment (Boni, Lopez-Fogues, & Walker, 2016).

Preparation of Learners in Higher Education Institutions in Africa

How are higher education institutions in Africa preparing their learners for this global knowledge economy? There is a lack of consensus on 'how' higher education can prepare its graduates to participate effectively in the global economy. However, the importance of its role cannot be underestimated. The former secretary general of the United Nations, Kofi Annan, and African ministers of education are among the voices that have strongly stated the importance of higher education in the development of African nations (Cloete et al., 2011). Higher education in Africa has greatly expanded over recent years. Enrollment has increased from fewer than 200,000 in 1970 to around 10 million currently (Cooper-Knock, 2015). However, the quality of education in these higher education institutions is still wanting. Historically, challenges such as decline in Africa's economic capacity in the late 1970s and beyond, the introduction of the structural adjustment programs (SAPs) and the brain drain that followed impacted the provision of quality education, especially teaching, research and output (Mba, 2017). In the recent past, it has been noted that many universities

in Africa have overenrolled beyond their capacities and this puts pressure on their infrastructure and resources consequently affecting education quality (Mohamedbhai, 2011). Thus, graduates from many of these higher education institutions face employment challenges in their attempts to join the workforce. The preparation of graduates does not seem to be compatible with the demands of the labor market nor the development needs of the nation, yet ironically many of these nations have severe shortages of skilled labor (Mba, 2017).

Institutions of higher learning in Kenya, just like the rest of Africa, have experienced exponential growth (Chacha, 2004). In the recent past, this growth has especially been precipitated by Kenya's latest blueprint for development: Kenya Vision 2030. This blueprint aims at transforming Kenya into a newly industrializing "middle-income country providing a high quality of life to all its citizens by the year 2030" (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). It emphasizes the important role education plays in the realization of this vision. Education is supposed to be competitive and of quality in order to enhance individual well-being and the nation's development. Kenya is also a signatory to international declarations on the development of education, such as Education for All (EFA), the Dakar Framework of Action (2000), the Millennium Development Goals (2000) and the Sustainable Development Goals (2015) (Kivati, 2017). Higher education institutions in Kenya are therefore deemed to be key in providing this education. However, the push in Kenya for a greater number of its citizenry to access education has led to massification and has brought with it challenges in terms of human and material resource management in higher education institutions, consequently impacting teaching and learning. The push to obtain university education, both from the government and from the citizenry, has led to an increase in the number of universities (both public and private) and students (Gudo, 2014). However, expansion of students has not seemed similar expansion of human and material resources. Physical facilities including lecture halls, dining facilities, accommodation facilities and offices continue to be overstretched (Gudo, Olel, & Oanda, 2011). In addition, both private and public universities continue to face shortage of educators (Gudo, 2014). This poses a huge challenge to these institutions in the provision of quality education. In addition, educators have continued to experience larger classes that do not correspond to increase in teaching and learning resources. This has impacted their workloads and quality of instruction (Ndirangu & Udoto, 2011; Odhiambo, 2013). The government makes huge public and private investments in university education; consequently, a commensurate return on investment should be expected (Ngware & Ndirangu, 2005). The conversation should move away from concerns about access to concerns about the quality of education being offered. Ngware and Ndirangu (2005) argue that the quality of the educational infrastructure, the cadre of qualified educators and the quality of teaching and learning should all be evaluated to determine the effectiveness of the government's investment in higher education. Developed countries gauge their return on investment in education by performance indicators such as student completion rates and employability of their graduates (Kells, 1992). This should be a concern for a country such as Kenya whose higher education institutions have often been accused of preparing individuals that are unfit for the job market. The graduates are often

referred to as ‘half-baked’ and lacking the requisite skills to compete in the prevailing global knowledge economy. According to the Inter-University Council for East Africa (2014) Report, half of the employers in education, health care and finance rate their new employees as not adequately prepared for the positions. Therefore, there is an urgent need to examine the quality of teaching and learning, particularly the pedagogical approaches used by educators in Kenya’s higher education institutions.

How Does Teaching Take Place in Kenya’s Higher Education Institutions?

What pedagogical approaches are employed in the teaching and learning process? Firstly, it is important to look at the qualifications and assignment of educators in Kenya’s higher education institutions. As a result of the massification of higher education in Kenya that has seen a rapid increase in student numbers, there has been a chronic shortage of qualified educators. In addition, the available educators have to content with heavy workloads. This had led them to resort to assigning of graduate assistants and tutorial fellows to teach undergraduate classes (Odebero, 2010). In addition, some institutions assign educators with units that are not aligned with their qualifications (Gudo et al., 2011). The implication is that educators have to struggle through their teaching, while students get a mediocre education. Such situations negatively impact the quality of higher education and academic rigor (Gudo et al., 2011).

In Kenya, quality assurance in higher education is under the purview of the Commission for University Education (CUE). CUE was established in 2012 by the Universities Act, No. 42, after the disbandment of the Commission for Higher Education established under the Universities Act Cap 210B of 1985. CUE is mandated by the Government of Kenya to regulate, coordinate and assure quality in higher education institutions in Kenya (CUE, 2018). According to CUE, each university is required to set up its own internal quality assurance framework that is aligned with the commission’s prescribed guidelines (CUE, 2011). In addition, CUE requires each institution to review its academic programs annually in line with its quality assurance policies. When crafting a course, a program is required to indicate the expected learning outcomes which should be specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound (SMART) and be learner-centered (CUE, 2009). In addition, the expected learning outcomes should also include statements of knowledge, skills and attitude the students will gain, as well as tasks the students will be expected to execute after completion of the course. CUE suggests the following as modes of delivery of the course content: ‘lectures, discovery learning, problem-based learning, experiential learning, group-based learning, independent studies and e-learning’ (CUE, 2009, p. 7).

What is the status of teaching within Kenya’s higher education institutions? It is important to note here that there is a dearth of research examining issues of quality assurance, especially student learning and teaching, and academic offerings in higher

education institutions in Kenya (Kagondou & Marwa, 2017). The research seems to focus more on issues of access, facilities and funding (see Munene & Otieno, 2008; Oanda & Jowi, 2012; Obamba, 2009; Odhiambo, 2013; Oketch, 2003; Otieno, 2007). Few studies carried out in the area of quality in higher education in Kenya seem to focus on teaching and learning, whether in part or in whole. Rather, there is focus on areas such as physical facilities, teaching resources, technology, external application of knowledge gained therein (Gudo et al., 2011; Kivati, 2017).

However, a few studies exist with a focus on this area. Kagondou and Marwa (2017) empirically investigated quality assurance practices of teaching and learning in higher education institutions in Kenya. They measured quality assurance using attributes they adopted from the African Quality Rating Mechanism (AQRM), a tool they indicated as developed by the African Union Commission (AUC) and the Association of African Universities (AAU). They grouped these attributes into 8 dimensions, three of which are of interest in this chapter: program planning and management, curriculum development, and teaching and learning. Excerpts of these three dimensions are as follows:

- (a) Program planning and management measured through five attributes: (i) program alignment to overall institutional mission and vision; (ii) allocation of resources to support program; (iii) allocation of a program coordinator for managing and ensuring quality; (iv) mode of delivery takes account of the needs and challenges of all students; and (v) students' involvement in curriculum evaluation;
- (b) Curriculum development operationalized with eight attributes: (i) its clarity in specifying target learners for the program; (ii) specification of learning outcomes for each course and the program; (iii) the regular reviews take account of new knowledge and learning module; (iv) courses in the curriculum are coherently planned and well sequenced; (v) the curriculum is well balanced in terms of knowledge, skills and attitude students should acquire at end of their learning experience; (vi) involvement of employers in the development of the curriculum; (vii) involvement of alumni in the development of the curriculum; and (viii) involvement of students in the development of the curriculum;
- (c) Teaching and learning operationalized with eight attributes: (i) availability of qualified and competent teaching staff; (ii) adequacy of teaching staff; (iii) variety of teaching and learning methods are used based on the learning outcomes; (iv) institution has procedures for inducting teaching staff into teaching methodologies; (v) students have opportunity to consult with teaching staff in small groups; (vi) the institution has policies and procedures that guide development and implementation of the curriculum; (vii) teaching and learning include industrial placements and practical training for students; and (viii) the students are provided with academic support (Kagondou & Marwa, 2017, pp. 27–28).

With regard to program planning and management, their findings indicate that there were mixed responses with some of the institutions sampled being rated higher than others in terms of good practices. Similarly, in the area of curriculum development, responses were mixed with some of the institutions sampled deemed to have

had curriculum development attributes that exemplified good practice compared to others. In the area of teaching and learning, most of the institutions sampled seemed to have challenges, especially in terms of shortage of academic staff and poor work culture exhibited in lack of commitment and engagement.

Nyangau (2014), in his examination of what ails higher education institutions in Kenya, makes a mention of the issue of quality, especially in terms of what graduates are able to show and do with regard to being fit for the labor market. He briefly mentions curriculum development in higher education in terms of what would be ideal, that is, having meaningful curriculum designs and formulating pragmatic learning outcomes, but does not speak to what the current status in Kenya's higher education institutions is in terms of how they develop or even implement the curriculum. However, the larger focus of his article gravitates toward similar themes as those of the authors mentioned earlier: issues with access, facilities, and funding.

Ngware and Ndirangu's (2005) article attempts to focus on the teaching and learning in Kenya's higher education environment. They conducted a study on evaluation of teaching effectiveness. The study was to determine participants' opinions regarding characteristics of effective teaching. The evaluation of teaching effectiveness was based on principles of good teaching developed by Chickering and Gamson (1991). The evaluation items were categorized into 3: classroom behavior; out-of-classroom behavior; and professional development. The area of interest for this chapter was on the category of 'classroom behavior.' The items under this category had a mix of effective and cognitive domains of learning, such as 'lecturer is warm and understanding,' 'lecturer praises and encourages students,' 'lecturer asks questions,' 'lecturer is imaginative and stimulating,' and 'lecturer uses a variety of instructional materials and methods.' The study seemed to have interesting results from the educators. Less than 50% of the educators appeared uncertain about key aspects that would nurture effective teaching (Ngware & Ndirangu, 2005). Items that focused on cognitive elements and professional development were rated lower compared to items that focused on student-educator relationships. These findings appear to relate to a recent article by Fredua-Kwarteng and Ofosu (2018) who posit that a large number of educators in African universities do not possess the knowledge and skills in effective pedagogy. They posit that African universities focus on areas such as student admission standards, qualification of lecturers, rigorous examination protocols, degree program requirements and course content, rather than on pedagogy. They assert that the pedagogical approaches that many lecturers use—the straight lecture—do not nurture critical thinking in the students and this could account for high unemployment of these graduates since they enter the job market lacking in knowledge and skills that connect what they have learned with their society and economy. They note that in these lectures, students are not engaged to be active learners who are also critical thinkers. An article by Khamis and Dhamani (2017) provides an example of an institution's focus on quality assurance in teaching and learning. The Aga Khan University, a private university with branches in Kenya, Tanzania and other countries, has a distinct aspect of teaching and learning in couched within a quality assurance framework. The learning outcomes it emphasizes are those that produce graduates who are critical thinkers, problem solvers, team players, leaders, lifelong learners,

and catalysis for change (Khamis & Dhamani, 2017). An examination of the higher education landscape in Kenya indicates a mixed bag of approaches. Thus, we can conclude that there seems to be a gap with regard to pedagogical approaches and teaching effectiveness in higher education in Kenya.

How Should Quality Teaching in Higher Education Look Like?

Hénard and Roseveare (2012) posit that quality teaching involves the use of pedagogical techniques to produce learning outcomes for students. They elaborate that quality teaching includes having an effective curriculum design; effective course content; varied learning approaches such as experimentation and collaborative learning; effective use of feedback; and effective assessment. They suggest that quality teaching takes place at three interconnected levels: institutional, program, and individual. The institution and the program need to have policy and quality assurance frameworks that ensure quality teaching and learning. Programs are responsible for the course design, content and implementation within the department, while individual teachers should be supported to be innovative and be student-centered.

Creating a quality teaching culture requires that quality teaching policies are developed and implemented consistently across the institutional, program, and individual levels (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). At the institutional level, quality teaching should lead to value addition such that institutional performance is measured in terms of student motivation, satisfaction, as well as their fit into the job market and career advancement (Tam, 2014). At the program level, quality teaching would be exemplified by attainment of specific competencies by the students on completion of an academic program or course (Tam, 2014). At the individual level, students are expected to demonstrate the acquired knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Tam, 2014). Tam asserts that students should be able to think critically, solve problems, communicate effectively and successfully perform technical procedures of tasks. The interest of this chapter is on the individual level: educator and student. This paper argues that through a well-developed course outline, the educator can ensure a visible, outcome-based learning.

The discussion in this chapter is guided by two questions:

1. What are the key features to be included when preparing a syllabus for a course in a teacher preparation program?
2. What accountability framework is in place to ensure that the syllabus is implemented with fidelity?

What are the key features to be included when preparing a syllabus for a course in a teacher preparation program? In order to effectively answer this question, there is a need to examine how students, especially those of the twenty-first century, learn. It also important to examine how educators should teach in order to achieve the desired learning outcomes.

How Do Students Learn?

Säljö (1979) conducted a study at higher education institutions and concluded that 'learning' consisted of five varied conceptions:

1. Learning as the increase of knowledge;
2. Learning as memorizing;
3. Learning as the acquisition of facts or procedures;
4. Learning as the abstraction of meaning; and
5. Learning as an interpretative process aimed at the understanding of reality.

These conceptions were used by Van Rossum and Schenk (1984) with students at a higher education institution in the Netherlands. Findings show that students with Conceptions 1–3 seemed to have a shallow approach to learning compared to those exhibiting Conceptions 4 and 5 who seemed to have a deep approach to learning. In another study by Van Rossum and Taylor (1987), a 6th conception emerged, viewing learning as 'a conscious process, fueled by personal interests and directed at obtaining harmony and happiness or changing society' (p. 19). According to Marton and Säljö (1976) and Entwistle and Tait (1990) in Heikkila, Lonka, Nieminen, and Niemivirta (2012), 'deep approach' is defined as a search for meaning and understanding, while 'surface approach' is defined as the memorization of details and verbatim repeating of material. A deep approach pushes the learner to develop an understanding of content more so because in this approach the learner's effort to understand is intentional. The learner is fully engaged in integrating new and old knowledge. In the shallow or surface approach, the learner puts minimal effort in learning. The push for the student is to only meet the minimum requirements (Heikkila et al., 2012). However, meeting the minimum requirement does not seem to nurture the learner with the capacity of generating new knowledge. I argue that given the challenges we seem to be having of institutions being accused of producing graduates that are not innovative or critical thinkers, the focus should be on ensuring learners have a deep approach to learning. Therefore, the teacher's efforts should be directed toward fostering understanding as well as developing the capacity of learners to generate new knowledge. Learning should be deep so that it eventually leads to Van Rossum and Taylor's (1987) Conception 6: transformation of the individual and society.

Learning is an active process through which students 'construct' their own meaning of what they have learned and experienced (Jordan, Carlile, & Stack, 2008). Entwistle and Peterson (2004) suggest when students have interest in what they are learning, it will likely lead to a deep approach while negative feelings toward what they are learning will likely lead to a surface or shallow approach. Deep approach here refers to attempts by students to understand and derive meaning from what they are learning which requires having interest, curiosity and a love of what they are learning, while a surface approach refers to attempts by students to remember lists of disjointed facts without understanding the point the educator is attempting to make, and they are also likely to study just to pass examinations and in the process, feel undue pressure about the learning process. The development of deep thinking in

students, essential for critical and analytical thinking, is necessary for meaningful learning to occur. Hence, students need to be active participants in their learning process as all aspects of their lives affect their learning (Raiker, 2009).

For students to be interested in their learning, the content should be of interest to them and also the teaching approaches should be those that respond to their learning needs. This combination will make students be active participants in their learning, thus leading to learning that is deep. What students learn—content—is key, since therein lies the required knowledge, skills and dispositions required to effectively engage in society, whether as employed or self-employed individuals. The content learned is especially crucial in the field of education. How graduate teachers learn determines what knowledge they retain, and skills and dispositions they acquire. Their effectiveness as practicing teachers is determined by the quality of their learning while at the university. This is critical because they have the potential, as future teachers, to shape the future of their learners. It is therefore imperative that they are adequately prepared to teach effectively.

So How Should Educators Teach?

First of all, it should be noted that teachers have varied approaches to teaching in terms of their intentions and teaching strategies (Richardson, 2005). In addition, teachers can be either teacher-focused or student-centered. Richardson suggests that this is due to the varied conceptions that teachers hold. He quotes Kember (1997), who classified teaching into five different conceptions:

1. Teaching as imparting information;
2. Teaching as transmitting structured knowledge;
3. Teaching as an interaction between the teacher and the student;
4. Teaching as facilitating understanding on the part of the student;
5. Teaching as bringing about conceptual change and intellectual development in the student (p. 5).

Kember (1997) categorizes the first and second conceptions as teacher-centered/content-oriented, while the fourth and fifth conceptions as student-centered/learning-oriented. In the teacher-centered/content-oriented conception, the teacher is considered the expert on content. The teacher is expected to play the leading role; meanwhile, the students are passive and wait for the teacher to fill them with knowledge. Trigwell, Prosser, and Waterhouse (1999) posit that a teacher who adopts this approach of merely transmitting information will develop learners who have a surface approach to learning. Trigwell et al. (1999) note that this approach, as studies have shown, leads to lower quality of learning outcomes. On the other hand, if the teacher has a student-centered/learning-oriented conception, he/she will have a student-focused approach (Kember, 1997). Such a teacher will be more interested in having his/her students understand content as well as developing conceptual change,

which Trigwell et al. note as leading to higher quality of learning outcomes. Therefore, higher education institutions should be deliberate in their efforts to ensure that educators are teaching with a stronger emphasis on deep learning since this is what studies are showing as leading to quality outcomes; outcomes we assume will make the graduates more productive in the world of work and life.

How do teachers ensure they are teaching with a deep approach? This has to begin with the course syllabus preparation. The teacher needs to ensure that elements that nurture deep learning in the students are included in the syllabus. How is the word 'syllabus' defined? Parkes and Harris (2002) posit that definitions of the word seem to have great variations among individuals. Some view it as a course of study, while others view it as the outline of topics to be covered. In their book, Luke, Woods, and Weir (2013) provide definitions of varied scholars such as Westbury (2008) who defines the syllabus as a document that guides the curriculum and Schwartz (2006) who defines the syllabus as "a 'written curriculum' that acts as an action-oriented 'guide' or 'tool' for teachers" (p. 10). Luke, Woods and Weir define the syllabus as:

...a document that provides teachers with a rationale and outline of the school subject in question, an overview and specification of preferred expected content to be taught and learned and a description of operational ways of appraising standards for gauging student performance. The expected learning(s) can and are stated in various forms such as key knowledge and understandings, skills, competences, processes and experiences (p. 11).

Luke, Woods, and Weir assert that the syllabus should indicate the expected knowledge, skills, and performances and the expected, related standards. Their position seems to support the outcomes-based teaching and learning in which individuals are expected to acquire competences that are both visible and relevant to the prevailing circumstances, in this case, the demands of the job market. A syllabus exists to fulfill a purpose, which in this case would be to produce competent learners. Therefore, the syllabus should have content that ensures this purpose is realized. Parkes and Harris (2002) assert that one of the functions of a syllabus is to serve as a learning aid to student learning. Thus, it should be well designed in order to expand the students' capacity to learn beyond what the teachers offer in the classroom. However, it should not be noted that a teacher's philosophical/conceptual inclination as well as mastery of content also determine students' learning. As earlier noted, these factors will determine whether deep or shallow learning takes place.

The author of this chapter carried out a short exploratory study in a teacher preparation program at a middle-level private university college in Nairobi, Kenya, to examine its' educators' syllabus structure in terms of the learning orientation: deep versus surface approach to learning. The study was also interested in examining the program's accountability framework with regard to the syllabus preparation process and whether the process as structured ensured that the syllabus was implemented with fidelity.

The study was anchored on Fischer's (1980) skill theory, a theory of cognitive development. Fischer asserts that cognitive development takes place through a structure consisting of skill levels with transformational rules that dictate how the levels relate to each other. He expounds that cognitive development moves from sensory-motor to representation of abstraction. This process transforms an individual's skills

to new optimal levels each time. He notes that the skills build on each other from one level to the next, while increasing in complexity. The environment plays an important role in influencing skill development. He notes that 'The skills at each level are constructed by a person acting on the environment... The person combines and differentiates skills from one level to form skills at the next higher level' (pp. 479–480). According to Fisher, skills develop and increasingly become complex as a result of being induced by the environment. The environment needs to be consistently stimulating in order for the individual to attain the highest levels of skills possible. In a classroom, it is the educator who is responsible for creating the appropriate learning environment that will stimulate skill acquisition and development. Therefore, this study argues that a well-prepared syllabus will engage the learner and enhance not only his/her cognitive development, but also the social and affective domains as well as leading to a full transformation of the individual who also possesses the required competencies. Brown (1993), quoting Entwistle (1988), notes that the learner should have a balance of knowledge orientation and understanding orientation at the end of the learning experience; and in this study's case, this would occur by the end of the course. This study asserts that the student should have a knowledge orientation, but in addition, have an understanding orientation because the latter is what leads to deep learning. As noted earlier, deep learning is what leads a learner to acquire competencies that are transformational, allowing he/she contributes positively in the world of work and life.

The target population in this study was the educators and students in the teacher preparation program at Hill View University (HVV), a pseudonym for the institution. The participants in the study included six educators (three females and four males) and six fourth-year students (four females and two males) in the teacher preparation program.

The highest level of education for the educators was master's and doctoral degrees. The minimum qualification needed to hold a teaching position at HVV is a master's degree. Their areas of teaching specialization included literature, biblical studies, theoretical linguistics, education, and history and political studies. Their length of teaching at HVV was varied: between 9 months and 10 years. Most of them (5 out of 6) had taught in other institutions, varying in length between 2 and 19 years. All of them indicated that they are currently teaching in their areas of specialization. Therefore, the teaching staff can be considered to be qualified since they all seem to meet the minimum requirements to hold a teaching position at HVV and they all seem to be teaching in their field of specialization.

The students were all pursuing a Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree. Their teaching subject combinations included: Kiswahili and CRE (1 student), English and literature (3 students), English and History (1 student), Mathematics and Computer (1 student). Thus, the selection of students can be deemed appropriate for the study since they were all pursuing a degree in a teacher preparation program, and the program formed the essence of this study.

Data was gathered from the participants using a questionnaire consisting of question items adopted from Brown's (1993) students' learning orientation framework: knowledge seeking (9 items) and understanding seeking (8 items) (see Fig. 1). Quot-

Table 13.1 Orientations to learning*Knowledge seeker*

Adds to store of facts, concepts, and so on.
 Collects skills, procedures.
 Breaks down problems and tasks into separate sub-units
 Makes links within units of knowledge.
 Uses memorization skills.
 Works methodically through logical order of task or problem.
 Analyses.
 Uses systematic trial and error.
 Evaluates data.

Understanding seeker

Tries to relate information or task to own experience.
 Makes links to other bodies of knowledge.
 Restructures for personal meaning.
 Synthesizes.
 Likes to work from 'whole' picture.
 Searches for underlying structure, purpose, and meaning.
 Intuitive use of evidence.
 Uses analogies, metaphors.

Fig. 1 Orientations to learning (Brown, 1993)

ing Entwistle (1988), Brown notes that knowledge seekers only search for facts and information, are mechanical learners, therefore acquire surface learning and are only reproducers of knowledge. Understanding seekers, on the other hand, are more interested in linking new knowledge and previous experiences and seek deeper meanings; they acquire deep learning with capacity for problem-solving creativity and independence. Similar to Fischer (1980), Brown notes that students' level of achievement motivation may be influenced by the conditions of learning. The teaching approaches a teacher uses may promote deep (understanding seeking) or shallow learning (knowledge seeking).

Study Findings and Discussion

The items as presented on the questionnaire were mixed up and not placed in the two clear categories as shown in Fig. 1. The two categories—knowledge seeker and understanding seeker—were also not indicated on the questionnaire. These approaches were adopted to prevent participants from responding in particular directions, thereby leading to biased responses. Once the data was received, the responses of each participant were categorized back to the two groupings: knowledge seeker and understanding seeker.

The educator responses are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Educator teaching orientation

Learning orientation	Examples of how you apply this orientation in your teaching (practical approaches that you use)	
	Females	Males
<i>Knowledge seeker</i>		
I add to the students' store of facts, concepts and so on	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Asking them to do research - By the fact that I teach and share knowledge, I pass down facts, concepts and knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relating content to what they already know. I do this often - Using YouTube and other technological forms
I help my student develop collection and procedure skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - N/A - Read from various texts provided; read texts they identify, and connect their reading with their findings in their field research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Yes, through the different assignments I give them - I teach students research methodology, e.g., data collection and analysis procedures
I help my students to evaluate data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Critical interpretation and discussions - Teach skills of evaluation - Post texts to the Google Classroom, they then read and evaluate and present during class discussions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sentence analysis and paragraph analysis - In research courses
I help my students to break down problems and tasks into separate sub-units	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This is done through analysis of texts into smaller manageable topics - Teaching skills of analysis - By examining the sub-units in the syllabus or course unit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I always begin from the known to the unknown with the hope that this progressive development of content helps them build/connect knowledge - Like when we are looking at Bloom's taxonomy - I teach students analytical skills
I help my students make links within units of knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relate the current tasks to other tasks done elsewhere - Diagrammatic representation of concepts - When we contextualize the lesson to actual praxis and life situation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - By relating topics to previously read courses or ongoing ones - In educational management and curriculum development units - I achieve this through integration of past and current learning experiences
I help students use memorization skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This is done only for simpler tasks such as riddling - Used in trying to get some historical text familiar 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I have used this with teaching sentence coordination—FANBOYS—coordinating conjunctions - Some of the important dates in foundation of education
I help students work methodically through logical order of task or problem	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Through analysis - Helping them break a problem/unit down 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I usually give them tasks that lead them to 'bigger' facts - There is a close relationship between logic and foundation of education
I help my students analyze their learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review their course outline in view of course coverage and what they personally have learned and taking away 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I help them look at their answers, especially the incorrect ones, so that they learn from them - Yes in leadership and education management units

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Learning orientation	Examples of how you apply this orientation in your teaching (practical approaches that you use)	
	Females	Males
I help my students to use systematic trial and error	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In doing their project they being (pastoral cycle) with the community; the community will finally identify their need 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I encourage them to try out oral questions even when they are not sure - Yes in sociology of education
<i>Understanding seeker</i>		
I try to relate information or task to my students' own experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Done through questioning and class discussion on the application of lesson task - Giving relevant examples; allowing for discussion - Make them link their experiences and subject matter 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In writing courses, I relate the content to what they do in the literature and English language - Like in curriculum course where I have to discuss the roles - By giving examples from real-life experience
I help my students to make links to other bodies of knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Encourage students to research especially the online search engines - Making references to other disciplines—history, geography, philosophy - Use discussions, skit, songs, drawings and role play 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Relating topics and assignments to other disciplines of religion and history - Yes, on the Google Classroom platform and assignments
I help my students use analogies and metaphors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Done in discussion and presentations in class - In creative writing; spoken dialogue - In biblical studies, students will examine how irony, metaphors, similes and analogies are used 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In writing courses/connecting topics to others that they study - Some foundation of education topics like Plato forms
I help my students structure their learning for personal meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teaching study skills - In fact, I have classes where I go over methods for personal study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When I ask the students to write their own philosophy of education
I help my students synthesize their learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Done through in-depth debates and discussions - Ask for summaries - In methodology for teaching CRE, the students learn methods for note taking which include summary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Yes in educational management

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

Learning orientation	Examples of how you apply this orientation in your teaching (practical approaches that you use)	
	Females	Males
I help my students to intuitively use evidence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Encourage research work - Student involvement in research - Use pastoral cycle; in so doing, they will use evidence from the community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I require that every answer must be supported by evidence - Yes, in leadership and education management units
I help my students to work from "whole" picture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Encourage summary writing - Asking summary writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Integrating knowledge during objective construction
I help my students to search for underlying structure, purpose and meaning		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I like it when I send them to the library and they discover things I intentionally leave out when teaching - In philosophy of education courses

From the findings, there is an indication that educators used the knowledge-seeking approach. All the items under this learning orientation were responded to, but it is also noted that there are instances in which the responses were either few, inadequate, or unavailable. For example, not all the female educators responded to the following items: 'I add to the students' store of facts,' 'I help my student develop collection and procedure skills,' 'I help students use memorization skills,' 'I help students work methodically through logical order of task or problem,' 'I help my students analyze their learning,' 'I help my students to use systematic trial and error.' Similarly, not all the male educators responded to the following items: 'I add to the students' store of facts,' 'I help my student develop collection and procedure skills,' 'I help my students to evaluate data,' 'I help students use memorization skills,' 'I help students work methodically through logical order of task or problem,' 'I help my students analyze their learning,' 'I help my students to use systematic trial and error.' In the instances where responses were provided, the male educators did not have detailed responses of how they applied the item in their teaching.

The lack of or inadequate responses on some of the items seem to indicate that the educators may not be placing emphasis on those items in their teaching, or if they do, they were not able to clearly identify these items in their practice and so were not able to articulate the same on the questionnaire. Therefore, it seems that some of the educators were using knowledge seeking as a teaching orientation, while others were either not using it or did not exhibit evidence of use of the approach. Brown (1993) noted that the knowledge-seeking approach was important in learning. Thus, the teacher education program would benefit from enhancing the capacity of its educators in this learning orientation.

With regard to understanding-seeking orientation, the findings show that the female and male educators had varied number of responses to the items. The female educators had few responses under the following items: 'I help my students structure their learning for personal meaning' and 'I help my students to work from "whole" picture.' They had no responses under the item 'I help my students to search for underlying structure, purpose and meaning.'

The male educators appear to have few or inadequate responses to several of the items: 'I help my students use analogies and metaphors,' 'I help my students structure their learning for personal meaning,' 'I help my students synthesize their learning,' 'I help my students to intuitively use evidence,' 'I help my students to work from "whole" picture,' and 'I help my students to search for underlying structure, purpose and meaning.'

The female educators seemed to have a higher number of responses under each item compared to the male educators. Thus, the female educators may have a stronger leaning toward the understanding-seeking orientation compared to the male educators. Since this orientation has been emphasized by Brown (1993), Kember (1997), Kember et al. (1997), and Trigwell et al. (1999) as the one that results in deep learning, the teacher preparation program should develop the capacity of its educators, especially the male educators, so that they can be better equipped in using this orientation.

It is not enough for educators to impart knowledge (knowledge seeking) because this only results in surface learning; educators should aspire to transform their learners (understanding seekers), so that they can be equipped with appropriate competencies for their own personal growth and for the workplace.

It was earlier noted that the responsibility for quality teaching is not only a preserve of the individual, but also the responsibility of the program and the institution (Hénard & Roseveare, 2012). The questionnaire used in this study also contained items that responded to the second question in this study: What accountability framework is in place to ensure that the syllabus is implemented with fidelity?

The items asked the educators to identify HVU's and the teacher preparation program's teaching and learning frameworks as well as their components. The responses provided by the educators seemed to indicate that these frameworks do not exist. If at all they do, the educators did not seem able to articulate the elements therein. Thus, it can be noted here that HVU and the teacher preparation program would need to set teaching and learning frameworks, or if one exists, make it more visible so that all educators are not only aware of it but are making it part of their practice as educators in the institution.

With regard to the syllabus, the educators clearly articulated its components: topics, learning objectives and outcomes, methodology, resources used and teaching schedule. They responded that these components were from a required template provided by the teacher preparation program. When asked if they had adapted/adopted components of their syllabus from other institutions, two out of the six educators indicated in affirmative. However, when asked to provide examples of components adapted/adopted only one educator provided a response. She indicated that she had adapted/adopted syllabus and learning resources from other institutions.

The program and the institution can help build educators' repertoires of teaching by encouraging the educators to source and network widely for teaching and learning resources so that they do not only rely on those within the program or the institution itself.

With regard to accountability, one question item asked the educators to identify the individual to whom they submit their syllabus. All the educators indicated that they submitted the syllabus to either the head of department or to the dean of studies.

On the question of how long it took for them to get feedback regarding their course syllabus, the educators had varied responses with some indicating a turnaround time of four days, while others indicated one week or even two weeks. All the educators agreed that the feedback they received clearly indicated the areas they needed to make improvements on. Thus, it seems that the program has instituted an accountability framework to ensure quality in the syllabus preparation process.

When asked their view regarding the current approach to supervision of their syllabus preparation, four of the educators were content while one expressed the lack of uniformity of supervision in his department. One educator did not provide a response. Overall, it seems the educators were satisfied with the syllabus supervision framework currently in place.

When asked to make suggestions regarding improving the syllabus supervision process, some indicated that they would prefer it to be done by supervisors with specializations in the subjects under review; other indicated that supervision needs to be done at more frequent intervals than just once a semester and that course outlines should be moderated by a team of educators in the same way examinations are moderated. These views seem to be an indication that the program still has room to tighten its accountability structures with regard to supervision of course syllabus preparation.

Students also responded to a questionnaire with similar items as those in the educator questionnaire. The only difference was that the student questionnaire did not contain the sections on teaching and learning frameworks and accountability structures. It only focused on the learning orientation items and biography. The student responses are shown in Table 2.

The findings from the responses of both the female and male students indicate that, overall, their educators use the knowledge-seeking orientation. However, there were some items that were either not adequately responded to or not responded to at all. The female students were four, but on each item under the knowledge-seeking orientation, there were less than four responses. Only the item 'my teacher helps to add to my store of facts, concepts and so on' had three responses; the rest of the items had two or less responses. The items with one response each included: 'my teacher helps me to collect skills and procedures,' 'my teacher helps me evaluate data,' 'my teacher helps me to use memorization skills,' 'my teacher helps me analyze my learning,' and 'my teacher helps me to use systematic trial and error.' The responses from the male students exhibited a similar pattern.

When compared with the responses from the educators, the students' responses, on the whole, seemed to be similar. However, there were items that were inconsistent.

Table 2 Student learning orientation

Learning orientation	Examples of how your educator/lecturer applies this orientation in your learning	
	Females	Males
<i>Knowledge seeker</i>		
My teacher helps to add to my store of facts, concepts and so on	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - For example when making a presentation on a certain book, the teacher will make additional input on anything I may leave out - My teacher gives real-time examples on the facts and concepts - Through giving the relevant materials that helps me to learn more and through his/her presentation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Through questions and answer and class discussion - Through presentations of information
My teacher helps me develop collection and procedure skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Give a guideline on how to go about it - By being a role model - Giving links 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Through class work, for example solving a particular question - Through the presentation on the procedures on how to do practical things like language translation
My teacher helps me evaluate data	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giving real happenings and giving analysis 	
My teacher helps me to break down problems and tasks into separate sub-units	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teaching from the simplest to the complex - The teacher will give an assignment and at least try and break it down for a student on how to do the work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Through explaining how each component builds up and making it sub-units to explain - By dividing the content into sections and discussing each section
My teacher helps me make links within units of knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - By relating knowledge that has links between same subjects, e.g., knowledge for one subject to teach and connect with another point from the same - Teachers bring the relationships between the different units through recap of the previous unit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The teacher asks how a particular concept relates to another, e.g., system - By making reference to other concepts acquired in other courses (transfer of knowledge)

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Learning orientation	Examples of how your educator/lecturer applies this orientation in your learning	
	Females	Males
My teacher helps me to use memorization skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Use of mnemonics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – This is especially in math where the teacher gives ways of understanding a formula – By presenting facts
My teacher helps me work methodically through logical order of a task or problem	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Being logical and sequential in his/her work – Giving structural diagrams 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The teacher states each step and in computer where the steps are stated clearly – By presenting the content in orderly way
My teacher helps me analyze my learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through making a summary of what we have learned 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through various assessments and assignment from the grade the teacher can analyze
My teacher helps me to use systematic trial and error	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – By giving change to redo an assignment and CATs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In solving equations that we are not sure of and in programming
<i>Understanding seeker</i>		
My teacher relates information or task to my experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – By sharing real-life experiences – Involvement of videos – By asking questions on already existing knowledge in order to connect with the one being delivered 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through explanation and examples of subject given – By relating to the current issues in the society
My teacher makes links to other bodies of knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through citing an quoting helpful information from different sources – By giving examples from previously learned subjects to connect with current subject – Through the use of electronic media 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In learning computer, the teacher connects it to math or other science subjects
My teacher helps me to use analogies and metaphors		
My teacher helps me to restructure my learning for personal meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through contextualizing the concept 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through term papers and projects
My teacher helps me to synthesize my learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Linking knowledge, i.e., giving contemporary examples 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – By asking to write a short summary

(continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Learning orientation	Examples of how your educator/lecturer applies this orientation in your learning	
	Females	Males
My teacher helps me to intuitively use evidence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Use of factual examples, i.e., colonialism in the literature 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In explaining concepts and in writing term papers – The use of the texts of materials given to illustrate a certain concept
My teacher helps me to work from “whole” picture		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The teacher gives on general picture before breaking the concept down
My teacher helps me to search for underlying structure, purpose and meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – By giving questions that invite for critical thinking – By giving research areas on the interested areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Through examples given and explanation of the concept

For instance on the item ‘my teacher helps me to evaluate data,’ the educators indicated that helped their students evaluate data through various activities. However, the responses from the students did not support this assertion. Only one female student responded to this item and gave an inadequate response, while the three remaining females did not respond to the item at all. None of the two male students responded to this item, an indication that they were of the perception that their educators did not provide this support in their learning. However, it should be noted here that students at this level of their studies have covered courses in research and so should have completed aspects of data evaluation, but data evaluation should not be restricted to research courses only. So, it can be argued that the educators do not seem to use this aspect of learning, and if they do, the students are not aware that it is being used.

Under the item ‘my teacher helps me to use memorization skills,’ the educators indicated the use of a variety of strategies to aid in memorization. It is notable that four out of the six educators responded to this item, while only three out of the six students responded to the same item. It therefore seems like there is not much use of this item in teaching and learning.

With regard to the knowledge-seeking orientation, it can be concluded that educators in the program use the approach, though the manner of use is inconsistent, with educators not able to effectively articulate their use. Similarly, the students, in their responses, show indications of the use of the approach though its use is inconsistent, just like in the case of the educators.

Thus, it appears that in the case of both the students and the educators, the orientation exists, but since the educators do not seem to use it effectively and consistently, there are students unable to clearly articulate how their teachers used the orientation, even though they are able to identify activities therein. As was suggested earlier for educators, students also needed to be made aware of this orientation as a foundation for their learning, though the educators should push to move them beyond this

surface level of learning onto understanding seeking, which is the deep approach to learning.

With regard to the understanding-seeking orientation, both the female and male students have more limited or no responses in comparison with the knowledge-seeking orientation. The female students provided only one or two responses to the following items: 'my teacher helps me to restructure my learning for personal meaning,' 'my teacher helps me to synthesize my learning,' 'my teacher helps me to intuitively use evidence,' and 'my teacher helps me to search for underlying structure, purpose and meaning.' They, like the male students, provided no responses to the following items: 'my teacher helps me to use analogies and metaphors.' The female students also provided no response under 'my teacher helps me to search for underlying structures, purpose and meaning.'

The male students provided single responses to the following items: 'my teacher makes links to other bodies of knowledge,' 'my teacher helps me to restructure my learning for personal meaning,' 'my teacher helps me to synthesize my learning,' 'my teacher helps me to work from "whole" picture,' 'my teacher helps me to search for underlying structure, purpose and meaning.'

It can be noted here that, similar to the educators' responses, this orientation is similarly not as developed in the students. The students, just like the educators, seem to have a challenge articulating evidence of the use of this orientation in their learning. With regard to the discussions had earlier, this revelation should be of concern to both the educators and the students. This is because it is in the understanding-seeking orientation where transformational learning takes place. It is where deep learning occurs, especially in terms of developing competencies and critical as well as innovative thinking. With regard to the concerns that abound regarding institutions of higher learning producing graduates who are not fit for the world of work, there is a need to pay particular attention to how students are learning and how teachers are teaching. As we build the capacity of the educators to be able to teach more effectively for understanding, students' capacities should also be strengthened for them to be aware of this orientation and its significance for them and their immediate learning and future personal and career aspirations.

Conclusion

Research on teaching and learning in many of Kenya's higher education institutions seems to have mainly focused on all else but pedagogy. It was the aim of the study to shed some light on the importance and significance of examining how teachers actually teach, how they should teach; how students actually learn and how they should learn. It should be noted that a limitation of this study is that it does not allow for generalizations to be made. For instance, a limited sample of participants was used; the study only focused on one program within HVU. A study that is more expansive in terms of participants and programs would more likely produce more substantive findings. However, it is hoped that this study will, at the very least, begin

a conversation that does not seem to be in the radar of many academics in Kenya's higher education institutions: teaching and learning, especially pedagogy. It is not enough to only focus on issues of facilities, resources, funding, and access. We should also talk about the core business of our universities: teaching and learning. More research needs to be done so that appropriate and innovative approaches to teaching and learning in our institutions can be developed and practiced. Otherwise, we will continue producing half-baked graduates who lack the relevant skills to be functional in the world of work, in particular, and in life, generally.

Teacher preparation programs should ensure that professional development is provided regularly to their educators to help them improve their teaching; this will subsequently cascade down to the learners resulting in improved quality of learning.

The Commission for Higher Education (CUE) in Kenya is currently walking a tight rope of streamlining the management of programs and improves quality, but at the same time attempting to allow institutions to retain their uniqueness. This blank check in the form of 'retention of uniqueness' should be seen by these institutions as opportunity to be innovative and creative in developing policy frameworks that truly enhance the quality of teaching and learning. Only when our graduates are solving societal challenges either at their place of employment or as employers can we then say that the quality of learning out institutions provided is truly in a class of its own.

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Teacher Education in Mexico: Responding to Educational Needs of an Ethnically Diverse Society



Anne Julia Köster and Gunther Dietz

Abstract The Mexican educational system is facing numerous challenges. Their teachers of tomorrow need to be prepared to deal with digitalization, to implement full-time schooling, to meet international and national standards and to foster inclusion, interculturality, social equality and participation at educational processes of students with special needs as well as native Mexicans, so-called Afro-Mexicans and other ethnically diverse students located in Mexico who might have a migratory past. For teacher education in Mexico, these global and local developments imply urgent and necessary updates and adaptations. To shed light on how teacher educators and educational policymakers tackle these challenges, this chapter firstly provides a comparative overview of the three different branches of the system of teacher education in Mexico: the teacher preparation in the general, special and in the so-called indigenous education system. Secondly, the current developments and issues of the three systems of teacher education are shown—with a special focus on how teachers of these educational systems are trained to adequately meet the educational needs of their native students. In the end, there is a collection of suggestions from experts presented on how Mexican teacher education could lead to an improved educational quality for all, including those of native origin.

Keywords Mexican teacher education · Educational quality · Ethnic diversity in Mexican schools · Indigenous education for native Mexicans

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Introduction

Industrial, technological, economic and cultural changes are impacting educational needs and systems around the world. Among many other countries, also in Mexico, the educational system and, more specifically, its system for teacher education, requires adjustments in order to keep pace with global developments of the knowledge economy and society as well as with the subsequent local educational demands (Figuroa Millán, 2000; Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018; Serna Huesca, Sánchez Serrano, & Rubio Martínez, 2015).

Initial and continuous teacher education programs in Mexico need to prepare their teachers of tomorrow to be able to provide a contemporary education to the children that corresponds with recent global demands as well as with the national educational agenda. Current challenges for teachers and their preparation are derived from their duty to implement the most recent national educational reforms (Gobierno de la República, 2013–2017, 2015; Köster, 2017; SEGOB, 2019; SEP, 2017a) and its related educational policies, programs and curriculums.

Mexico has an ethnically diverse society with 68 native groups who make up 21.5% of the total population (INEGI, 2015: 73) and who speak 364 different linguistic variations of 68 native languages (INALI, 2008: 38). This ethnic diversity is present in its schools all over Mexico, as, due to globalization, urbanization, economic changes and migratory processes in the past, and even more intensely in the present, the traditional demographic structure—of native people living in their rural communities and the non-natives growing up in urban areas—does not exist any longer (Cárdenas Gómez, 2014; Granados Alcantar & Quezada Ramírez, 2018; Sánchez, 2002). Nowadays, about 40% of the national indigenous people live in medium- or large-sized Mexican cities (Schmelkes del Valle, 2010: 208).

The second group of ethnic minorities in Mexico are the so-called Afro-Mexicans who are descendants of formerly enslaved people who were brought from different African countries to Mexico after its occupation by Hernán Cortés and the Spanish crown in 1520. Today, they make up about 1% of the population and they are mainly located in the states of Guerrero (6.5%), Oaxaca (4.9%) and Veracruz (3.3%) (INEGI, 2017).

Additionally, due to more recently occurring migratory and transmigratory processes, the ethnic diversity in Mexico, and thus in its school system and classrooms, has further increased. These newer forms of migration in Mexico include internal rural–urban migration, rural–rural seasonal migration, international immigration (particularly from Central America and Haiti) and increasingly also Mexican return migration and/or deportation from the USA (Carrasco González, 2013; Casillas Ramírez, 2018; Granados Alcantar & Quezada Ramírez, 2018; Perales Puente & Vila Freyer, 2018).

Once the educational reform was initiated in 2013 and the National Program for Educational Inclusion and Equity (PIEE) was launched by the Ministry of Education (SEP, 2014d), not only physically and/or psychologically challenged, talented or gifted students but also native Mexicans, Afro-Mexicans and other ethnically diverse

students with a migratory biography or family background were considered and labeled to belong to a ‘vulnerable social group’ and consequently to have ‘special educational needs’ that have to be considered by teachers in order to foster their educational inclusion and equity (*ibid.*). Thus, through the reform and the PIEE, current and future teachers in Mexico are legally obliged to address ethnic, cultural and linguistic as well as other intersectionally linked types of diversity in classrooms at regular, special and indigenous schools by carrying out inclusive and equitable educational practices (Juárez Romero, Alcántara Santuario, & Miñán Espigares, 2018).

Based on these circumstances and developments, our main argument of this chapter is that dealing with diversity is one of the most important challenges of today for the teacher education in Mexico (Schmelkes del Valle, 2013a), because, up to now, only those future and current teachers of the so-called indigenous educational system (which exists in addition to the so-called general and the so-called special educational system and which opts at serving native Mexican students in rural monocultural native communities as well as migrant students in seasonal migration camps) are more or less systematically prepared to address educational needs of ethnically diverse student populations. As the separation between and the location of indigenous and general schools does not any longer correspond with the current demographic distribution of the Mexican native people and other ethnically diverse students, also future and current teachers in schools of the general educational system need a systematic preparation to know how to deal with ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity in their daily practice (Czarny Kirschkautzky, 2017). Thus, we further argue that a reformed initial and continuous teacher training is a key to guarantee the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) no. 4 (UNO, 2015: 17) that all students in Mexico—no matter their ethnicity, mother tongue, origin, culture and place of residency—receive an inclusive and equitable quality education and are served by their teachers according to their diverse educational needs wherever they are located.

In order to provide evidence for our argument, we firstly give a brief overview of the historic development as well as of the structures and programs of initial and continuous teacher preparation in Mexico—within its general, special and indigenous education system. By doing so, we answer the question of how the Mexican system of teacher education opts at ensuring the adequate preparation and qualification of future and current teachers.

Secondly, we shed light on the current developments, challenges and needs of Mexican teacher education, related to its structures, programs, conditions and outcomes. In this part, we focus on one aspect of teacher education: How future and current teachers in Mexico are prepared to adequately respond to the educational needs of ethnically diverse students in their classrooms.

Thirdly, we present a collection of recommendations from experts in the field of teacher education in Mexico on how to improve and update the structures, programs, conditions and outcomes of the initial and continuous teacher education system, in order to guarantee an inclusive and intercultural quality education for all, according to the fourth SDG. Here again, we specifically look at how as well as by whom teacher education could be innovated to address ethnic diversity in Mexican schools.

Teacher Preparation for General, Special and Indigenous Education in Mexico

According to the currently valid educational model in Mexico (SEP, 2017a), teachers are defined as ‘professionals in education, with the necessary vocation and capacity to guide and incentivize the integral education of their students’ (SEP, 2017b). In order to enable Mexicans to become certified teachers in their countries’ general, special or indigenous educational system, public rural and urban teacher training colleges (Escuelas Normales) as well as private universities and the National Pedagogic University (UPN) provide them with initial formal study and continuous training programs which enhance the development of their knowledge and teaching competencies for their future and current pedagogical practice in classrooms all over Mexico (Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018).

In the following, we shed light on how teachers of the Mexican general, special and indigenous educational system are prepared for and continuously trained on their job as teachers. Firstly, we provide an overview of how the Mexican teacher education system evolved. Then, we detail the structures of teacher training. Finally, we illustrate the diverse range of initial and continuous teacher education programs.

Historic Development of the Mexican Teacher Education System

Historically, teacher education in Mexico has its roots in the educational initiative of José Vasconcelos, the first minister of education after the Mexican Revolution of 1917, who launched a nationwide literacy campaign in 1921 and established a school system in which the first teachers, mainly missionaries of European descendant, were employed. Their qualifications did initially not exceed a basic education of three or four years (Lira García, 2014; see also Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018).

In 1924, through a first educational campaign, the National School for Teachers (Escuela Nacional de Maestros) with a six-year study program as well as rural teacher colleges with a two-year study program were found in Mexico. Their objective was to provide initial training to teachers across the country, including remote rural areas (Calderón Mólgora, 2018; Saared, 2016; Santillán Nieto, 2012).

From 1936 onward, a second educational campaign focused on fostering basic literacy skills of children belonging to the working class. Literacy instructors were either trained primary school teachers, professionals or members of a farmers’ or workers’ organization (Lira García, 2014; see also Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018).

In 1937, a third national campaign for popular education was initiated by the Mexican government. It opted at providing a three-year basic literacy education in Spanish to all children, especially to those who have been previously deprived of education, such as girls and native peoples in rural communities. Classes in such remote areas were provided via media, such as newspapers and radio, but also by

already advanced primary school children who joined the so-called literacy troops. Another target of this third campaign was to improve the technical and cultural competencies of the already existing teaching staff (*ibid.*).

Then, in 1944 the former minister of education, Jaime Torres Bodet, launched a fourth educational campaign to guarantee an overall literacy of all Mexicans, including adults between ages 18 and 60 (*ibid.*). Shortly after, he also found the Federal Training Institute for Teaching Staff (Instituto Federal de Capacitación del Magisterio) to enhance the professional development of teachers as well as to provide them with an officially recognized teaching certificate (*ibid.*; Saared, 2016; Santillán Nieto, 2012). Certifying teachers was understood and implemented as a necessary strategy to improve educational quality, especially because in 1941, about 76% of the federal teaching staff and 86% of rural teachers in service had not yet participated in or finished a formal teacher training (Santillán Nieto, 2012).

In 1945, the Institute for Literacy in Native Languages (Instituto de Alfabetización en Lenguas Indígenas) was found to formally train bilingual literacy instructors for the first time in Mexico, so that they could teach Spanish to native Mexican language speakers in primary schools (Lira García, 2014). Since then, under the normative concept of 'indigenismo', a specific set of linguistic, cultural and economic development policies aimed at 'integrating' and hispanizing indigenous peoples, bilingual teachers are trained to teach initially in indigenous languages in the first primary school grades, but after these first steps of literacy acquisition they shift to Spanish as the dominant language of instruction in order to invite children to abandon their native tongue and to become monolingual in Spanish. Often criticized by both academic research and indigenous movements, the tendency to use such a subtractive and transitory scheme of bilingual education *de facto* still prevails in Mexican indigenous education and teacher training (Dietz, 1999, 2004; Dietz & Mateos Cortés, 2013).

Structures of the Mexican Teacher Education System

The currently valid legal framework for teacher education in Mexico is outlined in the General Law of Professional Teachers' Service [Ley General del Servicio Profesional Docente (LGSPD)], which was launched in September 2013 as a decree by the former Mexican president Enrique Peña Nieto in order to initiate a vast educational reform process (SEGOB, 2013). Furthermore, the strategies for strengthening and transforming the teacher education colleges (SEP, 2017b, 2018a) as well as the development framework for continuous training for teachers of the basic school education (SEP, 2017c), which are both regulatory elements of the new educational model (SEP, 2017a), add to the current legal basis for the structures and elements of the Mexican teacher education system.

According to these frameworks, teacher training in Mexico—like in many other countries around the world—is divided into two categories: the initial and continuous teacher preparation (OEI, 2003; Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018).

Initial teacher preparation

In this first phase, future teachers enroll in a pedagogic study program at a public rural or urban teacher training college (*Escuela Normal*), the National Pedagogic University (UPN) or another public or private university. Throughout a compulsory four to five years of bachelors' and an optional one to two years of masters' program, they are formally being prepared to enter the teaching profession in Mexico. After choosing an educational system and level and/or a specific subject, teacher students receive essential theoretical and methodological tools and build competences to be able to successfully develop their pedagogic practice as classroom teachers in the Mexican general, special and indigenous school system (*ibid.*; Alberto-Aimaretti, 2016; Sánchez Ponce, 2013).

Continuous teacher training

After the teachers have already finished their initial teacher preparation programs and are teaching in a school, during continuous teacher training programs, mainly provided by governmental institutions, they update their knowledge in their respective pedagogic fields and develop their competencies to adapt their practice to new global and social developments as well as to new legal, political and regulatory requirements. Teachers in service are obliged to participate in at least one continuous teacher training course per school year, which are listed by public educational authorities in their states (*ibid.*).

The Mexican educational system as well as the system for teacher education is furthermore divided into three different sub-systems: the general, special and indigenous education (OEI, 2003).

General education

Within the so-called general or regular educational system, teachers are prepared to provide education mainly for the mestizo majority—which are ethnically mixed monolingual Spanish-speaking students with both native and non-native roots—in public pre-, primary, secondary and high schools all around Mexico (Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018).

Special education

Since the early 1940s, teachers in Mexico are prepared within the so-called special educational system to provide education adapted to the diverse characteristics, abilities and needs of students with disabilities or specific talents as well as of gifted children. These students are either taught in small-sized age groups in segregated special schools called Multiple Support Centers [*Centros de Atención Múltiple (CAM)*]

or in regular schools, where supplement teachers, who belong to so-called regular educational support units [Unidades de Apoyo a la Educación Regular (USAER)], help teachers in adapting the curriculum and learning activities to those students in the classroom who have special educational needs (García Cedillo et al., 2015).

Indigenous education

Since its foundation in 1978, the General Directorate for Indigenous Education [Dirección General de Educación Indígena (DGEI)] manages the so-called indigenous educational system (DGEI, 2016). Initially, the DGEI operated indigenous schools with bilingual teachers who used their native language skills as pedagogic tool to teach their native students Spanish as their second language (Dietz, 2019; Martínez Buenabad, 2011: 2). This educational intervention of ‘castellanización’ (hispanization) pushed the native students to adapt to the Spanish-speaking mestizo mainstream and contributed over the past generations to a procedural linguistic of their native mother tongues (Baronnet, 2013: 186; Dietz, 1999, 2004; Dietz & Mateos Cortés, 2013; Quijano, 2000). Nowadays, teachers within the indigenous educational system are prepared to provide initial, preschool and six years of primary school education—often in multigrade schools—for children in native Mexican rural communities and for migrant students in seasonal migration camps (DGEI, 2016). There is also assistant pedagogic staff prepared to run TV-based secondary schools of the DGEI in remote rural areas with native populations (ibid.).

Programs of the Mexican Teacher Education System

The numerous initial and continuous teacher education programs in Mexico are different for the general, special and indigenous education system. Also, there exists a varying set of teacher training programs in the 32 federal states of Mexico, as the need for specifically trained teachers differs. For example, the indigenous educational system operates schools in 24 states; thus, in these states the teacher education colleges offer specific indigenous teacher training (DGEI & Sierra Soler, 2016).

In the following, we specify the different kinds of programs that future and current teachers in Mexico can subscribe to and study, after having passed the entry test and fulfilling standard requirements such as a minimum average score of 7.0 (out of 10) (for teachers in service) or 8.0 points (out of 10) (for graduates without experiences as teachers) at their final high school exams (AEFCDMX, 2018; UPN, 2019a).

All initial 4-year full-time bachelor study programs in teacher education in Mexico count with the following basic components (SEP, 2018j):

- Theoretical and methodological approaches for teaching;
- Knowledge of teaching and learning subjects;
- Practical components (classroom observations, internships, practical semester);

- Optional classes;
- English classes.

Teacher training programs for general education:

The teacher education colleges, the National Pedagogic University (UPN) and other public as well as private universities in Mexico offer the following basic full-time or part-time study programs for future or current teachers who do not have a degree yet (UPN, 2019b):

- Bachelor in initial and preschool education (age 0–2 and 3–5) (SEP, 2018b);
- Bachelor in primary school education (age 6–12, year 1–6) (SEP, 2018c);
- Bachelor in secondary school education (age 13–15, year 7–9) (SEP, 2018d);
- Bachelor in high school education (age 16–18, year 10–12) (ibid.).

For secondary as well as high school education, teacher students can choose between nine different subjects: biology, chemistry, civic and ethics, English, geography, history, mathematics, physics and Spanish (ibid.). The bachelor program in physical education qualifies the students to become a sport teacher in any of the before-mentioned school levels (AEFCDMX, 2018; SEP, 2018e).

Other teacher training programs include, among others, a bachelor study program in educational psychology, in community development, in pedagogy and also in educational intervention, which is a program that has five different branches, such as education for adolescents and adults, inclusive education, intercultural education, educational orientation and educational administration (AEFCDMX, 2018). Additionally, there are postgraduate and doctoral programs in the before-mentioned five branches and in areas such as education and gender as well as natural sciences and environmental education (ibid.).

Initially, teacher education programs for the general educational system did not integrate elements of diversity education. However, due to the increased presence of ethnically, culturally and linguistically diverse students in general schools—especially in those located in urban areas, such as Mexico City, Mérida, Guadalajara, Oaxaca City and Puebla, among many others—future and present teaching staff of the general educational system needed to be equipped to address this diversity more adequately (Czarny Kirschkautzky, 2017: 492). But, since the General Coordination for Intercultural and Bilingual Education (CGEIB) started operating in 2001, this governmental institution promoted on the one hand the integration of the intercultural and bilingual educational approach into teacher education programs for the general educational system (SEP, 2004c), and on the other hand, the CGEIB started to offer continuous teacher training programs for teaching staff in general schools who have ethnically, culturally and linguistically diverse students in their classrooms (CGEIB, 2015: 42).

Teacher training programs for special education:

In 1943, the first teacher college for special education was found in Mexico City (SEP, 2004a: 14). In the beginning, it covered educational issues for students with mental conditions. During the following decades, gradually more and more study areas of special education were added. In 1972, the study program for special education with

a focus on learning problems was initiated (*ibid.*). In the 1980s, teacher colleges for special education were opened in 13 Mexican states. Ever since, its number has been growing (*ibid.*: 19).

Today, in Mexico, bachelor study programs in special education are offered in teacher education colleges in most states. Additionally, also some public and private universities, institutes and centers for continuous teacher education offer initial and continuous study programs for special education. They are usually divided into the following six branches (*ibid.*: 25–27; AEFCDMX, 2018): hearing and speaking/language abilities, intellectual and mental abilities, learning abilities, social abilities, (nero)motoric abilities and visual abilities. Only the teacher college for special education in Mexico City (Escuela Normal de Especialización del Distrito Federal) offers bachelor programs in all of these six fields. In other teacher colleges, usually three of the six study branches are available (SEP, 2004a: 27).

As part of the educational reform of 2013 and the new educational model (SEP, 2017a) which focuses on inclusive education to create more equity among students with diverse characteristics and educational needs, the bachelor program of inclusive education was launched in 2018. The study program addresses most of the six study branches of special education (SEP, 2018f).

The National Pedagogic University (UPN) is one of few institutions of teacher education that also offers postgraduate and doctoral programs with a focus on special education, for example, in the field of sign language (UPN, 2019b).

Teacher training programs for indigenous education:

Since the 1930s, the above-mentioned ‘indigenismo’ policies aimed at selecting literate indigenous youth in their communities of origin, isolating them from their native cultures through urban-based boarding schools such as the ‘Casa del Estudiante Indígena’ in Mexico City and then returning them as bilingual teachers to ‘acculturate’ and hispanize their communities of origin through transitory bilingual programs which consisted of programs targeted at ‘mexicanizing the Indian,’ of de-rooting and assimilating native youth to the mainstream Mexican ‘mestizo’ culture and Spanish language. Once these linguistic and acculturation programs of ‘direct hispanization’ failed due to local resistance and inadequate and monolingual teacher training. Since the end of the Seventies, the General Directorate for Indigenous Education (DGEI) started to implement more nuanced, participatory and culture-sensitive ‘indigenous education’ programs which included a stronger emphasis on native culture and indigenous mother tongues (Dietz, 1999, 2004).

In this context, in 1982, the National Pedagogic University (UPN) in Ajusco, Mexico City, initiated a first full-time bachelor study program for indigenous education, by following a request of the DGEI, who was legally obliged to respond to newly introduced bilingual and bicultural educational policies (Czarny Kirschkautzky, 2010; Rebolledo, 2014). According to this innovative educational approach for native students, teachers in indigenous schools needed to know about and apply methods of bilingual teaching in bicultural classroom settings. This was the first time that natives became visible and participated in teacher training programs at the level of higher education. Early cohorts mainly consisted of native teachers who were already in service

and who studied to become superintendents, school district leaders and administrative school district managers (*ibid.*). In the 1980s, such studies were introduced in 23 states as part-time bachelor programs in primary education for indigenous contexts (SEP, 2004c).

Nowadays, for the teaching staff of the indigenous educational system, the National Pedagogic University and most teacher education colleges in Mexico, as well as specific rural indigenous teacher education colleges (*Escuelas Normales Indígenas*), bilingual intercultural teacher education colleges (*Escuelas Normales Bilingües e Interculturales*) and the DGEI offer specific initial and continuous indigenous teacher training programs (Bertely Busquets, Dietz, & Díaz Tepepa, 2013; Herrera Morales et al., 2011; Jiménez Naranjo & Mendoza Zuany, 2016; Santana Colin, 2017; Vázquez Romero, 2015).

With the foundation of the General Coordination for Intercultural and Bilingual Education (CGEIB) in 2001, the approach of intercultural and bilingual education was designed and implemented. As part of their activities, they enhanced the establishment of all together 13 intercultural universities for native students to improve their access to culturally and linguistically relevant tertiary education (Dietz & Mateos Cortés, 2019; Mateos Cortés & Dietz, 2016). They also integrated in 2004 a bachelor program in intercultural and bilingual primary school education in teacher education colleges for teachers of the indigenous educational system (SEP, 2004b, 2012a, 2018g). However, in 2013, apart from the National Pedagogic University, only 22 Mexican teacher education colleges offered these four-year part-time studies for teachers in service in indigenous schools (Dietz & Mateos Cortés, 2019; Schmelkes del Valle, 2013b).

For preschool education, such intercultural and bilingual educational bachelor study program for native teachers of the indigenous system was firstly launched in 2012 (SEP, 2012b, 2018h); however, it is not widely spread and available (Schmelkes del Valle, 2013b). Most recently, also a bachelor program for teaching and learning in TV-based secondary schools for rural native contexts was introduced (SEP, 2018i).

Challenges in Mexican Teacher Education

In the Mexican teacher education system, many difficulties evolved throughout the implementation process of the General Law of Professional Teachers' Service (LGSPD) (SEGOB, 2013). These included difficulties of educational actors at various systems' levels to make sense of and apply the outlined norms and regulations of the law. Other difficulties emerged from decisions that political actors made with regard to the laws' implementation. For example, according to Leyva Barajas (2018:37), the suggested times and frequencies of the teachers' continuous training, evaluation and mentoring are not aligned and, thus, incompatible with each other. Also, educational actors lack the necessary conditions to be able to design integrated models and instruments for continuous teacher education, teaching evaluation and ongoing teachers' mentoring program according to the new regulations (*ibid.*).

As part of the new educational models' strategic plan for transforming teacher colleges (SEP, 2018a: 23–26), the Ministry of Education determined in 2018 the following other current challenges of teacher education in Mexico:

- To qualify teachers according to the educational needs of the twenty-first century;
- To offer high-quality teacher training in order to attract the best candidates for initial teacher education;
- To define a competence profile for certifying students when graduating from teacher colleges that corresponds with the educational standards established in the new educational model;
- To qualify and regularly update teacher trainers who provide future and current teachers with high-quality initial and continuous teacher education;
- To educate teacher trainers as well as future and current teachers in applying new technologies when learning something new and when teaching others;
- To strengthen the cooperation between teacher colleges and other institutions for initial and continuous teacher training in order to foster innovations and synergies in the field of teacher education;
- To guarantee equity and equality among students of initial and continuous teacher education programs, so that all of them have the same opportunities to learn and to create fair and equal learning opportunities for their future students in school;
- To strengthen native languages in the programs for initial and continuous teacher education in teacher colleges (ibid.).

In the following, we describe in more detail which challenges educational actors are facing within the Mexican system of teacher education—especially with regard to its structures, its programs, its conditions and its outcomes—related to the multiethnic nature of student bodies in Mexican schools.

Challenges in Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Structures

The structural division of the Mexican educational system and, more specifically, of the system of teacher training into the general, indigenous and special education might have administrative advantages, but it challenges educational equality and social inclusion. Herrera Morales et al. (2011) argue that this is besides many other reasons because the structures and training programs for future and current teachers in the indigenous educational system were and still are designed by educational actors according to political and social interests of non-native Mexicans. Such mainstream culture systems' structures lead to (further) marginalization and discrimination of ethnic and other minority groups (ibid.).

So far, the preparation of teachers to serve native students is only an integral part of the teacher training programs for indigenous education, but not for general or special education. This is problematic because native students attend far more

often schools of the general than of the indigenous educational system. This is due to the DGEI who established indigenous schools in the late 1970s only in those 24 (out of 32) Mexican states that had original native rural communities (DGEI & Sierra Soler, 2016: 4–5). But, as a result of extensive migratory processes in the past decades, about 40% of native Mexicans left their original rural native community and settled in urban and ethnically mixed areas (Schmelkes del Valle, 2010: 208). Thus, they are unable to attend a school of the indigenous educational system where specifically prepared bilingual native teachers provide them with access to education in their own native language as well as in Spanish. As statistics from 2013/14 show, only 827,628 native students between 6 and 11 years old (DGEI, 2015) from a total of 13,845,438 students of the same age group in Mexico (INEE, 2014: 236) were enrolled in primary schools of the indigenous educational system (which equals 6%). Considering that the national average of 21.5% of the Mexicans who identified themselves as natives in 2015 (INEGI, 2015: 73), it means that about 2,976,769 of all the primary school students between 6 and 11 years old were natives (21.5% of 13,845,438 students in total), but only about 28% of them were enrolled in indigenous schools (827,628 out of 2,976,769 native students in total). This implies that about 72% of all native students between 6 and 11 years old in Mexico attended schools of the general educational system that does not provide bilingual education and that has no staff trained to address their ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity. Thus, there is a structural gap between the systemically divided teacher training programs and the need for those specifically trained teachers in schools across the country.

Also, there are structural gaps between the existing initial and continuous teacher education programs and the kind of knowledge and competencies that trained teachers on the job need nowadays (Barba-Martín, Barba, & Martínez Scott, 2016; see also Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018). This missing structural interlinkage is further intensified because of a lack of professional supervision and pedagogic–didactic consultancy for teachers in service provided by teacher trainers and consequently because of a lack of information flowing back from the teachers’ practice to the teacher trainers in institutions for initial and continuous teacher education (*ibid.*).

Another systemically linked structural challenge of teacher education in Mexico is the missing flexibility for teachers on the job (in terms of their time, schedules and duties) to be able to participate in formal continuous teacher education programs. Attending trainings on a regular basis would permit them to update their knowledge and competencies according to current global and local developments. This is what they need to be able to provide an education for their students that corresponds with today’s requirements and demands (*ibid.*).

Barba-Martín et al. (2016) further argue that the teacher education system itself is too rigid and inflexible (e.g., with regard to the structures and the contents of the training programs), so that teacher trainings would not be easily modifiable in order to foster the teachers’ ways of thinking, speaking and acting and their abilities to critically reflecting upon their own teaching practice in line with the demands deriving from current educational policies, guidelines and programs, such as those of the new educational model (SEP, 2017b).

Also, the Mexican teacher training system is not structurally linked to the system of teacher evaluation, which was launched in 2013 by the National Institute for Educational Evaluation (INEE) (Trujillo Holguin, Campos Sandoval, & Álvarez Varela, 2016). One of the reasons for it is that teachers were then and are still today not adequately prepared during their teacher training programs to succeed in the nationally standardized evaluation. This applies specifically to teachers working in schools of the indigenous educational system, where a considerable amount of aspects of the teachers' required and evaluated expert knowledge and competencies were not part of their initial or continuous teacher training programs. Such a structural decoupling occurs when the standards for the teacher evaluation are made from a mainstream culture perspective and when they are not adapted to the local educational context and the conditions (e.g., in terms of infrastructure, budget, staff, etc.) under which teachers in schools of the indigenous educational system are working (Dietz, 2019).

The before-mentioned structural gap might have also occurred because of the lack of additional training programs to update teachers who would like to prepare for the evaluation examination, who are willing to increase their knowledge or who are not meeting the minimum requirements to remain in the teaching profession and fail the evaluation examination (Cuevas Cajiga & Moreno Olivos, 2016; Leyva Barajas, 2018: 37; Trujillo Holguin et al., 2016; see also Köster, 2016: 46–47; Schmelkes del Valle, 2013b).

Challenges in Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Programs

The National Law for the Teaching Profession in Mexico (LGSPD) (SEGOB, 2013) and the regulations for teacher education in the national educational model (Secretaría de Educación Pública (SEP), 2017a) do not provide a sufficient regulatory basis for actors in the field of teacher education to design and apply programs and curricula for initial teacher education that are relevant and necessary to tackle global and local challenges in education of the twenty-first century. Therefore, elements for new teaching practices, which have been outlined in the national educational model (SEP, 2017a), do not appear in initial teacher education programs and curricula (Díaz-Barriga in Instituto de Investigaciones sobre la Universidad y la Educación (IISUE), 2016). These new pedagogic principles include, among others:

- The usage of information and communication technologies (ICTs) to enhance learning processes;
- The shift of the role of teachers who should avoid transmitting knowledge in a uni-directional manner through traditional lectures and presentations, and instead they become learning facilitators who enhance dialogue, participation, active involvement and collaboration of the students in their own self-regulated work, research and learning processes;

- The adaptation of the national curriculum to the conditions, contexts and diverse educational needs of students in Mexican schools, especially to those in rural areas and in native monoethnic communities on the one hand and to those in urban multiethnic communities on the other hand (*ibid.*);
- The interaction between teachers and students in Mexican classrooms happens in Spanish, English and, in case children speak a native mother tongue, also in the present Mexican native languages, so that by the end of the students' educational trajectory they are bilingual or even trilingual (Rueda Beltrán in IISUE, 2016).

Also, in the LGSPD [SEGOB, 2013: Art. 14 (3)], it is stated that an adequate and quality teaching praxis implies the application of inclusive teaching strategies by the schools' staff that would respond to the different needs of students in their respective socially and culturally diverse contexts. However, initial teacher training programs do not include any kind of strategies or activities that would prepare future teachers to be able to contextualize their pedagogic praxis, for example, to strengthen their students' usage and knowledge of a native mother tongue or to deal effectively with multilingualism in their classrooms (Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018).

Furthermore, according to Díaz-Barriga (in IISUE, 2016), teacher education programs are too rigid and inflexible. Teacher educators in Mexican tertiary educational institutions for initial teacher training lack flexibility to adapt the national plan and the curriculum for teacher training to the conditions of the teacher education system, of the school system and of their own institution for teacher training. Also, it is difficult for actors in the field of Mexican teacher training to design teacher training programs that prepare future teachers for meeting the anticipated educational needs of the (ethnically diverse) children in the local contexts and schools where they supposedly will work after their graduation (*ibid.*).

Ortega and Castañeda (2011) found in their research that the initial teacher training programs in Mexico lack participatory and practically inclined elements. This means that teacher students do not learn how to

- Collaborate with their colleagues during their studies, which might result in a low willingness and disposition to collaborate once on the job;
- Design a schools' curriculum that values, considers and includes the knowledge of others within the schools' community, such as the children's families, the local community and cooperation partners;
- Apply their learnings at theoretical and conceptual level in their future pedagogic praxis in classrooms (*ibid.*).

Within the vast offer of continuous teacher trainings in Mexico—for example, by the Ministry of Education (SEP) and its subordinated institutions, such as the General Coordination for Intercultural and Bilingual Education (CGEIB) and the General Directorate for Indigenous Education (DGEI), or by the United Nations organizations, such as UNESCO and UNICEF—some of the before-mentioned missing contents are offered to teaching staff in service. But, oftentimes, such continuous teacher training programs are designed to work like a pyramid scheme. This implies that only some key actors of the school system (such as superintendents of schools or school

principals) participate in the training program and then they become the promoters of such topics like intercultural and bilingual education in their school districts and schools.

Jiménez Naranjo and Mendoza Zuany (2016) analyzed such continuous teacher training programs and participants in all Mexican states named the following critical aspects:

- Because of the pyramid scheme, information gets lost and the multipliers reinterpret what they have learned when passing it on to their colleagues and to students.
- The training programs lack planning and organization.
- Because of the time pressure to implement reforms and educational programs, the continuous training programs are like express classes that lack the necessary profundity.
- The teacher trainers who lead the courses are not sufficiently well informed and prepared, they might only pretend to give the courses (simulation), or they might be absent.
- Because the training courses are offered mainly in urban areas, those participants in rural school districts need to travel long distances, which results in a difference in access to continuous teacher education for rural and urban educators, in a different level of professionally prepared and updated teaching staff and thus in a varying educational quality across Mexico.
- Teachers who need to invest extra time and money to participate in teacher trainings are not very likely to do so. This lack in motivation might be a result of a missing culture of continuous training and learning among educational actors and of the missing consistency and compatibility of the different offered teacher training units (ibid.).

Challenges in Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Conditions

Due to missing financial and human resources, the Mexican system of teacher education is underserved by the government when compared to the outcome that it is supposed to generate as defined in the national educational model (Cordero Arroyo, 2018: 10–11; Rueda Beltrán in IISUE, 2016). On the one hand, in many cases, infrastructures, equipment and teaching materials for teacher trainings are insufficient and outdated (ibid.). On the other hand, as Canto Ramírez (2016) found, lecturers, professors and other academic staff in the Mexican teacher education system need more continuous updates with regard to

- Their competencies to innovate the curriculum of their teacher training programs and their pedagogic practices in teacher colleges;

- Their knowledge of the Mexican educational and school system as well as of current legal frameworks, educational policies, curricula and guidelines;
- Their practical experiences in current Mexican classrooms in different contexts and with different conditions;
- Their professional skills in building and strengthening their collaboration with their colleagues to develop new practices in their teacher training programs (ibid.).

Besides the insufficient resources in the Mexican teacher training system, also the unequal distribution of existing resources contributes to the reproduction and deterioration of asymmetrical conditions and, thus, power hierarchies. Proportionally less resources are provided by the government for indigenous schools as well as for teacher training facilities of the indigenous educational system (INEE, 2015: 70; Köster, 2016: 40–41). As a result, the level and quality of formal teacher training are higher among those teachers in service in schools of the general educational system than among the teaching staff in schools of the indigenous educational system. Also, in comparison with Spanish, there is much less attention given and funding provided to prepare future and current teachers to teach in native languages (ibid.).

Furthermore, inequality prevails when comparing the conditions of teacher training for serving sedentary and migrant students, of teacher training in different states of Mexico and of teacher training for teaching staff working in cities and rural contexts. For example, as there only exists a national plan for teacher training in urban areas, specific needs and contextual conditions of teachers in local rural and sometimes also native Mexican areas are left out of the set of pedagogic guidelines that teacher students and teachers in practice could derive know-how and strategies from in order to professionally and adequately address the educational needs of children in rural and/or indigenous schools (Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018). This includes, among others, that current and future teachers have a different ethnic identity and mother tongue than the students of the local community that they are (supposed to be) serving. Or they are posted to work in small schools with only one or two teachers who need to simultaneously teach students of different ages and levels of knowledge without having had corresponding preparatory teacher training beforehand (ibid.; Jiménez Naranjo & Mendoza Zuany, 2016; see also IISUE, 2016).

Another challenging aspect related to the conditions of the Mexican system of teacher education is the mismanagement and corruption of public funds, for example, by the National Union for Educational Staff (Sindicato Nacional de Trabajadores de la Educación—SNTE). This greatest and most powerful union in Latin America has taken over large parts of the administrative tasks and has nowadays still more responsibilities in regard to the management and the educational system than the Mexican government, and thus, the national authorities have little insights to and control over the union leaders' activities and especially over how they use the resources (Díaz-Barriga in IISUE, 2016).

Challenges in Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Outcomes

Indicators to measure the outcome of teacher education in Mexico are considered to be, among others, the results of the national teacher evaluation (Trujillo Holguin et al., 2016; Cuevas Cajiga & Moreno Olivos, 2016; Schmelkes del Valle, 2015; INEE et al., 2015). According to the National Institute for Educational Evaluation (INEE) that was until recently responsible for evaluating staff of the school systems in Mexico, the outcomes from the amount of public investments that the Mexican government had supplied for initial and continuous teacher education in the past years did not reach the anticipated level (Cordero Arroyo, 2018: 10–11; INEE, 2018b, 2018c). The results of the teacher evaluation showed that there are at least three generations of teachers in Mexican schools who participated at initial and continuous teacher trainings which prepared them for tasks and activities that are not or no longer relevant to their today's pedagogic practice. Their qualifications, knowledge and competencies vary significantly from what is needed in classrooms and what is in line with the currently effective laws, policies, regulations and guidelines (Rueda Beltrán in IISUE, 2016). For example, in the evaluation of teaching staff in the academic year of 2015/16, about 40% of English teachers in secondary schools did not meet the minimum requirements and were consequently rated as unfit for teaching English in Mexican schools (ibid.).

Reasons for their insufficient level of expertise might be found in the design of programs for initial and continuous teacher education that lack curricular elements which are necessary to prepare teachers in Mexico to be able to live up to the systems' expectations. Also, factors such as the comparatively low salary for teachers as well as the negative image of teachers and the teaching profession in the Mexican society might contribute to teachers being unprepared, feeling unappreciated and, thus, lacking motivation, which impacts their teaching outcomes (Alarcón Nakamura, Gaytán Díaz, & Ruiz López, 2018).

The preparation of of teachers has a significant effect on the student performance (Velasco Cruz, 2015). This correlation becomes especially visible when comparing the level of teacher education and student performance in the general and in the indigenous educational system. On the one hand, about 50% of the teachers in service in indigenous schools between 2000 and 2010 did not participate in any academic education. This ratio is much higher than among teachers in general schools in Mexico (ibid.; Schmelkes del Valle, 2010: 207; Schmelkes del Valle, 2013b).

Such differing levels of formal qualifications among teachers and of the teaching quality in the general and indigenous educational system also contributed and still contribute to the disparity between the performance of native and non-native students in Mexico. When considering the following four components for measuring student outcomes—such as the PISA test results, the literacy rate, the total number of years that the children were enrolled in school per level of schooling (primary to tertiary

education) and the presence in school per age group—the performance of Mexican native students is 34% lower than the outcome of non-native students (UNDP & DGEI, 2013: 23ff).

Suggestions to Tackle Challenges in Mexican Teacher Education

After having analyzed and exemplified the main challenges in the current teacher education in Mexico, we now list suggestions of experts in the field (INEE, 2018a among many others) of how these challenges could be tackled by political decision makers, administrators of the educational and school system in Mexico and the teacher trainers.

Firstly, it is important to note that the Mexican educational system repeatedly went through profound changes, which then provoked and resulted in many abrupt changes within its system of teacher education. After the ruling party changed in 2000 from PRI to PAN, under the pressure of the Zapatista movement, former president Vicente Fox (PAN, 2000–2006) initiated a reform to install new educational institutions to foster, among many other aspects, intercultural and bilingual education for native Mexicans (Martínez Buenabad, 2015). Later, under the rule of Felipe Calderon (PAN, 2006–2012), the core curricula of all study subjects were changed and articulated (SEGOB, 2011). Then, in 2012, the PRI party came back to power and the government of Enrique Peña Nieto (PRI, 2012–2018) initiated a new educational reform, including the launch of a system of teacher evaluation and the so-called new educational model (SEP, 2017a). In 2018, Andrés Manuel López Obrador of the Morena party came to power (Morena party, 2018–2024). In 2019, he annulled the former reform by decree and inaugurated yet again a new cycle of reforms (SEGOB, 2019; amlo.org.mx, 2019). Therefore, the implementation of measures from the so-called new educational model was stopped, and as one of many consequences, the independent National Institute for Educational Evaluation (INEE) was shut down and its activities, such as evaluating teachers, were cancelled (SEGOB, 2019: transitorios, no. 4). Instead, the current Mexican president found the National System for Continuous Educational Improvement, which is led by a public institution and is responsible for future diagnostic research and evaluation of the educational system (SEGOB, 2019: 3rd article of the Mexican Constitution, IX).

From that moment onward, the focus was shifted from improving the teacher evaluation system to improving the teacher education system and especially its teacher colleges (SEGOB, 2019: 3rd article of the Mexican Constitution). The constitutional reform granted, for the first time in Mexican history, ‘intercultural education not only for native peoples, but for the whole of Mexican society, programmatically re-defining the national educational system as democratic, national, humanist, equity-oriented, integral, inclusive, intercultural and excellence-oriented’ (ibid.). From 2019 onwards, the respective secondary laws have been formulated and implemented,

which—if accordingly adapted—will include a complete redefinition of the Mexican teacher training system. In general education as well as in indigenous education, inclusion and interculturality are supposed to transform compulsory public education—which is now extended from initial, nursery education up to ‘higher education for all’—toward more flexible, inductive and bottom-up study programs at all educational levels, acknowledging native languages as subject areas not only for indigenous peoples, but for Mexican pupils in general. The next years will show if these constitutional and programmatic shifts will really trickle the radical school-level transformations that current policymakers were promising.

But up to now, all of these rapid changes led to complex instrumentalization processes in each of the Mexican states as well as to confusion and frustration among teacher trainers and teachers alike (Cubas Carlín & Rodríguez Mercado, 2018; Guzmán Arredondo, 2018). Given this development over the past two decades, experts suggest to enhance and deepen the enacting processes of the launched reforms instead of repeatedly initiating new reform projects with every change of the ruling government (*ibid.*).

Below, we summarized further suggestions with regard to tackling the before-mentioned challenges related to the structures, programs, conditions and outcomes of teacher education in Mexico.

Suggestions to Improve Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Structures

In order to improve the structures of the Mexican teacher education system, political decision makers are recommended to

1. Recognize native perspectives on education, their pedagogies and their educational practices as equally valuable and integrate them in the teacher training systems’ structures and training programs. This would lead to a continuous process of sharing, reproducing and protecting native cultural patrimony, consisting among other of their knowledge, languages and cultural practices (Herrera Labra & Salazar Muro, 2018);
2. Coordinate and synchronize offers and programs of initial and continuous teacher training programs and involve teachers in practice in its design in order to make teacher preparation more efficient and to meet the current demands from the teachers on the job;
3. Make initial and continuous teacher education in Mexico compulsory for all teachers (from the general, indigenous and special educational system) and include in this compulsory program components that prepare them to tackle today’s challenges, such as digitalizing teaching practices and addressing educational needs of ethnically diverse students, among many others;
4. Create structures within the Mexican school systems that allow its teachers on the job to participate in structured programs of continuous teacher education more

easily, frequently and without own expenses, for example, by flexibilizing the working hours and by providing travel expenses for those who live further away from the training sites;

5. Guarantee the availability of and the equal access to initial and continuous teacher training that is in line with the national and local teaching standards for all current and future teachers before evaluating their performances;
6. Rethink the separation of teacher preparation programs for the general, indigenous and special educational system and integrate the subject of ethnic diversity in all the teacher education programs (general, indigenous and special, initial and continuous) to equip teachers in Mexico with the necessary know-how and tools to guarantee that they are able to address educational needs of ethnically diverse students in all types of schools.

Suggestions to Improve Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Programs

In order to improve the programs of the Mexican teacher education system, political decision makers as well as administrators and teacher trainers are recommended to

1. Create new initial and continuous teacher education programs and/or include subjects relevant to global and local developments and challenges in education in already existing initial and continuous teacher education programs;
2. Make sure that the subjects and contents of initial and continuous teacher training programs correspond with the new quality standards and requirements for teaching as defined in the educational reform;
3. Integrate pedagogies of Mexican native people and other ethnically diverse groups as a shared value system in teacher education programs (Herrera Labra & Salazar Muro, 2018);
4. Take advantage of the existing linguistic diversity in Mexico as a pedagogical tool to provide (more) meaningful, situated and contextually rooted learning processes for current and future teachers in their initial and continuous training programs, so that they would be able to do the same in their pedagogic practice in schools of all educational levels;
5. Establish more participatory, contextualized and practically inclined teacher trainings in order to guarantee that Mexican teachers are able to provide locally suitable education to their students while, at the same time, they are able to meet the standards defined in the National Law for the Teaching Profession (LGSPD) (SEGOB, 2013) as well as in the national educational model (Ortega & Castañeda, 2011; SEP, 2017a);
6. Include practical components in the initial teacher education programs and add regulated processes of supervision and guidance for teachers on the job in order to identify individual needs for continuous teacher training programs;

7. Initiate a profound reflection and public discourse about the teaching profession, by taking the current Mexican social and cultural context into account and by acknowledging the new competencies that the teachers of today are required to have, such as to develop strategies for personal growth and educational improvement (Imbernón, 2016; Salazar-Gómez & Tobón, 2018; Veloquio González, 2016).

Suggestions to Improve Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Conditions

In order to improve the conditions of the Mexican teacher education system, political decision makers, administrators and teacher trainers are recommended to

1. Provide more resources for teacher education and more equally distribute resources—for example, between the general and indigenous systems of teacher education, between the 32 states of Mexico and between urban and rural areas—to guarantee a nationwide high standard and quality of teacher education;
2. Provide more than just express teacher training to teachers of the indigenous educational system, because the current express courses provided by the DGEI that seek to increase the number of indigenous teaching staff with an academic degree do not necessarily lead to an improved educational quality (Jiménez Naranjo & Mendoza Zuany, 2016);
3. Ensure that all teachers as well as teacher trainers in the Mexican system of teacher education have access to resources for professional competence and capacity building (Canto Ramírez, 2016);
4. Create conditions that favor and strengthen the collaboration and exchange between teacher educators from different teacher training facilities and institutions as well as between them and the teachers in service in order to collaboratively innovate and contextualize the teacher trainings (Barba-Martín et al., 2016; Canto Ramírez, 2016).

Suggestions to Improve Mexican Teacher Education with Regard to Its Outcome

In order to improve the outcomes of the Mexican teacher education system, political decision makers are recommended to create systemic conditions that would raise the motivation and avoid the loss of potential among applicants for teacher training and among teachers on the job, by

1. Turning the employment of new teachers in schools and the transfer of teachers on the job to new schools fair(er) and (more) transparent;

2. Implementing a control system that hinders the double employment of a single teacher, the linguistic mismatch of teachers, the corruption of resources for teacher education and teacher employment, the employment of unqualified staff, etc;
3. Increasing the payment for teachers;
4. Installing a control system that makes sure that teachers are paid according to their performance, to their time of serving in the system and to their level of successfully completed formal teacher training;
5. Elevating the criteria for entering and completing teacher training programs, for starting and remaining in a teaching position and for reaching a higher level of payment (through evaluation of the performance of teacher students, teachers and their students);
6. Adapting teacher evaluation systems to the different ethnic, cultural, linguistic and other contextual conditions of the teachers, especially of those in the indigenous educational system.

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Teacher as a Transformational Leader: Perspectives and Practices of Teacher Education in India



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Abstract Teachers' role in the quality education mission is very vital, and they have to exercise leadership in their professional practices. Leadership in teacher education is the need of the hour, and it has to be the integral part of the teacher education programs. Education system continues to undergo significant change in response to factors such as government policies, knowledge economy, continuing growth in demand for higher levels of educational attainment, professionalism and accountability, rapid economic development, universalization of education and society-wide influence of information technology, demands for increased access and internationalization of education. In this chapter, the authors have discussed the current scenario of teacher education programs in India and explained the need for transformational leadership in teacher education. Forces for higher standards, greater educational choice, more powerful learning for a more diverse educational system, demands teachers with multiple skills both pedagogical and leadership, who can be able to mold students to face the challenges and aspiration of the present competitive world and make them future leaders.

Introduction

Teacher education system continues to undergo significant change in response to factors such as government policies, knowledge economy, continuing growth in demand for higher levels of educational attainment, professionalism and accountability, rapid economic development, universalization of education and society-wide influence of information technology, demands for increased access and internationalization of education. Forces for higher standards, greater educational choice, more powerful learning for a more diverse educational system, demands teachers with multiple skills both pedagogical and leadership, who can be able to mould students to face the challenges and aspiration of the present competitive world and make them future leaders.

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Teachers with passion for teaching are those who are conscientious, change catalysts and innovative in their work. These teachers act as a change catalyst by creating a value system, which is vibrant and relevant; therefore, this globalized society which is full of challenges, promises and conflicts demands teachers with multiple skills (both pedagogical and leadership) to be able to refine their students.

Society is being progressed on the wheel of education, where teachers are the enablers. Therefore, quality of teachers is the momentum of progress of any society. In order to venture into the new realms of development, a country needs transformational leaders. As mentioned in the Education Commission (1964) 'The future of a nation is being shaped in her classrooms,' thus teachers are being recognized as the architects of modern nation. Teachers must be innovative, creative and accountable for sophisticated teaching and creating leadership value in the educational system. Now, it is important to review the teacher education programs both pre-service and in-service in the context of 'teacher leadership' in school education.

Research studies in the area of teacher education identified the need for the leadership development among the student teachers. The student teachers must not remain stagnant post after training; they have to find new avenues in this competitive globalized world; outlet and opportunities need to be explored and excelled. National Knowledge Commission (2008) suggested that there should be greater flexibility in the modalities of teacher training. Over the years with the development of professionalism, the quest for high-quality performance is on the rise. The quality of leadership skills of teachers needs to be productive, self-enhancing and fulfilling lives. Therefore, the critical question in this juncture is how educational professionals can be developed in both pedagogical and leadership skills that will build and sustain a new breed of educational systems to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century?

Teacher Education Scope and Relevance

Teachers are the powerful and meaningful role models for students at all levels, and the way they act influences both learning and motivation (Bandura, 1989). Teacher educators must use research-based, proven best professional practices in order for those behaviors to be appropriately applied. Teacher education refers to a professional program based on the guidelines and processes designed to prepare student teachers with the knowledge, behaviors, attitudes and professional skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in educational platform. Teacher education is a program that is related to the development of teachers' competences and proficiencies that would empower and endow the student teachers to encounter the professional requirements of the teaching profession and encounter the challenges. According to National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education: Towards Preparing Professional and Humane Teacher (2009) 'It is a matter of conviction that, if teacher education institutions could be organized on the right lines and become dynamic centres of progressive educational movements, the whole task of educational reconstruction would be greatly facilitated.' Teachers help in shaping and reshaping the society and

determine the quality of life in the community and the nation. Experiences of various countries reveal that the most effective way to develop good teachers in a dynamic and changing environment is to begin with a well-developed pre-service teacher education program and continue with career long learning opportunities. Each society, therefore, makes some provision for pre-service education and continuous professional development of teachers in order to help them contribute in the growth of society. Professionalization of teacher education is the core for improving quality education and therefore, the competency based teacher education programmes are highlighted and significant steps have been taken in this direction across the world.

Teacher Education Programs in India: Current Scenario

Toward the end of the twentieth and in the beginning of the twenty-first century, a reasonably strong system of teacher education in the country is in place. However, it is widely recognized that it needs further strengthening. A mandatory system of recognition and supervision of teacher education institutions has been introduced, mushroom growth of substandard institutions has been checked, commercialization in teacher education has been curbed to some extent, in-service education of teachers is more or less institutionalized, and distance education has established its credibility as an alternative delivery mode for teacher education programs.

The content of teacher education programs has also received due attention during the postindependence period. The quality and standard of an education system largely depend on the quality, characteristics and commitment of the teachers to their profession. The Education Commission 1964–66 therefore pointed out, ‘For the qualitative improvement of education a sound programme of professional education of teachers is essential.’ The National Policy on Education, 1986, and revised NPE, 1992, laid emphasis on revamping teacher education program for bringing about qualitative improvement in education. As a tangible step toward the professionalization of teacher education, the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) was set up by an Act of Parliament (No. 73 of 1993) and actually came into existence with the effect from 17.08.1995 (Mohanty, 2008). NCTE came out with curriculum framework for different teacher education programs in 1998. In pursuance of the recommendations of the curriculum framework, the areas like Education in Emerging Indian Society and Working with the Community were introduced in the syllabi of teacher education programs in different states. The National Council of Teacher Education (NCTE) was established as a statutory body through an Act of Parliament to regulate teacher education in the country by laying down norms and standards and by undertaking periodical inspections with a view to phase out substandard institutions and to check commercialization in teacher education.

The major developments in recent years form the background to the present reform in teacher education with increasing school enrollment and the launch of pan-Indian primary education development programs such as the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA, 2002) to achieve Universal Elementary Education (UEE), the Operation Blackboard

(OB) 1986 and the District Primary Education Program (DPEP) 1995. The political recognition of Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE) as a legitimate demand and the state commitment toward UEE in the form of the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 and the effect of The Right to Education (RTE) on 1st April 2010. This would increase the demand manifold for qualified elementary school teachers. The country has to address the need of supplying well-qualified and professionally trained teachers in larger numbers in the future. National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE, 2009) has observed the escalating demand for training teachers, and the belief that a training certificate acts as collateral against future unemployment has made teacher education a lucrative business proposition. It has also led to a large-scale mushrooming of teacher education institutions. The National Knowledge Commission (NKC, 2007) has observed that teachers are the single most important element of the school system and the country is already facing a severe shortage of qualified and motivated school teachers at different levels. It is of utmost importance to restore the dignity of school teaching as a profession and provide more incentives for qualified and committed teachers. The training of teachers is a major area of concern at present as both pre-service training and in-service training of school teachers are extremely inadequate and poorly managed in most states (NCFTE, 2009).

The recent development in teacher education program is the change in the duration of Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) and Master of Education (M.Ed.). From the academic year 2015 to 2016, the duration of these courses has been extended from one year to two years based on the recommendation of Kothari Commission (1966) and Committee Reports of Justice Verma (2012) and Poonam Batra (2014). Professional requirements and standards of teacher educators have been changing during the course of time. Based on the various committee reports (Batra, 2014; Verma, 2013), the professional requirements of teacher educators (B.Ed. stream) for foundation courses are M.Ed. with 55% marks or its equivalent grade; and Master Degree in Science Humanities/Arts with 50% marks or M.A in Education and B.Ed. with at least 55% marks. For methodology course Master Degree in any school teaching subject with 50% marks and M.Ed. Degree with at least 55% marks. In addition, this PhD in education is desirable (Gazette of India: Extraordinary, 2014). However, the implementation of this norm of professional requirement of teacher educators needs further probing. Thus, the system of teacher education and teacher preparation program over the years has been evolving by accommodating the contextual realities to develop teacher competencies for realization of national priorities in education.

Institutes of teacher education have become breeding grounds of academic stagnation and resistance to change. The training of teachers happens in insular, intellectually impoverished environments that are severed from ground realities as well as the aims of education they espouse. Such an intellectual isolation actively discourages educational authorization and the growth of disciplinary and interdisciplinary inquiry. There is now public acknowledgment of the fact that the current system of education improves a tremendous burden on our children. This burden arises from an incoherent curriculum structure that is often dissociated for the personal and social milieu of children and also from the inadequate preparation of the teachers who are

unable to make a connection with children and respond to their needs in imaginative and dynamic way. One cannot fully blame teachers for this inadequacy. It may be due to administrative failure. Therefore, teacher education programs need to be vibrant and transform to develop creative learning environment; it demands an environment of transformation.

Structure of Teacher Education Program in India

After independence, there has been a rapid growth of education at all levels. Due to growing population, the number of schools and the number of teachers, the need of teacher education institutions increased. But the quality of education was sacrificed for the sake of quantity of education.

Department of Elementary Education and Literacy of the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) of the Government of India is the apex body that looks after policy for teacher education. Its agencies are National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), National University for Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) and Centre of Advanced Study in Education (CASE), The M.S University of Baroda. University Grants Commission (UGC) is also involved with Departments of Teacher Education or Departments of Education in the universities and institutions. Besides the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), there are also other ministries that have institutions which run teacher training programs. Ministry of Women and Child Development has a large network of training for pre-primary teachers. At the state level, the apex body that looks after teacher education is the Department of Education under Ministry of Education. Some states have directorates for teacher education. In a few others, the Directorate and State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) function under one director. The teacher training institutions offering programs for elementary and preschool teachers are in many states under the control of the Department of School Education, whereas colleges of teacher education offering degree courses are under the Department of Higher Education. In certain states, all teacher education institutions are managed by the state government and government-aided managements. In certain other states, majority of teacher training institutions are managed by private stockholders and universities under self-financed category. At the state levels, there are teacher training institutions being run by the Departments of Tribal Welfare and Social Welfare Departments. Developing norms and standards of teacher education profession has been an important issue to be solved in India.

In India, there are different levels of teacher education—early childhood teacher education, elementary-level teacher education, secondary level and postgraduate level are common levels. The secondary level of teacher education is mostly conducted by colleges of teacher education (CTE)-affiliated universities and leads to

Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree. The basic prerequisite of this course is graduation with 50% marks. Recently, Verma Committee (2012) and Poonam Batra Committee (2014) are recommended for launching of Bachelor of Elementary Education (B.El.Ed.) as an integrated course in affiliated colleges and universities across the country.

Professionalization of Teacher Education in India: Policy Initiatives for Reforms in Teacher Education

Professional upgradation is an important issue in teacher education. Isolation of the teacher and the community has to go, and teacher education has to be made an integral part of social as well as educational system (Mohanty, 2008). Professional development has been identified as of educational reforms (Hawley & Valli, 1999). There should be dynamism in the approach to meet challenges of diverse problems with confidence and competencies. The code of professional ethics and values has to be pursued in teacher education. Teacher education has to attempt to achieve social and professional endorsements on a par with other eminent professions. Several commissions and committees are recommended to the professional upgradation of teacher education through reforms of curricula.

The pre-service teacher preparation programs remain the important determinant of how teachers learn and succeed in the dynamic circumstances of real classroom and school. Pandey (2001) observes India has made concentrated efforts to modify and modernize teacher education curricula to suit the requirements of contemporary educational needs of the society and instill greater professionalism and commitment in practicing teachers through pre-service and continuous in-service teacher education programs. The National Policy on Education (NPE, 1986) reflects this commitment by considering pre-service and in-service teacher education as a continuous process and two ends of a continuum. Pandey (2011) says 'An analysis of the recommendations of various commissions, committees and the education policy of India reveals the efforts of policy planners to bring qualitative improvement in teacher education system along with quantitative expansion of the facilities.' Actions have been made to make teacher education curricula receptive to the circumstantial needs of evolving society and break the isolation of teacher education institutions.

The first two decades of the postindependence period are characterized by substantial efforts to do away from the colonial heirloom and modernize the teacher education curriculum along with the demand of school curriculum. The apprehension for quality improvement of teacher education has been the top precedence of educational planners which is mirrored in the concerns articulated, and recommendations made by various commissions and committees appointed by the Government of India from time to time since independence. The University Education Commission (1948), Secondary Education Commission (1953), Chattopadhyay Committee

Report (1983–85), Ramamurthy Committee (1990) and several seminars and workshops that were set up to discuss improvements in elementary and secondary teacher education from time to time expressed concern over the poor quality of teacher education and its aloofness from higher education and realities of school education system. These commissions stressed on the need for flexibility and indigenization and strongly felt that teacher education program needs to be refashioned to ensure more balance between the theory and practice.

The landmarks in the history of efforts toward bringing qualitative improvement in education in general and teacher education in particular are the recommendations of Education Commission (1964–66) popularly known as the Kothari Commission. This was the first commission in the postindependent India, which systematically dealt with all stages of education. It envisaged and envisioned development of pre-primary to higher level, including the vocational and technical education, etc.

One of the major concerns of the commission was revamping of teacher education in India. This commission stated, ‘The essence of programme of teacher education is quality and in its absence, teacher education becomes, not only a financial waste but a source of overall deterioration in educational standards’ (Para 4.13; p. 72). Accepting that the existing teacher education programs are largely unconnected from the realities of schools, it recommended reorientation of subject knowledge, vitalization of professional studies and to root the entire curriculum in Indian conditions. The commission recommended development of special courses and programs and revision and advancement of curricula. The commission expressed that ‘the prospective teachers need courses which will help them to build up a proper perspective of life, of our cultural heritage, and, of problems and aspirations of the nation as well as of human culture, and civilization in general’ (Para 4.29; p. 75). It also emphasized the need for teacher education to be brought into the mainstream academic life (Para 4.04; p. 68) of higher education and relate the curriculum closely to the teacher’s responsibilities and to Indian conditions, problems and studies (Para 4.31; p. 75). Nevertheless, teacher education institutions continued to exist as dogmatic institutions and are still secluded from the mainstream academic life of higher education.

Then, the Yashpal Committee (1993) was appointed to study the academic burden on students and substandard quality of learning, pointed toward the deprived quality of teacher education program in the country which leads to inadequate quality of teaching and learning in school education system. This committee suggested reorganization of the course content of teacher education programs to ensure its significance to the changing demands of school education, longer duration of course, stress on reflective and independent thinking and making the teacher education program more practical-oriented.

With increasing concerns on quality, context and readiness of teachers in the country and the need to prepare students for the twenty-first century, the Hon’ble Supreme Court of India constituted Justice Verma Committee in 2012. Verma Committee Report (2012) recommends, ‘It is desirable that teacher education institutions are located in multi- and inter-disciplinary academic environment. This will have significant implications for the redesigning of norms and standards of various teacher education courses specified by the NCTE. This will also have implications

for employment and career progression of prospective teachers.’, ‘Existing teacher education institutions may be encouraged to take necessary steps towards attaining academic parity with new institutions’ (p. 95) and ‘In keeping with the recommendations of the Education Commission (1966), every pre-service teacher education institution may have a dedicated school attached to it as a laboratory where student teachers get opportunities to experiment with new ideas and hone their capacities and skills to become reflective practitioners’ (p. 95, JVC Report). The Verma Committee also recommended that the B.Ed. 2-year program to be launched in 2016. In May 2014, NCTE constituted a committee for reviewing the existing regulatory functions of NCTE regarding grant of recognition and related functions and for implementation of the recommendations of Justice Verma Commission under the chairpersonship of Poonam Batra. The major recommendations of Batra Committee (2014) were: The B.Ed. program shall be of duration of two academic years including a minimum period of school internship of 16 weeks; basic unit of one hundred (100) students is divided into two sections of fifty (50) each for general sessions and not more than twenty (20) students per teacher for a school subject or method courses and other practical activities of the program to facilitate participatory teaching and learning; colloquia would form an integral part of the B.Ed. program; curriculum study courses may be designed in knowledge and curriculum with units of study that include the syllabi of graduation level as the case may be in each of the major disciplines of language, mathematics, social sciences and natural sciences. The courses shall aim to develop in students an understanding of the school curriculum, linking school knowledge with community life. Colloquium provides for a platform where students draw theory–practice connections in order to interact with children and prepare resources for them. Students are expected to present term papers and practicum reports and participate in group discussions. Colloquia shall include a school contact program, literature for adolescents, theatre in education, developing a resource centre in schools. For intake of 100 students, the faculty–student ratio shall be 1:15.

All these commissions, committees and study groups expressed concern over the irrelevance of teacher education program. However, in reality even after five decades of the observation made by the Education Commission (1964–66) in this context that ‘Vitality and realism are lacking in the curriculum and Program of work which continue to be largely traditional with disregard for the present day need and objectives’ (Para 4 02; p. 68) remains relevant, though a number of policy initiatives have been taken by the government, from time to time, to modernize and bring qualitative improvement in teacher education curriculum of the country. Effective curriculum frameworks for initial teacher education aimed at developing professionalism in pre-service teachers are expected to have their base in well-defined standards for various categories of school teachers. In India, development of teacher education curriculum framework is mostly an academic exercise due to the absence of standard and norms for school teachers and teacher educators.

The major important documents that influenced the process of teacher curriculum reform in the country are: the report of the Education Commission (1964–66), the National Policy on Education 1986 and National Curriculum Framework of Teacher Education (2009). All subsequent efforts to modify teacher education curriculum

to address the national aspirations for education have tried to integrate and incorporate various recommendations of these two documents. Education of teachers in the country has been considered crucial, not only for ensuring greater professionalism in teachers but also for facilitating school improvement and effectiveness. The teacher education curriculum in India has been revised in 1978, 1988, 1998, 2009 and 2014 to reflect and incorporate the geopolitical, cultural diversities of the country and keep pace with the globalization, knowledge expansion, economic upheavals, socio-political and communication and information developments.

Effective teacher education curriculum calls for systematic task analysis of teachers at various levels and insertion of relevant subject matters relevant to global scenario, which alone can infuse confidence and professionalism among the novice teachers to negotiate the school curriculum in classroom. The present teacher education program is inadequate to meet the challenges of diverse Indian socio-cultural contexts and the paradigm shift envisaged in the NCF (2005). The pedagogic reform from this perspective needs to invest on building on teachers' capacity to act as autonomous reflective groups of professionals who are sensitive to their social mandate, to the professional ethics and to the needs of heterogeneous groups of learners. The National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009) promises to translate the vision into reality and prepare humanistic and reflective teachers that has the potential to develop more professional teachers and improve the quality of education.

Teacher Professionalism and Teacher Leadership

There is a concern with the capacity of the teaching profession to provide the required school regeneration that is needed and, as a result, teachers' ability to provide a brand new form of leadership in schools and societies (Coles & Southworth, 2005). Pandey (2011) reasoned that teacher professionalism needs to be instilled in each phase of teacher preparation starting from conceptualization to evaluation. The teachers have to be empowered to take their professional development to new heights as the school culture reinforced the collective responsibility of the teachers for school development. The focus on student accomplishment is considered as the prime parameter of the effectiveness of professional development (Busher & Saran, 1995; Harris & Muijs, 2005). This development should relate to the work teachers do in the day-to-day life of the school and is integrated into teachers' professional practice. Professional development that improves student learning would therefore take place within a strong group of professionals (Timperley & Parr, 2004). When the school is organized into such a group, or groups, with the focus on student achievement, the professionalism becomes a focus for all that happens within that group (Harris & Muijs, 2005). There is a close link between their leadership and their professionalism and that one reinforced the other (Lunn, 2006). As Murphy (2005) too stated in his work, teacher leadership is about greater enablement, which expands a teacher's professional status, and therefore teachers can realize their professional value. The development of

leadership responsibility being shared with all in the school helps to bring about a new professionalism and develop extended professionalism (Fullan, 2001; Hargreaves, 2003; Harris & Muijs, 2005). Murphy (2005) stated that the development of teacher leadership has an effect on both individual educators and teaching as an occupation; by the way, it works to strengthen the professional nature of teaching. The responsibility of leadership is at the heart of teaching (Gardner, 1990; Robertson & Strachan, 2001). Gardner (1990) observes great leaders are responsible for what they do. Effective teacher leaders, like great leaders, are disposed to accept responsibility for their students because they consider that they can affect students' overall development. Teacher leadership has been recognized as being a responsibility of the professional role of the teacher (Robertson & Strachan, 2001). Teacher leadership is also an important concept if teachers are able to work with students for the type of learning they want (Gunter, 2005).

This study makes a systematic analysis of professionalizing the teacher education and to identify teacher leadership components in the form of transformational leadership. Because of large-scale reforms and recommendations for revamping teacher education, educational system needs transformational leaders in order to be effective (Caldwell, 1994; Leithwood, 1994). It is argued that transformational leadership is well suited to the challenges of current educational restructuring. Furthermore, transformational leadership has the potential for building high level of commitment in teachers to the complex uncertain nature of educational reforms and for fostering growth in the capacities that teachers must develop to respond positively to the reform agenda (Berg & Steinbach, 1999; Jantzi & Leithwood, 1996). In the same disposition, Leithwood and his associates (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1997; Leithwood et al., 1996) have pointed out that in spite of promising results in non-educational setting, there has been a very little research done in the educational settings of this kind of leadership. Transformational leadership is seen to be sensitive for developing shared vision distributing leadership organizational building and school culture necessary for restructuring effort in schools (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Stein Batch, 1999). Thus given the acceptability of the above discussion, it is therefore proposed to study transformational leadership in teacher education. In this regard, Leithwood and his associates have strongly argued that more research is needed to understand the effect of transformational leadership in educational settings (Nguni, 2005).

The present study is on 'transformational leadership' of teacher educators, and therefore it is necessary to understand the concept of leadership, historical development of the concept and associated theories, including the need for transformational leadership in education.

Transformational Leadership

James Macgregor Burns (1978) conceptualized leadership in his seminal book *Leadership* as either transactional or transformational. In transactional leadership, leaders lead through social exchange (Bass, 1999). Burns (1978) states that leaders approach

their followers with the intent of ‘exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions’ (p. 4). In the business world, transactional business leaders offer rewards for productivity (Bass & Riggio, 1999). Transactions, or social exchanges, comprise the bulk of the relationships among leaders and followers (Burns, 1978). The basis of transactional leadership is a transaction or exchange process between leaders and followers. The transaction leaders recognize followers’ need and desire and then clarify how those needs and desires will be satisfied in exchange of meeting specified objective or performing certain duties (Daft, 2005). As Burns (2003) indicated, there is yet no single unifying leadership theory providing common direction to thinkers and researchers; this nature of leadership requires a complex set of interacting variables and processes. Burns (1978) provided initial definitions of transformational leadership by drawing a distinction between transformational and transactional styles of leadership. His study inspired a completely new way of thinking and researching about leadership. Burns (1978) identified transactional leadership as that in which one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of something valued. However, according to Burns, transformational leadership ‘occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one and others to higher levels of motivation and morality’ (1978, 20). Burns (1978) proposed that the application of transformational leadership would raise both leaders and followers to high levels of morality. He was a biographer of two American presidents and had studied leadership chiefly as it pertained to political movement throughout history. Burns (1978) suggested that transactional and transformational leaderships were mutually exclusive. However, later empirical research demonstrated that transactional and transformational leaderships were not at the opposite ends of a continuum (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The largest amount of theory and research based on Burns’ work has been produced by Bass and associates. Barnard M. Bass is considered one of the developers of the transformational leadership theory, although his work was based on James Burns book on political leadership (1978) entitled *Leadership*. Bass (1985) elaborated the idea of transformational leadership by giving more attention to followers’ need rather than leader’s need. Like Burns, Bass (1985) similarly understood transactional leadership as the exchange of valued outcomes between leader and followers. This exchange is based on the leader discussing with followers the requirements and specific conditions, and rewards these followers will receive if they fulfill the requirement (Avolio & Bass, 2002). Bass also understood transformational leadership as a leadership with a mind-set of continuous concern for others, which yielded greater follower effort that resulted in greater satisfaction and performance (Bass, 1998). He proposed that transformational leadership elevated followers by meeting high-level needs and by raising their aspirations and desires. It was more effective than transactional leadership in generating the extra effort, commitment and satisfaction of those led. There have been two significant disagreements between Burns and Bass concerning transformational leadership. First, unlike Burns, Bass proposed that transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership, not the opposite end of a continuum (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass,

1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Yulk, 2002). He maintained that transactional leadership is an essential component for effectively leading an organization and that 'the most effective leaders are both transformational and transactional in their leadership style' (Avolio & Bass, 2002). A leader could be rated high on both transactional and transformational leaderships. Bass, however, believed that transactional leadership alone does not sufficiently explain the extra effort and performance that some leaders are able to create in their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Second, whereas Burns restricted transformational leadership to enlightened leaders who appealed to positive moral values and higher-order needs of followers, Bass was less strict: He saw transformational leaders as those who activated followers' motivation and increased their commitment, regardless of whether the effect ultimately benefits the followers (Yulk, 2002). According to Bass' view, even someone like Hitler was a transformational leader. Thus, transformational leadership was essentially amoral. However, Bass later changed his opinion and he came to agree with Burns, confirming true transformational leaders have 'to be morally uplifting' (Bass, 1998). Transactional leaders may be quite effective; however, transactional leaders maintain stability within the organization rather than promoting change. In contemporary competitive world, an organizational success not only depends on maintain status quo but effective and continuous change. In this situation, effective leadership is transformational approach. According to Bass (1990, 1995, 1999), transformational leadership differs from transactional leadership in four significant areas; transformational leadership develops followers into leaders. Transformational leadership elevates the concern of followers' lower-level physical needs to higher-level psychological needs, transformational leadership inspires followers to go beyond their self-interest for the good of the group, and transformational leadership paints a vision of a desired future state and communicates it in a way that makes the plan of change worth of the effort. Bass (1985) claimed the transformational leadership model was a new paradigm, suggesting that transformational leadership expended from transactional leadership and met higher-level needs and aspirations of followers. Moral commitment of leaders motivates followers to transcend self-interest toward higher collective mission, purpose and vision of the organization (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

Transformational leaders motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often more than they thought possible. They set expectation that is more challenging and typically achieve higher performance. Transformational leaders do more with colleagues and followers than set up simple exchange or agreement. They behave in ways to achieve superior results by practicing one or more of the four core components of transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Issues and Challenges in Teacher Education Programs

India is one of the fastest developing nations in the world. Globalization, liberalization and privatization resulted in rapid changes in Indian society. The rapid changes in society led to teachers facing new and complex issues, resulting in changes in

the area of teacher education. The challenges of teacher education in India are manifold and multidimensional. Lack of professional practices is a major concern of this system. There is the need to demarcate professional norms and standards of teacher educators and teacher education. Goel and Goel (2012) identified various issues of teacher education; they are institutional inertia, brand inequity, quality crisis, uncontrolled establishment of teacher education institutions, rare humane and professional teachers, deprived integration of professional skills, lack of integration of multidisciplinary approach, alienated and discordant modes of teacher education, mismatch with the demand of higher education, identity crisis of teachers, intermittent innovations, inadequate technology infusion, shallow research output integration in profession, vision mismatches, non-scientific human resource management, erroneous laboratories, overactivism of distance/open universities without rigor practice of teacher professionalism, unsound recognition and accreditation procedure and lack of norms and standards of teacher education.

The teacher education in India is at crossroads. There are a lot of institutions which do not have the minimum infrastructure, such as necessary buildings, equipment and furniture. There is dearth of regular principal and teaching staffs with stipulated qualifications. Most of these institutions are run by private managements, and their prime dictum is to make maximum profit with minimum investment similar to any other business ventures. The quality of teacher preparation in these institutions has to be challenged. Many universities have initiated correspondence courses in teacher education were started keeping in view the large demand of teacher education and eliminating the logjam of untrained teachers working in educational system. The quality of teacher education of these courses needs to be appraised with the quality parameters. In general, people envisage that teaching profession is the most lucid and comfortable profession among all the professions. Therefore, they want to join these teacher education courses which do not demand rigorous professional training.

Transformational Leadership for Quality Education

The concept of teacher leadership has come to prominence in the educational literature for two decades (Little, 2003). Pounder (2008a) observes transformational classroom leadership is a logical extension of the teacher leadership construct and that the teacher leadership idea is relevant not only to a school but also to a higher education setting. The teacher leadership notion has developed over time, and Silva, Gimbert, and Nolan (2000) have argued that teacher leadership is a process rather than a positional concept and recognizes that teachers, in the process of carrying out their duties, should be given the opportunity to express their leadership capabilities. Teacher leaders are those who help redesign schools, mentor their colleagues, engage in problem solving at the school level and provide professional growth activities for colleagues. Silva et al. (2000) have also emphasized the ability of the teacher leader to navigate the structures of schools, nurture relationships, model professional growth, encourage change and challenge the status quo. Sherrill (1999) has argued that on

the basis of this knowledge and understanding, the teacher leader should then cultivate desired dispositions in colleagues by engaging in reflective inquiry. Berry and Ginsburg (1990) have identified the following three components of the role of what they have termed 'lead teachers': (1) mentoring and coaching other teachers; (2) professional development and review of school practice; and (3) school-level decision making. For Harris and Muijs (2005), teacher leadership involves: the leadership of other teachers through coaching, mentoring, leading working groups; the leadership of developmental tasks that are central to improving learning and teaching; and the leadership of pedagogy through the development and modeling of effective forms of teaching.

Despite attempts at articulating the characteristics of teacher leadership, few studies have attempted to place the teacher leadership notion within the framework of current theories of leadership. Researchers (Crowther, 1997; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Silva et al., 2000) found that teacher leaders displayed leadership qualities that are broadly transformational in nature. Crowther (1997) makes the point that teacher leaders may not be consciously aware of their transformational qualities; their behavior has much in common with aspects of the leadership notion described above. For example, their deep commitment to a set of core values that they were prepared to communicate openly resonates with the idealized influence and inspirational motivation components of transformational leadership. A review of other attempts to define teacher leadership also indicates an affinity with transformational leadership. Silva et al. (2000) descriptions of teacher leaders as nurturers of relationships and models of professional growth echo aspects of the individual consideration component. Equally, their account of teacher leaders as encouragers of change, and challengers of the status quo, reflects the spirit of the intellectual stimulation component. Similarly, the teacher leader qualities emphasized by Darling-Hammond et al. (1995) such as openness to new ways of doing things and the modeling of learning reflect aspects of the intellectual stimulation and individual consideration for transformational leadership components. Furthermore, the mentoring, coaching and developmental aspects of Berry and Ginsburg's (1990) view of teacher leaders are totally consistent with the transformational leadership characteristics.

Pounder (2008b) argued that an examination of teacher leaders' qualities in the classroom would appear to be a valid extension of teacher leadership research that could prove fruitful. This is because one possible explanation of the connection between the characteristics of teacher leaders described above and their exemplary classroom instruction is that teacher leaders display their transformational leadership characteristics in the classroom and this gives rise to excellent classroom performance.

Studies that have also focused specifically on transformational classroom leadership have generally taken place in a university setting. Ojode and colleagues (1999) and Walumbwa and Ojode (2000) examined the effects of transformational-transactional leadership in the university classroom. The study indicated that, generally, the transformational leadership components and one of the transactional leadership components, namely contingent reward, were positively and significantly correlated with the outcome of student willingness to put in extra effort, classroom leadership

effectiveness and student satisfaction with classroom leadership. Pounder (2005) study confined the beneficial effects of transformational leadership in the university classroom.

Transformational leadership is an imperative element in having fruitful teacher development and in paving the road for teachers to become leaders. Transformational leaders focus more on spreading school culture—their managerial role moves into the background (Lucas & Valentine, 2002). They are participant learners, not only managers (Emihovich & Battaglia, 2000). Cibulka and Nakayama (2000) and Popper and Zakkai (1994) point out that transformational leaders create and foster opportunities for teacher learning. They give primacy to teacher needs and are less influenced by organizational circumstances (Popper & Zakkai, 1994). It was from Bass's conceptualization that Leithwood (1994) further revised the transformational leadership theory in relation to the school setting through identification of specific factors that comprised his own version of transformational leadership, which focused on vision, goal setting, individual support, behavior modeling and high expectations. In addition, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) delineated a model of transformational leadership that consists of the following components: symbolizing professional practices and values, fostering participation in school decisions, intellectual stimulation, demonstrating high-performance expectations, building school vision and goals, instructional support, individualized support, mentoring school activities, community focus and staffing.

Through idealized influence, individual consideration, intellectual stipulation and inspirational motivation, transformational leaders have great potential to promote performance beyond expectation and to effect enormous changes within individuals and organization. Transformational leadership has a sizable influence on teacher collaboration, and a significant relationship exists between its aspects and the changes of teachers' attitudes toward improvement of an educational institution and the altered instructional behavior (Murthy, 2010). For bringing about this change, the transformational teacher must foster the moral values of honesty and fairness. These teachers are nurtured in colleges of teacher education. Hence, transformational leadership has a benchmark in the working of teacher education institutions.

Transformational Leadership: The Needed Components in Teacher Education Program

In teacher development, pre-service is the first step in the ladder of developing professionalism in teachers that is, in turn, dependent on the professional preparation of teachers through well-designed teacher education courses suited to the needs of the contemporary educational system. Teacher education has a symbiotic relationship with the school education. Developments and changes in both the sectors mutually reinforce the concerns necessary for the quality improvement of the entire system

of education. Therefore, any reform in educational system should ideally be accompanied by reforms in teacher preparation courses also (Pandey, 2011). The National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009) has observed that it is obvious that the education and training of a prospective teacher will be effective to the extent that teacher educators who are competent and professionally equipped for the job have delivered it. NCFTE (2009) promises to translate the vision into reality and prepare humanistic and reflective teachers that has the potential to develop more professional teachers and improve the quality of education. This vision can be realized through training in transformational leadership. The quality of pedagogical inputs in teacher education programs and the manner in which they are transacted to realize their intended objectives depend largely on the professional competence of teacher educators. Teacher training is a profession, and teacher education is a process of professional preparation of novice teachers as transformational leaders. Training of leadership qualities is an important aspect of professionalism. Preparing one for a transformational leadership is an arduous task, and it involves action from multiple fronts and perspectives.

The idea of teacher leadership has come into importance in the educational literature primarily within the last two decades (Little, 2003). Crowther's (1997) study of teacher led to a socially disadvantaged setting. Crowther's study indicated that his teacher leader subjects displayed leadership qualities that are broadly transformational in nature. A review of other attempts to define teacher leadership also indicates an affinity with transformational leadership. Thus, Silva and co-authors' (2000) description of teacher leaders as nurturers of relationships, models of professional growth, encouragers of change and challengers of the status quo reflects the spirit of the transformational leadership concept. Similarly, the teacher leader qualities emphasized by Darling-Hammond et al. (1995) such as openness to new ways of doing things and the modeling of learning reflect aspects of transformational leadership. Furthermore, the mentoring, coaching and developmental aspects of Berry and Ginsburg's (1990) view of teacher leaders are totally consistent with the transformational leadership notion. A quality teacher is effective in realizing the goals of education. Therefore, the effectiveness of teaching is undoubtedly correlated with his/her leadership competency. Elazier and Strohschen (2009) argued that educators in their professional practice are called upon to perform a balancing act between transformational and transactional leaderships. Substantive progress toward transformation is achieved through applying high-quality knowledge, skills and delivery of education program that are contextualized to the needs and resources at hand. So, competence in transformational leadership can lead to more productive, self-enhancing and fulfilling outcomes.

It is clear that leadership quality has to be nurtured among student teachers in the pre-service teacher education program. According to Sherrill (1999), universities may be quick to include competencies that support the concept of teacher leadership, but they do not necessarily develop programs of study that will prepare teachers to be leaders or to undertake a more active role in true school reforms. This transformational leadership can be inculcated only when teacher educators are having transformational leadership. What is needed is a comprehensive and enduring

arrangement for the leadership development of teacher educators and enhancement of the status of education as a discipline. In order to develop novice teacher as a transformational leader, the teacher educator must be a passionate transformational leader. It is the high time to focus on the transformational leadership in teacher education system. The transformational leadership of teacher educators is explained below.

The transformational teacher educator articulates with a realistic vision of education in general and teacher education in specific, shares it to students, stimulates student intellectually and motivates them to put best effort for professional preparation by giving due attention to individual differences. Teacher education programs greatly require transformational teacher educators, whose everlasting impressions and influences shape the novice teachers to become professionally committed, competent and compassionate. Transformational leadership behavior of teacher basically comprises vision, human centeredness, inspiration and ethics influence. The transformational teacher educators enunciate with a convincing vision of education, share it to student teachers, stimulate student teachers intellectually and motivate them to put best effort for acquiring the professional skills by giving due attention to personal concern. Teacher education system requires transformational teacher educator leaders whose everlasting impressions and influences shape the novice teachers to become professionally committed, competent and compassionate.

Transformational leadership construct contains four components—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration as in the line of Bass (1990b). As in the same line present study took, the transformational leadership construct of teacher educators contains four components—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Teachers are the greatest assets of any education system. They stand in the interface of the transmission of knowledge, skills and values. They are accepted as the backbone of the education system. To make transformative change in society, teachers must be transformative teacher leaders. To generate better results, teacher leaders have to become transformation leaders—building and deploying specific capabilities to continually oversee and implement transformations. Teacher transformational leadership development should begin in pre-service period. This leadership quality has to be nurtured and promoted during in-service training also. So, the concern is for the quality improvement of the entire system of education. Teacher education is no longer a training process but an educational strategy for enabling teacher not only to teach successfully, but also to inspire and intellectually stimulate the student teachers with character, commitment and compassion. NCTE (1998) has pointed out that teacher education program shall focus on competencies and commitment in transformation in teacher preparation strategies as well as behavioral challenges in pupils under their charge. The transformational leadership of teacher educators is an important rejuvenating factor for teacher education system, which in turn rejuvenates entire social system. Thus, what has been promised in NCFTE (2009) will translate into reality and prepare humanistic, reflective and transformative teachers.

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A Critical Reflection of Teacher Education Policies and Programs in Afghanistan



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Introduction

To begin with a very brief glance at the history of teacher education in Afghanistan, the formal process of teacher education started in 1912 when the first teacher training institute (Daral-Moallemin) was established in Kabul. The earliest batch was all 80 students studying in this institute who were receiving training to be prepared as the primary teachers for teaching in elementary schools. At the same time, Teacher Education Department was also founded to develop the curriculum and textbooks and monitor teaching affairs in this institute. No more details are available on the structure and objectives of the curriculum developed by this department at that time and that whether it comprised both subject content and pedagogical knowledge or it was only for mastering subject matter knowledge. Afterward, teacher education was noticeably improved and advanced with the cooperation of international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as UNESCO, UNDP and UNICEF during the 1960s (Sherzad, 2017).

When the civil war ceased at the end of 2001, the war-affected Afghanistan started to rebuild itself. Lots of achievements have been made over the past 17 years in different sectors of life including education. One of the serious constraints to the reconstruction process of social and economic infrastructures in this postwar time was lack of experienced and qualified human supply in every sector. Hence, Afghanistan faced with a chronic shortage of qualified teachers as the number of school enrollment dramatically increased from one million in 2002 up to over 8.5 million right now (World Bank, 2018). As an initial attempt for the rehabilitation and modernization of shattered educational system, the Afghan government elaborated anew National Curriculum Framework in 2003 in line with up-to-date international stan-

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dards and Afghan community needs. This curriculum framework defined a number of objectives for quality school education as well as compatible qualifications for school teachers. On the whole, the framework encourages teachers and educators to improve the students' achievement in schools by adopting the effective teaching approaches and practices. But, it seemed to be a very challenging job in a country where almost all qualified teachers had fled due to the long-lasting war. As the conflict ceased, most of the teachers in Afghanistan were newly employed who did not meet the required academic standards and pedagogical skills, and therefore, academic and professional teacher training was extremely needed at the time (National Curriculum Framework, NCF 2003). Hence, since the educational training institutions across the country were devastated, the Afghan government in partnership with international community started to resume the teacher education process by providing a large number of training opportunities and capacity-building programs both inside the country and abroad.

The structure of this paper thus provides a critical analysis of teacher education policies and practices in Afghanistan, particularly those adopted in the postconflict period 2002–2017. It looks into the failures and shortcomings in respect of strategies in professional development programs and how appropriate and effective these strategies and programs are in adapting a relevant and updated curricula and teaching–learning approaches that can prepare teachers to be succeeded in their teaching career in various educational settings and real classroom situations. It also suggests some possible alternatives and new directions for the better future of teacher education in Afghanistan.

A Brief Overview

To build a national cadre of qualified teachers who will be knowledgeable in content and in pedagogy, teachers are at the heart of education. By encouraging the recruitment, development and retention of teachers, Afghanistan is investing in the future of its youth and in the future of a stable and peaceful nation (Ministry of Education, 2007).

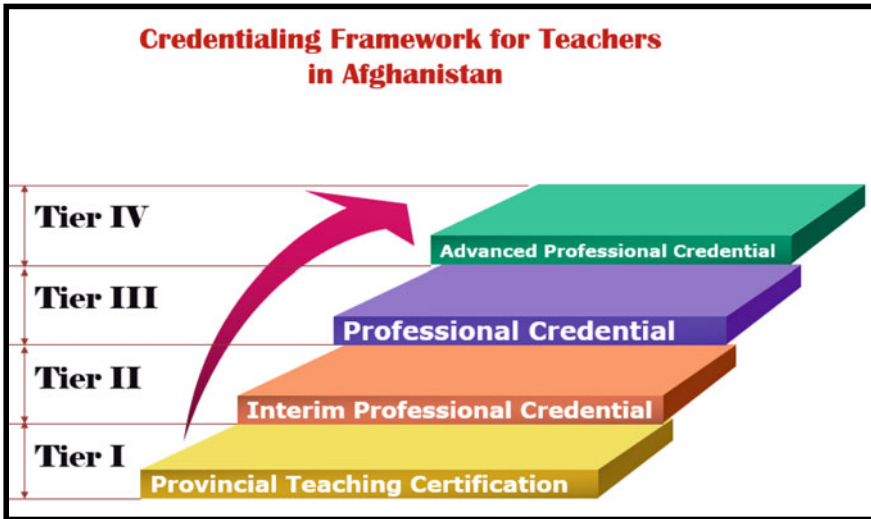
With the vision above, Afghanistan started to address the dire need of having qualified school teachers. This country had the same experience in 2002 and onward with respect to the loss of educational personnel as of the other conflict-affected countries such as Rwanda, Cambodia and Liberia. Teacher education is the core activity in education, and it is considered to be the most influential force for equity, access and quality in education (UNESCO, 2016).

Therefore, there was a pressing need for teacher training and school staff capacity-building programs in both short term and long run. To take the situation into consideration, Afghan government designed a national teacher education program (TEP)

in partnership with international organizations such as United States Agency for International Development (USAID), Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), World Bank, United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), Germany, France, and Aga Khan Foundation (MOE, 2007). Afghan government in partnership with international donors began to design a number of capacity-building and teacher training short-term programs for school teachers and staff. For instance, as a part of two grand national projects [Education Quality Improvement Program (EQUIP I-II)], a series of professional development training packages were developed for school teachers in both pedagogical skills and academic content, in-service education training (INSET I-II, and more advanced packages: INSET III-IV and V). Besides, more other learning opportunities and educational trips were also arranged for the teachers outside the country; especially, India has played a considerable role in a shared plan with Afghan government to organize short-term trainings for the Afghan teachers at different levels in Indian professional institutions and universities.

In the part of pre-service teacher education, a significant improvement has been made. In 2002, the number of pre-service educational institutions was only four across the entire country and the curriculum taught in these institutions was also extremely outdated. Therefore, the government and its international donors favored to concentrate more on the short-term professional development programs. Later on, the number of teacher training centers (TTCs) also has been increased over the past several years, that is, 48 public and 53 private TTCs right now all over the country. Similarly, the number of universities in the country was very few but it has reached up to 30 public universities over the past several years. The number of enrollment in TTCs is also massively increased up to 80,000 recently (MOE, 2016).

Moreover, some of the upgrading programs at M.Ed. level were also conducted for the lecturers of TTCs. For example, the American University of Afghanistan started such a program in 2014 to promote the academic and pedagogical skills for the teachers of TTCs. Additionally, new learning opportunities for in-service teachers were provided to enhance their academic knowledge in the particular subjects by joining with undergraduate in-service faculty programs at the universities of the country. More importantly, a new Credentialing Framework for Teachers was also developed recently and tends to be implemented (MOE, 2016).



(Source: Official Web site of the Education Ministry of Afghanistan: <http://moe.gov.af/en>)

Teacher Recruitment and Requirements

According to the Ministry of Education (MoE) of Afghanistan, teachers are recruited both by the ministry itself (at central level) and in provinces by local directorates of education. But, the teachers recruited by MoE receive permanent status while the teachers recruited by the provincial directorates are ‘contact’ teachers. The minimum requirement for teacher recruitment is the graduation of grade 14 (two-year program, TTC). As stated in the government recruitment policy, the graduates of two-year TTC program can teach at primary level and those who are university graduates (four-year programs) are employed to teach at secondary schools. Insufficient number of qualified teachers is still a considerable challenge for quality teaching at schools. As reported by MoE, around half of the school teachers do not fulfill the required criteria of qualifications in Afghanistan (MOE, 2016).

Role of NGOs in Capacity Building and Teacher Education in Afghanistan

The role of NGOs in advancing educational opportunities, particularly for women, and capacity building and development is quite obvious, mainly in teacher professional development in the postwar period in Afghanistan. A number of major

reforms have happened in the sector of education as a result of wide-ranging engagement of international non-governmental organizations in Afghanistan over the past 17 years. These enhancements can be seen in all relevant parts, from education systems to curriculum framework, revising of school textbooks, quality improvement as well as teacher education. Even in 2003, the first postwar modern National Curriculum Framework was developed by Afghan government in partnership with international NGOs such as U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), UNICEF Afghanistan, UNESCO Afghanistan, Swedish Committee for Afghanistan (SCA), Care International, Children in Crisis. The impact of these organizations on women’s empowerment and education in Afghanistan can never be disregarded. Likewise, USAID trained over 154,000 teachers, including over 54,000 women till 2018. USAID also trained over 17,000 school principals and administrators, including over 3000 females in basic school management. Similarly, Swedish Committee for Afghanistan (SCA) trained 6064 Afghan school teachers, administrators and school shura (council) members in 2017. Also, for other 203 teachers learning opportunities have been provided to upgrade their education up to diploma level. This organization has also supported a number of community-based schools in many provinces of Afghanistan (SCA, Annual Report, 2017). Moreover, the World Bank has funded several projects of quality improvement in educational services, particularly women education in rural areas, as well as teacher education.



(Source: Official Web site of the Education Ministry of Afghanistan: <http://moe.gov.af/en>)

Deficiencies and Shortcomings

As it was mentioned earlier, after 2002 when the international community promised of tremendous financial and technical support for the postwar recovery of Afghanistan, particularly for educational sector, onward, huge sums were spent on the short-term teacher training projects. Yet, despite wasting a great amount of fund, the substantial improvement cannot be seen in the real classroom instruction and students' achievement or in teacher training services (Afghanistan National Education for All (EFA) Review Report, 2015; National Education Strategic Plan (NESP), Ministry of Education, 2016; Mansory, 2010). Some of the key neglected aspects in both areas, i.e., in-service and pre-service, as the reasons for ineffectiveness of teacher education in Afghanistan, are discussed below.

In-service Teacher Education

The core body for conducting in-service teacher training programmes is the Ministry of Education (MoE), but the Ministry of Higher Education and particularly non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are the important cooperative partners in this sector. A lot of errors and shortcomings along with constraints can be pointed out when one looks critically at the whole process of in-service teacher training programs and its real outcomes on the ground level in Afghanistan.

(a) *Absence of a comprehensive policy and procedure*

Lack of an overlapping policy including specific objectives, training standards and features for teacher professional development programs resulted that some equally important aspects of the process get neglected. Since NGOs have been conducting most of the in-service teachers' training activities, they were following their own agendas for designing and arrangement of these programs (Karlsson & Mansory, 2007). Thus, it was not guaranteed whether their objectives for professional development (PD) programs were set in line with the real needs of teachers or not. For instance, in all these programs it was extremely rare to teach teachers how to use technology in their classroom instruction or to prepare ICT-integrated instruction plan. Lack of the focus on grade-specific skills was another less addressed aspect until very recent years. Inadequate connection of training content and real classroom practice was another concern about the appropriateness and effectiveness of these short-term PD programs. It has been really felt that these can very well bridge the gap between knowledge and real classroom practice. Even by passing six years and afterward when the first National Strategic Plan was developed in 2007, it was found from the analysis of the situation that in-service PD activities carried out by most of the NGOs had not a significant impact on teacher quality improvement, still the ministry did not take any serious action in this regard (NESP, 2007).

(b) *Hiring less qualified and irrelevant profession trainers*

As mentioned previously, most of the short-term teachers' training programs have been conducted by NGOs since the government did not have a horizontal policy for the cooperation of all partners; it was up to the funding agencies to hire trainers using their self-developed standards. Thus, in more cases it happened, as it was concluded in a survey (conducted by the author in 2017) that the hired trainers had low level of academic qualifications and professional experience to deliver the training inputs compared to the in-service teachers.

(c) *Lack of a strategy for monitoring and evaluation*

A post-training evaluation and ongoing support for the teachers, especially following a PD program, are believed to be a substantial phase in the continuous process of teachers' professional development (Beeby, 1980; Rust & Dalin, 1990; Yogev, 1997). Teachers have to reflect on their real classroom practices as a result of what they have acquired from the training (Wei, Hammond, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009). Thus, a comprehensive follow-up strategy was not undertaken by the government or NGOs to determine the significant impact of PD training on the classroom instructional practices as well as on students' achievements.

Pre-service Teacher Education

Teacher education is administered by two separate ministries, namely Ministry of Education and Ministry of Higher Education. The teacher training centers (TTCs) belong to the Ministry of Education where teachers are trained for the primary and lower secondary schools. Similarly, the faculties of education prepare teachers for upper secondary level by the Ministry of Higher Education. Both TTCs and faculties of education train teachers in different subjects, and the structure of the curriculum therefore embraces both subject content and pedagogical knowledge. At present, Afghanistan has at least two-level pre-service teacher education system, TTCs (14 grade degree) and faculties of education that train teachers at bachelor level. A small number of universities may conduct master's degree programs in education for example; the American University of Afghanistan started a 36-credit M.Ed. program in 2015 for TTCs' teachers. Before that, one another M.Ed. program was undertaken by the University of Indiana of USA in partnership with Kabul Education University in Language Teaching Methodology (TESOL). The quality of TTCs' education is already believed to be very poor (Barakat, 2014; Samady, 2013). And it may not be wrong to say that most of the TTCs are functionally paralyzed and turned into so-called diploma awarding structures. Despite some major changes made in pre-service teacher education, the Afghan government has failed to take care of several substantial improvements, as elaborated below.

(a) ***Lack of a specific upgrading policy and framework for teacher education qualifications***

Developing a national policy was essential from the beginning to define new teacher education qualifications, guidelines, standards and norms for teacher education programs, curricula, standardized tests, teacher credentialing framework and procedure for evaluation. More attention was given only to the number of the TTCs and students' enrollment, while the quality aspects related to teacher education and curriculum have been remained untouched.

The findings of the studies conducted by Barakat (2014) and Samady (2013) on public and private TTCs in Afghanistan revealed the poor conditions with respect to teachers' teaching method, materials and facilities in both the types of TTCs. It was also revealed that in both public and private TTCs teachers use the traditional instructional method (lecture method) and the similar fixed and already approved curriculum is followed.

(b) ***Outmoded curriculum and TLMs***

A principal objective of a quality curriculum is, in a fair and inclusive manner, to enable students to acquire and develop the knowledge, skills and values, and the associated capabilities and competencies, to lead meaningful and productive lives (UNESCO, 2016, p. 8).

At present, most of the students attend TTCs merely for fulfilling the formality and getting the certificate as having minimum qualification for a teacher. The curriculum taught in Afghan TTCs is extremely out of date and unable to equip students with the required knowledge, skills and values, especially those essential for the delivery of effective instruction in the classroom (UNESCO, 2008; Ministry of Education, 2016). The same situation is in the faculties of education at universities in respect of curriculum and teaching–learning materials.

(c) ***Lack of facilities and teaching–learning resources***

A large amount of convincing evidence is there indicating the direct correlation between facilities and students' achievement in educational institutions (Atieno, 2014; Earthman, 2002; Edwards, 2006; Loku, 2013; Joseph, 2013; OECD, 2005). Although most of the TTCs buildings have been newly constructed over the past several years, teaching–learning facilities such as quality teachers, library, laboratory, access to Internet and digital learning resources are still not available in most of these TTCs (Barakat, 2014; Samady, 2013).

Alternatives and Suggestions

On account of the available evidences, it may not be difficult to draw a firm conclusion regarding the ineffective management in the system of teacher education, in Afghanistan both in policy and in practices. Yet, the government has addressed some

of the discussed and mentioned gaps and drawbacks in the latest National Education Strategic Plan for 2017–2021, but briefly as the sub-components of the plan. For instance, the plan has reported the efforts for renewing the curriculum of TTCs, establishing a new Afghanistan National Qualification Framework (ANQF) and a National Qualifications Authority (NQA) and providing facilities for the teacher education institutions (NESP, 2017). But as a matter of fact, a number of practical reforms are needed to be made with the reorientation of teacher education system in Afghanistan in terms of setting goals for achieving the newly identified priorities such as introducing the qualification framework along with more new different levels of educational certificate and diploma programs. Therefore, a critical model of policy is needed to be devolved considering the shattered pre-service and in-service teacher education system in the country. Looking at the contemporary needs and educational priorities of the country, more new teacher education programs at different levels need to be started in the country to provide quality educational services. Particularly, distance learning programs would be more useful for the in-service teachers to further their education even in the rural areas. Developing more opportunities for teacher education at university level is the need of hour, as there is at least one government university in every province of Afghanistan. Universities can make a significant contribution to the PD trainings, particularly in-service training by organizing workshops, seminars and short-term courses. The most important is conducting the discipline-based in-service teacher education programs, especially in mathematics and science.

Teacher evaluation procedure is another extremely important issue to be considered. Most of the teachers have completed pre-service teacher education programs, but they have poor pedagogical skills, content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and ICT skills. Therefore, some model procedures can be adopted such as examination with certification, which is followed today in many countries of the world including UK and USA (Larsen, 2005). The certification examination should not be simply a multiple-choice paper–pencil test but on the job performance-based assessment. As most of the in-service PD programs are implemented by NGOs and they do not have any systematic procedure for follow-up monitoring and classroom-based teacher evaluation, therefore, the teachers would be required to demonstrate their abilities as a part of their performance assessment. And, hereafter, the teachers have to put the newly acquired teaching–learning techniques and strategies into practice and improve their practical teaching skills for the purpose of passing the certification assessment, too. It has to be cited here that it was found in a survey (conducted by the author, 2017) in ‘Paktia’ Province that majority of school teachers were using only lecture as a teaching method, not diverse methods in their classrooms despite the fact that they had already received several trainings on modern teaching methods and strategies.

Providing ongoing support for the teachers at schools is vital when it comes to continuous professional growth and development of the teachers. Most of the teachers verbally show their agreement for application of the new teaching techniques they are exposed to in PD programs, but unfortunately they fail to apply these new approaches and strategies in their daily classroom instruction. It seems that the teachers may not

be ready for adopting these new changes, as it is a natural tendency among all human beings. Hence, lack of the follow-up support as noticed by Lamb (1995) and Yogeve (1997) could be a main reason, particularly in the developing countries for the successful implementation of knowledge acquired by the teachers in PD programs. Follow-up support might be provided by many ways such as the teacher may get help from his/her supervisor or may be from school academic board and peer teachers but it needs a mechanism to be established for an effective ongoing teacher support.

In conclusion, quality teaching is the 'backbone' of quality education and therefore a quality teacher education system in the country should be the topmost priority. The teacher education system needs to be radically reformed. Ministry of Education as a core body for teacher education should develop a horizontal comprehensive policy with clear guidelines in a close partnership with Higher Education Ministry as well as NGOs. More important point is that policy must not be considered as a symbolic paper-printed task, as Ball (as cited in Larsen, 2005) argued that *policy* is not a solo action as a 'text' but policy is both 'text and action.' The policy should encourage the shifting process of century-old pedagogical paradigm into an effective outcome-based instructional practice at all teacher education institutions.

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Trends in the Development of Ghanaian Teacher Education



Kofi Nkonkonya Mpuangnan

Introduction

Education is well known throughout human endeavours. Its fame rests on preparing an individual to fit in the society. The vitality of education in Ghana can be drawn from the Europeans activities in the pre-colonial era, and the colonial era, when education was the privilege of a few citizens. Noting the significance of education and its dynamisms, successive governments in post-colonial era gained impetus to reform and expand facilities and programs in education sector in making it accessible for all. The reforms were also directed to shift the paradigm of education at all levels by changing the curricular from pure academic to skills development as per the need of the society. For every student to get quality tuition, obviously it was appropriate to train competent teachers. Therefore, proactive measures were perhaps taken to prepare teachers capable of teaching in different levels of education. Armah (2017) asserted that the development of teacher education is based on two ad hoc programs as per the needs of the society. The first teacher education program is the Basic Teacher Education (BTE) which is commonly known as the College of Education (CoE) and prepares generalist teachers capable of teaching all the basic school subjects. The second program prepares teachers capable of teaching senior high schools' subjects and technical and vocational subjects. Kuupole et al. (2008) postulated that three forms of skills are critical for prospective teachers. These skills are i) knowledge of the subject matter, ii) pedagogy, and iii) professional ethics. This suggests that in order to prepare effective teachers to achieve maximum goals in education sector, the above skills cannot be underrated in the teacher training programs.

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Admission into any teacher training program is based on merit. The applicant must be a graduate from a senior high school and might have written the West African Secondary School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) and obtained grade (A1-C6) in five subjects including the English Language and Mathematics. The qualified candidates can gain admission in degree and diploma programs in the universities, colleges of education and other tertiary institutions including technical and vocational institutions. To train many teachers, the number of CoE has presently increased to 43 whereas all the three major universities in the country have expanded their facilities and started preparing teachers for every level of education. And this perhaps is in fulfillment of the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4 targeting quality education.

In spite of this, UNESCO finds that the primary school net enrollment ratio was 93% by 2015 whereas primary school teachers who were trained up to national standards were less than 75% (UNESCO Report, 2015). This suggests that the pupil-teacher ratio in many developing countries including Ghana, is declining. For this reason, it is essential to direct attentions to teacher education to develop teachers' competencies. Therefore, the linkage between school and teacher education in Ghana under the pre-colonial period, colonial period and postindependence period has been established in this paper. Also, the teacher education in Ghana has been discussed in the context of structure and policies, curriculum framework and management.

History of Education in Ghana

Education in Ghana took three-dimensional transition s. The first transition was the pre-colonial period followed by the colonial period and the postindependence period. The pre-colonial period was the emergence of the European merchants in the country. Many European merchants notably the Portuguese, Danes, Dutch and the British settled in Ghana between fifteenth and nineteenth century to engage in several activities including trade and colonization (Graham, 1971). While living in the Castles, they had offspring called 'mullato' children with Ghanaian women. Formal education was introduced for their offspring at the Castles to qualify them for employment as administrative assistance and soldiers to serve their respective interest. In 1529, the Portuguese started one school at Elmina Castle and when they left the shores of Ghana, the Dutch took over in 1644. The British also started their school gradually in Cape Coast Castle in 1652 whereas the Danes opened another school at Christiansburg Castle in Accra in 1660, respectively (Graham, 1971). Fortunately, the Castle schools produced intelligent Ghanaian scholars who include but not limited to Anthony William Amo of Axim, Christian Protten of Accra and Phillip Quaoe of Cape Coast. The Europeans financed the education of those scholars in Europe and brought them back in Ghana to serve. They were seen as role models to other Ghanaian children and inspiration for other young scholars at home.

The story of formal education in Ghana cannot be told without mentioning the Christian's missionaries. The Missionaries are; the Basel Missionaries, the Wesleyan Missionaries, the Bremen Mission, the Roman Catholic Mission and the African

Methodist Episcopal Zion Mission (Bame, 1972). Those groups arrived in Ghana in the eighteenth century and created native churches in various towns and villages. They subsequently expanded the Europeans merchants' educational activities particularly teacher education to educate and train native Ghanaians as Catechist and other staffs who were instrumental for converting local Ghanaian people into Christianity.

The education sector in Ghana continued to expand significantly under the British colonial authority in 1874. By then, the missionary schools had reached most of the towns and villages and by 1881; there were already 139 of such schools in Ghana (Graham, 1976). Interestingly, the system of education among the schools differed probably due to differences in beliefs and practices of the various missionaries. Ghanaian language was a medium of instruction in those schools depending on the community the schools were sited. Most of the missionaries' schools were managed by themselves with exception of a few schools in Cape Coast and Accra which were managed by the colonial government (Owusu-Agyakwa, Ackah, & Kwamena-Poh, 1993). In that condition, the colonial government in 1882 constituted a General Board of Education and also formed local boards in respect of educational development. The reports emanated from the board led to a new educational ordinance in 1887 and was amazingly welcomed by the missions.

The people of Ghana later developed interest in the Colonial-Missionary education system and got involved fully. They valued the importance of the education system so much that they supported its expansion works with their income and labor. Before the creation of the office of Director of Education 1890, there was significance enrollment of students of about 5076 in schools (Owusu-Agyakwa et al., 1993). In consonance with the enrollment, government made good budgetary provision toward establishment of secondary schools and colleges at that time. Therefore, under Governor Guggisberg, the Prince Wales College which is currently known as Achimota College was established in 1927 for the reason that; it would offer general secondary programs, technical education and teacher training for boys and girls. The University of Gold Coast which is now called University of Ghana was also established in 1948 to promote higher education and research. Trade and industrial schools were also established particularly Tamale and Accra technical schools (Owusu-Agyakwa et al., 1993).

Ghanaians are grateful to the Europeans for laying the foundation for education in Ghana. However, many commentators during the nationalist period of 1952, assessed the accessibility of education in the country and found that the majority of Ghanaian children were not having access to education. Going forward, after the independence in 1957, the first President of Ghana, Dr. Kwame Nkrumah had due regard for education thereby executed plans through policies for free access to education in the country. Therefore, in 1961, Education Act 87 was initiated. The aim of the Act was to achieve Free Universal Primary Education (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975). The Education Act 87 was very significant. It established Local Education Authorities within Local Authorities and entrusted them with the responsibility to build, equip and maintain all public primary and middle schools in their areas. Also, education was made compulsory to ensure that no child was left behind. Education was free in Act 87 as parents did not pay fees and their wards were provided with books

in schools except in few cases when children bought essential books and material they required for use in practical work.

The efforts of successive governments in Ghana after independence were tremendous. There was a dramatic increase in the number of public elementary and secondary schools and colleges with good enrollments. As the structural planning is crucial for directing education to realize its aim adequately; Ghana education system has assumed a 6 + 3 + 3 + 4 structure. The primary school is 6 years; junior high school is 3 years, senior high school is 3 years whereas a bachelor degree in the University is 4 years respectively. Education remains compulsory for children between the ages of 6 and 15. It is also observed that the official language of instruction in Ghanaian education is English, except at the lower primary schools where the most common indigenous language in each region is used as medium of instruction.

Primary Education

Preschool is integrated into primary education. This is a preparatory stage for infants between the ages of 2–5 before formal education. It consists of two years nursery and two years kindergarten. The aim of the preschool is to assist the infants to develop their motor skills, social skills and language. There is no curriculum at this stage as teachers focus on specific activities, such as circle time, song time, active play time, story time and craft time.

Children start primary education in Ghana at age six after successful completion of preschool. The children are required to study for six years in this level of education starting from class one to six. Its aim is to prepare children to learn by consolidating habits, values and knowledge acquired during the preschool stage of development. The primary education curriculum seeks to offer a broad learning experience and employs a variety of approaches to teaching and learning that accommodates different learning needs of individual children. As such, following areas are covered in the curriculum; language (English and Ghanaian language), mathematics, integrated science, ICT, religious and moral education, physical education, citizenship education and creative art. In the first three years (class 1–3), the pupils are expected to develop knowledge, attitudes and skills from concrete experiences while the last three years at the upper primary level, introduce the children to observe and think critically, criticize, ask questions, solve problems and learn new knowledge (Adu-Agyem & Osei-Poku, 2012).

Junior High School Education

The junior high school (JHS) education is a continuation of the primary education. As part of the basic education, the children are exposed to scientific, vocational

and technological activities for discovering of interest, knowledge, skills and aptitudes within a period of three years. Apparently, the skills acquired at this stage of learning will be useful to establish trade particularly for students who for one reason or other will not be able to continue education. Therefore, the curriculum focuses on; mathematics, language (English and Ghanaian language), integrated science, agricultural science, social studies, religious and moral education, ICT and pre-vocational/technical skills. During the final year of this JHS education, the students appear for a mandatory external examination which qualifies them to senior high school. The external examination is conducted by West Africa Examination Council (WEAC) which is also mandated to award certificates to qualified candidates and ensure that such candidates are equitably placed in senior high schools (SHS) by a computerized selection and school placement system.

Senior High School Education

The senior high school (SHS) is the next stage of secondary education where students are prepared to enrich their knowledge and skills to pursue higher education. Ideally, students at this stage are between the ages of 15–18 advancing knowledge and skills enrichment for 3 years in various disciplines relating to higher education. All students take core subjects comprising of mathematics, English language, integrated science and social studies. The students are also supposed to take up three or four elective subjects, chosen from different disciplines: sciences, ‘arts’ (humanities and social sciences), vocational (visual arts or home economics), agriculture or technical, business studies. At the end of SHS, students write the West African Senior Secondary Certificate Examination (WASSCE) which determines their entry to tertiary education. Qualified and selected students can enroll for certificates, diploma, and undergraduate programs in a full range of academic and professional fields.

Technical and Vocational Education

Technical and vocational education offers specific vocational skills training as well as technical knowledge for students who desire to establish a profession independently in a chosen career. It is related to explicit specialization in practical field and cultivates knowledge for the labor market. Technical and vocational education in Ghana currently takes place in the technical universities, polytechnics, technical schools, technical institutes, vocational institutes and apprenticeship training centers. Notwithstanding the advantages in this stage of education, many students from the senior high schools in Ghana still believe primitively that it is a place for students with low academic stature. That notion is expressed perhaps to ignore admission offer in some courses in such institutions while craving for arts, science and business courses. However, it is observed over the years that training in vocational technical

education is low in quality as compared to general education (Atchoarena & Delluc, 2001). Unlike the advanced economy, tools and equipment for practical work are inadequate making it unaffordable in Ghana. Going forward, the Ministry of Education together with the Ministry of Manpower Development and Employments should update its programs according to the current socio-economic needs of the country and expand budgets to cover vocational technical education subsector.

Other pathways for successful candidate from senior high schools are also available in the various tertiary institutions depending on one's career path. The tertiary institutions include universities, technical universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, colleges of agriculture, nurses training colleges, specialized training institutions and other diplomas and degrees awarding institutions.

Education Policies in Ghana

The pre-independence education system suffered a shift of interest in educational provision and management. It is obvious that the missionaries were interested in evangelism while the British pursued colonialism. Both former and the later had managed their education system with various ordinances, review committees, acts and policies. After independence, succeeding governments realized the need for ensuring quality education, and making it accessible and equitable for all Ghanaian children. Therefore, following educational policies were formulated and implemented in Ghana.

Education Act, 1961 (Act 87)

Diagnosing the predicament in the pre-colonial system of education, the Education Act of 1961 was introduced by the first President of Ghana to achieve free universal education. Section 2 (1) of the (Act 87) stipulates that "Every child who has attained the school-going age (six-years) as determined by the Minister shall attend a course of instruction as laid down by the Minister in a school recognized for the purpose by the Minister." In fact, the children were freed from payment of fees with exception of payment for the provision of some material and stationery for practical work. At that point, enrollment in schools increased followed by expansion of old secondary schools and building of new schools and technical institutions. The system of education under the Act was embedded with African culture, values and practices. Therefore, Ghanaian language was introduced in lower primary schools as a medium of instruction, and teacher education was reformed to train teachers to transmit African values into the children (Adu-Gyamfi & Adinkrah, 2016).

Asare-Danso (2014) founds that the Education Act of 1961 decentralized the missionary education system and entrusted management of educational units in the hands of local authorities. It was observed that the missionaries who were heads of

educational institutions were replaced by Ghanaians to take over the management tasks. It is interesting to note that the transition was peaceful as the newly appointed heads of educational institutions were already working as subordinates under the missionaries in schools.

Education Reform, 1974

In course of time, succeeding governments regarded the Education Act 87 as emphasizing on academic and theoretical knowledge in the divorce of practice. The public mistrust in the Act 87 led to formation of Dzobo Committee in 1972 to identify discrepancies in the structure and content of education provided by the Act. The Committee's report in 1973 proposed practical system of education in schools. Also, the reduction in the number of pre-university education from 17 to 12 years was captured in the committee's proposal (Mankoe, 2007). Responding to the committee's proposal in 1974 marked the establishment of the junior secondary school (JHS) system. The JHS system started on experimental base where practical subjects were introduced and exposing students to practical activities. The practical activities were designed to provide occupational skills for students empowering them to be self-dependent after school.

In subsequent years, economic and political instabilities erupted due to scramble for political power. During that period particularly in 1983, JHS education system suffered scarcity of educational material and deterioration of school building, workshops and school drop-outs which eventually led faded out the practical JHS system.

Education Reform, 1987

Distortion of system of education in Ghana increased extensively as political instabilities continued after the independence. Therefore, a reform in 1987 was formulated to address some of the challenges in the sector to improve access to education (World Bank, 1989). The 1987 reform was guided by the following objectives;

- i. To increase access to basic education;
- ii. To shorten the pre-university education structure from 17 to 12 years;
- iii. To make education cost-effective;
- iv. To improve quality of education by making it more effective to socio-economic conditions.

Issues emanated from the Education Reform of 1987 indicate that the basic education was restructured by introducing 6 years of primary education and 3 years of junior secondary school (JHS). It also decentralized the education policies to enable the communities to take part in decision making at the local level (Mankoe,

2007). The reform saw some positive changes in school hours, infrastructure and learning material in schools thereby attracting the attention of global development partners. Therefore, the World Bank, demanded cost recovery in secondary and tertiary education (World Bank, 2004). And consequently, subsidies were withdrawn, school fees increased and compelled students to buy personal textbooks. The aftermath of the reform, saw low enrollments and low academic performance at the primary school level. Therefore, the government embarked on a program called Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) which allowed equitable resource allocation in schools with an aim of providing every child of school-going age with free and quality basic education (World Bank, 1989). Under the FCUBE, education was indeed compulsory for every child in the country which improved attendance and increased enrollment in schools (World Bank, 2004).

Education Reform, 2007

In 2002, the government of Ghana set up Anamuah–Mensah committee to review the education system. The committee studied all the levels of education in Ghana and made recommendations for improvement of teacher education delivery. The improvement was in the direction of upgrading teacher training colleges to diploma-awarding institutions and to subscribe to the title ‘Colleges of Education.’ The colleges were also to be affiliated to a reputable education-oriented university in the country. Following the committee’s recommendations, a new education reform was introduced in 2007 and had affiliated all the colleges of education to the University of Cape Coast. Currently, the colleges of education in Ghana operate on a 3 year Diploma in Basic Education.

Secondary and technical/vocational educations were also recognized in the 2007 reform plans. Senior high school education was extended from 3 to 4 years. This reform also focused on preparing students in high school with a requisite knowledge and skills for to tertiary institutions and for the job market through apprenticeship training in the private sector (MOESS, 2007). Under this reform, provision was made for effective decentralization of executive responsibility for the provision and management of basic and second cycle schools to the district assemblies. Ultimately, the schools as under the management of the district assemblies assumed new names as in district assembly junior high or primary schools. It further improved the operational effectiveness and encouraged more receptive approach to education service delivery at the district level.

Teacher Education in Ghana

Education in Ghana would not be successfully if not for its resilient teachers. Teacher with the requisite knowledge, skills and good attitudes are essential in the

classroom. With a view to get teachers as per the needs of the society, imperative procedures in curriculum framework and policies were designed and formulated to train teachers in the country in both colonial and postcolonial era.

Teacher education in Ghana could be traced to the era of the Europeans missionaries particularly, the Basel Mission in 1848 (Asare-Danso, 2014). They established first teacher training college together with a Seminary in 1848 at Akropong–Akuapem to train teachers and catechists for evangelism purposes. As the college was managed by the Basel Mission church, baptized students who completed the Standard Three education at the junior school and were willing to serve as catechist were admitted to pursue the teacher training and seminary programs at the same time in stipulated period of 4–5 years (Owusu-Agyakwa et al, 1993). Initially, the student–teachers were taught English grammar, Twi, calligraphy, arithmetic, geography and hymn singing. Subsequently, subjects like Greek, Hebrew, Dogmatic and Homiletics were introduced. The Basel Mission progressively established another seminary and teacher training college in 1898 at Abetifi–Kwahu whereas the Roman Catholic established another seminary and teacher training college at Bla in the then Trans-Volta Region (Graham, 1976). It was through these three seminaries and teacher training colleges that the foundation was laid for teacher education in Ghana.

Teacher Education in the Colonial Period

The growth of colonial activities and interest of teacher education in Ghana under Governor Roger in 1909 saw the establishment of first public teacher training college in Accra (Graham, 1976). The college admitted students who completed standard seven, and middle school and prepared them in methods of teaching, practice teaching, woodwork, gardening and religious instruction for two years to teach in the elementary schools. Unfortunately, the teacher training college in Accra thrived for a few years and eventually died off in 1928. It can be recalled that student–teachers who were victimized in that year in Accra teacher training college were relocated to Achimota College to form the Teacher Training Department (Asare-Danso, 2014). Owing to legislative provisions and partly measures to disseminate teacher training within the sub-region, the department was transferred to Kumasi in 1951 to form College of Technology.

In a similar way, another teacher training college was established in Ashanti–Mampong in 1951 which emerged from the St. Andrews College, another Presbyterian Training College at Akropong–Akuapem. It was absorbed and partially financed by the colonial government in the quest of ensuring efficiency as well as equitable location of resources to train teachers capable of teaching technical and vocational subjects at the basic schools in the country. Therefore, the college is one of the few colleges that currently run technical programs in the country.

Teacher Education in the Postindependence Period

The first President of Ghana, Dr. Kwame Nkrumah occupied the entire spectrum of teacher education in the postindependence period. After gaining independence in 1957, the government took delight in using teacher training colleges to create literate population for socio-economic development. In this regard, plans were formulated and resources mobilized toward establishment of teacher training colleges. Among some of his teacher education plans was the 'Accelerated Development Plan' for Education in 1951. Graham (1976) observed two major proposals of the plan relating to teacher education; thus, increase in teacher training facilities by adding ten extra teacher training colleges while doubling the size of six existing ones. The plan also proposed that with exception of holders of school certificate, all teachers on training were to take the certificate 'B' course, which would be a qualification for certificate 'A' course. By the end of Nkrumah's government in 1966, there was a record of 30 teacher training colleges running a 2 year certificate 'A' and 'B' courses in the country.

Current Practices of Teacher Education in Ghana

Teacher preparation in Ghana has come a long way from the missionaries and the colonial periods. In recent time, it can be pursued in three universities and 43 colleges of education (MoE, 2017). The three universities are the University of Cape Coast, University of Education, Winneba and University for Development Studies. These universities prepare prospective teachers in 2–3 year Diploma (Basic Education), a 4 year integrated Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) one year Master of Education, and 2 year Master of Philosophy in Education and Doctorate of Philosophy. As integrated B.Ed., student–teachers have opportunity to choose one or more academic subjects to study simultaneously, and methods of teaching that subject(s), leading to a qualification as a teacher of that subject (Adenwi & Baafi-Frimpong, 2010). Also, a one year Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) is also available under this level primarily for people who first obtained a degree in different fields of study other than education, to learn educational practices and teaching methodology for qualifying teacher certificate.

Prospective teachers are also trained in Colleges of Education for 3 years leading to award of Diploma in Basic Education (DBE). These categories of teachers are trained to teach in the basic schools. Holders of DBE are eligible to pursue a 2 year B.Ed. in education-oriented universities. The Colleges of Education are affiliated to educational universities particularly the University of Cape Coast which designs and monitors their curriculum.

Teacher Preparation in Colleges of Education

The pre-service teacher education in the like of the colleges of education mainly admit qualified students from senior high schools to pursue a 3-year Diploma in Basic Education (DBE) at the CoE. Here, admission is based on merit whereas the curriculum equips the student-teachers with subject knowledge, teaching pedagogy and school management skills to teach at the basic schools. The program is available on both regular and distance modes. The DBE was designed to link the universities so that the products would be eligible to upgrade themselves in 2 year B.Ed.

The regular 3 year DBE was introduced in the colleges of education in 2004 as a replacement for 3 year Postsecondary Teacher Certificate 'A' program (Adenwi & Baafi-Frimpong, 2010). As a 3 year course, it is mandated that the student-teachers stay in their colleges for first and second year to have face-to-face interactions with their tutors. This is the period particularly in the first year when they are vigorously exposed to typical academic subjects. The academic work continuous in the second year involving some foundation subjects, teaching methodology and on-campus teaching practice. The product of the CoE holding the DBE, are eligible to upgrade themselves in a 2-Bachelor of Education (Basic) which are ran in the universities.

For the student-teachers to acquire teaching experince, there is a provision for in the DBE curriculum that allow the colleges to send them to the nearby schools for practice teaching in the third year. Practice teaching denotes the practicing of teaching skills and acquisition of experience in the teaching fraternity. Here, they also have opportunity to establish good relationship between their colleges and the communities. During this stage, the student-teachers are assigned to mentors who are charged to coach and support their teaching for sixteen weeks. In the preliminary stage, the mentees observe the climate of the school, teaching methods of the mentors and eventually prepare lesson plan under the guidance of the mentors. The prepared lesson notes are required to be vetted by their lead mentors and give needed suggestion before they deliver the lessons in classroom. While in the classroom, the student-teachers are guided to teach as per the required standard of the Ghana Education Service (GES).

Evaluation of practice teaching is conducted by link tutors. Tutors from the colleges visit the schools twice in a month to observe the practices of their student-teachers. They observe lesson plan, punctuality, methods of teaching, subject knowledge and professionalism, use of teaching-learning material, class control and use of chalkboard. Marks are given in each section of the evaluation which are subsequently used for grading at the end of the practice period. The student-teachers are also supposed to involve in co-curricular activities in this period. They have to participate in schools' activities such as sports and games, cultural festival, Independence Day celebration, cleaning of school and other communal activities. It is observed that the student-teachers undertake writing of action research project alongside the practice teaching (Adenwi & Baafi-Frimpong, 2010). The colleges of education have taken initiatives to introduce their student-teachers to solving initial problems in schools

and communities through action research. In that direction, they assign final year student–teachers to research supervisors who guide in their entire research processes. Though writing of the research project is not part of the practice teaching, it is planned to share time with the practice teaching.

Enrollment Procedures in the Colleges of Education

Colleges of education admit candidates from the senior high schools. Of course, such candidates must possess a qualified certificate, knowledgeable, mentally and morally upright as per the standard of the society. Thus, the candidates are expected to have credit passes in three core subjects, viz. the English language, mathematics, integrated science or social studies and other two credit passes in the elective subjects as in ‘arts’ (humanities and social sciences), vocational (visual arts or home economics), agriculture or technical and business studies. Also, holders of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) certificate with credits in five (5) subjects including English language and mathematics, are eligible (CoE, 2017).

The admission procedure into the colleges of education is online where same application is sold for all the 43 colleges of education. After the application, selection and short listing of qualified candidates are done at the college level by the academic board, and would subsequently verify the certificates of all the candidates from the West African Examinations Council as part of the admission process. Consequently, legal actions would be taken against candidates found to have submitted fake or false documents in support of their applications. Offer of admission is communicated to the selected applicants via applicants’ email accounts and SMS and those who do not receive such notifications may understand it to mean that their applications were not successful (CoE, 2017).

Curriculum of the Colleges of Education

Successful teacher preparation partly depends on quality curriculum. A curriculum usually “contains a statement of aims and of specific objectives indicating some selection and organization of content which either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching in the perspective that the objectives demand them or because the content organization requires them” (Taba, 1962). In that direction, the UCC (2014) has outlined the following curriculum objectives for colleges of education in Ghana to train teachers by equipping them with knowledge, skills and professionalism as per the needs of the society:

- i. To produce generalist teachers capable of teaching all subjects at the primary and JHS levels.

- ii. To produce specialist teachers capable of teaching specific subjects such as mathematics, science and technical's at the JHS level, French at both primary and JHS levels and early childhood education.
- iii. To produce teachers who have a clear grasp of intended outcomes of their teaching activities, who are skilled in monitoring, diagnosing and appropriately providing equal opportunity to all pupils.
- iv. To promote close working relationship between Colleges of Education and local schools through the 'out' component of the program.

To achieve the objectives of the curriculum, its components have been planned to offer theoretical and professional competencies for the student–teachers. In that consideration, the curriculum is composed of content and methods of teaching the core subjects available in the basic schools, foundation courses, practice teaching and co-curricular activities. The core subjects involve acquisition of content knowledge and methods of teaching basic schools' subjects such as the English language, mathematics, Ghanaian language and culture, integrated science, environmental and social studies, technical skills, pre-vocational skills, physical education French and religious studies. The foundation courses comprise of educational courses designed to cater for professional needs of the student–teachers. The subject knowledge, the teaching methods and professionalism are associated with the practice teaching which the student–teachers undertake in colleges during on-campus teaching practice and for 16 weeks in schools during out-program teaching practice. Co-curricular activities also have a place in the curriculum to ensure all-round development of the student–teachers. These activities include games and sports, cultural festivals, religious services, debates and quiz competitions and many others. Most of these activities are organized after instructional hours.

The assessment component of the curriculum is both formative and summative. The tutors apply the formative assessment in the form of quizzes, assignments, practice teaching and projects to monitor the progress of learning which ultimately yield 40% mark internally for each student–teacher. The summative assessment also takes the form of end of semester examinations and the final year examination. This assessment is conducted externally by the University of Cape Coast with 60% marks. The total mark each candidate obtains in both assessments is used for grading. The curriculum stipulates that the student–teachers accumulate a maximum of 65 credits and a minimum of 1.5 GPA by passing all the courses taken in the 3 years for successful completion of the program leading to award of Diploma in Basic Education (UCC, 2014).

Management of Education

Ghana practices a multiparty democracy, whereby a political party which pulls majority of votes cast during national elections forms a government and presides over government offices and institutions. The democracy after postcolonial era saw a change

of status quo of the missionaries' educational management to a centralized system. Financing education in Ghana over the centuries has been the responsibility of the central government. This suggests that the management of education in Ghana has assumed the top-down approach. Here, policies and decisions are formulated by the central government and are implemented at the grassroots by the regional and district directorates of education. Also, the central government allocates funds through the Ministry of Education for hiring of human resources, payment of salaries, provision of facilities and expansion of infrastructure at all the levels of education to achieve a maximum goal (MoE, 2018).

The MoE operates under the central government and collaborates with other agencies for successful management and execution of education policies at all levels. Ghana Education Service (GES) is one of such agencies which is responsible for co-ordination of the approved national policies and programs relating to pre-tertiary education (Education Act, 778, 2009). It also collaborates matters between MoE and the service and advises the Minister on such matters as the Ministry may request (GES Act 506, 1995). The GES is headed by Director-General of Education who is chief executive of the Service. As per the GES Act 506, (1995), The Director General is appointed by the President of the Republic of Ghana to perform the following functions; i) directing the works of the Service, 2) oversees day-to-day administration of the Service, 3) implementation of decisions, and 4) approval and registration of teachers.

Under the GES, there is a Regional Education Directorates established in each of the ten regions for effective delivery of functions. Each of the regions has a Regional Education Directorates headed by the Regional Director of Education. This unit coordinates activities relating to education in the districts, regions and regional co-ordination council, and as much as possible exercises jurisdiction in matters of discipline over personnel at the regional directorate (Education Act, 778, 2009). Another body that forms part of the hierarchy of management of GES is the District Directorate of Education. This unit falls under the regional directorates and operates at the grassroots levels, and headed by the District Director of Education whose roles are as follows; 1) controls day-to-day educational activities in the districts, 2) posting of and transfer of teachers to places where their services are mostly needed, 3) distribution of educational material to schools at the district level, and 4) supervision of the works of the teachers to ensure effective teaching and learning in schools. To encourage community participation in the management of education, many committees and associations have been formed at the local and district levels. Some of them include, School Management Committee (SMC), Parent-Teacher Association (PTA), Old Student Association (OSA) just to mention a few. These groups meet occasionally to talk on academic and social matters of parents' interest and provide needed support to improve teaching and learning in schools.

The tertiary education in Ghana is also managed by the MoE. Within the Ministry, there is a Directorate for Tertiary Education headed by a Deputy Minister, who is responsible for managing affairs in the tertiary education sector (Bailey, 2014). In fact, the directorate manages salaries issues and other related financial problems.

Another body within the management cycle is National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE). The NCTE was established in 1993 as a semi-independent statutory body, as per the National Council for Tertiary Education Act No. 454 of 1993 to advise the Minister on the development of institutions of tertiary education in Ghana. The council also enquires into the financial needs of the tertiary institutions and advises the Minister accordingly (NCTE Act 454, 1993). The National Accreditation Board (NAB) also plays a role in the management arena. As per the Act 454, the NAB was established to perform the following functions;

- i. Developing benchmarks for accreditation and quality assurance;
- ii. Ensuring proper operations in tertiary institutions;
- iii. Facilitating the development of accredited public and private tertiary institutions toward the attainment of Presidential Charter;
- iv. Determining the equivalences of both local and foreign tertiary and professional qualifications (NCTE Act 454, 1993).

Conclusion

This paper has examined the trends in development of Ghanaian education from the pre-colonial time to present. Examination of various educational policies shows a swift development in the basic, secondary and tertiary stages of education. It is of no doubt that the sector has trained human resources for the various sectors of the country's economy. On the other hand, evidences from the various educational policies indicate that education in Ghana is still struggling to thrive. Its management has assumed a top-down approach which is detrimental to proper allocation of resources. In most of the cases, the interest of the employees at the local levels are disregarded thereby causing a dissatisfaction among them. To achieve educational goals, a decentralization of educational management is critical. The central government should allow the regional and the district directorates to plan activities and take decisions at the local levels. This would acknowledge the involvement of the SMC, the PTA, the OSA and all key stakeholders at the grassroots in the overall process of educational policies and decisions taking. Also, the objectives of education policies and the reasons of taking certain decisions would be communicated effectively at the grassroots. By this, the success of education can be achieved collectively by all those who have a stake in the Ghanaian education but not a selected few at the top of the management hierarchy.

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Teacher Education: Lifelong Learning Perspective

Training Adult Educators in Western Europe



Bjarne Wahlgren

Introduction

Professional qualifications for adult educators have been subject of discussions and a research question for more than thirty years. In an overview of adult learning programs for training adult educators in Western Europe professionalization is said to be the 'rationale' behind the interest in adult education (Jarvis & Chadwick, 1991). Today, the training of adult educators is an integrated part of adult learning in a lifelong perspective.

To shed light on the process of professionalization, the article gives a short view over the Danish adult educational system and the corresponding training system for adult educators. The competence needed to be qualified adult educator and the pedagogical principles behind the teacher training programs are presented.

The Danish Adult Educational System

Denmark has a long tradition of adult education. Historically, the Danish adult education has been a part of the Danish culture going back to the second half of the nineteenth century. Today, the government ensures substantial resources in terms of financing adult educational.

A large proportion of the population participates in adult education. An OECD survey shows that 45% of the adult population in Denmark participates in formal and non-formal education within one year (OECD, 2010).

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There are five adult education sectors in Denmark:

- General adult education institutions—study associations (‘evening classes’) and ‘folk enlightenment institutions’ (such as ‘folk high schools’ and ‘day folk high schools’) offering non-formal liberal education.
- Adult education centers providing formal general competences at primary and secondary level. This program supports adult people who have left school early and now want to re-join the educational system.
- Labor market education programs providing formal vocational training aimed to upskill the workforce.
- In-service training in different forms. Primary arranged of organizations and private enterprises to provide non-formal training to the employed workforce.
- Higher education institutions and universities which offer professional education in different forms at the highest level.

The five sectors have different purposes, structures and content, although some overlap and corporation between the institutions in the different sectors can be found. They are subject to different laws and have different financial bases.¹

Due to the differences between the five adult education sectors different competences of the adult educators are required (van Dellen, 2015). To fulfill these different needs, a differentiated and specialized educational system for training adult educators exists.

Competences for Adult Educators

To understand the training system for adult educators, it is important to know that although Denmark has a long tradition for adult training, and although the huge amount of adult training each year, there is no formal requirement of adult pedagogical qualifications for being employed as an adult educator—from the starting point of the employment.

The traditional carrier for an adult educator begins with an employment based on the persons’ knowledge and skill related to the subject going to be thought. The new employed has a subject competence and is expected to teach others in that. As a non-formal ‘folk-bilder’ you have insight in a subject or have some special skills—almost any subject or any skill at all—which other people are interested to learn something about. It could, e.g., be china painting, flower arrangement, ecological gardening or literature. As a vocational trainer, you have competences as a skilled worker with some years of practical experiences and maybe some theoretical knowledge. You have proficiency in a certain occupation. As a teacher in the formal general adult educational system you have insight in a general subject, e.g., foreign language, science, math, Danish literature or psychology, and you have the corresponding

¹For a more detailed description of Danish adult education se *Adult Education in Denmark* (Voss, 2011).

subject didactic competence to teach in this. Normally, you have qualifications as a teacher on primary or secondary level. As an in-service trainer in an organization or in a private enterprise you have insight in the topic in with you are training the employees. You are a top-professional. As a teacher at university level you have insight in your teaching subject at the highest level. Normally, you have a university degree at least corresponding to the level at which you are teaching.

As a newcomer in the adult educational system, you are expected to have insight in your teaching subject. Often the new adult educator will have some pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical experiences from other parts of the educational system, e.g., from primary school, when starting as an adult educator. However, in most cases, the professional adult educator does not have any formal education in adult pedagogy.

The professional adult educator is expected to obtain the teaching skills and pedagogical theoretical insight through continuing education and training *alongside* their professional work as adult teacher. The special adult pedagogical competence is expected to be developed according to the actual educational activities a lifelong learning.

Consequently it is common—and in some occupations also required—that the newly employed adult teacher join some kind of training program in adult pedagogy and acquire some relevant competence for teaching adults.

The educational system for adult educators is divided into two strands. The formal education programs, which provide the adult educator with a formal pedagogical competence, are certified and approved by the official authorities. The formal education is part of the public educational system. The non-formal education system is related to the teachers' actual teaching and gives no formal competence. This non-formal training is implemented as workplace-related courses or pedagogical development activities related to the actual teaching situations (Milana & Larson, 2010).

Formal Training Programs for Adult Educators

The formal training program has three levels: basic adult educational program, bachelor level and master level.

The basic adult educational program provides basic adult pedagogical skills and knowledge. It could be the 'folk-bilder' taken a course in basis adult pedagogic. Or it could be the university teacher taking a university pedagogical course to learn to teach (adult) students.

The second level of the adult educator system is a bachelor degree in adult and vocational education. This training takes place at university colleges. The standard time of the study is one year, normally taken part time. The content of these study programs are developed in accordance with the special kind of pedagogic expertise, which is required in the actual kind of adult education. For example, the vocational trainer is expected to take such a bachelor degree after he is employed. It is required

that he takes the degree in four years. The content of this training program contains, e.g., knowledge of the participant conditions and work-place experiences. Other adult educators, e.g., teachers teaching immigrants, teachers teaching adults with special needs or teachers teaching dyslexics, could as well take a bachelor degree in adult education with a content aimed against the special area. Adult educator working with young disadvantaged adults can take a similar degree in guidance and counseling.

The third level is a master's in adult education. This training takes place at a university. The standard time of the study is one year, normally taken part time. It includes adult life and learning processes, learning and skills in work and organizations and competence in the knowledge society. Similar with the training program at bachelor level, the training program at master level is divided into different tracks according to the needs of the participants. The participants in the master classes are professionals from the entire adult educational system, e.g., coordinators, administrators or professionals in public or private service.

The important pedagogical element in these master programs is that the student-teachers' work experience is acknowledged and accredited by the educational system and integrated in the curriculum. The students' prior learning is assessed and is used in the study programs in conjunction with the more theory-based elements (Wahlgren, 2015).

To enter the professional master's programs, students must have at least two years of professional experience. Based on this experience, the program only takes half as long to complete as a traditional master's degree. The vocational competence stands in place of a formal academic competence. Teaching is based on the student's existing vocational competences and experiences and aims to combine these with research-based knowledge acquisition.

The guidelines for these programs specify that the content and organization of the courses must take into account adult students' work and life experience and make it possible for them to combine their studies with current employment; hence, the program is structured as a part-time study. According to the legislation, the training programs should be founded on work experiences and life experiences, both of which are believed to be important factors in overall competence.

The principles for teaching and learning underlying the part-time master's programs is that the combination of work experiences and formal academic competence improves the total competence of the students. Training must therefore be organized in such a way that there is a functional link between the student's prior learning and the research-based knowledge taught at the university.

This structure generates two pedagogical challenges: the first regards how to integrate the participants' diverse experiences so that they complement and inform the research-based knowledge imparted; the second regards how to make that research-based knowledge functional and useful in the students' future professional practice.

The diversity of prior learning and experience that they bring to class constitutes a challenge for the teacher, who must find a way to integrate these diverse experiences into a meaningful and coherent teaching process. In order to do this, a common baseline must be established for the communication of experiences. This means, firstly, that students should learn to see the common elements which underlie

superficially diverse practical experiences. Secondly, it means that the teacher must find and disseminate rigorous theoretical knowledge that can shed new light on the different experiences and systematize them under a coherent principle. This requires considerable pedagogical and subject-specific insight.²

The establishment of this education for adult teachers at university level in Denmark has proved a sustainable and valuable contribution to lifelong learning. The master's program based on practical knowledge and skills seems to be a forward-looking and successful contribution to the process of adapting Danish higher education to lifelong learning strategies.³

Non-formal Training Programs for Adult Educators

The most widespread form of training programs for adult educators is courses—shorter or longer. It could be in relation to introducing new pedagogic methods or developing a new teaching practice, e.g., relational competence, training transfer or assessment of prior learning.

These principles could be illustrated and understood during three examples.

First Example: Training Adult Educators in ‘Relational Competences’

A case study can exemplify the relation between a comprehensive training program and the effect on the teachers' competence, on the teachers' behavior and the effect on the teaching process. The case illustrates a typical example of a more elaborated training program for adult educators. The program is accomplished at five adult education centers.⁴

The program focuses on introducing a new pedagogical perspective to the teachers thinking, and to implement this perspective at the educational institutions. The purpose of the training program was to change the teachers' perception of what is a good and efficient teaching of adults. The purpose was that the traditional teacher role as a communicator should be expanded and more focused on the relational competences and actions.

The perspective in the program was to supply the teachers with relational competence. *Relational competence* is understood as the teachers' ability to create and

²An overview over some of the different pedagogical challenges is presented in *Learning and Knowing in Practice-Based Studies* (Gherardi & Strati, 2012).

³The universities' role in a lifelong perspective is discussed in the UNESCO publication *The Role of Higher Education in Promoting Lifelong Education* (Yang, Schneller, & Roche, 2015).

⁴The example is described in Wahlgren, Mariager-Andersson, and Sørensen (2016) and Wahlgren and Mariager-Anderson (2015).

support positive relationships between the teacher and the student and between students. The relational competence includes the ability to use and integrate knowledge of the students' precondition in the interplay with the students. Thus, it concerns the teachers' ability to obtain knowledge of the students' proficiency and social and psychological preconditions and act according to that inside the classroom. The concept likewise includes a classroom management perspective and the ability to obtain a positive and stimulating learning environment.

The teachers' competence development program includes two courses. One on knowledge of students: the teachers are trained to analyze the students' preconditions for participating in the study program and to plan and accomplish their teaching in accordance with that. One on conflict management: the teachers are trained to handle conflicts in the classroom more efficiently and to develop and maintain a positive learning environment.

Each course took two days. The courses were followed by five coaching sessions with the teachers in the daily practice. The total training program was accomplished over a period of 10 months. Approximately, twenty teachers from each center were directly involved and participated in the program.

The remaining part of the teachers, which means about eighty teachers at each center, were involved in the competence development process in different ways based on the principle of knowledge sharing in companies. The content of the new teacher role was presented for the total group of teachers at two staff meetings where the focus on retention was highlighted. At the second meeting, the trained teachers shared the knowledge and skills they have achieved in the training program with the rest of the teacher group. At the centers, working groups were established to discuss how to implement the new competences and the focus and aim of the project. The teachers' involvement in these working groups differs from center to center. The research group has no exact information on how much each teacher attended these working groups.

The training program and the knowledge sharing activities were planned to provide the total group of teachers with enhanced socio-pedagogical competences. It was assumed that enhanced socio-pedagogical competences would lead to more comprehensive socio-pedagogical activities in the teachers' teaching activities. It was assumed that teachers' competence development would lead to a changed attitude toward the socio-pedagogical competence; e.g., to a change in behavior toward the individual student and to a changed pedagogical behavior in the classroom.

A research based evaluation of the total training program finds some interesting results. Firstly, it was documented that the program does have an effect. Both on the group of teachers, who have been directly involved in the training and indirectly on the total group of teachers at the adult education centers. It was concluded that this kind of teachers training program was rather efficient measured on the amount of impact on the learning environment. Secondly, the data showed that the impact on the teachers, actual performance was greater than the effect on the teacher's attitudes against relational competence and the teachers view on the importance of the pedagogical approach. The data show that the teacher' training program had a greater impact on acting than on teachers thinking.

Second Example: Training of Vocational Trainers

Another case study can exemplify the relation between a teacher training program and the context, where the training goes on and where the competences are going to be implemented. The program is accomplished at 16 vocational training colleges.⁵

The educational program was established to learn teachers in vocational colleges to use new teaching methods. To achieve this, a training programs closely connected to the teachers' daily work and followed by coaching at the colleges was initiated at the vocational training colleges. The teacher training programs sought to develop competences among selected members of the teaching staff to use a new teaching method focusing on the students' engagement.

The programs were made up of external seminars, supervision and coaching, lasting a total of ten days extended over a period of six months. The teacher training programs included three two-day seminars: at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the period. These seminars were placed outside the colleges and were mandatory and common for all the participating teachers. Between these seminars, the teachers worked on implementing their new competences and teaching methods at their respective colleges. A primary method to support the teachers' implementation was classroom supervision. Between the first and second seminar, teacher supervision was undertaken as a coaching process by supervisors from the consultancy in charge of the teacher training program. Between the second and third seminar, classroom supervision was carried out among the teachers themselves.

In addition to teacher training, the management teams from half the colleges also participated in a specific training program for educational managers focused on pedagogical leadership. This training program was conducted on the assumption that a management team with enhanced pedagogical qualifications would have a better understanding of the teachers' daily practices and thus support and optimize the implementation of the teachers' new competences.

A research-based evaluation of the total training program indicates interesting perspectives on teacher training in practice. As in the previous case, a widespread effect of the training program was documented. At all the colleges, an effect on the teacher training could be proven to have influence on the way the teachers planned and performed their teaching. The most efficient part of the training program was the coaching process compared with the seminars. Comparing the different amount of change between the 16 colleges, it was documented that the teachers need for change and the demand for acquiring the new teaching methods were more important for the implementation process than the content of the seminars and the teacher's perception of these seminars. An interesting—an unexpected—finding was that the training program for the educational managers seems to have only a small and limited effect compared to the teachers' possibility to train the new methods in practice and the organization of models for changing experiences between the groups of educators.

⁵The example is described in Wahlgren and Mariager-Andersson (2018).

Third Example: The Transformative Learning Circle

In Denmark, and in the other Nordic countries, an old and strong tradition for working in study groups have found a new and more elaborated form in relation to teacher training. The new form is named *transformative learning circle*. The model is based on participatory and action learning processes where developmental potential and challenges are identified by participants in their daily, real-life situations, and then addressed by the circle collectively. Thus, learning is grounded in the praxis of the participants. The developing of teachers new competences are based on sharing of the group members experiences in the transformative learning circle.

The learning process begins with locating critical incidents which the participants regard as important to cope with. Next step is analyzing the critical incident and to find possible improvement or solutions on the perceived problem. These reflection are described in a log to shed light on the analyze process. Next step in the leaning process is analyzing the solution in the learning circle. When done properly a collective leaning learning in the total group appears.

Co-creation is one of the fundamental frameworks of this training program. Co-creation is an approach, which involves the fundamental ideas: all human beings are creative and can participate in shaping future solutions, given the right circumstances, tools and settings.

Facilitators play a central role in developing the work of the group with the transformative, innovative and entrepreneurial goals set in the study group. Especially, with regard to the creation of co-creation of the group's work and learning, the facilitators' role and competence are crucial.

The transformative learning circle has been use, e.g., in relation to qualify teachers to develop an infrastructure for stimulation entrepreneurial mindset for student on an International Business Academy. The work in the learning circle resulted changing the teachers' perspective on how to create a new mindset for student and changed the teaching environment. In a more systematic evaluation of the method, one of the participant sum up like this: 'my most important learning is that a long-term, structured and systematic process of reflection open new perspectives on one's own access to problem-solving capacity in one's own practice.'⁶

Educational Principles Behind Teacher Training

It is important to notice that almost all training of adult educators is normally connected with, and *runs parallel to*, the teachers practice. This kind of competence development can be seen as in-service training, training of adult teachers already

⁶The method and experiences by using it is describe in *Evaluation of Transformative Learning Circles—New models for competence development help adult educators meet new challenges*. Nordic Council of Ministers.

employed. It gives an excellent opportunity to relate pedagogical theory and pedagogical practice. It goes for all the training programs: basic courses, bachelor and master programs and the different kind of specialized courses, e.g., in university didactic or in vocational training, or teaching dyslexics. In all the programs, the students are trained to use their actual experiences in the school setting and to use the acquired theoretical insight directly in the practical working situations.

The in-service training is practice-based learning following the principles of *reflection in practice*. The content of the learning process and the starting point for the reflection is the situations and problems faced by the teacher in his daily work: for instance, improving questioning techniques in the classroom, knowing how to plan a lesson, understanding how to activate participants, and the art of evaluating teaching. But also more complicated problems are handled in the training programs: e.g., how to cope with motivation and resistance against learning new attitude or how to relate to the adults students' different preconditions. These practical experiences are systematized and integrated with theoretical knowledge through a process of reflection.

As shown in several international studies, the effect of training is in many cases modest. The training programs are not sufficiently related to the teachers practice. There is a lack of transfer from the training programs till the actual educational situations. To accomplish the training as part of the teachers daily practice as practice-based learning reduces the transfer problem (Wahlgren, 2015).

In Denmark, there is no standard or officially formed curriculum for training adult educators. There is not either an official competence profile. However, there is a general agreement on some basic principles, though never formalized. The principles are partly based on research results and partly on practical experiences based on development programs. Pivotal to these principles the teachers—at all levels—must:

- Be able to tailor their teaching methods according to participants' preconditions;
- Be able to foster a learning environment where there is commitment, confidence and tolerance;
- Create learning situations that encompass creating challenges and stimulating students' reflection;
- Enable learners' application of classroom theory to real-life situations, and securing transfer of learning.

To better understand the principles listed, it is useful to know that in Denmark there is relative short distance of power between teachers and students. Democracy is a basic principle in education and students have a significant influence on the educational process.

Summing Up

Denmark is a small country with a long and strong tradition for adult education and with a high rate of participation. The adult educational system is elaborated and divided in five sectors with different functions: Functions in relation to personal development, as provider of general qualification at all levels, as provider of specific vocational qualifications related to the continuing education and as provider of a developed system of in-service training.

The different sectors have a corresponding different need for adult educator competence. As a consequence, the training system for adult teacher are elaborated and differentiated in a similar way. There are many training programs with different content and at different levels. As an adult educator you have the possibility to attend training programs from a basic level up till bachelor and master level. A great part of the training is continuing education organized as in-service training.

In the article, three example of a more comprehensive in-service non-formal training program on adult educational centers is outlined. The basic principles are the close relation between learning and acting embedded in the social structure at the educational institutions as practice-based learning.

It is possible and in fact the very most common to be employed as an adult education without a formal qualification in adult pedagogic. However, almost all Danish adult educators get a solid adult pedagogic competence after they have been employed and alongside with the employment. The basic principle in the different training programs for adult educators is the close relation between school-based learning and practical use of that knowledge in the daily practice.

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Learning for Life in a Changing World: England



Angela Cook, Kevin Burden, and Ray Kirtley

Abstract In recent years, in England, routes into teaching have been diversified, central government has taken greater control of the curricula of different subject areas and there has been a partial decentralization of schools with the introduction of academies which have a greater freedom in choosing their curricula. Against the tensions caused by increasing central control in one area and greater freedom in another which is inherent in this educational landscape, we will explore the competing demands made on school education in England, and the consequent impact on teacher education. While the government-led initiative of developing ‘managerial professionalism’ in teaching through performance management, and the demands of the school inspection system, provided by the Office for Standards in Education, Children’s Services and Skills (OFSTED), may be seen by some as factors that can limit autonomy in the classroom, opportunities exist for innovative approaches to learning for both students and their teachers. We will draw on a number of projects and the case studies that they generated which illustrate new ways of using mobile technology to improve outcomes for learners. These exemplars have in common their origins in collaborative international projects involving schools and universities. They also represent a progression in strategies and methodologies over the past 5 years remaining in step with technological developments which have enabled the ownership of mobile devices to expand rapidly linked to new opportunities for interconnectivity between individuals and institutions.

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Introduction

In the United Kingdom (UK), the nature of teacher education has been fashioned not only by policy, regulations and theory all intended to drive continuous change, but, perhaps to a lesser extent, by teacher training institutions and the teachers themselves. While the state's view of the core purpose of education is reflected in policy, institutions providing teacher training, both for the beginner teacher and for the practicing teacher, refine and express a range of aims for education. The government's level of intervention in pursuing its primary aim for education naturally defines the structure and the agenda for our teacher education, as government policy and funding circumscribe practice. While, we will attempt in the first part of this chapter to portray a variety of factors affecting the educational landscape in the UK, specific details relate to England only, because the other three UK nations determine their own educational priorities. In the second section, we share a selection of case studies that illustrate ways that English educational institutions have sought to provide a world-class education for the future generation. In our final section, we reflect on the challenges of our system and endeavor to identify future trends.

Changing Perspectives on Education

The discourse on the purpose of education has been rehearsed over many centuries. Education can be trapped within a constitutional machine intent on molding citizens of the state, or it can be in the vanguard of change, liberating creativity and promoting freedom of thought. The purpose of educating people may be seen as a continuum from the state at one end to the individual at the other, with blended combinations between the two. Over two millennia ago, Confucius propounded a system of education that would contribute to good political governance. Tan (2017, 2) describes the education of Confucianism as one designed 'to radically change the people by refining their conventional ways of thinking and doing,' and he points out that by referring to transformation and perfection, this approach to education 'is extensive, going beyond skills training and cognitive advancement to paradigm shift and character development.' Some 100 years later Plato saw education as being centrally controlled, with the aim of bringing the best out of the individual through the development of the body, mind and soul, thereby creating citizens capable of maintaining the stability of the state. On exploring Plato's ideas in depth Dillon (2004, 1) identifies 'two differing visions of education,' the first being 'the education of the warrior guardians,' who are 'fierce with enemies and gentle with familiars' and the second being the education of 'the philosopher-kings,' who will learn 'the true love of learning and philosophy.' These two aims for education, the first for the furtherance of the nation and the second the development of a love of learning for its own sake, continue to fuel debate in the UK today, while elements of Confucian education,

such as ‘memorization with understanding, reflection, inferential thinking, theory-practice nexus and peer learning [to] support deep learning, higher-order thinking, lifelong learning and collaboration’ (Tan, 2017, 10), contribute to the discourse on the nature of twenty-first century skills. Yandell (2014, 153) argues compellingly that ‘education is a right, not a privilege—but it is also never merely a means to an end: it is an end in itself, a mark of what it is to be human, and to be valued as a full member of human society.’

At UK government level, as elsewhere, education is increasingly seen as both a political tool for creating citizens for the state, for example, through the citizenship curriculum for 5–16 year olds, and an economic one in providing skilled workers for an unpredictable future. Papert (1998, 2) captures this unpredictability:

I think we live in a society in which a rapid and accelerating change in social life and the economy and the kind of work that people do is transforming the need for knowledge.

So the model that says learn while you’re at school, while you’re young, the skills that you will apply during your lifetime is no longer tenable. The skills that you can learn when you’re at school will not be applicable. They will be obsolete by the time you get into the workplace and need them, except for one skill. The one really competitive skill is the skill of being able to learn. It is the skill of being able not to give the right answer to questions about what you were taught in school, but to make the right response to situations that are outside the scope of what you were taught in school. We need to produce people who know how to act when they’re faced with situations for which they were not specifically prepared.

William (2011, 12) from the Institute of Education, London, highlights the changes required in the culture of the teaching profession to meet this unpredictability. He emphasizes the need for continuous professional development and argues that ‘no longer can we accept that once one has been teaching five or ten years, one is ‘good to go.’ He says, teachers need a ‘career-long commitment to the continuous improvement of classroom practice, and an agreement to develop in their practice in ways that are likely to improve outcomes for their students.’

As the different political persuasions shift the purpose of learning in English schools, like a pendulum, it tends to swing back. Teachers often say that if they wait long enough old methods come round again and are enthusiastically proclaimed as new approaches. Whichever direction government intervention pushes learning, the impact of the politicization of education on practice in the classroom is likely to differ from that propounded by policy because of the complexity of the educational system in England. In the face of change, Yandell (2014, 152) suggests that:

Classrooms remain extraordinarily rich sites of cultural production. The work that teachers do is much more complex than the official script of transmission of knowledge might suggest. And the work that pupils do is seldom if ever merely the ‘mindless learning of words.’ Even in unfavourable circumstances, pupils are engaged together in complex acts of meaning-making.

The UK's Changing Demands on Education

At the same time, as the departments of education in the UK have been grappling with the increasingly rapid change in skills demanded by industry (CBI, 2011) and the wider workplace, global social issues have been increasingly making demands on education (DEA, 2008). Ipsos MORI's research in 2010 indicated that '86% of the British public agree [...] that global learning in school is crucial' if global issues 'such as climate change and international poverty remain a high priority' (DEA, 2010, 2). In the UK, there was a brief focus on global citizenship in schools following the launch, in 2004, of the Department for Education and Skills' International Strategy. The aim of the strategy was to ensure that 'the young people of the UK should have the knowledge, skills and understanding they need to fulfill themselves, to live and contribute effectively to a global society and to work in a competitive, global economy' (DFES, 2004). The international strategy engendered an educational landscape that encouraged outward-looking innovative approaches and supported a range of learning opportunities in the classroom. It promoted growth in human capital, with both individual and state being the intended beneficiaries. The concept of global citizenship, incorporating elements of social justice and equity, peace and conflict, sustainability, critical thinking, and value and respect for diversity (Oxfam, 1996, 5–6), began to flourish in schools. The Department for International Development (DFID) launched a multi-million pound program to support the development of global awareness in schools by creating opportunities for partnerships with schools across the world. The program built social capital through many of the partnerships it sponsored, and a large number of schools participated.

Although global citizenship has subsequently been transmuted into citizenship in many schools, because the national citizenship curriculum now puts British institutions and British values center stage, DFID has continued to fund a program, the Global Learning Program (GLP), to promote not only learning about global issues, but also the development of global skills to evaluate and make judgements about different approaches to, for example, global poverty reduction. The citizenship curriculum was refocused on Britain because it became one element of a major program aimed at combating extremism, but the timing coincided with a growing demand for students to demonstrate their acquisition of twenty-first century skills.

The exact nature of these twenty-first century skills is not universally agreed, with some arguing they are different from those of global citizenship, but the GLP encompassed and extended the original concepts, including not only the global citizenship lens, but also the intercultural, sustainability and human rights lenses (Huckle, 2017). Some see twenty-first century skills as being located in the workplace to ensure a skilled labor force, which aligns with Plato's first vision for education, while others view these as skills for living, which extends the moral dimension of education beyond the borders of the state or a nation. Bourn (2018, 81) warns that interpretations of twenty-first century skills may lack 'the skills to make sense of, understand and engage with the challenges of globalization.'

Global intent for education can be seen in writings by Kant, who, in the eighteenth century, identified education as the means of attaining man's destiny, a term which he used sometimes to mean the individual person and at other times the human race as a whole (González, 2011). This ambivalence persists in education in the UK today. It is seen in the tension between the individual, the nation and the whole of humanity in areas such as educational rights and responsibilities, educational freedoms and limitations, and between localized and globalized individuals (Bauman, 1998) whose education and life opportunities define their identity. While England's Department for Education provides the framework for education for all state schools, other organizations such as DFID and British Council offer opportunities to ameliorate the distinction between local and global by bringing a global dimension into the classroom.

The Higher Education Academy in England (2019) suggests that twenty-first century skills 'can be organized into the following categories: literacies (literacy, numeracy, citizenship, digital, and media); competencies (critical thinking, creativity, collaboration); and character qualities (curiosity, initiative, persistence, resilience, adaptability, leadership).' The International Baccalaureate Organization (2013), which offers a curriculum adopted by some schools in England, identifies on the other hand ten desirable attributes for learners, including being thinkers, communicators and being principled, open-minded and reflective. The skills valued by UK employers include team working, problem solving, good interpersonal skills and the ability to manage uncertainty (Bourn, 2008). A categorization of twenty-first century skills proposed by the Association of Teaching of Twenty-First Century Skills (2019) and evaluated in a Cambridge Assessment research paper (2013) identifies four sets of skills: (i) ways of thinking; (ii) ways of working; (iii) tools for working; and (iv) skills for living in the world. The case studies we present in Section "[Information Technology as a Driver for Global Learning: A Case Study](#)" take elements from these categories to make learning real in the classroom, and include, for example, critical thinking (set i), communication (set ii), ICT literacy (set iii) and both citizenship (local and global) and personal and social responsibility (set iv).

Educational Landscape in England

A national curriculum was introduced in England in 1988 and was accompanied by a national system of assessment, which provided data for tracking pupil performance. Teachers in state schools were required by statute to follow a prescribed curriculum, which was intended for all students aged 5–16. This curriculum defined the program of study and set attainment targets for the core subjects of English, mathematics and science, and for seven other foundation subjects. Whitty (2008, 36) comments that the increasing managerialism in schools, the introduction of performance related pay, and fast track training and career progression has led to a divide within the profession with the 'new entrepreneurs' willing to adopt new ideas and the 'old collectivists,' who wished to 'pursue the traditional welfarist agenda.'

By the mid 1990s, under Britain's New Labor government, teachers' autonomy was further limited by interventions specifying what to teach and how to teach. The role of the teaching assistants began to change with a 'shift in focus from "care and housekeeping" to involvement in the actual processes of learning' (Whitty, 2008, 39). Education was prized for its economic value by the Government, which used the rhetoric of the marketplace, with the earning power of learning being a central tenet. Yandell (2014) argues that under this system 'what matters is the acquisition of skills that will (it is alleged) be useful later, in the realm of economic activity. In this technical rationalist system, it is not only the learners who are recast as units of production; the teachers, too, become defined by their success in reaching or exceeding the production targets.' Teachers' performance began to be judged and compared using measures of productivity (Ball, 2008a), and schools became accountable for the quality of education they provided, as evaluated by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). At the same time, new private providers were invited to sponsor a new type of school called an academy, which is not required to adopt the National Curriculum.

Education as the driver for economic success stalled with the economic crash in 2008: in the absence of strong economic growth, the correlation between learning and earning was found to be weak. With the onset of austerity, the politics of education reverted to a conservative postwar model. As the theory of knowledge shifted toward positivism, knowledge became an objective truth to be transmitted from one generation to another. The accompanying 2013 national curriculum, which is still current, introduces 'pupils to the best that has been thought and said; and helps engender an appreciation of human creativity and achievement.' DFE (2013, p. 6). Pedagogy has become focused on the transmission of knowledge, set within a framework of accountability and inspection. As the UK education system evolves in order to provide a twenty-first century education for the '24/7 generation' Harris (2008, p. 9) of learners, the impact of school staff becomes inter-generational, and 'teachers must adapt their role to the increasing democratization of knowledge, brought about by the advancement and proliferation of technology' (Rolleston 2018, 1).

There are a number of different routes into teaching in state schools in England, but all require the prospective teacher to have a degree and to have gained qualified teacher status (QTS), which entails completing a program of initial teacher training (ITT). Prospective teachers can take an undergraduate Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) and qualify with QTS, or if they have a different degree, they will need to take a subject knowledge enhancement course to ensure their degree is closely linked to the National Curriculum before embarking on a postgraduate ITT course. Minimum GCSE examination requirements are needed in English and mathematics, whichever route is taken, and the Government's Disclosure and Barring Service checks applicants' criminal records and ensures that they are not barred from working with children. Individual schools and groups of schools offer school-centered initial teacher training courses, which are often run in partnership with universities, while others offer school-led teacher training in conjunction with a university. People can teach in independent schools, academies and free schools without QTS.

School inspection, while not prescribing the *modus operandi*, frames the way in which schools function. The inspection judgements (Ofsted, 2019a), which include the quality of education provided by the school, the leadership and management, behavior and attitudes, and personal development, are critical for the school and its governing body, and, in mainstream establishments, these judgements are also critical for the local authority that has oversight of the school. The overarching judgement grades the school, and, where a school is found to be inadequate, measures are put in place to improve the provision. All mainstream schools are subject to a cycle of inspections by Ofsted. Independent schools belonging to one of a range of associations are inspected by the Independent Schools Inspectorate, which uses a different framework while adhering to the requirements laid down in the 2005 Education Act. Other providers, quality assured by Ofsted, inspect British International Schools worldwide.

Ofsted's inspection judgements include the evaluation of the quality of pupils' cultural development. The criteria for this judgement include assessing pupils' 'respect [*for*] and attitudes toward different religious, ethnic and socio-economic groups in the local, national and global communities' (Ofsted, 2019b, 61). This element is incorporated in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)'s Pisa global competence framework, which states that 'globally competent individuals can examine local, global and intercultural issues, understand and appreciate different perspectives and world views' (OECD, 2018a, 4). The OECD had earlier highlighted the importance of education systems in building human capital in the global knowledge economy by helping people to realize their potential in 'their ability to earn a living and to [*contribute to*] wider economic growth' (OECD, 2007a, 21). In England, University Technical Colleges (UTCs), which are one of the latest additions to the range of schools available in the UK, attempt to meet this challenge. UTCs offer both technically orientated courses of study and core curriculum subjects to 14–19 year olds. Each UTC is sponsored by local employers, who help to shape the curriculum and offer the students placements, apprenticeships and projects with the emphasis on making learning real through hands-on experiences, thereby developing the skills that industry needs. Sue Barrow, the Chair of Governors of a UTC in Tower Hamlets in East London and a Trustee of the Mulberry Multi Academy Trust, writes:

Our UTC, which is part of the Mulberry Multi Academy Trust, has impressive sponsors/partners: the National Theatre, the British Film Institute, Barts Health NHS Trust, the University of London Goldsmiths College. We are partnered by Bank of America Merrill Lynch, the Tower Hamlets Commissioning Group and the Mulberry Multi Academy Trust. Our specialisms are Health and Social Care, Health Sciences, Technical Theatre and creative industries including Digital and Media. We opened in September 2017. We have made an excellent start and are excited for the future.

Information Technology as a Driver for Global Learning: A Case Study

As explained above, the current climate and dominant culture that pervades the teacher education landscape in England is increasingly parochial and instrumental in nature, focused on a narrow sub-set of skills and competencies required by PSTs to gain QTS. The global dimension is not unimportant to teacher educators in England, but it is frequently marginalized in order to create more time for the teaching of what are deemed to be core competencies such as literacy, numeracy and the subject content of the respective subject disciplines. Nonetheless, despite these constrictions and barriers, there are examples of global initiatives in teacher education that embrace a broader set of values and outlooks, and digital technologies are increasingly recognized as essential tools and drivers in achieving these. One such case features teacher educators and students in the School of Education at the University of Hull with a specific focus on the use of pervasive, ubiquitous technologies such as personal mobile phones and tablet devices.

The examples and case studies that follow have been largely facilitated by a European Union program, Erasmus Plus (2014–2020). Unlike its similarly titled predecessor program which dealt only with student mobility in higher education, the Erasmus Plus umbrella brings together education providers and their students from all phases, NGOs and enterprises, a diversity of approaches which enrich our exemplars. While most of the face-to-face and virtual encounters take place between teachers, students and others from the European Union and European Economic Area, Erasmus effectively promotes global competences and global thinking. This aspect is supported by a much larger network of countries involved in the eTwinning program of virtual school partnerships and by the freedom to include a non EU country as fully funded members of some partnerships.

The '*Mobilizing & Transforming Teacher Educators' Pedagogies*' project (MTTEP, <http://www.mttep.eu/>, 2014–17) was a project primarily for teacher educators with the aim of equipping newly qualified teachers with the skills and confidence to bring mobile learning into their everyday practice. It brought together not only higher education institutions but also partner schools benefited considerably from the global perspective of an Australian university partner. Prominent among its achievements is the iPAC framework. This is a pedagogical tool enabling teachers and teacher trainers to assess their use of mobile technologies against three 'signature pedagogies' of mobile learning; personalization, authenticity and collaboration. As earlier paragraphs demonstrate mobile technologies are at the forefront of a global approach to learning where content and collaborators may originate in a different classroom and a different country.

Another major achievement of the MTTEP project was the creation of the Mobile Learning Toolkit including video case studies developed by project partners alongside various survey tools, an app evaluation rubric, a selection of eBooks and a theoretical model for mobile learning and the iPAC framework. This helps practitioners both construct and evaluate mobile learning pedagogies, perhaps drawing on

the case studies for inspiration. The success of this work led to a successor project, ‘Designing and Evaluating Innovative Mobile Pedagogies’ (DEIMP, www.deimpeu.com, 2017–2020). This draws on the more widely accepted potential offered by mobile technologies in the classroom, the increasing sophistication of the smartphone (accompanied by bandwidth capacity) and the resulting rise in the number of schools either equipping their students with devices or adopting a ‘bring your own device’ (BYOD) approach. The DEIMP project will see the collaborative development and testing of a mobile app to support the development of innovative mobile pedagogies. Alongside university partners it includes a collaborative network of 24 schools committed to generating case studies using the app supported not only by the partnership but also by a tailor made online course (a MOOC). It has already resulted in the identification of twenty-one innovative design principles that underpin innovative mobile learning and many of these also have a global dimension such as transnational cooperation (Burden, Kearney, Schuck, & Hall, 2019).

‘Girls into Global STEM’ (GIGS, www.gigsproject.eu, 2016–19) is a response to well-documented reluctance of girls to take up STEM subjects in upper secondary education and the consequent impact this has on the gender balance in universities and in STEM-based careers (Milgram, 2011; Dasgupta & Stout, 2014). GIGS draws on the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) as a focus for its activities at school level. It is therefore very much a product of a growing awareness around global issues, especially among young people, made possible by online newsfeeds and social media. In common with other projects, the GIGS partnership included universities and schools from four EU countries. It also featured a Polish NGO working to promote global citizenship and Practical Action, a UK-based NGO (www.practicalaction.org). This organization offers local support for development projects in some of the world’s poorest countries while their education program helps to bring the challenges these communities face to a school audience in the UK. This project therefore had a built-in global dimension reflected in the case studies and outputs that it has generated. These included collaboratively authored eBooks, constructed using digital assets collected through mobile devices and accessed for use in the classroom by teachers and school students on tablets or smartphones. These projects will bring to the chapter perspectives from a number of education systems, an appropriate approach in a globalizing world. Curriculum maps help to highlight particular aspects in order to identify the spaces where young people can frame their identify though global learning, and where teachers become learners once again.

Reflection

Although mobile technologies, such as a smartphone, have been around for over a decade, their use and adoption as tools for learning is more recent, and more recent still in teacher education where international research suggests teacher educators have been slow to grasp the benefits of these technologies as tools to support their PSTs, and as tools to support learning in the schools where they will eventually be

employed (Kearney, Burden & Rai, 2015). There are many factors to explain this phenomenon, including the overcrowded and yet instrumental nature of the ITE curriculum in England, the mindset of many teacher educators who are deterred by the perceived barriers and obstacles that are both internal and external to them (Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010; Burden & Hopkins, 2017), and the numerous resourcing and infrastructure problems that include lack of equipment and unreliable access to Wi-Fi (Ally, Grimus & Ebner, 2014). However, the most significant barrier and obstacles to the wider adoption and use of these pervasive technologies appears to be a shortage of professional development for teacher educators which includes access to suitable resources, tools and exemplars to support the wider and deeper adoption of these technologies (Burden & Kearney, 2017). This last factor has been the driving force behind a number of recent global technology initiatives led by the University of Hull focused on supporting, enhancing and in some cases, transforming how teacher educators use digital technologies like a mobile phone or tablet device. These include the *Mobilizing and Transforming Teacher Educators' Pedagogies* project (MTTEP), 2014–2017 and more recently the *Designing and Evaluating Innovative Mobile Pedagogies* (DEIMP) project, 2017–2020, both funded by the European Commission under the Erasmus + funding stream. Additionally, the *Girls into Global STEM initiative* (GIGS), 2016–2019 is another Erasmus + funded project led by the University, also exploring how the use of global challenge based learning, allied with technologies such as mobile devices, drones and eBooks, inspire and encourage more girls into STEM subjects and subsequent careers.

Despite the individual foci of these three Erasmus + projects, they have served as a vehicle and conduit to bring global competencies and frames of mind into the ITE curriculum in the University of Hull and many of the respective international partner countries including Norway, The Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, Ireland, Cyprus, Sweden, Poland and Australia, a non-EU partner. In each of these cases, digital technologies have acted as a catalyst in broadening the outlook and mindsets of teacher educators, enriching the curriculum and learning experiences of both PSTs, and teacher education staff, and enhancing the research capability and reach of some, as explained below.

Erasmus + strategic partnership projects require a minimum of three European partners and the projects led by the University of Hull have included an average of six. These have included universities, institutions of teacher education (usually located in universities), colleges, schools and several NGOs. The international focus of these collaborations is a fundamental purpose of Erasmus + projects and indeed the underlying rationale and purpose of funding transnational education programs of this nature. Erasmus fits into a wider EU vision encompassing a number of other programs all of which support a set of values closely aligned to the UN Sustainable Development Goals. Consequently, although projects of this nature do not directly address the narrow curriculum goals and purpose of teacher education in England, they have enabled both staff and students to participate in authentic global experiences and initiatives that enrich both the individuals concerned and their institutions. Digital technologies have played a significant role in making this kind of international collaboration possible including the regular use of video conferencing software such

as Skype and Zoom to maintain contact and build relationships between less frequent face-to-face project meetings, the collective use of Google Docs to store and share project documents and resources in real time between all partners and a variety of creative tools and apps such as the camera and the voice recorder which allow for co-construction and sharing of objects and artifacts across national boundaries. With regular face-to-face meetings occurring approximately twice per year, these three year projects have also generated numerous opportunities and funding to support the exchange of staff and with it opportunities for further networking, partnerships and the exchange of different perspectives and ideas. Over the course of a single three year project over twenty different staffs from the institution were able to attend project meetings in different partner countries, and combined with learning, teaching and multiplier events, over one hundred different staffs have gained the opportunity to work with international colleagues and partners.

A second outcome of these global initiatives is the development of new resources, tools and materials to support and promote the global dimension in teacher education, and the use of digital technologies has been fundamental in achieving this. In the case of the MTTEP and DEIMP projects, the focus was explicitly linked to the development of professional development materials, course and other resources that would support teacher educators in adopting and using mobile technologies to a greater extent and more effectively. The MTTEP project resulted in a mobile learning toolkit to support teacher educators which has been accessed and used in over forty countries around the world and adopted by several institutions of teacher education as training resources for their pre-service teachers (www.mobilelearningtoolkit.com). Similarly, the DEIMP project will result in the output of a mobile app and accompany MOOC to support teacher educators and teachers in the design, evaluation and sharing of innovative mobile learning scenarios based on the results of a preliminary systematic literature review that identified twenty-one principles for the design of innovative mobile learning (Burden et al., 2019). In the case of the GIGS project, this has also generated a toolkit for teachers which has also been piloted and used in teacher education. The toolkit provides resources and exemplars to demonstrate how the combination of global challenges, such as the provision of water to remote or inaccessible populations, digital technologies such as mobile phones and drones, and intergenerational learning (e.g., older students preparing resources for younger students) can motivate and engage more girls in STEM subjects than traditional approaches (Kirtley, 2018).

Finally, these global initiatives have the potential, as demonstrated in the projects named above, to strengthen and further the research objectives of the partners involved, adding a global and international dimension that can enhance and increase their significance and relevance beyond national boundaries making their findings more significant and more transferable, both highly desirable features of the current Research Excellence Framework in the UK (REF, 2021). In the case of the MTTEP and DEIMP projects, partners from the UK, Australia and Ireland have explored various issues and questions around the efficacy of using mobile technologies in teacher education, the conditions under which it is likely to be most effective and several

of the theoretical and conceptual concerns that have previously been leveled as critiques of the mobile learning field, especially in teacher education. The international or global dimension has been particularly important for the UK-based academics because it has provided an outlet and means for their research ambitions which are often limited within a single ITE institution which may not prioritize research as highly as teaching. This is also the case for the GIGS project where partners from the UK, Sweden, Poland and Cyprus have explored the existing research into the factors that are significant in engaging more girls in STEM disciplines and have identified several that seem particularly important including the nature of the learning task (e.g., challenge based learning is very engaging), the context of the learning (e.g., the global dimension is perceived to be more engaging and humanistic for girls) and the role of technology which indicates that mobile devices can make learning more authentic by enabling more situated learning.

Conclusion

We have seen in this chapter, the complexity and diversification that characterizes the many routes into teaching in England, brought about by the imposition of neo-liberal policies and greater central government control of the curricula. Simultaneously, control of schools has been decentralized and moved away from local government control as academies, free schools and other forms of schools have proliferated. The impact of this complex landscape on teacher education has been dramatic as the pressure to conform to the ‘managerial professionalism’ that dominates the school landscape, clashes against the notions of freedom and critical self judgement that has traditionally been the moniker for teacher education in England. While these tensions have led some to question the degree of autonomy and freedom available in teacher education, the case studies presented in this chapter, suggest the creative and imaginative use of emerging digital technologies that are highly personal and customized to the individual learner, such as the mobile phone, enable teacher education to look outwards, beyond the narrow confines of the institution and the curriculum. At this critical point in time, when the future role and identity of the UK is unclear and unpredictable, the projects presented in this case study demonstrate the value and benefits of transnational education initiatives that transcend local, and indeed national boundaries, helping to prepare both trainee teachers and their tutors for a world that is uncertain but also bounded with possibilities.

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Professional Development of Higher Education Teachers in India: Progress so Far and the Way Ahead



Sayantana Mandal

Introduction

The quality of teachers is an important element influencing learning outcomes, employment possibilities and overall development of the graduates of higher education. Traditionally, teaching and learning processes revolved around the course contents, textbooks, teachers and lectures. Moreover, teaching, research and extension were linked to one's discipline and delivering them was the primary work of a teacher in higher education. In the present context of technology mediated, fast evolving lifelong learning contexts, teaching and learning process demands a transformation from a classroom-based institutional level activity to a globally connected interactive process. The changes influenced the teachers to evolve to train skills and competences to the learners, which is essentially much more than just content delivery. Today, a teacher needs to be considered as a professional, in order to represent multiple roles more effectively.

In contemporary higher education, a teacher is assigned with many tasks, including communication, interactions, dealing with varied levels of students and handling individual and collective students' queries, manage discussions, develop competences and so on to achieve desired learning outcomes. The analysis of Panda (2018) in the India Higher Education Report on Teaching, Learning and Quality shows that 'the qualities of good teachers include deep content knowledge, good pedagogic skills and capacity to manage classroom situations.' 'Further, he/she is responsible for the evaluation of learning, not mere memorizing capacities of the students, as well as engages in formative and summative evaluations. These require a combination of competence in assessment and evaluation and a strong ethical commitment to undertake the tasks without prejudices' (Chaurasiya, 2016). It is perhaps not difficult

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to understand that to achieve these qualities and constantly improving them requires training and/or different forms of teacher professional development.

The effectiveness of teaching depends on (i) quality of teachers recruited or entering the higher education system and (ii) professional development opportunities for in service teachers. This chapter is devoted to the second issue, i.e., professional development of teachers after they enter the system. It describes the efforts of the Government of India and its policy organizations, especially the University Grants Commission's (UGC) to improve the quality of teachers so far. In the process, it focuses on the contemporary reforms and relates it with the findings of the national level studies on Teaching and Learning in Indian Higher Education (Mandal, 2018) by the Center for Policy Research in Higher Education (CPRHE) of the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA). In conclusion, it suggests some of the measures, which could lead to effective teacher development in the Indian higher educational context.

Initial Development: Committees and Commissions on Professional Development of Teachers

The commissions and committees of independent India, from the very beginning recommended for mechanisms to ensure that teachers are familiarized with the latest developments in their respective domain of knowledge. The first education commission of independent India, the Radhakrishnan Commission (1948) believed that 'the teachers can do much to raise the tone of the universities. It is in educational institutions that we can train character, build personality, by the discipline of body, intelligence and will.' The Commission noted that 'a teacher who is not a master of the field, who is not in touch with the latest developments in his subject and who does not bring to bear upon his duties a free and untrammelled mind will ever succeed in inspiring youth with that love of truth which is the principal object of all higher education. However, it recognized that the situation of teaching 'is far from satisfactory' as they lack 'freshness' and teaching is full of repetitive information. To improve teacher qualities, the Commission suggested the following reforms:

- (i) Refresher course for intermediate college teachers
- (ii) Refresher courses to be organized by the universities
- (iii) Stimulus for refresher course by linking it with promotion.

The report clearly mentions that 'a teacher has to stimulate the spirit of enquiry and of criticism.' It puts highest value for teachers who should not be measured in terms of mere performance. The commission was in fact very concerned, when it found that mass lecture is most common in the institutions and not supplemented by any regular work by students in the library, postlecture. The commission also promoted the idea of providing stimulus for the teacher training courses. It proposed that every teacher should attend such courses once in every four or five years for qualification for promotion. This stimulus would be necessary until attendance at

such refresher courses becomes a tradition. It went ahead and suggested flexibility in the choice of courses, times of training and stressed on the importance of such courses (Govt. of India, 1948). However, nothing much progress had happened in the next twenty years (Mathew, 2016).

In 1964, UGC in collaboration with USAID organized sixteen summer schools for university and college teachers in India. In 1966–1967, the National Science Foundation, USA, along with USAID extended support to assist teachers of science, engineering and technology in India. The UGC independently organized three summer institutes in chemistry, mathematics and biology and also provided assistance for conference, symposia, refresher course, seminars and others. Later in 1966, UGC took a pivotal role in improving teacher salaries as an effort to incentivize quality teaching. The commission also provided financial assistance to teachers in universities and colleges to undertake research and scholarly works in science, humanities and social sciences. Other schemes were also put into place to boost research and academic activities, where grants were provided for various academic purposes. Workshops, orientation courses for college teachers, inviting selected college teachers to spend an academic year with a university were some of the programs for the science faculties. Later, this scheme was extended to the humanities as well.

The Kothari Commission (1964–1966) emphasized on equality in access to education while focusing on improving the quality of higher education. It recognized the pivotal role of teachers in national development and an urgent need for their professional development. The Commission recommended that all new teacher recruitment should be during summer vacation time so that the new entrants to the system can join the orientation programs from the very beginning, which will allow them and the students the needed time to adjust;

- (i) As an experimental step, the Commission suggested that senior postgraduate students might be given occasional opportunities to teach, so that they gain important insights about teaching and later, can become better teachers, if they opt for it.
- (ii) Junior faculties may be mentored by senior faculty members as an effort to informally improve the teaching qualities.

In 1966, UGC took a pivotal role in improving teacher salaries as an effort to incentivize quality teaching. The commission also provided financial assistance to teachers in universities and colleges to undertake research and scholarly works in science, humanities and social sciences (Sharma, 2013). Other schemes were also put into place to boost research and academic activities, where grants were provided for various academic purposes. Workshops, orientation courses for college teachers, inviting selected college teachers to spend an academic year with a university were some of the programs for the science faculties. Later, this scheme was extended to the humanities as well.

The Fifth Plan provided financial support for University Leadership Projects, refresher and short-term courses of six-week duration, refresher course through correspondence and so on.

The Sen Committee which was appointed during the Fifth Plan, and submitted its report in 1974. The Sen Committee report recommended for (i) research activities for teachers and students; (ii) linking teacher salaries with the improvement in the qualities of teachers; and (iii) UGC to undertake major programs for providing training in collaboration with universities in suitable centers.

From the 1960s onwards, we notice that the idealistic positions of the Radhakrishnan Commission (1948) were hindered by the bureaucratization of expanding Indian higher education. The affiliating university system, large and complicated university administration somewhat reduced the academic freedom, which Radhakrishnan Commission vouched for. In this process, rather similar to the industrial top-down management, teacher became a mere component of the bigger system, largely following mandates of the higher order. This, in long run created a culture of repetitive and rather bookish teaching–learning, which is extremely difficult to alter as its gets legitimacy among its major stakeholders.

Professional Development of Teachers During 1980–2000

During this period, the nation witnessed major changes in the spheres of national economy, education and technology. Economy got liberalized, education demands increased and technology entered in the mass life in a greater way than ever before. These major changes are also reflected gradually in the policies and programs referring to teacher development, as higher education started gaining popularity due to its close linkages with the world of work and economic growth.

In 1981, the UGC published the **Report of the Review Committee on UGC Programs** to undertake a comprehensive review of the various programs being implemented and suggest further changes, wherever necessary. In an effort to improve the quality of the teachers, UGC intended to (i) provide opportunities to faculty improvement programs so that it can facilitate teachers to keep abreast of modern development in the field of study and research and to exchange ideas with experts in similar or related fields through seminar, summer institutes, workshops and conferences; (ii) enable teachers, especially college teachers to improve their professional competences through the opportunities to work for M.Phil or Ph.D. with adequate provision of salary and living expenses; (iii) focus on improving the mobility of teachers and enabling college teachers, especially from the backward areas, to avail the service of the outstanding teachers, travel grants, visiting fellowships and so on. It also encouraged teachers to take time off from their normal teaching and engage themselves in writing up the results of their studies and research and opt for national fellowships, national associationships, etc.

In 1983, Govt. of India appointed the **National Commission of Teachers under the chairmanship of Dr. D. P. Chattopadhyay**. The Commission observed that majority of our Teaching Colleges and Training Institutes is not adequately equipped to provide quality training. The Commission recommended the opening of education departments, so that a section of students can be trained in teacher education.

In the same year (1983), UGC constituted the **Mehrotra Committee** (UGC, 1986) to review the pay-scales of the teachers in universities and colleges. In addition to recommending pay revisions, the committee also suggested well-defined steps for the professional development of the teachers. The Committee also felt that is essential to impart training to those who are entering the teaching profession so that they could competently perform the various functions expected from them.

Based on the recommendations; the UGC set up a working committee to chalk out the details of orientation programs for higher education teachers. The working committee proposed to put in place the course packaging in major disciplines on video-point that would be available to teachers. This would help them to get the latest knowledge in the field of specialization. In addition, the Commission also decided to create awareness about the direction that the higher education system is taking and the role of teachers in it.

Academic Staff Colleges (ASC)

One of the significant efforts in the 1987 was to create institutional structure to provide in-service orientation program for teachers in higher education. Forty-eight (48) **Academic Staff Colleges (ASC)** were approved to organize orientation program for newly appointed teachers (1987–1988). Much later, they are renamed as ‘Human Resource Development Centers’ (HRDCs) and at present the country has 66 HRDCs.

The main objective of ASCs and its programs were to enhance the motivation of and general awareness of teachers and foster systematic orientation in specific subjects, techniques and methodologies. Each ASC was expected to organize five to six orientation programs of four weeks’ duration in a year. While 85–90% of the teachers were to be enrolled from the notified catchment area and the rest could come from other parts of the country.

National Policy on Education (1986) envisaged professional development of teachers of higher education as it recommended to organize specially designed orientation programs in teaching methodologies, pedagogy, educational psychology, etc., for all new entrants at the level of lecturers. It emphasized on

- (i) Refresher courses for serving teachers to cover every teacher at least once in 5 years.
- (ii) Orientation programs by using the internal resources of universities and by bringing a number of colleges together.
- (iii) Encouraging teachers to participate in seminars, symposia, etc.

National Eligibility Test (NET)

The National Eligibility Test (NET) was introduced in 1989 by the UGC, post the recommendations of the Mehrotra Commission. NET is an effort to shortlist the talented teachers for Indian colleges and universities and not a prime focus of this chapter, since it largely deals with teacher development, post their entry into the system. Nevertheless, the NET is considered as one of the most significant steps in this direction for quality teaching and has served a useful purpose by ensuring standards for recruiting teachers in higher education. The study by Varghese, Malik and Gautam (2017) shows that the competitive nature of NET examination works as one of the central level mechanisms to eliminate the non-eligible candidates to enter into the higher education teaching profession. However, teachers with NET qualification do not always guarantee effective classroom teaching. It depends on teachers' knowledge of the content, teaching methodologies, pedagogies and his/her adaptability to change. This also means that the institutions should take proactive role in improving the qualities of the teachers through innovative approaches.

In 1986, another major document titled 'Development of Higher **Education and Research in the Universities**' was released by the UGC. As a follow up to the previous recommendations, this report dedicated an entire chapter (Section "**Conclusion**") for faculty development, where the critical role of teachers in determining standards of higher education was described. The UGC encouraged the existing faculty development programs, schemes for visiting professorship and schemes to provide time to teachers for the research work and development. The National Fellowships, National Associateships, National Lectures, Teacher Fellowships, Career Awards, Travel Grants, etc., were continued as a part of the support system for higher education teacher professional development.

One important program introduced during this time was the merit-based promotion of teachers. The scheme aims at providing suitable opportunities to teachers working in HEIs for their career advancement in recognition of their significant contribution in teaching. Whereas this is not directly an initiative of teacher training, it may be considered as a trigger which influenced many teachers to excel in teaching and pro-actively engage in teacher developmental activities.

In the same year (1986), the UGC published another document titled '**Reports of the Committee on Revision of Pay Scheme of Teachers in Universities and Colleges.**' The report recognized the rapid spread of higher education institutions, especially colleges and the need for qualified and trained teachers. In an effort to improve teacher quality, the UGC recommended (i) orientation courses of 3–4 week long duration designed for the new faculty members; (ii) refreshed courses of longer duration (5 weeks) to allow teachers gain in depth understanding of the teaching pedagogies and subject competences. These will, according to UGC (a) provide better exposure to newer materials and (b) employ better ways of disseminating the existing and new knowledge. UGC also recommended a systematic provision to evaluate the teachers in the orientation/refresher courses during the probationary period and encouraged participation of teachers in conferences, seminars, etc. As an

innovative measure, it suggested teacher evaluation by (a) students (b) self-appraisal by teachers, (c) evaluation by seniors in the institution and peers in the discipline has been recommended. However, UGC also reckoned that for such evaluation, the pros and cons should be studied thoroughly before implementing it for the entire sector.

During 1990s, two major steps were taken to improve both the teachers and the institutions. First, the national advisory body for the central and state government on matters related to teacher education was upgraded to the 'National Council for Teacher Education' (NCTE) in 1993. However, their efforts to train teachers are largely focused on developing teachers and academic leaders for the school (including early childhood education) levels.

The second initiative was the establishment of NAAC in 1994. The plan of action (PoA) in 1992 laid the foundation of the NAAC, which, as an autonomous body, works to enforce quality in the HEIs through external review processes. Teaching-learning is among the seven criteria for NAAC evaluation, which focuses on admission process and student profile, catering to diverse needs, teaching-learning process, teacher quality, evaluation processes and reforms and best practices in teaching-learning and evaluation. However, the NAAC evaluation attempts to evaluate teaching-learning more from the institutional perspective and somewhat ignores analyzing the personalized teaching-learning process from individual teacher's or learner's standpoint.

In August 24, 1994, the **Pay Review Committee (Rastogi Committee)** was appointed by the UGC, which submitted its report on May 1997a. The Committee focused on the need for pre-induction training programs through the ASCs. The report (UGC, 1997a) suggested to delinking the teacher training programs from the career advancement scheme. There were three important points which were brought to the notice of the Committee, which are:

- (i) The existing number of ASCs cannot cater to the needs of all the teachers who seek career advancement.
- (ii) In a number of cases, teachers are unable to get permission to attend the courses during the working session and
- (iii) The courses, at times are not cohesive and well organized.

The Committee expressed its concerns for the partial effectiveness of the ASCs and their training in improving the qualities of teaching substantially.

As a follow up measure, the UGC released the '**Recommendations of the University Grants Commission on the Report of the Pay Review Committee**' (December, 1997). The Committee recommended the need for a *pre-induction* training for newly recruited teachers through ASCs. To make it a success, principle of colleges and the heads of the departments should prepare proper schedule for such deputation. Moreover, instead of the subject related refresher course, this pre-induction course should also encourage senior teachers to participate in seminars, discussions and other academic activities. Unfortunately, complains have been received from teachers that, in spite of encouragement and revised regulations, they are not released from the duties to attend these courses.

During this period (1980–2000), a strong need was felt to invest on teacher development. Proposing pre-induction, induction and in-service trainings are some of the stronger recommendations, which appeared over and over again in the policy documents. It is possible to see the difference between pre 1987 and post 1989 regarding the issue of teacher development, where compared to the earlier period, a systematic approach was on the rise in the later stage. In the following section, we will discuss the progress of the teacher development in the post 2000 period, which will further reaffirm the need of a systematic approach regarding the development of higher education teachers in India.

Professional Development of Teachers During 2000–2018

One of the most significant moves in the direction of faculty development in the post 2000 period was the consistent intervention to strengthen the ASCs. Also, digital technologies entered into the higher education domain during this period, which can be termed as a paradigm shift, as it has started to alter the traditional nature of teacher as a knowledge provider to the knowledge analyst, since information is largely available online. In addition, massification of higher education triggered diversified classrooms, with more first generation learners, students from marginalized socio-economic groups with varied degrees of competences. At this juncture, teachers are to respond quickly, teacher training needs to evolve fast and the policies are to be visionary, while rooted in the ground realities. As we shall see, the concerned efforts in contemporary era are yet to catch up with the modern times and its demands fully.

In the post 2000 period, the **UGC Guideline for Academic Staff Colleges** (UGC, 2002a) should be especially mentioned, as it provides a much elaborated guideline for the functioning of the ASCs. The guideline focused on:

- (i) Specially designed orientation programs in pedagogy, educational psychology and philosophy, and socio-economic and political concerns for all new entrants at the level of lecturers;
- (ii) Organizing such programs (orientation/refresher courses) for serving teachers, covering every teacher at least once in three to five years;
- (iii) Organizing specially designed orientation programs/refresher courses in IT for new entrants as well as for in-service teachers.

In this guideline, UGC pointed out the importance of educational technology and orientation in information technology. The special orientation program in IT is to create Internet literate people from among new entrants as well as in-service teachers and make them familiar with use of software tools irrespective of the subject/discipline they are teaching.

The guideline reaffirmed that acquisition of knowledge is a two-way process between the teachers and the learners and, therefore, collectively they must advance the frontiers of knowledge. In order to ensure its objectives, UGC pointed out that

the courses (faculty development) are not similar to B.Ed or M.Ed programs, and should be treated and designed differently.

It recommended that the orientation course should be flexible in nature, which will allow the teachers to discover themselves through a positive appreciation of their role in the total social, intellectual and moral universe within which they function. The orientation programs must improve teacher awareness of the problems that Indian society faces, it recognized that focusing on matters relating to subject knowledge and pedagogy would be meaningful if designed and executed based on the Indian context. Along with the orientation of newly recruited teachers, UGC also recommended to extend this program for the heads of the department, principals, deans, officers and other officials.

According to the new mandates, the ASCs are supposed to equip teachers with the following skills:

- (i) *General awareness*: higher education and national development; promoting national integration; developing scientific temper; information on UGC schemes and programs.
- (ii) *Learning*: imparting knowledge and skills; new education technology; developing new restructured courses; subject competency.
- (iii) *Planning*: preparing teacher's own academic plan.
- (iv) *Management*: managing library; managing financial resources.
- (v) *Development of corporate life*: dealing with students; creative work.

The **Tenth Plan Guideline for Faculty Improvement Program (2002b)** provided assistance in the form of 'teacher fellowship' for doing M.Phil or completing Ph.D. to teachers who are recruited with Indian universities and colleges (maintained by the UGC under section 2(f) and 12(B) of the UGC act 1956).

During the **Eleventh Five Year Plan** the UGC came up with another **Revised Guideline for Academic Staff Colleges (2007–2012)**, which upholds the virtues of the former guideline, but focuses more on the massifying higher education in India and associated issues which teachers are supposed to deal with effectively. The new guideline stressed on understanding the linkages between education, economic, socio-economic and cultural development, with particular reference to the Indian polity; acquiring and improving the art of teaching at the college/university level to achieve goals of higher education; keeping abreast of the latest developments in their specific subjects; understanding the organization and management of a college/university and to perceive the role of teachers in the total system; utilizing opportunities for development of personality, initiative and creativity; and promoting computer literacy as well use of ICT in teaching and learning process.

The guideline recognized that due to the expansion of higher education, the quality has degraded noticeably, which needs to be restored. Mentioning the degradation of quality as 'disturbing,' the UGC clearly states that this state must be reversed and teachers and educational administrators need to take pro-active role in the right direction.

Another major guideline on teacher training was published during the **Twelfth Five Year Plan Period** titled '**Guidelines for the Special Scheme of Faculty Development Program for Colleges for the Twelfth Plan (2012–2017)**'. This guideline clarifies its position on the conditions of eligibility for teacher fellowship for M.Phil/Ph.D., number of fellowship and reservations, procedure for applying for such fellowship under the scheme and so on. The document also laid its guidelines on the participation of teachers in academic conferences. In both cases, only permanent teachers are eligible to avail such career benefits. In the same direction, only permanent faculties are allowed for short-term visits to the reputed institutions. Noticeably, since post 2010, the universities and colleges started mass recruitment of ad hoc and contractual faculties, who were not allowed to get the trainings yet responsible for delivering quality teaching!

The UGC Guideline for Regional Center for Capacity Building (RCCB) and Human Resource Development Center (HRDC) (UGC, 2015) highlighted the issue of student employability and the need for improved teaching to cater to the issue. In this direction, the commission published the guideline to transform the existing ASCs into two level systems in the form of a scheme of setting up Human Resource Development Center (HRDC) and Regional Centers for Capacity Building (RCCB) in selected universities in the country to create new such systems commensurate with the expansion of higher education institutions. The HRDC are to organize specially designed orientation programs (OPs) in pedagogy, educational psychology and philosophy, and socio-economic and political concerns for all new entrants at the level of assistant professor; organize advanced level and more discipline oriented refresher courses (RCs) for capacity enhancement and continuous knowledge up-gradation and exposure to emerging developments of faculty involved in teaching in institutions of higher education. In addition, the system put necessary conditions to ensure that every teacher in higher education system of the country is exposed to an OP and a RC at least once during the first three to five years. These specially designed OPs/RCs are to enable the faculty members to utilize fast growing information and communication technology (ICT) support to teaching and research.

The Human Resource Development Centers (HRDC) now has a wider role in developing the teachers. The HRDCs are to actively collaborate and cooperate with RCCB for improving quality and effectiveness of program delivery; utilize online systems for interactive connectivity for fast and effective functional operations and content delivery; contribute and share the repository including the multimedia repository of RCCB and other sources as indicated of some of the best content delivered in the at HRDC. In an effort to strengthen digitalization, the HRDCs are recommended to set up a documentation-IT-enabled center-cum-library for reference and source materials; actively cooperate with RCCB in maintenance of an information portal giving all details about programs planned in the region; analyze online feedback from participants on program delivered in the HRDC for consistent review for quality enhancement and communicating the same online to RCCB within 15 days from completion of a program.

Realizing the need, the UGC also emphasized on teacher training of longer duration through the HRDCs. UGC has recommended one month intensive teacher training for the newly recruited teachers and emphasized on modern teaching pedagogies and use of technologies in teaching and learning. The process to strengthen the existing HRDCs are going on, in addition to creating resources for comprehensive teacher training for newly recruited as well as experienced teachers.

PMMMNTT Scheme

On May 2015, the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD, 2015), Government of India launched the Pandit Madam Mohan Malaviya National Mission on Teachers and Teaching (PMMMNTT), a flagship scheme to rejuvenate teacher training in India. The objectives of the mission include (i) coordinated approach to holistically address issues related to teachers, teaching and research on pedagogical issues; (ii) strengthen institutional mechanisms for augmenting training and domain knowledge development of faculty and their periodic assessment for excellence; and (iii) empower teachers through training to develop generic skills, pedagogical skills, ICT and technology skills.

The mission is expected to achieve orientation and training of one hundred thousand teachers covering school and higher education sectors; creating good base for teacher educators and create excellence in faculty for academic leadership positions; and create sufficient institutional structures and subject-based networks.

The PMMMNTT is a major reform initiative in India focusing on the crucial role played by the teachers in improving teaching–learning processes and learning outcomes. The scheme mobilizes top ranking institutions and high quality academics to provide academic leadership in higher education in India. Several premier institutes such as IITs, IIMs, IISERs and other established HEIs are taking lead role in developing content, training modules, master training and so on.

The National Resource Centers for Education are established from 2017 onwards under the PMMMNTT scheme. They are envisaged to address comprehensively all issues related to teachers, teaching, teacher preparation and professional development. The objective of the National Resource Center for Education is to develop a national repository of all resources for the use of teachers, to develop the networking among teachers in India and abroad, and to develop functional capabilities of teachers through the use of knowledge resources.

Among the recent major initiatives of the Govt. of India, the move toward digital platforms for teacher training is notable. It is recognized that the existing brick and mortar system of teacher training alone cannot train all the teachers, all of the courses regularly. Hence, online course materials are being created with active participation from the existing teachers, experts from the fields which are being used to train teachers and strengthen existing teacher training programs. The SWAYAM platform is being used for this purpose in the initial stages, which will be expanded further along with plans to integrate digital technologies with physical teacher training.

Way Ahead

The efforts since independence show that the process of teacher development was more fragmented and only recently, a systematic effort has been taken with a long-term vision. The present trends suggest that there is a growing consensus among the decision makers that like school teachers, higher education teachers also need proper training. Teacher training should be continuous, as a standalone induction or refresher courses are not sufficient to keep pace with the progress of knowledge and pedagogic changes (Mandal, 2018).

- (i) While designing teacher training courses, special focus should be given on recent pedagogic development in the field, new experimentations and so forth, so that along with the upgradation of subject specific knowledge, teachers gain knowledge on newer and more effective ways to deliver them.
- (ii) It is important for teacher training to deliver its programs in multiple ways. The existing brick and mortar set up may be complemented by the online platforms. Only then, it will be possible to reach large number of teachers, especially those who are staying in remote and physically inaccessible areas. Digital platforms can help bridging the gap in a greater way and this potential should be utilized.
- (iii) Along with the planning and designing of the programs, it is equally important to execute them properly. In many instances, it is seen that the new programs are deliver much like the old way, which is proved ineffective. Hence, proper focus should be given on the delivery of training so that teachers gain most of it and the programs also remain relevant to its target group.
- (iv) Finally, it is important to develop a culture of effective teaching and learning in Indian higher education institutions, which requires active participation from university and colleges teachers; administration and leaders (Mandal, 2018).

Conclusion

Indian higher education has entered a stage of massification, which is also accompanied by institutional and student diversity. When the system was elite, it attracted students from similar and more comparable socio-economic background. In contrast, massifying system has the characteristics of greater student diversity. To manage this massive and expanding system while maintaining the quality, the role of teachers becomes utmost important.

It is crucial to focus on teacher development in a more systematic way. However, the lack of proper training and/or professional development of faculties have resulted in poor quality learning. Moreover, the culture of repetitive teaching is deep rooted in the Indian higher education (Mandal, 2016), which results in content-dependent repetitive teaching and memorization-based learning. This trend is detrimental to the development of learners, some of whom are going to be teachers in the future. Hence,

not just teacher training, but a long-term vision is needed to truly revamp the quality of teachers. We must move toward a system, where all teachers are professionally qualified, carefully selected and are provided with opportunities for their academic and professional development.

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METAGOGY: Towards a Contemporary Adult Education Praxis



Gabriele Strohschen and Kenneth Elazier

Abstract Blended Shore Education (BSE), emerged from an international action research project (Strohschen, 2009). BSE originally provided principles for blending practices that interdependently guide teacher and student to implement contextually appropriate education programs within a ‘culturally reflexive consciousness’ (Gergen in Strohschen, 2009, p. x). This chapter presents the Metagogy Theorem in which the research that had resulted in the BSE concept was expanded with a further action research project. We suggest that the emerging Metagogy Theorem offers an essential framework for developing and implementing education programs across cultures, ideologies, nations, content and time.

Keywords Blended shore education · Metagogy · Emancipatory education · Adult education · Education program design and development · Critical reflection · Phenomenology

Background

In an investigation into worldwide adult and higher education praxes, 32 authors presented examples of their education practices in 18 countries in a *Handbook of Blended Shore Education* (Strohschen, 2009). These were analyzed and codified based on the emerging patterns we termed the Blended Shore Education approach (BSE). The concepts of the BSE approach are scaffolded by the principles of Stange’s phenomenology for adult education research (1987). BSE is also anchored to Freire’s values of liberatory, also called emancipatory, education (1970), and to

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Brookfield's critical thinking about paradigmatic assumptions (1995). The goal of the *Handbook* is to nudge practitioners to consider and re-consider the variety of meanings of teaching and learning as presented in the practices in it, and to reflect on the relationships and roles of all participants. BSE calls for dialogue *within and about* critical analysis. A principal goal of BSE is to clarify assumptions and values about cultures, learning/teaching preferences, and needs for education programs for adults in all of their diversity and contexts (see also Strohschen, 2014). Stephen Brookfield pointed out that the *Handbook* creates '[...] a conversation that attempts to develop guidelines for adult program development that are sufficiently generic that they allow for discussion and comparison across extremely diverse cultural, ethnic and organizational contexts, yet that also incorporate highly specific indigenous knowledge and practice and that are shaped by local cultures, traditions and imperatives' (personal correspondence, 2009).

For the *Handbook*, therefore, we examined the trends, practices, and challenges as colleagues from around the globe described their experiences. The findings clearly pointed toward the concept of a *Metagogy* that eventually led us to the development of the Metagogy Theorem (Strohschen & Associates, 2017). While BSE gave us a set of guidelines within which to make decisions to determine appropriate practices, the Metagogy Theorem gives us details on identifying and implementing approaches for facilitating learning within contextually developed, relevant education methods and techniques by, with, and for adults.

Philosophical Underpinnings of Metagogy

Freire's Principles: Teaching to Be Free

At the heart of Freire's version of critical pedagogy (1970, 1993), it is the emancipation of the mind. Interpreted in many ways over the decades since Freire's ideas were introduced into the North American context, emancipatory education remains for many educators an *either-or* proposition, i.e., one is *either* for the oppressed *or* against them. And, consequently, practices are aligned to particular values that see a student as an active participant in designing her education or as a passive recipient of knowledge that is determined by the powers-that-be. Given Freire's Judeo-Christian values, this dichotomy is a logical conclusion by many. Yet, in his writings and actions Freire proposed—and lived—values of equity, compassion, empathy, and love for his fellow women and men, which are values that reverberate in many of our world's philosophies and religions as fundamental principles.

Learning with and for one another in dialogue commands mutual respect; a praxis of education based on clearly identified and made-transparent values, which he considered informed action; weaving experience with education in that he elevated the

informal to the formal; and conscientization, i.e., the intentional and deliberate development of consciousness by means of education, but a consciousness that leads to taking the power to transform reality (Taylor, 1998, p. 52).

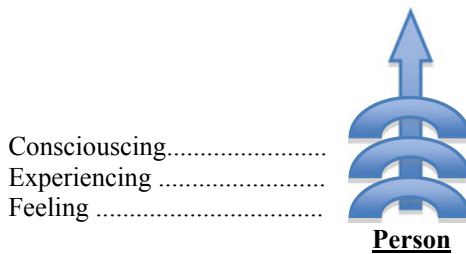
These are essential elements of Freire’s vantage points on education for adults. As complicated as reading Freire may be, if one does not already share his values and beliefs, his are actually rather simple approaches that are understood by many a disenfranchised person. These aspects of his education philosophy connect with educators who value emancipation for adults to be the goal of adult education, and who consider adult education a process for mutual learning and transformation. These values also undergird our concept of Metagogy.

Stanage’s Principles: Consciousing and Constituting

We do not teach subjects. We teach adults. This sums up Stanage’s vantage point on educating adults. In his landmark contribution to the field of adult education, Sherman Stanage (1987) made very clear that the subject of adult education is the leading forth of the capacities, capabilities, and inherent talents to arrive at an examined selfhood of the adult. Stanage applied principles of constitutive phenomenology to describe a process of eduction of person (underline intended to signify that this stands for the examined self) through ‘feeling, experiencing, and conscousing’ (1987, p. 328), as shown (see Fig. 1).

In the mutual process of *eduction*, teacher and learner can examine of how we reinforce prevailing values if we forego critical thinking and radical analyses of our assumptions. *Eduction* entails a letting go in the cognitive and affective domains to free one’s self so to get to the root of beliefs; or, at minimum to learn how to bracket deeply held perspectives long enough to analyze them. Clarity about one’s and others’ values is of the essence if we are to gain the capacity to engage in rigorous question-posing with the goal to find personal and societal solutions to needs, ~isms, and issues together, and to be capable to move to action. Clarity, or liberation from the mind only, is the essential of *eduction*, irrespective of what we seek to become clear about. In Stanage’s concept, underlying any to-be-examined-content-or-value

Fig. 1 Model of person



(Stanage, 1987; Graphically adapted by Strohschen)

is the absolute necessity to know thyself. Sound familiar? Throughout humankind's history in the arts and sciences such has been a fundamental belief across cultures. So, too, does Stange's adult *eduction* call for answering the questions: Who Am I; What Can I Know; What Should I Do; and What May I Hope. Sherman shows us how the recurrent examination of feelings, experiencings, and consciousnesses creates our personhood. Not unlike Freire, he, too, suggested this can happen within the context of dialogue about the states of being aware of one's own and others' perception of realities.

Other thinkers have insisted on such highly circumstantial and, on some level, ephemeral generation of knowing and becoming each time, a moment at a time, in a given context that happens not only with our *Geist* (mind) or through mind-driven *Wissen* (knowledge). Krishnamurti (1974, pp. 29–30) richly described the shortcomings of mind knowing, which keeps us in a cognitive treadmill without going anywhere other than through the emotions of motion. The more we think about *what was and what will be*, the more we lose the essence of *what is* in the moment. And although such thinking prevails, he makes clear how awfully difficult is *to become* in the future when we do not grasp who we are in the present.

This concept of adult education does not call for facilitating transformation in the Mezirowian tradition (1981), but it asks for supporting recurring and continuous *being and becoming*. With that, this notion of *eduction* of adults elucidates how we actually strengthen an ego-self that is destined to stagnate when we merely reproduce the thinking, language, and values in our education of that which oppresses transformation to person.

Blended Shore Education and the Metagogy Theorem: Weaving Together Principles, Tenets, and Values

The Changing Landscape of Educating Adults

Put together, Freire and Stange contributed key tenets upon which to build professional practices in the education of adults. These beliefs and principles became apparent in the practices described in the approaches in Blended Shore Education and underlie the Metagogy Theorem. In the *Handbook*, the described practices were clear evidence that the values and systems of static knowledge delivery do not match the needs of today's dynamic, globally interwoven environments where information doubles at nano-speed and change is the new constant. 'In our information-rich, knowledge-based societies, teachers and students must possess the kind of knowledge, skills and attitudes that aids them in making appropriate and context-driven decisions' (Strohschen in Heaney, 2015). It has long been accepted that critical reflection and thinking capacities are essential elements for the twenty-first century educator (Strohschen & Elazier, 2005), and critical reflection practices have been part of our adult education knowledge base for decades, albeit in myriad manifestations.

The needs of adult education throughout the world changed mid-century in content and process as Mead had already advocated since 1951, calling for ‘a teaching of a readiness to use unknown ways to solve unknown problems’ (pp. 40–41). Needless to point out that in our rapidly changing environments, problem-posing and decision making require that educators and learners build capacities in critical analysis rather than teaching rote repetition of established ways and facts *only*. In 2006, Gardner framed ‘five minds for the future’ as pivotal ‘if we are to thrive in the world during the eras to come’ (p. 1). He urgently promoted the knowledge of traditional liberal arts disciplines; the ability to synthesize information and experiences; a venturing into creating new questions and solutions; an extending respect beyond tolerance of differences; and the need to ethically engage in good citizenship. In short, for a long time since the early adaptors of andragogy in the USA (Lindeman, 1926; Knowles, 1962, 1984), educationists of many kind have sought to adapt our conventional education practices.

Blended Shore Education

Blended Shore Education called for facilitating the kind of learning-how-to-learn skills (Smith, 1987) that are fundamental to sketching a roadmap for adapting teaching and learning approaches to contemporary international, technology-supported and intercultural contexts. At the same time, BSE maintains that the contemporary changes in attitudes and needs ought to not necessarily lead us to throw out what we already know and do, or to dismiss decades of research and experience that generated teaching and learning theories. BSE calls us to adopt a *both-and* attitude toward appropriate practices. BSE tells us to embrace the very idea that ‘independent units give way to the shifting tides and the shifting shores’ as Kenneth Gergen described BSE (in Strohschen, 2009, p. xi) with its emphasis on interdependence.

Two Dimensions and Four Pillars Scaffold BSE Program Development

The Blended Shore Education approach supports the design of contextually appropriate education programs with corresponding delivery modes. Instructional roles and approaches, aligned to kinds of relationships between teacher and student in the learning/teaching process, are BSE’s key dimensions with four pillar themes guiding critical exploration and analysis for practitioners in their decision making about appropriate program development and delivery methods.

The pillar themes emerged during analysis of the chapters penned by education practitioners from around the globe during the research for the *Handbook of Blended*

Shore Education (Strohschen, 2009). These four pillars in BSE represent the recurrently noted themes by these practitioners. The pillar themes were explored by four scholars and practitioners in their respective chapters in the *Handbook*: Brookfield (2009, pp. 27–43); Lynch (2009, pp. 63–70); Daun (2009, pp. 45–61); and Sambuli-Mosha (2009, pp. 71–83). In these core chapters, the authors described and analyzed the following themes from their respective vantage points:

- Development
- Standards
- Lifelong learning and lifelong education
- Spirituality.

For each theme, the authors espoused their concerns and critiques, suggesting that these themes bear considering and re-considering in our practice and be decided upon according to the context of the educational offering. Principles and values described by these authors are not prescriptive or recommended; rather, they intend to provide a basis *from* which to critically examine program design and delivery approaches. Irrespective of the adult education praxes and settings, the pillar themes were evident in each scholar-practitioner’s chapter in the *Handbook* and therefore chosen as key considerations for examination. They continue to be controversial in the international education discourse, particularly within our environment of globalization and commodification of education (Jarvis, 2000; Chen, 2003).

In BSE, these pillar themes are intended to frame the discourse about program development and delivery, and they scaffold the analysis of one’s praxis as much as they support the analysis and clarification of values, needs, preferences and the selection of appropriate methods and techniques for program development and delivery (Fig. 2).

For the duration and purpose of critical reflection and radical analysis of these pillar themes, practitioners are nudged to bracket their prevailing perspectives, assumptions and values related to these themes in order to examine realities and viewpoints, starting with those narrated by the four authors, because education philosophies and cultural values and assumptions vary, disparate definitions will and should emerge during such reflection or (re)consideration. The intent is to clarify the varied definitions and meanings of the concepts, tenets and principles within each pillar theme to

Fig. 2 Four Pillar Themes

Pillar Theme	Concepts for (re)Consideration
Development	Hegemony/Neutrality/Intentions
Standards	Professionalism/Collaboration
Lifelong Learning/Education	History/Constructs/Reality/Research
Spirituality	Interdependence/Indigenous Wisdoms

(Strohschen 2009, p.20).

become aware of how culture, narrative and experience color our lenses. The hoped for outcome of inquiry, critical reflection and discourse about the values, concepts and definitions inherent in these pillar themes is a deeper grasping of self-awareness and clarification of one's own values and assumptions, because strongly held and unexamined meanings or interpretations create significant individual and institutional barriers to relevant and contextually appropriate design. Once examined, however, it is expected that practitioners are more capable to clarify from which value platform to design and deliver education programs, and why. This re-consideration is suggested to be a recurring activity, imperative to appropriate development and delivery of education programs for adults, because each program and setting necessitates a contextualized approach.

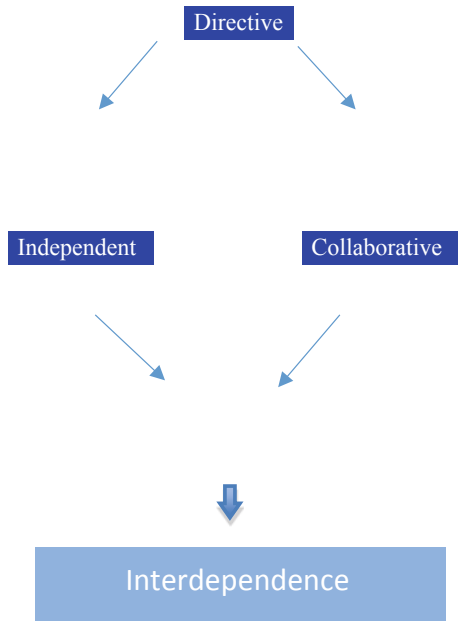
The BSE Learning Teaching Spectrum

First conceptualized by Strohschen and Elazier (2005), the BSE Learning–Teaching Spectrum describes the suitable combination of appropriate instructional approaches for given learning tasks that are aligned to the suitable relationship between student and teacher. In its *Metagogical approach* (Strohschen, 2009), the spectrum guides the selection of mentoring approaches and instructional methods; however, it does so not in an *either-or* manner. Instructional approaches do not directionally align in a linear fashion to a trajectory that moves from a dependent to an independent learner–teacher relationship. Selection of instructional approaches is highly contextual and depends on the learning task at hand, the readiness of the learner, the instructional skills of the teacher and the institutional setting along with related barriers and constraints. The spectrum denotes self-directedness in its *reflexive* selection of instructional approaches, wherein learner or teacher *leads* the teaching process, using strategies typically connected to a particular power relationship between them, i.e., from directed to independent. In that it adds to the conventional interpretations of andragogic approaches and self-directed learning because *any* instructional approach may be appropriate *if* it meets learning objectives, learning needs and learning preferences and *if* its selection responds to expressed needs in a transparent teacher–learner relationship.

Each stakeholder in the education process, assuming a role of teacher or student, also spirals through the positions in the relationship category (i.e., dependent to independent) with the goal of arriving at interdependence. In this way, issues arising from narrowly viewed mastery versus novice notions or positionality and power concepts can be averted, and phases of the education process can be guided by student and teacher in the manner of social construction intended by Gergen (2001), and stakeholders do so within an atmosphere of transparency and mutually vetted values (Begovich, Eiathakul, Heaven, Johnson, Prince Gilbert, Strohschen, Wiggins, & Williams, 2013) (Fig. 3).

This figure sketchily illustrates how both student and teacher engage in a reciprocal dance of teaching and learning once they have transparently established the

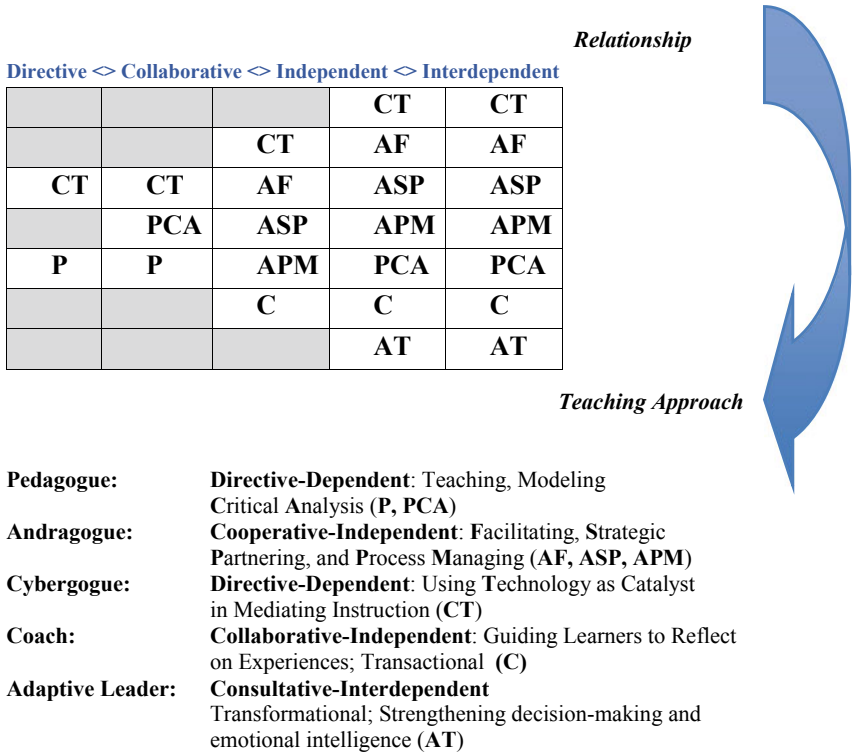
Fig. 3 Student–teacher relationship in the Learning–Teaching Spectrum



purpose of the desired education program based on identified needs between them. The BSE informs decision making about appropriate, dynamic, organic and adaptive approaches of program development and delivery for programs. In that way, it provides for fungible, proactive and immediate responses to the changing demands on and of today's adult student and educator, *irrespective* of culture, location, content or context (Fig. 4).

This graphic outlines key aspects of the adult educator's roles, characteristics of the relationship between learner and teacher, and the scope of the instructional process for both. It is built on the following:

- The teacher–learner relationship has a process-driven focus. With this, it is accepted that there is no one *best approach* but rather that the instructional approach must fit the learning task at hand.
- Learner and teacher are in an egalitarian partnership, which exists regardless of where on the spectrum the learner stands at any point in time with respect to capacity, competence or readiness. Therefore, both select the most appropriate teaching–learning approach. Collaboration and transparency are pivotal to any selected instructional method and technique.
- The directive to interdependent movement is a reflexive learning–teaching mode and is dependent on the learning task. Student and teacher select the mode based on the self-expressed and discussed statements of readiness and need by the learner. Readiness is defined as that combination of knowledge, skill and reflected upon experience that a learner brings to the task.



(Strohschen & Elazier, 2005; Strohschen, 2009. Graphic rev. Strohschen 2019)

Fig. 4 Learning–Teaching Spectrum

- Teacher–learner roles are viewed as interchangeable and learner and teacher accept the educator as a transformational leader.

Pedagogy: Directive-Dependent

The pedagogical approach (P), at the point of a directive stance of the teacher works when the student needs information or skills for engaging in the learning task at hand to reach learning goals. Adult students returning to graduate school, for example, may find themselves ill equipped to cope with so-termed academic writing and willingly benefit from workshops on preparing for graduate level course work. Expecting self-directedness and competence at the point when a student ventures into the unknown would be equivalent to giving a person a sailboat, an instructional manual and a nautical map and then ask them to start sailing across Lake Michigan. But that is exactly what adult educator do. This is in evidence by the lament about students’ lack

of writing skills we hear in faculty meetings. And, at the same time, our assessment criteria for content teeter on precisely those skills, students have not yet mastered: academic writing. It is relevant and appropriate at this point to use methods and techniques that are directive and pedagogical.

Andragogy: Cooperative-Independent

The andragogical approach (A) calls on the teacher to thoroughly engage the student in decision-making processes about teaching and learning. Students can determine how and when to learn certain tasks and collaboratively moves through the learning process with the teacher. In the sailing example, this may play out after basic sail setting techniques have been taught and mastered and students now choose which navigational skills to strengthen next. The student can take responsibility and learn independently from those manuals and maps in preparation of further instruction. In this example, the movement from pedagogical/directive to andragogical/self-directed approaches is iterative and the teacher begins to assume a more consultative role. Learning becomes validated by mastery of the tasks.

Cybergogy: Directive-Dependent

Basically, cybergogy (CG) is an approach that mediates technology as catalyst for instruction. Technology is such an over-used term, which means many things to many people. Internet-mediated instruction essentially means the Internet is a tool; just as PDAs, email, or any social media. We put cybergogy into a category that merely expands on utilization of tools, not too much removed from William Rainey Harper's original correspondence courses, where content and assessments were delivered via postal services. In cybergogy, the teacher has to be versed in instructional design to appropriately apply the available cyber tools, aligned to the task at hand. Cybergogy offers methods and techniques that can be applied across the teaching-learning spectrum.

Coach: Collaborative-Independent

As learning tasks are more complex in that they require greater knowledge, skills and competencies that students need to bring to the learning situation, the teaching approach moves into a more interdependent context; one wherein the teacher (C) partners with the student and takes on transactional approaches. Consultant approaches and techniques are increasingly used within mutual consent as the coach engages the student in real-life practice. The coach role now requires the student to analyze

assessment and the challenges provided by the coach to improve performance, investigate and identify relevant learning-how-to-learn skills, and work on strengthening knowledge and skill independently.

Adaptive Leader: Consultative-Interdependent

Teacher content area expertise, more than in previous learning situations, now becomes less important as process managing of the learning situation is the main competence needed from the teacher. A strategic and consultative partner, the teacher now becomes an adaptive leader (AT). She serves as assembler of resources, utilizing the knowledge base of adult education with its myriad strategies, methods and techniques to assess and fulfill the learning needs of the student. This leadership, in the sense of *educare*, intends to guide students based on significant knowledge and expertise—the teachers' and their students.' Whatever content is to be learned and taught, the aim is to share knowledge and expertise freely. The adult educators in the role of consultant ensure that the student has 'hired' them before offering expertise. They make sure students perceive a problem, opportunity or unmet need before offering their expertise. At the same time, they make sure that they, too, understand the problem or unmet need. In these moments in the learning-teaching relationship, the respective grasp of self-awareness and motives of teacher and student ought to be narrated between them. Once this has been accomplished, the student remains in charge of the decision-making process, self-directly choosing learning goals and short-term or mid-range tasks. The *consultant* listens to and acknowledges the student's resistance to change, should that be the case.

Instructional Strategies, Methods and Techniques

In keeping with the principles of adult learning (Knowles, 1984), there are conventional instructional strategies, methods and techniques that maintain their merit in this paradigm for educating adults. The original four principles of andragogy state that:

1. Adults are self-directed and should have a say in the content and process of their learning.
2. Adults have experience upon which to draw and learning should focus on adding to such prior learning.
3. Adults prefer practical learning and content should focus on issues related to their work or personal life.
4. Learning should be centered on solving problems instead of memorizing content.

A commitment to the principles of adult learning mandates a good deal of flexibility of students and instructors. Therefore, a key feature of mutually engaging

teacher and learner in program design and delivery pivots on selecting appropriate instructional strategies and providing transparency to the learners about the choices. When adult learners come together to share their experiences, knowledge and discoveries in order to enhance their grasp of the tacit knowledge they already possess and to gain the explicit knowledge they seek, standard instructional strategies can be applied to scaffold a variety of instructional methods and techniques.

Strategies of Instruction

Basically, there are four strategies of instruction:

- (1) Group instruction that typically take place at university campuses. These are seat-time based with students in groups meeting at pre-determined times at regular intervals. Content is pre-designed and delivered for the entire group, aimed at already developed outcomes for a course of instruction.
- (2) Self-paced instruction has students work independently, individually or in groups. The location for such self-paced learning activities can be a campus, with its access to library services, for example. Students may also venture into the community in groups or individually, attending events or visiting organizations to engage in learning in real-life situations. This can also include project at the workplace, with the added benefit that students can identify knowledge they have gained prior to formal education endeavors.
- (3) On-the-job instruction, which typically means learning in a particular environment (e.g., workplace, practice setting, volunteer work place), offers the facilitation of learning formally or informally, depending on how these opportunities are structured. Service learning coordinated by an institution of higher learning is often associated with this type of instruction as well as actual *on-the-job* training at a work place.
- (4) Instructions through job aids can be provided by instructors. Job aids can be used in the other three strategies, as appropriate. For example, an instructor can supply students with articles and Web sites relevant to students' respective learning tasks. The creation of job aids, therefore, requires timely and immediate, in-the-moment, responses by an instructor as not too often can these be prepared in advance when individual learning needs arise, for example, in competence-based programs that feature individualized learning activities.

These four strategies of instruction, in a variety of applied combinations, can serve the learning needs of adults quite well, primarily in that they flexibly and reciprocally enhance the flow of information and feedback between teacher and learner.

Methods and Techniques of Instruction

There is a large array of instructional methods that can be used in any of the four instructional strategies. BSE and the learning–teaching spectrum provide a conceptual framework for how and why instructional approaches of teaching can move along the spectrum from directive to a consultative instructional role. Examples of instructional methods are:

1. Lectures with A/V components by;
 - (a) Instructor;
 - (b) Student-led content presentations;
 - (c) Guest speakers live or via technology (Skype, ZOOM).
2. In-session practice exercises;
3. Small group, in-session collaborative work;
 - (a) Optional learning studios;
 - (b) Computer laboratory research.
4. Library tutorial and consultations;
5. Individual learning contracts, collaboratively created;
6. Session summaries provided by the instructor;
7. Weekly 1–1 coaching sessions with instructor (teleconference, Face Time, or in person).

For instructors, it is imperative to provide the rationales to students for using particular strategies and methods and to offer choices of how students may wish to be guided through the learning at hand. In the context of sharing basic concepts of learning styles and preferences and the basics of the instructional phases, student empowerment (Cervero, 1996) is encouraged. The values of Metagogy (see in Fig. 5) can guide this empowerment with the movement of the teaching approach toward interdependence.

The Metagogy Theorem

The Action Research

The Metagogy Project engaged practitioners to describe process, content and criteria of their practice over several years in formal and informal action research settings. From the subsequent chapter narratives (Strohschen, 2016) and a LinkedIn housed blogging group, we extracted what had emerged as commonly shared knowledge of *~gogies* that was evident in the described practices. This was blended those into a theorem, or a guiding framework for an adult education praxis. The Metagogy Theorem seeks to assist us in selecting appropriate and contextual practices and

Metagogues

- Are grounded in values of social interdependence
- Espouse interdependence as the guiding value in any collaboration
- Respect indigenous wisdoms and see “indigenous” as any one particular groups’ way of knowing and doing that are contextually relevant and meaningful
- Blend such indigenous wisdoms and local knowledge with global standards and practices, *when* confirmed as appropriate *by and with* stakeholders to synthesize instructional approaches
- Acknowledge the spiritual domain of learning and incorporate delivery strategies that complement cognitive, affective, and psycho-motor domains
- Commit to the emancipation of each self (students and teachers) in a liberatory context of freeing one’s Self from assumptions and values that run counter to emancipation
- Reject homo-social reproduction.

Fig. 5 Values of metagogy

suggests a process for collaboratively developing and implementing contextually appropriate methods, strategies and techniques for educating adults. It acknowledges the contextuality of geopolitical, national, international, intercultural, psychological and other boundaries and, with that, also recognizes the barriers to teaching and learning that we have created and maintained within our sparring ways about whose education ideology will prevail and grab all power.

Metagogy holds the possibilities for bridging the dichotomies and cross the social and personal barriers caused by unexamined ideologies and values. The Metagogy Project, combined with the findings of the Blended Shore Education action research, created a space to explore beliefs and long-held opinions about education, to cull and polish those cogs and wheels that work, and to use critical reflection and radical meta-analysis to inform how we toil in our field.

The Philosophy of Metagogy

The basic premise leading us to Metagogy was simple: those who teach, particularly those working with adult learners, adopt a philosophy and practice, whether deliberately or by default. The facilitators of learning, the teachers, the trainers, the coaches and so on, lean on a variety of *~gogies*, i.e., pedagogy, andragogy, critical pedagogy,

etc. In the USA, as much as around the globe, such adult education practitioners put many methods, strategies and techniques into their toolboxes. Yet, when any one of these tools did not work, a next *tool du jour* is applied, and all too often not with clarity about *why* and *how* to use the tool. The values and approaches we depict with the Metagogy Theorem give our profession a philosophical and theoretical framework to aid in decision making in the teaching and learning process.

Metagogy provides a structure within which to review and examine processes of design, development and implementation and for selecting the most appropriate practices. As we jointly explore new frontiers of adult education and aim to meet the needs of learners who seek non-traditional approaches, we ought to build on our practices and open our minds, hearts and egos to acknowledge, examine and embrace values, knowledge bases, methods, techniques, learning goals and preferences which may be different from those we hold. In the increasingly global knowledge society of the twenty-first century, we ought to adapt to lived interdependence in the teaching and learning process. And that requires a vast repertoire of instructional approaches in a collaborative relationship with learners.

Hence, the adaptive leaders position in our learning–teaching spectrum depicts an educational partnership that is foundational to the Metagogy paradigm for the education/education of adults. Ideally, the values underlying the described approach permeate throughout the varying approaches shown in the spectrum while methods and techniques are applied transparently to meet personalized learning tasks at hand. Teachers share the responsibility with the students for rejecting or accepting the content knowledge and approach. Teachers know their role is more than merely providing subject-matter content. Many times, they must provide knowledge and experience in other areas that support the use of the newly acquired knowledge. Such adapting teachers analyze situations, consider options and alternatives, make recommendations and motivate students to action by providing value and resources. Successful adult educators in the Metagogy paradigm see the importance of the periodically, iteratively and recurrently accepted role of consultants. They understand that they need to consult openly with students to determine the most appropriate approach to facilitate learning. They also understand that their success depends upon their ability to share their expertise in a responsible and accountable manner that contributes first to their students' success and second to their own growth.

Partnering and Trusting

Such a partnership has learner and teacher constantly looking for new ways to improve the educational experience when teachers become transformational leaders in the relationship. At the same time, the desired partnership evolves when the commitment to the partner is focused on meeting mutual needs. Both ought to enjoy supporting and contributing to one another's goal achievement and to personal and professional development. Partnership means being committed to something larger than the individual. These educational partnerships have a future beyond a single

course or a one time, educational event. They constitute a mutual commitment to one another as much as they make the learning and teaching process effective and efficient.

The student is asked to take a quantum leap and trust the teacher as well as the process. While they leap together, the roles of teacher and student become interchangeable. The partnership exists with shared goals, ethics, attitudes and orientations. There is a common vision that connects teacher and student as both are engaged in transformation toward personhood. This interdependency creates moments of critical self-reflection for the teacher and student, and especially promotes growth and learning for the teacher. Being in-partnership means a commitment to ongoing communication. Therefore, continuous growth is reinforced for both learner and teacher within a Metagogical approach.

We surmise not much about what we have written and cited here thus far provided mind-boggling insights for the readers. We wish to highlight that the essential needs, values, and agency we identified and named with the Metagogy Project, i.e., our Metagogy Theorem as a paradigm, calls for teacher and student to be radical in their examination and clarification of values, beliefs, assumptions, needs and the teaching-learning process. Radical, in its Latin origins *rādīcālis*, means going to the root of things. For educators, it is, of course, easier written about than acted upon to leave the ego at the classroom door, and to critically reflect on designs, purpose and curricula of education programs. It is even more difficult and risky to implement student-centered approaches within the constraints of conventional institutions of education. The mutual support in the partnership with its emphasis on trust is fundamental for innovations in teaching and learning to take root.

Final Thoughts

Simply put then, it is important to identify whose reality prevails in institutionalized and non-formal teaching and learning activities and whose reality ought to prevail. Educators need to be clear about their credo and toward what ends they are teaching and learning. As educators we can be equipped to take on the challenge of leading forth other adults when we are willing and capable to examine our self with rigor, to inspire others to achieve their goals, to embrace our profession with passion and love for the learner, and to advocate for improvement of our education structures. Metagogy shows practitioners how to engage in the design, development, implementation and sustainability of learning activities based on the values depicted in Fig. 5.

Our philosophical framework is hinged to the center post that is firmly planted at the intersection of Stanage's theory of *eduction* of person; principles of Freire's emancipatory education; and Strohschen's BSE. These are synthesized in the framework for program development and delivery in the Metagogy Theorem. The axioms from a global community of adult education practitioners are blended to provide *decision-making process guidance* for co-constructing, for critical reflection, for

radical analysis and for shared transparency of values to make socially responsible choices in the praxis of adult education

Finally, as educators, we absolutely must know and accept what risk or ego deflating this stance may hold for us within our prevailing structures and institutions of education. We have much work to do. Therefore, we leave our readers with the words of Jiddu Krihnamurti, '*There is no end to education. It is not that you read a book, pass an examination, and finish with education. The whole of life, from the moment you are born to the moment you die, is a process of learning.*' (1974, p. 49)

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Quality of Teacher and Global Needs



R. S. Mani

Abstract There seems to be common acceptance that teacher with qualities, values are needed to meet global needs. UNESCO report on Teacher and Educational Monitoring Global Needs for 2015 and the European Commission report ‘Communication on Teacher education’ 2007 observes research shows that teacher quality is significantly and positively correlated with pupil achievement. The recent educational survey shows around 50% attainment. The experiences of various countries suggest that a well-developed pre-service teacher education program and continue with the in service programs to raise the standards may facilitate quality improvement. Each country has evolved with interaction of its culture the types of teacher education programs that will meet the global needs along with the local requirement. In this paper, an attempt is made to reflect on programs in trend, experiences in practice and needs of the future as a globe for the human kind.

The modern society is growing with new needs and expectations. The population explosion has increased the need perception of basic needs of human being as hunger, clothing, shelter and education. These basic needs are in many countries the fundamental rights of the children. In India, a remarkable commitment was made in the year 2002 with the 86th Amendment to the Constitution (Constitution 86th Amendment Act 2002) inserted Article 21-A State shall provide early childhood care to all children up to the age of completion of 6 years. Education to 6–14 years old for all children as a Fundamental right. The education of preschool shall start from the age of 3 years and continue up to 6 years. In the year 2009, The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 was enacted. Rashtriya Madhyamic Shikshan Abhiyan was launched in the month of March 2009. The inclusive policy was also considered in the same year with the result April 1, 2010 Right to Education Act (RTE Act 2010) was implemented. In the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2007–2012) ECCE policy adopted integrated child development services was included.

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Children with special needs (2012–2013) about 771,000 schools have been provided with barrier free access. Some 3.6 million government school teachers have been given orientation on inclusive education through in-service teacher training while 2.6 million teachers have been provided 3–6 day specific training in inclusive education of CwSN. Besides, general teachers have also been oriented on specific disabilities/need (Education For All, 2014).

Teacher education in India emerged from various historical and socio-cultural traditions. It got formalized in the British behavioristic paradigm around 1930s. During the British period, teacher education was common for primary and secondary teachers. They were provided some stipend for undergoing training. The distinguishing features being the number of years of general education, i.e., graduate or postgraduate. The primary teachers trained were getting the Licentiate in Teaching (Diploma in Teaching), and secondary teachers trained were getting Bachelor of Training (B.T.). It was more considered training than education in terms of emphasis and practice. It was mostly school based in terms of teaching and practice. In the year 1955, the second annual teacher education conference held at Baroda changed the title of the degree from B.T. to B.Ed. This change was a change in perspective, planning and co-ordination of efforts for teachers to move toward an interdisciplinary foundation and practice. The duration of the teacher education remained as one year from 1935 to 2014 (79 years) in the Department of Education, Faculty of Education and Psychology, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara (Mani, 2015a). In the year 2015 A.D., Department of Education, Faculty of Education and Psychology, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara has adopted two year B.Ed program and two year M.Ed program to be in consonance with the NCTE norms.

The number of students taking up two year M.Ed throughout the country was around 10–20 as against the capacity of 50 as a unit. This observation made the NCTE to organize a committee meeting to consider reducing the length of the M.Ed. program. The recommendations of the committee were put forth before the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, New Delhi. It has not been able to formalize the policy decision due to further deliberation on this point.

Mode of teaching and quality: The traditional teacher education program has been mostly focusing on face-to-face mode of teaching (direct teaching). There is a strong belief among many teacher educators, policymakers and others that face-to-face mode of teaching and teacher education is going to bring quality improvement in comparison to other modes. The other belief that has strengthened recently has been more the number of years of professional education better would be the preparation for teacher education and research. With this view, NCTE has been planning 3 year integrated program and 4 year integrated program with more of research components, emerging technologies and some distance education features. The technology with reference to teaching and teacher education, for example, information and communication technology (ICT) has been well accepted in B.Ed (two years), M.Ed (two years) and the integrated teacher education programs across the country. This component is integrated into the teacher education curriculum. Most of the teacher education institutions in India accepted technology as universal change phenomena.

However, the dissatisfaction continued to persist for decades on improving quality as a concern and practice.

It is also argued by some teacher educators that technology per se may not show improvement in quality of teacher education. Teacher education program as a structure observed many changes as foundation, EPC courses, special areas and vocational components.

Integrated teacher education program/s: Integrated teacher education emerged as a better program, thus, Regional Colleges of Education and later Regional Institutes of Education at Mysore, Bhubaneswar, Bhopal, Ajmer have retained and improved the 4 year integrated B.Sc. B.Ed program. This 4 year integrated program has sustained for nearly 53 years (1964–2017). The 2 year integrated M.Sc. M.Ed program at Mysore (physics, chemistry, mathematics) and at Bhubaneswar (life sciences) has continued to sustain its presence in spite of many reviews. All the central universities in India have adopted 2 year integrated teacher education program gradually as a sequel to the uniform policy formulation for the country. The Central University of Rajasthan, Ajmer started a M.Sc. program of 2 years being integrated with the one year of education component being in service. The 2 year program is pre-service program and the education program of one year the trainee may continue to work in a nearby college or school and continue the studies.

This has double advantage of the trainee being exposed to practice rather early to integrate the principles of education and content knowledge (domain specific- physics, chemistry, mathematics). Further, the teacher trainee will have the freedom to work in two environments that may help him/her in the future to make a career.

The B.Sc. B.Ed program of Devi Ahilya University, Indore, M.Sc. program (software) of 2 years offered by SNDT Women's University, Mumbai was observed and appreciated as an innovative program but NCTE did not approve it or suggested for the revival of the program.

The 2 year B.Ed. and 2 year M.Ed program of IGNOU, New Delhi were thought of as an integrated distance education program with innovative features. However, the research studies and the experience of the professionals opine that there is no integration taking place per se. The colleges focusing on English language started as integrated program, for example, H.M. Patel Institute of English Training and Research, Vallabh Vidyanagar could establish integration in language education and played low tune for integration to foundation in education. In this sense, the language universities in India designing and developing teacher education could be said that they are more integral programs of language education, for example, Central Institute for English and Foreign Languages, Hyderabad.

Integrated programs as domain specification: The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, recently started a two year diploma course in science education for in service teachers and pre-service students. This course carefully planned planted in science, laboratory work, field studies, carried a heavy load of integral components to be related and reflected by the trainees. These quality programs need to take roots in rural areas to establish more integral relation and quality improvement.

The Ravi Matthai Institute, Indian Institute of Management, Ahmadabad, adopted nearby village and tried to provide the required services and training to the trainees and research personnel.

An INTEL program of Teach to the Future (2000) was accepted well in Asia by teachers, principals and teacher educators as a change. Similarly, the mobile technology has invaded the life, line, structure of teachers and teacher educators in personal life, communication, planning, co-ordination and to some extent in evaluation and tele-guidance.

B.Ed. (IGNOU), at A.G. Teachers' training college, Ahmadabad offered weekly one hour tele-guidance and solve the academic and administrative problems of teacher trainees. This was appreciated by the trainees as a responsive curriculum change. IGNOU, New Delhi offered Diploma in Higher education for nearly 25 years on sustainable basis including tele-teaching in studio that was incorporated. This was accepted for its novel features and experimental approach. Madurai Kamaraj University, Madurai and Annamalai University, Annamalai Nagar introduced tele-broadcasting for some programs (including teachers). Kerala state has a private channel for broadcasting. Although it is less used for education purposes. IGNOU, New Delhi accepted students for teacher training from agriculture (reviving the early tradition established by the Regional College of Education, Mysore, and later closed due to the Nag Chaudhuri committee report). It also opened the gates for the engineering to education. NCTE in its norms recently included it as a policy. The relative emphasis on teacher training focused more on primary and secondary level (from 1935 to 1986).

The National Policy on Education (1986) and the revised National Policy on Education (1992) brought a change in emphasis from secondary level to primary level. This was operationalized due to the constitutional commitment of the country for educating everyone from the age of 6–14 years. It was further reinforced by the efforts of Right to Education Act 2009. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan as a flagship program covered the entire country making a considerable progress of educating the children of 80%. The 100% literacy has been an achievable goal in a decade. During 2008–2009, the scheme was extended to cover children in upper primary classes and the scheme was renamed as 'National Program of Mid-day meal in Schools.' The program aims at (i) improving the nutritional status of children in classes I–VIII, (ii) encouraging poor children belonging to disadvantaged sections, to attend schools more regularly and help them concentrate on classroom activities and (iii) providing nutritional support to children at elementary stage of education in drought-affected areas during summer vacation. The National Program of Mid-day meal in schools is now covering all children studying in classes I–VIII in government, government aided and local body schools, National Child Labor projects schools, Madrasas and Maqtabas supported under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. The research in primary education increased after the NPE 1986 and searched almost every aspect of achievement and rural conditions of teaching and learning. The national surveys on achievement reveal points of improvement in languages, science, mathematics and environment.

The technology has been a moot point of development, for example, state of Andhra Pradesh introduced the Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation at the

upper primary level with relative success. The radio program that was introduced from the year 2012 is considered as a favorable attempt of change. The Ministry of Human Resource Development is introducing MOOC program (Massive Online Open Courses). CIET, New Delhi is providing the necessary video packaging and format for uploading the programs at the national level.

NCTE has been liberal in approving many teacher training institutions at primary and secondary level. However, they have been reviewing almost constantly resulting in declaration of closure of many teacher education institutions for the lack of infrastructure, staff, finance and other requirements according to the norms of NCTE 2013. The National Policy of Education 1986, initiated in 1987 the restructuring and reorganization of teacher education with a purpose of decentralized approach to professional preparation of teachers and envisaged the establishment of District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) in each district. At present, all the districts in India have DIETs. Initially, the DIET was given the responsibility to organize in service programs for elementary and secondary teachers to upgrade their content and skills of presentation and gain and share experiences of growth. Many DIETs are recognized to provide pre-service teacher education programs for elementary teachers. The colleges of teacher education (CTEs) were established one in each state to create a quality consciousness among teachers and build a mindset of progressive path to teacher education and children's education of quality.

CTE, Gujarat organized a national seminar on Higher Education in Perspectives, January 10, 2015, Vadodara: Faculty of Education and Psychology, The M.S. University of Baroda, Mahashikshak Sangh, U.G.C. sponsored.

Some of the colleges and departments of education were recognized as Institutes of Advanced Study in Education (IASEs) to provide for the challenges of growth, professional preparation for development at the local level. There have been seminars, workshops and in-service programs to build the capacities of teachers and promote a feeling of network of individuals for professional contributions to meet needs and aspirations of people. For example, IASE, Department of Education, Faculty of education and psychology, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara has the following activities to report:

1. Published a book Patel, R. C. Mistry, H. S. and Chaudhuri, P 2018 Inclusive education in India-Issues and Concerns, Vadodara, IASE, ISBN No. 978-93-5291-706-8.
2. Another book detailing the progress of IASE reads as: Patel, R.C. and Mistry, H.S Institute of Advanced Studies in Education IASE: A Profile, Vadodara: Department of education, Faculty of education and psychology, The Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, ISBN No.978-93-5258-796-4.
3. Workshops were organized for utilization of technology for teacher and constructive lesson planning.
4. Organized an educational tour to Gujarat Council for Educational Research and Training, Bhaskara Institute for Space and Geo Informatics, Gandhinagar and Institute of Teacher Education, Gandhinagar. Some innovative practices in elementary education were discussed at IATE, Gandhinagar. DIET, Gandhinagar,

introduced teacher trainees to programs, activities and Gandhian way of teacher training. Students took interest in the activities and collected momentous as 'Charka.' (made out of wood, a working model).

ISRO, Bangalore and education: ISRO, Bangalore and Developmental Communication Unit, Ahmadabad has been telecasting programs in Hindi in Uttar Pradesh at primary level with relative success. The experiment of EDUSAT in Madhya Pradesh has been considered as a success in achievement. The recent efforts of SAT programs of BISAG along with the SCERT, Gandhinagar in launching the five educational television channels for teacher training, teaching and research have been a value addition to the education and teacher education. The important feature is that the programs are beamed in the regional language, i.e., Gujarati. Hindi and English are the two main languages used for beaming the national programs.

ISRO, Bangalore recently tried to provide the remote sensing program to teachers (geography) across the country. The entire country was divided into five regions, North, West, East, South and Central. It took almost one year for ISRO to train the teachers in service effectively. Around five teachers were selected and deputed for the purpose from each school participating in the program.

ISRO along with the NCERT, New Delhi launched a tele-broadcasting in-service education of teachers in Karnataka state with relative success. This has a special feature of the two-way communication with the participants from the centers selected and studios.

Teacher education through NGO's: There are several institutions that have focused on in-service teacher education for improvement, for example, Ekalavya, Hoshangabad, Madhya Pradesh. The Science Center, Meghalaya developed gross root relations with the north-east teachers and students. Homi Bhabha Center for Science Education, Tifr, Mankhurd, Mumbai organized in-service programs for science teachers in Arunachal Pradesh, and collaborated with the GCERT, Gandhinagar in providing the in-service teacher education for the science teachers. Dr. Vikram Sarabhai Community Science Center, Ahmadabad has been providing the in-service education for science teachers and students through continuous interaction with scientists, technologists and laboratory work from primary level to the undergraduate level for students and teachers. They have introduced a mobile science education program in which teachers, students and scientists go in a mobile laboratory van to the nearby rural area to provide the on-hand experience in the experimentation to students and teachers on every Saturday and Sunday. This innovative feature is highly appreciated by students, teachers and the participants.

Banasthali Vidyapith, Banasthali near Jaipur has developed an inquiry mode of teacher education program with medium of instruction being Hindi. This program is named ANWESHKA. Student and teachers start thinking of a purpose and content start inquiring about the process and this thinking process is role played, rehearsed, to record the events and results. This way of hypothesizing, thinking, problem-solving approach makes the learners explorers of truth. The freedom provided for the exploration results in more autonomy among the students and co-operative thinking takes place.

UNESCO considers teachers as the one of the most influential and powerful force for equity, access and quality in education and key to sustainable global development. However, their training, recruitment, retention, status and working conditions remain preoccupying. The numbers of educational institutions are increasing at all levels with an increased need for well-trained teachers. The shortages of teachers are felt in most of the institutions for more than one reason within and outside. This phenomenon is observed globally, for example, UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) states that 69 million teachers' must be recruited to achieve universal primary and secondary education by 2030. UNESCO has made the supply of well trained, supported and qualified teachers a one of its top priorities. The focus is clear and reinforced by Sustainable Development Goal 4: Quality Education through the Education 2030 Framework for Action, which has a target calling for a substantial increase in qualified teachers through the betterment of their training, recruitment, retention, status, working conditions and motivation (target 4c). UNESCO hosts the International Task Force on Teachers for Education 2030 and they work together to address the 'teacher gap' as well as the issues raised in target 4c and the Incheon Declaration, which specifically calls for Member States to 'ensure that teachers and educators are empowered, adequately recruited, well trained, professionally qualified, motivated and supported within well resourced, efficient and effectively governed systems.'

UNESCO's work regarding the development of teachers mainly focuses on five areas. They are:

- Monitoring of International normative instruments regarding the teaching profession;
- Supporting member states in the development and review of teacher policies and strategies;
- Developing capacities for enhancing the quality of teaching and learning;
- Improving the knowledge and evidence base for the implementation and monitoring of the teacher target in Education 2030; and
- Undertaking advocacy and knowledge sharing for the promotion of quality teaching and learning.

Technology in the aid of education is observed with media playing an important role in development. The growth and influence of TV on education Egan, J. 2018 in the title the changing face of TV across the globe states the media in USA is quickly going international, with the global over-the-top (OTT) media services in market such as Netflix or Hulu, through computers, mobile devices and digital media players like Apple TV. The streaming platforms have increased and becoming independent such as ESPN, Disney. Facebook is going to become more global.

The players globally may stream from Hong Kong to Havana. A report on research and markets last year found that revenues from streaming online television Episodes and movies across 138 countries will hit \$83 billion in 2022. Americans will be the largest consumers of streaming. US Companies Netflix, Amazon and Disney, alongside Chinese giant Alibaba, are expected to continue their domination over OTT but the global market will open for others also.

Netflix, Amazon and Hulu owned by Disney after its acquisition of FOX in December 2017 have been the original streamer. Social media services like Facebook, Twitter and Snapchat are beginning to move from hosting user-generated video content to partnering with studios and broadcasters to bring exclusive content to their combined billions of users. Facebook plans to produce shows that incorporate a virtual reality element. Google's YouTube Red is producing episodes that defy formats like the half-hour comedy and the one hour drama that have long defined television.

Facebook's strategy involves producing two categories of shows, which include long-form traditional programs such as Netflix's program *House of Cards*, of ten minutes duration and refresh every 24 h. Steve Tulman wrote as an analyst about Facebook 'It is uncertain how Facebook intends to monetize through this platform, but I suspect that they will rely on advertising revenue from in-show ads, rather than follow Netflix's paid subscription model.'

The other players: Television broadcasts (TVB), Hong Kong launched an OTT platform last year and inked deals with Chinese companies like Tencent and iQiyi to produce original content including a new drama series.

HBO channels will explore Latin America and Asia. The company produces original content for specific audiences in nations spanning from Mexico to Hungary and Myanmar. The much of the growth is with OTT, particularly for millennials. 'The growth of OTT is really fueling the growth of HBO Europe.' HBO Europe CEO Herve Payan told variety 'The traditional [linear] business is also growing but OTT is booming.' Channels, Thought Leaders are becoming the key to success.

National knowledge commission recommended broadband connectivity of all universities and research institutions in India. As a sequel, in March 2010, the Cabinet Committee on Infrastructure (CCI) approved the establishment of the National Knowledge Network (NKN) at an outlay of Rs. 5990 Crore, to be implemented by NIC over a period of 10 years. NKN with its multigigabit capability aims to connect all universities, research institutions, libraries, laboratories, health care and agricultural institutions across the country to address such paradigm shift. NKN has already connected 1502 institutions (AIU, 2015).

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Correction to: METAGOGY: Towards a Contemporary Adult Education Praxis



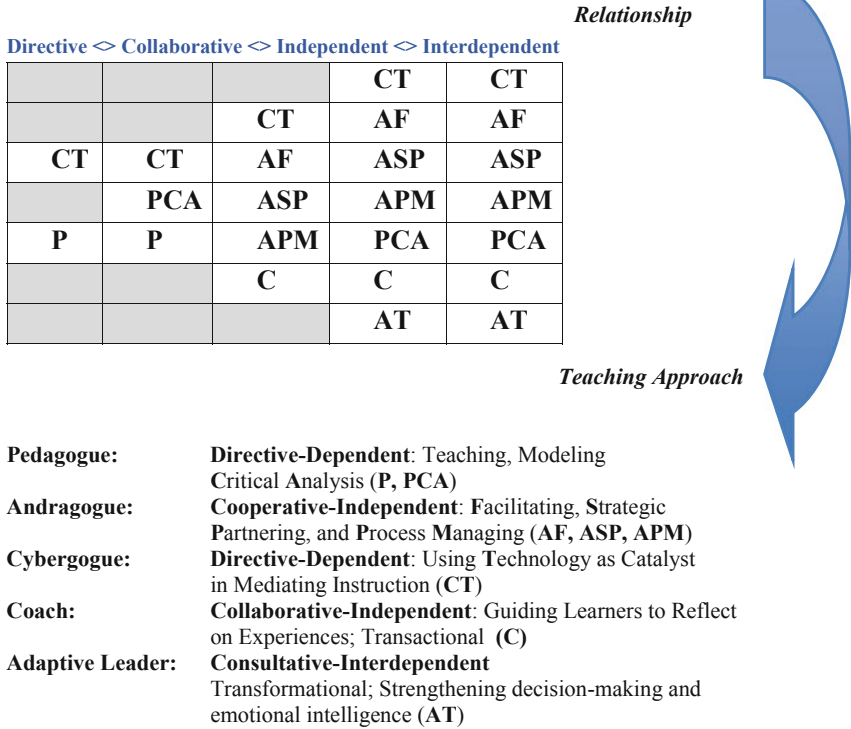
Gabriele Strohschen and Kenneth Elazier

Correction to:
Chapter “METAGOGY: Towards a Contemporary Adult Education Praxis” in: K. Pushpanadham (ed.),
Teacher Education in the Global Era,
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In the original version of the book, the author provided figure 4 correction was missed to incorporate it in the chapter “METAGOGY: Towards a Contemporary Adult Education Praxis”. The chapter and book have been updated with the changes.

The updated version of this chapter can be found at
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(Strohschen & Elazier, 2005; Strohschen, 2009. Graphic rev. Strohschen 2019)

Fig. 4 Learning–Teaching Spectrum