GOETE | Governance of Educational Trajectories in Europe

deliverables

Comparative report teacher training

Deliverable No. 16

Work package No. 3

Responsible partner:

University of Tübingen, University of Amsterdam

Authors:

Colin Cramer
Thorsten Bohl
Manuela du Bois-Reymond

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Coordinator: Prof. Dr. Andreas Walther, University of Frankfurt

Contents

1 Basic idea and design

1.1 Objectives and research questions

The present GOETE report – Work Package 3, hereafter WP3 – is about comparative analysis of the organisation of teacher training in the respective countries in terms of contents, relation to school practice, education policy, and relationships with other educational actors. These objectives lead to two main research questions: (1) What are similarities and differences in the structure of teacher training between the countries? (2) In which way does teacher training prepare future teachers for the handling of and the coping with educational disadvantage?

1.2 Description of work

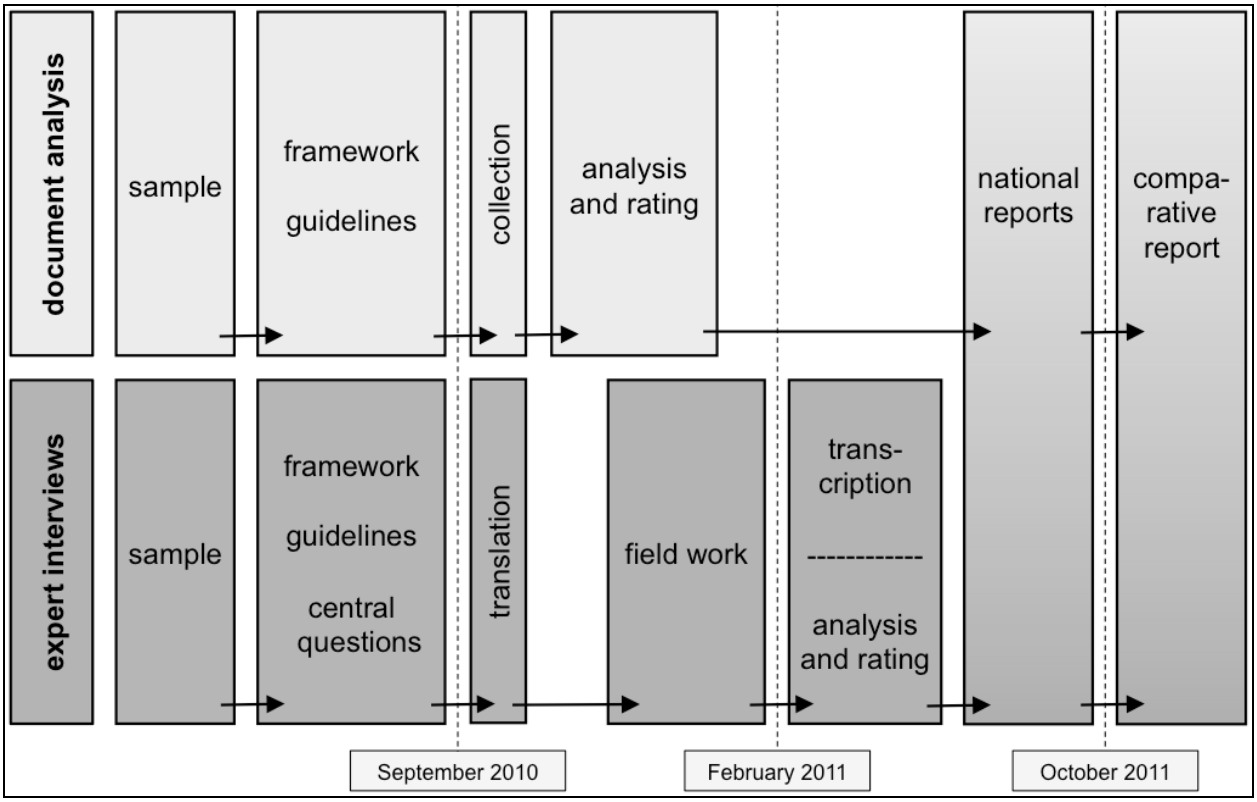
The research is based on three major sources: questionnaires filled in by the GOETE partners, document analysis and expert interviews. The focus is on lower secondary education within the age group of 10 to 16 years.

Right after the project's kick-off in January 2010, work package leaders and core group delivered a *questionnaire* to all partners on the structure and organisation of teacher training in each participating country. Questionnaire data served as background information and allowed us to raise questions regarding five thematic perspectives in the expert interviews: *access, coping, governance, life course and relevance of education*. All partners completed the questionnaire during the first year of the project. Document analysis and expert interviews were based on this preliminary information.

All research instruments were constructed in a recurrent and collective process that aimed at allowing both for comparability of data and findings and flexibility and adaptability to the different national and regional contexts of the research in the GOETE countries. During the first half of 2010, work package leaders and core partners developed a framework for the fieldwork (document analysis and expert interviews). The sample was determined according to the main project tenets (see WP2 State of the Art Report). Guidelines for conducting *document analysis and expert interviews* were generated (see Figure 1). For both, expert interviews and document analysis, the framework consisted of the exploration of four research categories (see 1.3.1). Regarding expert interviews, the guidelines defined central questions in order to allow comparison of the experts' answers. GOETE partners responded to the two proposals. The core team made necessary revisions to come to common agreement. At the project meeting at Ljubljana (June 2010) the research process was further discussed with all WP3 team members.

During the second half of 2010 empirical fieldwork took place. Documents were collected and analysed, expert interviews conducted. An "emerging-issues" paper (deliverable 7) was produced on the basis of first findings and delivered by January 2011. During Spring 2011, the audio files of the interviews were transcribed, coded and analysed, followed by a reporting period. A draft structure of *national reports* was discussed and approved during the Bologna meeting (February 2011) and first drafts of *national reports* were delivered to core group leaders by July 2011. The final report was finished in October 2011 (see deliverable 11). The last months of year 2011 were spent for writing the present *comparative report,* whose structure has been discussed at the Turku meeting (July 2011) and accepted by all partners. A draft version of the comparative report was discussed during the consortium meeting in Rennes (February 2012), leading to the production of this final version.

Figure 1: Task schedule



1.3 Scope and quality of data

1.3.1 Data description

There are four main data-sources in WP3. The first two sources (questionnaire and quantitative scales) build a descriptive and contextual frame for comparison, but are not part of juxtaposition. Sources three and four (document analysis and expert interviews) provide the main data for international comparison.

Data from questionnaires and quantitative scales as background for comparison

Preliminary framework of the empirical fieldwork regarding the comparison of teacher training was provided by the country reports (WP2), describing the overall educational situation and the education systems of the involved GOETE countries. With closer relation to WP3, *firstly* there is data from a *questionnaire* which all partners filled in order to gather relevant information on the structure and organisation of teacher training. The data offer an overview of the structures and organisational issues in an international synopsis (e.g., by using tables). Important aspects of the questionnaire are for instance the student-teacher-ratio, the description of courses, the selection of teachers, current reforms or major public and scientific discourses.

Secondly, we implemented *quantitative scales* in WP4 and WP5 with regard to core interests of WP3 (preparation of teachers handling educational disadvantage). The scales were developed out of the specific interest of WP3. In the WP4 survey with pupils, a scale about the frequency of several teaching and learning arrangements was added. It shows if pupils' current teachers use methods that allow to differentiate and to support individual learning in class. The same scale was used in the WP5 school principals' survey. In this survey, a second scale about the principals' estimation of preparation of current teachers in their schools to handle educational disadvantage (corresponding to the four dimensions operationalized in document analysis and

expert interviews) was added. A third scale asks about the principals understanding of educational support (supporting the weakest, strongest or both in the same way?). A last scale operationalizes to which extent principals support students in their school and job career or how divergent is the understanding of educational disadvantage across teachers.

Both sources, questionnaires and scales, allow references of the results of comparison (document analysis and expert interviews). They show a further perspective confronting the outcomes of comparative analysis regarding teacher training with the view of school principals (scales) and as well as localising and explaining them in their structural and organisational context (questionnaires).

Data from document analysis and expert interviews as scope of comparison

As documented in the GOETE research proposal, the two main sources were *document analysis* and *expert interviews*. The basic idea regarding both sources was to figure out, how far the four dimensions presented below provide an indication of the extent and quality of how teacher training prepares future teachers for handling and coping with educational disadvantage of their future pupils. A teacher training programme that does not imply at least one of the dimensions' contents would probably not have the ability to guide future teachers in handling educational disadvantage. Because the same dimensions were used within document analysis and expert interviews, a comparison of both sources is possible. The four dimensions are:

- knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage;
- diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes;
- individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom;
- school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.

The four dimensions cover what WP3 can contribute to the thematic analysis (WP8). They consider aspects of access (dimension 1), coping (dimensions 2, 3 and 4), life course (dimension 4), governance (dimensions 1 and 4) and relevance (dimensions 2 and 4).

Empirical fieldwork was based on two strategies. *Firstly*, document analysis to offer more detailed material of how teacher training is linked to the GOETE research questions: how are teacher students prepared to handle the educational disadvantage of pupils? *Secondly*, expert interviews provided an in-depth view on the organisation and conditions of teacher training and how it accounts for educational disadvantaged pupils. How does teacher training provide future teachers with knowledge and skills necessary to understand and cope with educational disadvantage in schools?

The research instruments consisted of guidelines for conducting document analyses and expert interviews. All sample decisions were taken on basis of these guidelines. Sections 1.3.2 and 1.3.3 present an overview of the sampling of both data sources (see also emerging-issues-paper; deliverable 7.) Documents and expert interviews were analysed based on content analysis (Kohlbacher, 2006; Mayring, 2008) and interpreted in relation to country reports (WP2) and emerging issues.

Data sources and corresponding research topics

Table 1 outlines the sources that provided data for the empirical work. The structural and organisational information on teacher training is based mainly on literature research and the questionnaire filled in by each partner at the beginning of the project. Document analyses and expert interviews focussed more on issues of preparing teachers to handle educational disadvantage. The scales implemented in WP4 and WP5 are not included in the table.

Table 1: Data sources and research topics

Research topics	Data sources			
	Literature (incl. WP2)	Question-naire	Document analysis	Expert interviews
1. Background information about teachers				
a) Number of teachers	X			
b) Age distribution of teachers	X			
c) Demographic profile (age, gender, ethnicity)	X			
d) Salaries	X			
e) Status of working teachers (civil servants or ordinary appointees)	X	X		
f) Image and status of teaching profession (social prestige)	X	X		
g) Student-teacher-ratio	X			
h) Teacher assistants (existence, training, role, duties)		X		X
2. Structure of initial teacher training				
a) Organization of teacher training programs (name/ type/ level/ training institution/ enrolled in/ practical elements/ duration/ final degree/ tuition fee/ courses/ admission criteria/ number of graduates)	X	X	X	X
b) Visualisation of teacher training system (figure/ map)		X		
c) Major discourses (public/ scientific)	X	X		X
d) Key contents of modern teacher training				X
e) Main problems of teacher training				X
f) Main teaching and learning approaches	X	X	X	
g) Balance between theoretical training at university and practical training in schools (quality, timing, coordination)				X
3. Governance of teacher training				
a) Teacher training curricula and school curricula (development, links)		X		X
b) Link between public discourse and the reform of teacher training curricula				X
c) Cooperation with external actors in the planning and delivery of teacher training/ curriculum development (e.g., employers, youth and welfare services, churches, non-formal education)	X	X		X
d) Responsibility for accrediting a teacher education program	X	X		
e) Impact of shortages or oversupply of teachers on teacher training institutes (e.g., lowering standards, shorter routes, incentives to attract candidates)				X
f) Standards for teacher training (development, experiences, quality assurance)	X			X
g) Inspection/ Evaluation of teacher training system		X		X
h) Assessment of future teachers (how they are judged on their teaching skills, professional conduct and appropriateness of their interactions with students)		X	X	X
i) Recent reforms and restructuring trends	X	X		X
4. Teacher appointment				
a) Recruitment/ retention of future teachers (selection, distribution of graduates)		X		X
b) Responsibility for awarding a qualified teacher status (QTS)		X		X
c) Full certification (regular program) versus alternative ways of become teacher		X		X
d) Job opportunities		X		X
5. Professional development				
a) Structure, organization and contents of professional development activities	X		X	X
b) Minimum legal requirements of professional development for teachers	X		X	
c) Balance of initial teacher training and professional development	X		X	X
6. Teacher training and educational disadvantage				
a) Diversity of teacher students and teacher trainers				X
b) Relation between the public discourse around educational disadvantage of students in schools and teacher training				X
c) Definition of disadvantaged youth; ways they are disadvantaged				X
d) Characteristics of teachers who are going to teach disadvantaged students				X
7. Preparing future teachers to cope with educational disadvantage of their students				
a) Coverage of the following contents by the teacher education curricula • knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage • diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes • individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom • school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school			X	X
b) change of importance of these contents in recent years (increasing/decreasing)				X
c) delivery of these contents in teacher training programs of single institutions				X
d) thoroughness and intensity of coverage of these contents				X

1.3.2 Document analysis

Conducting *document analysis* meant:

- searching for the key words given in the four dimensions (using manual or, if files available, automatic search);
- searching for parts of the documents that cover the four dimensions correspondingly without using the exact terms. The key words are underlined;
- writing down aspects that were not covered by the categories, but were associated with the overall question of preparing teachers for handling and coping with educational disadvantage of their (future) pupils.

The guidelines for document analysis defined sample criteria according to the overall decision to conduct research in three different regions per country – one affluent, one deprived and one average. With focus on the training for lower secondary teaching posts, the following types of documents were selected as best providing information on the GOETE objectives:

- National policy guidelines regarding teacher training (e.g., »Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training« in the UK)
- In *each* of the three regions and their corresponding cities/institutions:
- Regional policy guidelines (if applicable)
- Examination regulations and corresponding guidelines of the main teacher training institutions
- Programmes for professional development offered

Examination regulations were defined as the lowest level of legal guidelines for teacher training at a single teacher training institution. Corresponding guidelines like module handbooks define the curriculum of a single teacher training institution considering the examination regulations.

A total of 118 documents has been sampled in the eight participating countries. Table 2 shows types and numbers of documents as well as their allocation to the national and different regional levels.

Table 2: Types and number of analysed documents

		Finland	France	Germany	Italy	Netherlands	Poland	Slovenia	United Kingdom	Total	
National level	National policy guidelines	7	3	3	7	6	2	4	–	26	
	Program for professional development	0	2	–	1	2	–	1	–	4	35
	Examination regulations/standards	–	0	–	–	–	5	–	–	5	
Region 1	Regional policy guidelines	–	–	0	1	–	–	–	9	10	
	Program for professional development	0	–	1	1	–	1	–	0	3	37
	Examination regulations/module handbooks	2	–	8	6	4	1	6	1	24	
Region 2	Regional policy guidelines	–	–	3	1	–	–	–	3	7	
	Program for professional development	0	–	1	0	–	1	–	0	2	15
	Examination regulations/module handbooks	2	–	2	0	3	1	1	0	6	
Region 3	Regional policy guidelines	–	–	0	2	–	–	–	3	5	
	Program for professional development	0	–	1	0	–	–	–	0	1	14
	Examination regulations/module handbooks	2	–	3	0	2	–	1	2	8	
Total		**13**	**5**	**22**	**19**	**17**	**11**	**13**	**18**	**118**	**118**

The number of analyzed documents varies between countries, ranging from 5 to 22. Not every partner had the same database to their disposal. A detailed documentation has not been given in every case. Results of document analysis are therefore not comparable on the level of single documents. Also, the variety is too broad and data is too heterogeneous for direct comparisons (document by document). National reports show that the content of documents is often worked into the overall analysis of the respective chapters and topics. A second limitation of compara-

tive potential results from the variation of analysed documents between regions. The reason is that some partners oversampled their first region (maybe they had easier access to documents in the region they work/live in), while the second and/or third region was neglected. International comparison with regard to the regional level is difficult to conduct. It seems to be impossible to compare, for instance, the national level in France with one of the regional levels in Slovenia, because the regional levels cover a very heterogeneous choice of documents and experts that are not representative for regional level. Instead, it will be the challenge to figure out what is typical for the documents on national or regional level (of course different between countries) and to compare those patterns. Both restrictions imply that comparative analysis will have to compare aggregated data from documents on the basis of national reports along the four dimensions. These are the common basis for comparison. The comparative report has to deal with the fact that some countries (especially Germany and the United Kingdom) have different teacher training systems between nations (England/Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland in the UK) or federal states (16 Länder in Germany). These differences are displayed within the heterogeneity of documents selected and between the interviewed experts. However, the single teacher training systems situation explains the overall rationale of the mainstream of teacher training in the respective countries.

1.3.3 Expert interviews

For the *expert interviews* (Bogner/Menz, 2001), the following guidelines were established to guarantee country comparison: audio-recording (e.g., mp3 files); transcription of all interviews; translation of key parts of the interviews into English; half-page summary of every interview in English; national analysis via standardized codings (if reasonable possibly software-based, e.g., atlas.ti or MAXQDA); central questions had to be translated and asked the experts literally. Expert interviews consisted of three parts. While the first and second parts were compulsory to all partners, the third part was designed individually by each partner with view to their specific conditions and interests. This more open approach allowed flexibility in the interview. The order of topics could be changed, but all topics had to be covered during the conversation.

In case of *expert interviews*, in a first part the following dimensions were covered:

- key contents and main problems of teacher training;
- recent reforms and restructuring trends;
- diversity of teacher students and teacher trainers;
- relation between the public discourse around educational disadvantage of pupils and teacher training;
- definition of disadvantaged youth and ways they are disadvantaged;
- full certification alternative ways of training, impact of teacher shortages on teacher training institutes;
- assessment of future teachers;
- balance of initial teacher training at university and professional development in service;
- balance between theoretical and practical training, standards, recruitment and retention of future teachers;
- characteristics of teachers who are going to teach disadvantaged pupils; and
- how and to what extent the public discourse affects the reform of teacher training curricula.

The second part of the interviews was organized along central questions regarding the preparation of future teachers to handle educational disadvantage. Experts were asked the following issues with regard to the four dimensions (see 1.3.1):

- how the importance of the dimensions changed in recent years;
- how the dimensions are delivered in teacher training;
- how the achievement of these dimensions is ensured and evaluated;

- how thoroughly the following dimensions are covered by teacher training, and how many courses/seminars pay explicit attention to them.

The focus of expert interviews was on lower secondary teacher training and schools in deprived areas. Minimum requirement was a total of N=7 interviews per country. During the Bologna meeting (February 2011), the consortium established detailed rules for selecting experts. It was obligatory that the sample included:

- 1 national/regional administrative representative
- In at least two of the three regions and their corresponding institutions:
- 1 institutional representative of theoretical training
- 1 institutional representative of practical training
- 1 teacher trainer (professor/lecturer at university)

In some countries the representatives of theoretical training were teacher trainers (professors/lecturers) at the same time (e.g., Germany). Those partners interviewed experts in all three regions. Countries that had to differentiate between representatives of theoretical training and teacher trainers were allowed to limit their fieldwork to two regions. The consortium decided that interviewing representatives from all categories was more important than having all regions covered. In many countries teacher training is not organised regional anyway. Most partners raised the number of interviews to cover all regions.

A total number of 65 experts were interviewed. Table 3 shows the sample decisions of the research countries, taking into account the level (national/regional), the match according to sample criteria (e.g., national administrative responsible, see annotations) and the function of the interviewed experts (e.g., institutional position).

In national reports, the number and extent of provided interview data (citations) varies substantially. Some countries provide much interview material and use the answers of the interviewees (e.g., Germany, Italy, Slovenia) while others provide less interview data and their argumentation is more implicitly based on the experts' voices (e.g., France or United Kingdom). This is why international comparison cannot be based on the original empirical data, but must instead rely on the explanations and argumentation given in the national reports. Thus, it will not be possible to make direct comparisons between the views of different actors, i.e., administrative responsible or representatives of practical training. Comparison will therefore be on the aggregated statements of all experts of a country. If they have different views, the predominant view was chosen on the basis of the most often used argumentation. This is also a consequence of national reports that often did not confront different opinions of experts but rather chose for convincing answers of experts to illustrate the author's argumentation. In this respect, the quality of national reports is often not sufficient to come to an in-depth comparison.

Despite these restrictions it must be emphasized that the focus of WP3 is not so much on getting a detailed understanding of different approaches to teacher training, but more on an understanding of how experts review teacher training regarding its possibilities to prepare future teachers for their tasks to support educational disadvantaged pupils. For that reason, interviewing experts with different approaches was fruitful to get a broad basis of estimations and opinions. Because of the nature of teacher training, which is often organised on national level, a comparison between the expert's answers of different regions is not possible and not even reasonable.

For the expert interviews as well as for the analysed documents, the challenge will be to come to comparable ideas of teacher training (similarities and differences). Without such abstraction from the single voice of experts and from the single document, juxtaposition of overall similarities and differences would not be possible. The four dimensions can be used to organise the data of both, document analysis and expert interviews while analysing and comparing them. Later on, the four dimensions will be retranslated into the five thematic perspectives (see 3.1).

Table 3: Level, sample criteria and function of interviewed experts

	Level	Criteria	Sampled person (function)
Finland	National	1	Councellor of Education, Ministry of Education and Culture
	Region 1	3	Lecturer, Department of Teacher Education, University
		4	Teacher (Training School)
	Region 2	3	Professor, Department of Teacher Education, University
		4	Vice Principal (Training School)
	Region 3	3	Lecturer, Department of Teacher education, University
		4	Teacher (Training School)
France	National	2	Responsible for professional development, Rectorat (regional)
		3/4	Head of IUFM
		3/3	4Ex-head of IUFM
	Region 1	4	Head of second teacher training in IUFM
		3	Head of second teacher training in IUFM
		3	Professor of sociology at IUFM
	Region 2	3/4	Head of IUFM
		3	Head of second teacher training in IUFM
		4	Head of second teacher training in IUFM
		3	Lecturer, responsible for vocational training in IUFM
Germany	Baden-Württemberg	2	Head of division for teacher education (Ministry)
		3	Professor of school pedagogy at the (University of Education)
		4	Director (Academy of Didactics and Teacher Educatio)
	North Rhine-Westphalia	2	Head of division for teacher education (Ministry)
		3	Professor of school pedagogy and general didactics (University)
		4	Director (Academy of Teacher Training)
	Saxony	2	Head of division for teacher education (Ministry)
		3	Professor of general didactics and school pedagogy (University)
		4	Head of division (Saxonian Educational Agency)
Italy	Emilia-Romagna	2	Former Administrative Head of SSIS Bologna
		3	Former Director of SSIS Bologna
		4	Former Professor and Head of the Placement Commission at SSIS Bologna
		4	Former Placement Tutor at SSIS Bologna
	Marche	3	Former Director of SSIS Macerata
		4	Former Head of Placement at SSIS Macerata
	Sicilia	3	Former Director of SSIS Catania
		4	Former Placement Tutor at SSIS Catania
Netherlands	National	1	Employee of Min. Education/dep. teacher training
		1	Member Council Higher Professional Education/domain vocational education
	Arnhem/Elst	1	Teacher trainer subject didactics
		1	Former teacher, head of general subjects of teacher training
	Amsterdam	1	Former teacher; head management and personnel
		1	Dean domain pedagogy
	Rotterdam	1	Head of Institute of Teacher Training
Poland	National	1	Minister of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education
		1	Director of General Education in the Ministry of National Education
	Warsaw	3	Director of Mazovia Local Government Centre of Professional Training for Teachers
		4	Senior doctor lecturer, professor; dean of Faculty of Education (university)
		3	Lecturer at the Faculty of Education (University)
	Lublin	3	Director (Lublin voivodeship Local Government Centre of Profes. Training for Teachers
		4	Senior doctor lecturer, dean of the Faculty of Education and Psychology (university)
		3	Lecturer at the Faculty of Education and Psychology (university)
Slovenia	National	1	Ministry of Education/Sport, head of Service for Development of Personnel in Education
		1	The National Education Institute, head of Professional development Centre
		1	Head secretary of Education, Science and Culture Trade Union of Slovenia
		1	Ministry of Higher Educ., Science and Technology, head of Higher Education Directorate
		1	Slovenian Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education
	Ljubljana	3/4	Deputy dean for study programmes and Economic Affairs, Faculty of Arts (university)
		3/4	Coordinator (study programme for pedagogical-andragogical education) (university)
	Maribor	3/4	Deputy dean at the Education Sector, Faculty of Arts (university)
	Primorska	3/4	Deputy dean for study programmes, Faculty of Education (university)
United Kingdom	Northern Ireland	3/4	Teacher Educator (higher education institution)
		3/4	Teacher Educator (higher education institution)
	England	3/4	Teacher Educator (higher education institution)
		4	School Head Teacher (principal; state funded secondary school)
		2	Educational Authority representative for science education (local educational authority)
		4	Additional interview and survey data from *Trainee Teachers* project
	Scotland	4	Additional interview and survey data from *Trainee Teachers* project

Annotation: Some regions (level) are not named explicitly (higher level of anonymity needed in some countries).
Abbreviations: 1 = national administrative representative; 2 = regional administrative representative;
3 = institutional representative of theoretical training and/or teacher trainer (professor at university);
4 = institutional representative of practical training

1.3.4 The rationale, methodology and potentials of the national reports

National reports were prepared on the basis of the data from the four sources described above. In a first chapter, they give an account of the sample (document analysis and expert interviews). Chapter 2 was about background information on teachers (e.g., number of teachers, salaries, job opportunities or professional status). The third chapter described the initial teacher training (e.g., organisation, contents, problems, balance of theory and practice). Chapter 4 explains the structure and contents of professional development. Governance of teacher training is the issue of chapter 5 (e.g., curricula, cooperation, recruitment and selection, standards, reforms). In chapter 6, the diversity of teacher students, expert's definition of disadvantaged youth and the preparation of future teachers to cope with educational disadvantage of their pupils are examined. Chapter 7 provides a summary and discusses the results. In chapter 8, partners were required to rate selected findings of chapters 1 to 7 on Likert-scales to identify overall correlations. At least, document analysis and expert interviews had to be documented in chapter 9.

National reports vary regarding length and density. Not all partners followed the predefined guidelines for conducting document analysis and expert interviews in the same way. Some of them cited interviewees only partially; one did not document its interviews by summaries. Documents were analysed more or less in-depth, using key word search or only using the information implicitly while writing the report and building the argumentation. Partners often do not clearly distinct between reporting information resulting from document analysis or out of expert interviews. This is because different experts (e.g., national administrative representatives and teacher trainers at university) often could not provide information on the same questions. So it is not possible to compare different views of different actors in every aspect. The sources will be discriminated during analysis whenever possible. The same situation is given with the analysed documents. They are diverse and do not provide information on the same issues. Documents and interviews complement each other – and documents as well as interviews complement among themselves. This is why comparing the sources or actors is not possible. It is also not intended by the WP3 design according to the proposal. Different to other work packages (e.g., WP7 high level governance analysis), WP3 is not about understanding the argumentation and perspective of different actors, it is about combining information from different sources and actors to get a preferably broad understanding of how teacher training is related to access, coping, governance life course and relevance at GOETE's main thematic perspectives.

1.4 Comparative analysis

1.4.1 Research questions for comparison

Research questions to be addressed in WP3 were developed in accordance to the overall research matrix in GOETE. This section discusses the question whether these can be answered by the data produced in WP3. The questions included in the overall research matrix (see table below) have been cross checked with those in the national reports in order to assess whether we will be able to address them.

Table 4 summarizes those questions that can be answered, can be answered only partially or cannot be answered by the data provided national reports and discusses the reasons for this. In the case of international comparison, the questions that can (potentially) be answered are fully incorporated in the operationalization process.

Table 4: Possible questions for the comparative report

Research Questions	Yes	No	Potentially	How
1) To what extent does teacher training reflect general structures of education and training systems?	yes			on basis of the descriptions within the questionnaires
2) Are the transitions into and out of different educational phases dealt with by teacher training?	yes			on basis of the results of document analyses and expert interviews regarding dimension 4: school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.
3a) (How) are issues of disadvantage and diversity addressed in teacher training?	yes			on basis of all four dimensions that guided document analyses and expert interviews
3b) To what extent are teachers aware of the reproductive role of education?		no		answer would be hypothetic: researched documents and experts voices are not about teachers in service, secondly neither teachers or teacher students haven been asked by themselves
4a) Is education addressed primarily/only in terms of instruction or also in terms of support?	yes			dimensions 2 to 4 imply the question of supporting pupils: if those dimensions are addressed sufficiently, education in teacher training is more than instruction
4b) What is the relation between learning-oriented and social support?		no		experts were not asked in this regard; some vague assumptions might be possible on basis of interviews
4c) Is cooperation with external cooperation partners (and with parents) an issue in teacher training?	yes			on basis of structural information from questionnaires as well as document analysis and expert interviews
5a) (How) is the origin and societal function of educational contents, goals and standards reflected in teacher training?			yes	on basis of expert interviews; limited to function of contents, goals and standards; few data in some countries
5b) How are students' and parents' expectations and motivational processes addressed?		no		this was never part of the operationalization; thus no correspondent data is available
6) To what extent are changes in educational policy and the interaction between different actors at different level dealt with in teacher training?			yes	limited to information on teacher training reforms (questionnaire) and to curricula development (questionnaire and expert interviews)

1.4.2 Dimensions of comparative work

On the basis of a synopsis of how teacher training in the GOETE countries prepares future teachers to handle educational disadvantage of their prospective pupils (along the four dimensions), structures, processes or constellations will be compared and related against the backdrop. These abstract similarities and differences itself are the basis for comparison, not the originally raw data that has been described. Juxtaposition is part of the present comparative report (chapter 2). WP3 offers juxtaposition by an abstraction of the structural and organisational information on teacher training as well as by organising data from documents and interviews on the basis of the four dimensions (see 1.3.1) that are used as categories for systematic analysis. This leads to a national/regional portrait of the eight countries under focus of teacher training.

Comparison then covers the simultaneous treatment and analysis of the extracted similarities and differences that result from unifying concepts and hypotheses. It tries to explain these particular phenomena by building typologies (see 3.2). A challenge of this report is to come to such a type-based understanding of teacher training while comparing eight European teacher training systems.

The five thematic perspectives: access, coping, governance, life course and relevance are the main basis for comparison of work packages in a later stage (WP8). This is why they have to play a role in the comparative report as well. At the same time, national reports have been writ-

ten on the basis of a clear structure (see 1.3.4). This is why the operationalization of discussing the overall aspects of comparison cannot go back behind the national reports. We went through their structure and allocated the single aspects of the national reports to the thematic perspectives they belong to. Table 5 shows overall aspects of comparison taking those thematic perspectives under consideration. Every cell represents necessary aspects of comparison. Some hypothetic results with different hypothetic explanations are filled in to give an idea of the way of clustering similar findings and explaining them by a different backdrop. Of course, clustering will finally have to give account to all analysed similarities and differences until overall types can be predicted.

Table 5: Aspects of international comparison regarding thematic perspectives

Access
Preparation of teachers to be aware of: • several dimensions of disadvantage of their pupils; • inequality and diversity of their pupils; • problems of access that are given in the education system.
Coping
Preparation of teachers to: • make an adequate diagnosis to identify learning difficulties of their pupils; • develop an individual strategy of support and counselling.
Extent of: • reflecting general structures of education and training systems within teacher training; • cooperation with external actors (e.g., school psychologists) • possible support (student-teacher-ratio; number of teacher assistants)
Governance
Mechanisms as indicators of the policies' effort to equip schools and teachers to handle educational disadvantage: • principles of recruitment and selection of teacher students (e.g. preferring those with migration background) • principles of distribution of teachers (differences of teachers in different types of schools)
Cooperation between the actors of the planning and delivery of teacher training: • consideration of the needs of disadvantaged students while developing curricula; • consideration of the needs of disadvantaged students while financing schools.
Dealing with changes in educational policy within teacher training: • teacher training reforms and restructuring trends; • link between the public discourse about teacher training and the scientific discourse.
Life course
Preparation of teachers to give pupils advice regarding: • their school career planning; • their decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories; • vocational guidance; • occupational orientation.
Preparation of teachers regarding the impact of living conditions on: • pupil's learning; • effects of education on the future life course; • transitions within educational careers.
Relevance
Preparation of teachers identifying with a professional habitus of teaching a generation of citizens: • contents of teacher training like democracy, participation and responsibility; • organisation of teacher training based on contents, competences, standards or professional development.
Diversity of the teacher students: • clientele of teacher students (nationality, previous experiences, migration background); • efforts of the administration to attain more students with the experience of being disadvantaged (e.g., social climbers); • teachers as role models for their pupils.
Reflection of the origin and societal function of: • contents of teacher training curricula; • goals of teacher training; • standards of teacher training.

1.4.3 Clustering of Cases

Besides the issues already discussed (Table 2), a theoretical basis for building types of teacher training systems is needed. The following paragraphs describe some possible ways of clustering the countries in WP3. The list is not completed – some aspects will occur during the process of writing the comparative report.

Structures and organisational context; school reality (see 3.2.1)

Structures and organisation of teacher training (data from questionnaires) could be related to the overall similarities and differences that came to the fore during juxtaposition. For instance, systems that have teacher assistants available are better able to support individual learning. The confrontation of findings with the reality within schools (quantitative scales) might be another mirror that gives an idea how teacher training systems can be clustered. If, for example, teacher students are strongly prepared to handle educational disadvantage of future pupils, but teachers in service are not able to do so, there is a lack between teacher training and school reality. Is this typical for different teacher training systems?

Typology of welfare states (see 3.2.2)

Sticking to the example above, the *typology of welfare states might represent a way of clustering the countries:* France, Germany, Netherlands are conservative welfare states, while Finland is presumed to be a socio-democratic welfare regime. Conservative welfare regimes still have more women in part-time jobs than men, which often work full-time. While reproducing this, school might support especially male pupils on their way of occupational qualification while there is still too less effort in recruiting female pupils for technical jobs. Compared to that, a socio-democratic welfare regime tries to offer both genders equal opportunities that afflict in reality of an equal labour marked. Teachers in such a system might not distinguish between male and female pupils with regard to their job preparation or occupational orientation.

Comprehensive and differentiated education systems (see 3.2.3)

Another basis could be the distinction between those countries with *comprehensive* (Finland, Italy, France, Poland, Slovenia, UK) and *differentiated* school systems (Germany, Netherlands). Taking under consideration that teacher training prepares future teachers to keep up the existing education systems; there should be a difference in teacher training between countries with comprehensive and differentiated education systems. Teacher training within a predominantly comprehensive system is expected to pursue contents such as support of pupils more intensively than training in a differentiated system, because the latter is able to select and allocate students during their career and transitions in different levels of school. On the other hand, support for pupils might be even more important in a differentiated system, because there it is more necessary to guide and counsel pupils to be successful in school. Starting international comparison, this is an open question so far.

Transition regimes (see 3.2.4)

According to WP2, there might be a link between *transition regimes* and teacher training. It can be estimated, that, for instance, employment-centred regimes (France, Germany, Netherlands) have a teacher training which focuses more on job preparation or at least on a higher selectiveness than a universalistic model (Finland), whose training might focus more on questions of support of every individual instead of allocating them to designated job positions.

1.4.4 Comparison with results from other work packages

Because WP3 was the first empirical work package in the project, it could use the advance to follow the operationalization in WP4 (survey with pupils and parents) and WP5 (survey with school principles). This is why work package leaders encouraged the responsible of WP4 and

WP5 to implement several scales in their survey design. The scales are developed out of the specific view of WP3. Within the WP4 survey with pupils, a scale about the frequency of several teaching and learning arrangements was added. It shows if pupils' current teachers use methods that allow to differentiate and to support individual learning in class. The same scale was used in the WP5 school principals' survey. To this survey, some more scales could be added. A second was about the principals' estimation of preparation of their schools current teachers to handle educational disadvantage (correspondingly to the four dimensions used in WP3; see 1.3.1). The third scale asked about the principals understanding of educational support (supporting the weakest, strongest or both in the same way?). A last scale operationalizes to which amount the principals school supports students on their school and job career or how diverse the understanding of educational disadvantage in between teachers is. The implemented scales allow references between the three work packages, especially between WP3 and WP5. The possibility to show such relations is rare to the GOETE project, because WP6 and WP7 are hardly able to create corresponding links during operationaliziation – they will show links during analysis only.

1.4.5 Link between data for the different sources

As far as there is data from five different sources (WP3 questionnaires regarding structure and organization of teacher training; WP3 quantitative scales for overall rating of data from expert interviews and document analysis; WP3 document analysis; WP3 expert interviews; WP4/WP5 implemented scales for WP3 thematic) there has to be clarified in which relation the date from the different sources interact within this report. First of all, every source has to be noticed and has an own value – even without combining them.

Questionnaires explain the structure and organization of teacher training much more in detail as WP2 state of the art report could take them into consideration. In this respect, the present report exceeds not only the results of WP2, it also exceeds the requirements of the GOETE contract in case of WP3. The results of the questionnaires give a detailed insight in the shape of teacher training in the eight countries and is a comparison on its own, because structural data can be organised in tables and allows a very intuitive synopsis. This is why the data is valuable even without combining it with the information gathered by the other research activities. It is an interesting pool of information for research on teacher education – not only but as well without the GOETE connexion.

Document analyses are very important, because they are a reliable source in case of context information and on a descriptive level. At the same time we realised, that there is often a gap between their function to govern teacher training and the realised reality of teacher training. Thus, they are helpful to describe the context of teacher training, but not its realization. To really come to a level where the training itself could be perceived, it would have been necessary to include teacher students as recipients of teacher training. This was not foreseen in the contract.

Expert interviews are much closer related with the contents and the insight of teacher training, but have still similar problems as document analysis. The experts view on teacher training is either the view from outside (administrative) or the view from the providers (professors and/or trainers) that deliver the contents, but not the recipients (students or finally headmasters). Thus, experts voices will always be estimations of what really happens in case of professional development of teachers, but will never be able to evaluate or explain the realised learning processes of teacher students. This is why interview data can hardly be isolated from other sources during description and interpretation.

Rating of data from questionnaires, document analyses and expert interviews is the challenge to come to the highest level of abstraction, which is possible when dealing with very divergent and complex qualitative material. Of course, it can be discussed if this kind of simplifying qualitative data material is suitable or even allowed, due to the transposition of the raw data into a very discrete system of rating documents and transcriptions. This is why we first of all use the data of documents and interviews in their origin (see the detailed work with citations from doc-

documents and interview excerpts in the WP3 national report collection). At the same – on the meta-level of international comparison, this detail of data leads to an overwhelming richness of results that makes it hardly possible to catch the most relevant or prevailing information. Therefore, after analysing documents and interviews carefully step by step, we asked partners that became experts regarding their own empirical material to rate – where and if possible – on a Likert-scale the value of single characteristics that have been researched by document analysis and expert interviews before. We have no guarantee, that these abstractions represent the single answers in a representative way – but the raw data itself or its interpretation does not lead to a common understanding either. Especially interviews are only snapshots and we trust in the single partners that they came during their process of conducting research and its analysis to a meta-understanding of their country-specific situation of teacher training that allows a reliably and valid rating on basis of the given scales. Still knowing, that this kind of further processing of the original data is an artificial in a way, we did not use them for direct correlation that might help to discover any hidden relations between the variables – they are only used to come to a compressed picture that allows quick orientation in the jungle of information. The ratings can be used to summarize the single information or to discuss them. The nature of this process of abstraction implies, that there might appear differences between the first impression that the detailed reports of the single partners suggest and their overall rating of the respective issues. This is not a contradiction, but a native consequence: while the detailed reports highlight single issues of a research question, the overall ratings are result of rethinking and balancing to come to a common understanding, which also considers the professional background and expertise of our research partners that they bring into research from their national perspective. In this regard, the rating is not only a procedure of simplification, but also a way of generalisation, which can be very helpful in case of international comparison.

Scales in WP4 and WP5 allow to connect the genuine data of WP3 (experts view) with the estimations of different actors (pupils: WP4; headmasters: WP5). This allows to not only base the interpretation on the basis of the meta-level of experts (provider of teacher training) but also on estimations and experiences of the recipients of the trained teacher students (headmasters) and the recipients of the quality teachers are trained (pupils). Headmasters' perception is very important in case of the realisation of lessons (because the often visit them) and the question of governance (because the more often are involved in the selection process of new teachers).

It becomes visible, that every source has its advantages and problems at the same time. So the single bricks have to come together in order to built a considerable structure in order not to be too one-dimensional. This happens pragmatically. Whenever more than one source can contribute to a single section, the findings of each source are reported and then interpreted together. Every source has its strengths (questionnaires and document analysis regarding the structure and organization of teacher training; expert interviews and document analysis in case of the contents of teacher training and the anchorage with other work packages allows an overall connection within the project) and weaknesses (limitation of the particular validity). In practice, where available questionnaire data is the starting point and the information then is supplemented, explained and illustrated by and confronted with the date resulting from document analysis and expert interviews. The ratings – as already explained, help to simplify and summarize. Scales from WP4 and WP5 do only refer to specific questions and are therefore described separately (see 2.5.5).

2 Description

2.1 Background information about teachers

2.1.1 Number of teachers

Table 6 provides basic information about the number of teachers working in the countries that participate in the GOETE project. Due to very different populations of the GOETE-countries, the number of teachers differs as well. Germany and the United Kingdom have most primary and secondary teachers, followed by France, Italy and Poland (2008). Countries with a smaller population have less teachers (Netherlands, Finland and Slovenia). In some countries the number of teachers stayed almost constantly during the last four years (Finland, Germany, Poland, Slovenia), while in other countries the number was decreasing (France, Italy) or slightly increasing (Netherlands, UK). Being a teacher is a career for women. At least 66% (Germany, France) up to 79% (Slovenia) of teachers are female.

Table 6: Number of teachers in all school levels from primary (ISCED 1) to upper secondary (ISCED 3)

Countries	2005		2006		2007		2008	
	All	Female	All	Female	All	Female	All	Female
Finland	66 559	68.7	68 633	69.4	68 442	69.0	67 821	69.0
France	744 473	64.9	712 441	65.7	707 609	65.9	697 992	66.2
Germany	829 742	63.8	832 324	64.4	835 980	65.0	837 029	65.5
Italy	691 707	77.5	691 201	77.8	723 870	77.9	673 353	76.4
Poland	531 979	75.9	520 933	75.9	521 037	76.3	518 325	76.2
Slovenia	22 329	78.4	22 546	78.4	22 290	78.9	21 942	79.0
Netherlands	240 213	65.5	242 566	66.3	245 876	66.9	251 467	67.7
UK	778 676	67.9	753 628	67.8	788 575	68.5	798 047	68.7

Source: OECD (http://stats.oecd.org/) and own calculations.
Filters: Year: 2005-2008; Level of education: primary and secondary education; Programme orientation: all educational programmes; Type of institution: all types of institutions; Intensity of participation: full-time and part time; Age groups: all ages; Gender: total and females in %; Personal category: classroom teachers and academic stuff.
Remark: Numbers in national reports vary, because they are based most often on national statistical data. Those information might be more precise than the OECD-data, but it is impossible to compare the single data because the calculation is based on different groups of teachers and categorisations. This is why OECD-data was chosen here.

2.1.2 Student-teacher-ratio

Comparing population and number of teachers is not a valid indicator of the supply with teachers, because not every nation has the same population-students-ratio. In some countries more young people related to the whole population are living, in others less. This is why the student-teacher-ratio has been established as in indicator of the amount of supply with teachers in schools (Table 7). It is one of few international statistics available regarding teachers and it provides information how many students are taught by one teacher. Today, the best support is given in Slovenia, followed by Finland and France. Ratios of UK, Italy, the Netherlands and Poland are close; students in Germany have by far the weakest quantitative support of teachers. In some countries the supply with teachers was getting better and better during the last eight years (Finland, Italy, Slovenia, UK), in Germany slightly worse. In a third group of countries, the ratio stays more or less constantly (France, Netherlands). A significant exemption is Poland, which had an increasingly low ratio until 2008, when it escalated up to a worse level.

Table 7: Student-teacher-ratio in primary, lower and upper secondary public schools (ISCED 1-3)

Countries	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Finland	15.0	14.8	14.4	14.3	14.3	14.7	13.7	13.8	13.9
France	14.6	14.5	14.3	14.2	14.2	14.3	14.2	14.3	14.4
Germany	16.4	16.3	16.1	16.0	16.1	17.2	17.2	16.9	16.7
Italy	17.0	17.2	16.5	15.9	15.9	16.1	15.5	15.6	15.8
Poland	13.8	13.9	13.4	12.5	N/A	12.3	12.1	11.7	16.1
Slovenia	13.4	13.4	13.1	13.5	13.7	13.5	12.9	12.7	12.5
Netherlands	15.8	15.6	15.5	15.9	15.9	16.1	15.5	15.6	15.8
UK	19.6	19.3	20.1	19.6	16.7	N/A	15.6	15.2	15.7

Source: Eurostat (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu)
Filters: Year: 2000-2008; Level of education: primary and secondary education.
Remark: The student-teacher ratio should not be confused with average class-size. It can be a difference between the number of hours of teaching provided by teachers and the number of hours of instruction prescribed for pupils. More than one teacher can be teaching in a class at the same time. Special education teachers can work with small groups or in one-to-one teaching, which not affect the class size but the student-teacher-ratio.

Table 8 provides, according to the GOETE focus on pupils in the age of 10 to 16, an additional statistic regarding lower secondary schools only. It points out that the GOETE clientele is supported well in Italy, Slovenia and Finland (better than in EU average), while the ratio in Poland, but especially in France, Germany and the United Kingdom is worse. Without primary education, UK's teachers have to take charge of 18 pupils each. Thinking about educational disadvantaged children, it seems impossible to support them in an appropriate way while being responsible for so many pupils.

Table 8: Student-teacher-ratio in lower secondary public schools (2007)

Countries	Lower secondary schools	Upper secondary schools	All secondary schools
Finland	9.9	15.2	12.6
France	14.2	9.4	11.7
Germany	15.3	14.3	15.0
Italy	9.5	11.7	10.7
Netherlands	m	m	m
Poland	12.5	12.4	12.4
Slovenia	9.5	14.0	11.7
United Kingdom	18.1	12.2	14.7
OECD average	13.3	12.8	13.0
EU19 average	11.4	11.5	11.4

Source: Education at a Glance, 2009: D 2.3. **Abbreviation:** m = missing.

2.1.3 Age distribution of teachers

Another meaningful international statistic is the age distribution of teachers between the countries (Table 9, related to lower secondary). Most countries have a relatively equal distribution of teachers to age groups (Finland, France, the Netherlands), others have a disproportionally high number of older teachers (Germany, Italy), again others significantly more younger teachers (Poland and UK), while Slovenia has an established middle-aged teacher clientele. Besides demographics, this might be an indicator that countries with a lot of older teachers might have a higher demand of new teachers in the next years, while countries with few teachers that are about to retire might go forward to a hiring freeze. In all countries the percentage of teachers older than 60 years is relatively low. This could be an indicator of job-related stress factors in the teaching profession – unfortunately there is no comparable information about the retirement age of teachers available to confirm this assumption. Furthermore, in countries with a higher average age of teachers, the potential of teacher training to influence teaching and learning in school seems to be higher, because the new trained teachers enter the schools to a higher amount, while a younger teacher's clientele will stay for a longer time.

Table 9: Age distribution of teachers in lower secondary schools (ISCED 2) in 2007 in %

Countries	< 30 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	>= 60 years
Finland	10.0	28.4	27.8	30.6	3.1
France	12.6	30.7	21.9	32.5	2.3
Germany	3.3	20.6	24.1	43.8	8.2
Italy	1.0	13.8	26.2	49.3	9.7
Netherlands	10.9	17.7	27.4	38.1	5.9
Poland	18.1	32.2	26.3	19.7	3.2
Slovenia	11.7	27.7	35.5	23.3	1.8
UK	25.3	26.0	23.6	24.5	0.7
OECD average	12.2	26.4	29.4	27.1	4.9
EU19 average	11.7	26.0	28.8	28.8	4.7

Source: Education at a Glance, 2009: D 7.1 (web only).

2.1.4 Gender profile

The gender profile of teachers shows that there is a big unbalance of gender ration in the teaching profession. In primary schools more than 80% of teachers are female, in Italy and the United Kingdom almost all primary teachers. In lower secondary there are around 60% and 75% female teachers and in upper secondary there is most often still female teachers are dominating (except in the Netherlands and Germany).

Table 10: Female teachers in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools (2007) in %

Countries	Primary school	Lower secondary schools	Upper secondary schools	All levels of education
Finland	77.0	72.9	57.5	69.9
France	82.1	63.8	53.9	64.9
Germany	84.0	61.2	48.2	63.4
Italy	95.3	75.8	61.2	76.4
Netherlands	83.1	n.a.	46.4	62.3
Poland	84.3	74.1	66.5	72.4
Slovenia	81.3	61.6	62.8	66.2
UK	97.6	78.8	65.2	74.3
OECD average	79.5	66.5	53.3	65.1
EU19 average	82.6	69.0	57.2	67.9

Source: Education at a Glance, 2009: D 7.2 (web only).

2.1.5 Salaries

Teacher salaries vary significant between countries. Germany's lower secondary teachers earn the most, followed by those in the United Kingdom. With remarkable gap, teachers from Finland, France, Italy and Slovenia follow. Polish teachers earn much less.

Table 11: Teachers salaries in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary schools after 15 years of experience (2007) in EUR

Countries	Primary school	Lower secondary schools	Upper secondary schools
England	33 717	33 717	33 717
Finland	27 711	29 655	32 606
France	24 091	25 893	26 102
Germany	40 413	43 923	47 252
Italy	22 859	24 893	25 589
Netherlands	33 644	36 983	47 855
Poland[1]	13 714	13 714	13 714
Scotland	36 694	36 694	36 694
Slovenia	24 056	24 056	24 056
OECD average	29 551	31 813	33 926
EU19 average	30 008	31 861	34 480

Source: Education at a Glance, 2009: D 3. Converted from USD to EUR (1.00 USD = 1.32 EUR; 10.02.2012).
[1] No OECD-data for Poland. Data provided by Polish research team; see national report Poland. Data for an average paid charted teacher (highest qualification level); converted from PLN to EUR.

2.1.6 Job opportunities

To get a rough estimation how job opportunities of graduated teachers (graduates with qualified teacher status) are, partners were asked to rate on the following Likert-scale using all information they had available. The ratings vary significantly. Job opportunities to become a teacher are supposed to be very good in France, the Netherlands and in Slovenia and rather good in Finland and Germany. In England and Scotland the chances are intermediate and in Italy, Poland and in Northern Ireland rather bad. Partners were further asked, how they judge the opportunities of students graduating from teacher training on labour marked besides becoming a teacher. The chances are supposed to be rather good in Finland and the Netherlands and similar to other university graduates in France, Italy and the United Kingdom. In Poland, such alternatives seem to be rather bad, in Slovenia its almost impossible for teacher training graduates to find a job besides the teaching profession. In general, teacher training graduates seem to be widely pre-assigned to the teaching profession and have restricted possibilities on free labour marked.

Table 12: Job opportunities of teacher training graduates to become a teacher and on labour marked

Job opportunities of students		very bad almost no graduate gets a job	rather bad only few graduates get a job	intermediate average (similar to other university graduates)	rather good the majority of graduates get a job	very good almost every graduate gets a job
Finland						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …				X	
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …				X	
France						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …					X
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …			X		
Germany						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …				X	
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …		X			
Italy						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …		X			
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …			X		
Netherlands						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …					X
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …				X	
Poland						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …		X			
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …		X			

Slovenia						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …					X
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …		X			
United Kingdom						
1	Job opportunities to become a teacher are …		X[3]	X[4]		
2	Job opportunities on labour marked are …			X		

[1] Job opportunities of students graduating from teacher training to become a teacher are …
[2] Job opportunities of students graduating from teacher training on labour marked besides becoming a teacher are …
[3] in Northern Ireland
[4] in England and Scotland

2.1.7 Social prestige of in-service teachers

A general estimation on the social prestige of in-service teachers is possible on the basis of the ratings of research partners that used all available information while judging. The Finnish teachers are supposed to be the only ones who have a higher reputation than most other university graduates. In Poland, Slovenia and the United Kingdom, teachers have a similar prestige than other university graduates. In France, Germany and the Netherlands, teachers can be estimated to have a lower social prestige than most other academics and in Italy the teaching profession has one of the lowest reputation of all university graduates. Statistics show that the teaching profession lacks attractiveness (Eurydice, 2012), which might be linked to its prestige.

Table 13: Social prestige of teachers (status quo)

The social prestige of teachers is …	**very low**	**rather low**	**moderate**	**rather high**	**very high**
	one of the lowest of university graduates	lower than most university graduates	average (similar to other university graduates)	higher than most university graduates	one of the highest (like medical practitioners)
Finland				X	
France		X			
Germany		X			
Italy	X				
Netherlands		X			
Poland			X		
Slovenia			X		
United Kingdom			X		

The partners also rated – once again on the basis of all their gathered information – if the social prestige of teachers increased or decreased during the past decade. It only increased in Germany and Poland in a way, while it decreased in France and decreased strongly in Italy. There was no significant increase or decrease of social prestige of teachers in Finland, the Netherlands, Slovenia or the United Kingdom as far as the respective GOETE partners state.

Table 14: Decrease and increase of teachers social prestige

The social prestige of teachers has … during the past decade.	**decreased strongly**	**decreased**	**neither/nor**	**increased**	**increased strongly**
Finland			X		
France		X			
Germany				X	
Italy	X				
Netherlands			X		
Poland				X	
Slovenia			X		
United Kingdom			X		

2.1.8 Status of teaching profession

In *Finland* most teachers hold tenured posts as municipal civil servants and 94% of the teachers work full-time. Full-time teachers are usually members of their respective trade unions.

Although in *France* the majority of teachers are civil servants, there is the possibility to be ordinary appointee. This needs a regional recruitment (contract for one year or for temporary replacement; lecturer for short temporary replacement (max. 200 hours per school year).

Teachers in *Germany* are usually civil servants with lifelong job protection. Baden-Württemberg and North Rhine-Westphalia always stuck to that professional status. In Saxony new appointed teachers were hired as ordinary appointees for some years. The Ministry of Education changed this policy once again and came back to the civil-servants-model. It is easier to handle and seems to be less expensive.

In *Italy*, teachers are civil servants with private contracts. These contracts are defined in the schools autonomy and under private law; they are only bound to respect the financial limits established by the state. For teachers of all school levels, there are two types of contracts: permanent and fixed-term. According to permanent contracts, teachers become part of the permanent teaching staff. Temporary contracts can last maximum until the end of the school year.

The *Netherlands* teachers are both, civil servants and ordinary appointees as well. Staff in public schools is civil servants. Staff in private schools (including denominational schools that are publicly funded, such as Catholic and Protestant schools, but also reform schools like Montessori) enter into a contract with the school board (which is governed by civil law). As such they fall under the provision of civil law as the relevant education legislation is based on this.

Teachers in *Poland* are no civil servants but they hold the special status of public functionaries. They are entitled for special legal security while they exercise their duties.

Slovenian teachers in public schools have the status of civil servants, while those employed in private institutions have the same status as employees in the commercial sector. New employments of graduates or young teachers start for a definite period and if they are evaluated as successful, they are usually employed for an indefinite period after 2-3 years. Teachers are employed on the basis of a permanent civil servant contract. Temporary contracts are offered to graduate teachers, substitute teachers and under-qualified teachers (exceptional cases only).

In the *United Kingdom*, teachers in state-maintained schools are key public sector workers and as such are afforded relatively stable job security. While job security remains fairly well assured, pensions will now be calculated on the basis of average career earnings.

In summary, teachers in the researched countries are civil servants or adequate, at least those in public schools. Therefore, teachers have a widely secure job. That might be an extrinsic motive for choosing the teaching profession.

2.1.9 Teacher assistants

Training of teacher assistants in *Finland* lasts one year and is usually carried out as adult education. The training leads to a basic vocational qualification. The responsibilities of teacher assistants usually relate to supporting students with special educational needs. As a result, they often work in special schools.

In *France*, since 2003, there are several types of teacher assistants. Their presence in primary and secondary schools aims to support issues of academic failure, school violence, support families and children with special needs schooling. They are not civil servants and have a fixed term contract. Four types can be distinguished: (1) Life auxiliaries (auxiliaire de vie), whose mission is to support children with special needs (disability or disabling health disorder). Their presence is intended to facilitate their schooling in normal establishment. (2) Educational assistants (assistants d'éducation), that are present to support the educational team and support school integration of disabled pupils. The functions of educational assistants are based on the

needs of the establishment. (3) Teaching Assistants (assistants pédagogiques), that operate in addition to educational assistants in schools where social and educational difficulties are important. Teaching assistants are recruited to support teachers regarding guidance to pupils with school difficulties. The primary objective is to enable pupils to prepare their exams in the best conditions (provide methodological support and assistance for homework). (4) Mediators of school success (médiateurs de réussite scolaire), that participate in the prevention of absenteeism and strengthening links between parents and schools where social and educational difficulties are important.

Teacher assistants helping regular teachers have become more and more common in *Germany*. The requirements for becoming a teacher assistant depend on the each federal state. In Baden-Württemberg, for instance, graduates from initial teacher training who cannot find a regular position as a teacher, training supervisors in companies, social youth workers or kindergarten teachers come into consideration. There is no special training for them. Their work task is to support students with deficiencies, especially in the subjects German and mathematics. They also help teachers in dealing with classroom disruptions. Teacher assistants are not allowed to give lessons on their own. Teachers' professional associations fear that the employment of teacher assistants might be a way of saving money by employing cheaper assistants instead of regular teachers. There is also a small discussion about the work task of teacher assistants and how they are able to cooperate with school psychologists and school youth workers.

Non-teaching staff operates regularly in *Italian* schools; their members, the so called Administrative Technical-Auxiliaries (ATA) are quite always employed on a permanent contract, determined by a collective labour contract, which belongs to a separate contractual sector. Also for the ATA staff there are provincial lists for the fixed term contracts. Other professional categories as psychologists, social assistants, youth workers, who often collaborate with teachers, are employed by other institutions (municipalities, provinces, local health authorities, etc.), enter school through special agreements and targeted projects. Social cooperatives provide teaching assistants and educators in case of pupils with special needs (social co-operatives works for Municipalities). Tutor teachers for new employees and teacher trainers are available and selected by the teaching body.

In the *Netherlands*, in order to reduce teacher workload, teacher assistants were introduced in the educational sector. They support teachers in teaching. A special vocational training program has been developed to prepare these assistants adequately for their work and it has been made financially more attractive for schools to employ them. Teaching assistants can enter a teaching program in higher professional education and on graduating become fully qualified teachers. However, in general there is a difference in the level of skills and knowledge of teaching assistants and the level required to participate in teacher training courses. Only few teaching assistants successfully switch to a teaching post. At the moment special courses are being developed at several institutes for teaching assistants who wish to become fully qualified teachers.

In *Poland*, teacher assistants work only at special needs schools and classes as well as special needs pre-schools. The task of teachers assistants is to support all children learning in the given class (not just a particular student). The decision on the need of assistants is issued by the psycho-educational counselling centre. The idea of employing teacher assistants is to support teachers to better communicate with students demanding more attention.

The first year in *Slovenian* schools is taught by two teachers jointly. The second teacher is either a pre-primary teacher or a class teacher (the second teacher participates in teaching only half of the periods). From the school year 2006/07 onwards, some subjects (mother tongue, mathematics, foreign language) in the last two years (8th and 9th grade) may be taught by two teachers as well or teaching may involve in-class grouping or subject streaming; it is up to the school to decide among these three options. Teacher assistants should be also present in classes where Roma children are included and when pupils with special needs are included.

Teaching assistants are common in the *United Kingdom*, especially in primary schools, where they will work with teachers in classrooms. In secondary schools teaching assistants are also present, providing a supporting role for young people with Special Educational Needs (SEN),

which can occur inside and outside of normal classroom lessons, with SEN classes often having a full-time assistant. Teaching assistants must gain an appropriate qualification, which varies depending on which region of the UK they wish to work in. As an indicator of teacher assistant numbers across the United Kingdom, the full time equivalent number of regular teaching assistants in service in England in 2011 was 213 900. In January 2010 the number was 194 200.

In summary, in all the researched countries teaching assistants were introduced in the school system. The are predominantly employed to help teachers while working with pupils with special educational needs, uncommonly when problems like huge classes or discipline problems occur. Another domain is in the first years of primary school. Generally, supporting teachers through teaching assistants is (still) the exemption in secondary schools. With respect to the GOETE focus, teaching assistants will all in all not be very effective in avoiding educational problems or helping educational disadvantaged students to succeed because auf their slight quantity.

2.2 Initial teacher training

2.2.1 Organization of teacher training

Teacher training usually is organised under consideration of the different levels of schools (primary, lower secondary, upper secondary). Table 36 shows these levels and the corresponding type of school (e.g., primary school, complementary school, grammar school). Most often, students holding a qualified teacher status for lower secondary level are allowed to teach in lower secondary and in the corresponding grades of upper secondary, so there are typically no 'lower-secondary-teachers' or 'upper-secondary-teachers', but secondary-teachers with different profiles and status. There are significant exceptions, e.g., in Germany, where upper secondary teachers are trained in a separate course.

In all GOETE-countries, teacher training is (meanwhile) academic. Most often students have to complete a master or correspondent degree at universities or special professional academies comparable to universities (Finland, Germany, Poland, Slovenia). In some countries a Bachelor is sufficient to achieve a qualified teacher status (Netherlands), or there is an additional training of one or two years after graduating with a bachelor (France, UK). The additional training leads to a higher degree than Bachelor only, but is not comparable to a Master. The admission criteria to begin a teacher-training program is the highest secondary-school examination (A-Level, Baccalauréat, Abitur, Matura etc.). In some countries there are additional entrance examinations that help to choose the best or most eligible candidates (e.g., Finland). In France, a national competitive examination regulates the entrance to the second part of training after graduation.

Most common is that teacher candidates are enrolled in all subjects corresponding to the school subjects if they chose training for primary schools. Future secondary school teachers are enrolled in only one or two subjects, while courses for special-needs-schools usually have an emphasis of one field of physical or psychical disabilities (e.g., for teaching deaf people).

Duration of the teacher training programmes is at least four years (Netherlands, UK), usually they last five years (Finland, France, Slovenia). Some courses in Germany will all in all even take up to 7.5 years of training. Most GOETE-countries have set up tuition fees for teacher training. Only training in Finland and some courses in Germany are still free of charge. The range of tuition varies from 430 Euros (France) up to 3882 Euros (England) a year.

Table 15: Structure and organization of initial teacher training

Country	Type (corresp. school)	Level	Training institution	Enrolled in	Duration (years)	Final degree	Tuition (year)	Admission criteria
Finland	Peruskoulu	primary	university	all subjects	approx. 5 (varies)	Master (in vocational teachers' education, depends on previous education)	no tuition fee	Matriculation examination or 3-year vocational degree + entrance examination
		lower sec.		two subjects				
		special needs class teacher		all subjects				
		part-time special needs teacher		emphasis				
	Lukio	general upper sec.	university	two subjects				
	Ammattikoulu	vocational	university/ polytechnic (or equivalent + pedagogical studies)	at least one subject				
		vocational school special teacher						
France	École Éleméntaire	primary	IUFM	eight subjects	5	CRPE	430 €	Baccalauréat (UNI); national competitive examination (IUFM)
	Collège	lower sec./ vocational	university + IUFM	one subject	3 (UNI) + 2 (IUFM)	CAPES		
	Lycée/ Lycée Professionnel	upper sec./ vocational	university + IUFM	one subject	3 (UNI) + 2 (IUFM)	CAPES/ CAPET/ CAPLP		
	SEGPA, ITEP, IME	Special Education	IUFM + CNEFEI	emphasis	5 (IUFM) + 1 (CNEFEI)	CAPSAIS		
Germany	Grundschule	primary	university/ PH[1] + teacher academy	two subjects	4-5 (UNI) + 1.5 (TA)	1st State Exam/ Master (university/ PH); 2nd State Exam (teacher academy)	0-1000 €	Abitur; aptitude test[2]
	Hauptschule/ Realschule/ Mittelschule	lower secondary		two subjects	4-5 (UNI) + 1.5 (TA)			
	Gymnasium	upper secondary		two subjects	5-6 (UNI) + 1.5 (TA)			
	Sonderschule	special education		emphasis[3]	4-5 (UNI) + 1.5 (TA)			
	Berufsschule	vocational		two subjects	5-6 (UNI) + 1.5 (TA)			
Italy	Scuola Elementare	primary	university	all subjects + education	5 (master degree)	Master	a minimum fee for enrolment is foreseen by law.	Higher education + entrance examination
	Scuola secondaria inferiore	lower secondary	university	specific subjects + education	3 (Bachelor) + 2 (Master) + 1 (TFA)	Master		Bachelor (subjects) + entrance examination
	Scuola secondaria superiore (Liceo; Istituto Tecnico)	upper Secondary	university	specific subjects + education	3 (Bachelor) + 2 (Master) + 1 (TFA)	Master		Bachelor (subjects) + entrance examination
	Formazione professionale	vocational	university	specific subjects + education	3 (Bachelor) + 2 (Master) + 1 (TFA)	Master		Bachelor (subjects) + entrance examination

Country	Type (corresp. school)	Level	Training institution	Enrolled in	Duration (years)	Final degree	Tuition (year)	Admission criteria
Poland	Primary school Gimasium Lycee Technikum	primary lower secondary special education school vocational school	university (academy)	all subjects	3 (Licencjat)/ 5 (Magister)	Licencjat)/ Magister	1,200 - 4,300 PLN per year , i.e. 300 - 1,075 EURO).	matura, no special recruitment test
Slovenia	Osnovna šola	primary	university	all subjects	5	Master	(2364 €)[5]	Matura; no special recruitment test
		lower sec.		two subjects			(1600-2856 €)[5]	
	Gimnazija	upper sec.		two subjects			(1600-2856 €)[5]	
	Šola s prilagojenim programom	special Ed.		all subjects			(2641 €)[5]	
	Srednje strokovne in Poklicne šole	vocational		two subjects			(1600-2856 €)[5]	
Nether-lands	Basisschool/ Basisvorming	Primary[4]	PABO	all subjects	4	Bachelor (HBO)	1672 €	MBO level 4, HAVO/ VWO diploma / alternative entrance exam (age 21+)
	MBO, VMBO and first 3 years of HAVO and VWO	secondary education	HBO-grade two qualification	one subject	4	Bachelor (HBO)	1672 €	
	MBO. VMBO, HAVO and VWO (all grades)	All levels of secondary education	HBO- grade one qualification	one subject	3 (only part-time)	Bachelor (HBO)	1672 €	Grade two qualification in the subject to be studied.
			university		1	Master	1672 €	VWO diploma
United Kingdom	primary school/ high school/ comprehensive school/ grammar school[6]	all levels	Higher Education Institute (HEI)	education (B.Ed.); education + subject (B.A./ B.Sc.)	3-4 (Bachelor) + 1 (PGCE/ PGDE)	B.Ed./ B.A./ B.Sc. (Hons) + PGCE/ PGDE	3872 € (Bachelor) + 3796 € (PGCE)[7]	Advanced Level; Advanced Higher Grade); no special recruitment tests

Footnotes:

[1] Pädagogische Hochschulen (PH = Universities of Education) exist only in Baden-Württemberg. These Universities of Education do not offer courses for higher secondary level. Because every of the 16 Länder in Germany has their own education system, all data only approximately fits the general situation.

[2] Aptitude tests are more and more used as a compulsory self-screening, but not je as criteria for admission.

[3] Special courses with emphasis on one field of physical or psychological disability

[4] Preparation for SEN is implemented in the given courses.

[5] Fee only for part-time students; full-time-studies are free of tuition.

[6] Working with students with SEN: candidates with QTS must obtain additional qualifications if students have visual and/ or hearing impairments.

[7] PGDE is free of tuition for Scottish domiciled students.

Abbreviations:
B.A. = Bachelor of Arts (Hons; UK)
B.Ed. = Bachelor of Education (Hons; UK)
B.Sc. = Bachelor of Science (Hons; UK)
CAPES = Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement du second degré (France)
CAPET = Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement technique (France)
CAPLP = Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de lycée professionel (France)
CAPSAIS = Certificat d'aptitude aux actions pédagogiques spécialisées d'adaptation et d'intégration (France)
CNEFEI = Centres d'études et de formation pour l'enfance inadaptée (France)
CRPE = Concours de recrutement des professeurs des écoles (France)
HAVO = Hoger Algemeen Voorbereidend Onderwijs (Netherlands)
HBO = Hogeschoolen voor Hogere Beroepsonderwijs (Netherlands)
Hons = Honours (a bachelor that is a precondition for QTS (UK)
IME = Institut Médico-Éducatif (France)
ITEP = Institut Thérapeutique, Éducatif et Pédagogique (France)
IUFM = Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres (France)
LA = Lehramtsstudiengang (teacher-education-course in Germany)
MBO = different vocational degrees (Netherlands)
PABO = Pedagogische Academie voor het Basisonderwijs
PGCE = Postgraduate Certificate in Education (England, Northern Ireland, Wales)
PGDE = Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Scotland)
PH = Pädagogische Hochschule (Germany, Baden-Württemberg only)
QTS = Qualified Teacher Status
SEGMA = Sections d'Enseignement Général et Professionnel Adapté, (France)
SEN = Special educational needs
TA = Teacher Academy (provides compulsory post-graduate practical training in Germany)
TFA = Tirocinio Formativo Attivo (practical training in school; Italy)
UNI = University
VMBO = Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs (the Netherlands)
VWO = Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk (the Netherlands)

The number of graduates in teacher training can be related with the number of graduating students in all fields of tertiary education (Table 16). This leads to the information, to which amount teacher training is part of the academic culture and how big the need of hiring new teachers within a specific GOETE-country might be. In the United Kingdom and in Finland still every 17th to 20th student was enrolled in a teacher-training program – in Germany, France and Italy they are less than 2% of all graduates. Obviously, the smaller countries have a bigger need of trained teachers and the teacher training programmes are a more important part of academic life than in the GOETE-countries with a huge population. The low absolute number of graduates in Italy (2006 and 2008) are due to reforms that led to a reorganisation or temporary suspension of teacher training.

Table 16: Number of Graduates in Teacher Training

	2005		2006		2007		2008	
	graduates in teacher training	% of students in all fields	graduates in teacher training	% of students in all fields	graduates in teacher training	% of students in all fields	graduates in teacher training	% of students in all fields
Finland	2 044	5.2	1 836	4.5	2 091	4.8	3 162	5.3
France	1 179	0.3	3 569	0.8	4 627	1.1	3 921	1.0
Germany	3 832	1.6	7 403	2.4	7 840	2.3	7 294	2.0
Italy	2	0.0	13 876	3.7	25 159	6.4	2	0.0
Poland	50 830	10.3	20 107	4.0	18 827	3.6	N/A	N/A
Slovenia	1 246	16.7	1 244	15.4	1 183	15.1	1 149	13.9
Netherlands	15 423	14.5	15 542	13.2	15 382	12.5	15 190	12.2
UK	37 638	7.6	38 264	7.4	38 616	7.4	32 177	6.0

Source: OECD (http://stats.oecd.org) and own calculations.
Filters: Year: 2005-2008; Level of education: tertiary type A and advanced research programmes; Programme destination: total; Programme duration: all educational programmes; Programme orientation: all educational programmes; Field of education: teacher training and total over all fields of study; Gender: total.

2.2.2 Key contents of modern teacher training

In *Finland*, an expert mentioned four content fields she considered as important in subject teacher education: (1) the importance of thorough knowledge in the subjects that are being taught; (2) didactic/pedagogy, while mentioning education also in the sense of "upbringing" (including certain

kind of values, attitudes and behaviour models); (3) social/ethical aspects of the teacher's job and (4) practical matters related to everyday school work. Among the institutional responsible of theoretical training there was no clear consensus regarding the key contents of subject teacher training. Both, the importance of subject didactics and knowledge of the subjects being taught were emphasised, but the order of importance differed between the interviewees. The practical teacher trainers highlighted, more than the university lecturers, a holistic point of view of teaching. Unlike the theoretical trainers, the practical trainers did not so much single out separate issues or fields of teacher training, but had more of a holistic view of the process: subjects are only part of being a teacher – the central issue is a growth of the human being. It seems to be important to help teacher students realising and further developing their strengths.

In the *French* teacher training system the main contents are: professional ethics, French for teaching and communication, subject-specific knowledge, course design and planning, classroom management and organization of student's work, adjustment of teaching to meet student's needs, assessment of students, ICT supporting teaching and learning, team work, cooperation with parents and school partners, professional development and innovation. The French teacher training students are required to complete the following teaching units: subject-knowledge and teaching methods, introduction to research in didactics, contemporary issues in teaching: missions, processes, stakes as well as a vocational training period. The initial training is a mix of periods of the training course, practical experience in a class and training at the IUFM and within the establishment. In case of training courses in school, there are 10 professional skills defined in order to comply with the French teacher competency standards. Each involves knowledge, capacities to implement them and fundamental professional attitudes: (1) Act as a employee of the state and in an ethical and responsible way; (2) Master the French language to teach and communicate; (3) Master the disciplines and have a good general knowledge; (4) Conceive and implement professional teaching (choosing contents and methods); (5) Organize the work of the class; (6) Take into account the variety of the pupils; (7) Diagnose and assess the pupils; (8) Master the technologies of information and the communication; (9) Work in team and cooperate with the relatives and the partners of the pupils; (10) form and innovate. Since the introduction of the Master degree, subject-related knowledge became more and more important, however, all ten skills are still important.

The *German* experts generally agree with a canon of contents of modern teacher training. The standards defined by the *Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic (KMK)* define the status quo. Almost every interviewee relies on some or all of the five basic standards: (1) teaching and learning, (2) education, (3) assessment and counselling, (4) ongoing development of competences and (5) school-development. At the same time, representatives of theoretical training at university differ very much in their understanding of the key contents of modern teacher training. One declines any practical element because they would lead to a de-professionalization, another argues for a theory-based practical training and a third switches to a meta-level of defining professionalism as a change of perception. The professors have in common, that they argue on a very critical level. Quite the contrary is the position of the responsible for practical training. They have precise ideas of what teacher training is about and connect up with the given standards of the administration. They only partly reflect or criticise these pre-defined standards, but they add contents that anticipate on the basis of current challenges regarding educational disadvantaged pupils, such as handling heterogeneity. Finally, the administrative representatives combine both viewpoints. They name the defined and traditional standards, but are aware of new challenges and necessities teacher training have to react on. In a way, they mediate between both phases – theory and practice – and are very open to new facets. Regarding the question of preparing teachers to handle educational disadvantage, the administrative responsible have the strongest reference, followed by the directors of teacher academies and finally the professors.

In *Italy*, the SSIS (Specialization School for Secondary School Teachers) was organized in 10 disciplinary areas and aimed at upgrading and enhancing the teaching role through the acquisition of the disciplinary expertise and pedagogical, methodological, didactical, organizational and social skills, necessary to meet the learning outcomes expected by law. The practical training made didactic activities significant, systematic, complex and motivating through a curricular flexible planning; it included decisions regarding objectives, areas of knowledge and didactic methods; it made students of the SSIS part of the community in which they acted in an adequate way to the school

development, to the specific contents, to the content-method interrelation, and to the integration with other training areas. The majority of experts interviewed told us that the SSIS guarantees the teaching quality and provides knowledge and competence through a balanced methodological arrangement.

The content of teacher training in the *Netherlands* is based on nationally determined quality standards for all subject and pedagogic disciplines, so called “knowlege bases”. They are further specified in detailed competences with task and goal descriptions – the so called “7 competences” which cover all aspects of the profession: (1) interpersonal competency, (2) pedagogic competency by making school and class a safe place for pupils to be and providing a powerful learning climate, (3) competency in the area of subjects and subject didactics, (4) organisational competency concerning school affairs and management, (5) coordinating own work as teacher with the work of the team and the school organisation, (6) establishing a relation with the parents, the living quarter of the pupils, local economy and other relevant actors, (7) reflecting on all these competences to the end of becoming a professional in teaching (see as example Opleidingsplan tweedegraads lerarenopleidingen 2008-2009 HvA). These competenties are issued in the Wet Beroepen in het Onderwijs, the wet BIO (law on professions in education, 1 August 2006) (see further: Krachtig meesterschap, 2008; Monitor Krachtig meesterschap, 2011). Experts point out the tension between general content of teacher training and a more specific training which prepares students for teaching in lower secondary schools. Training is now geared too strongly towards general secondary schools and disregards the special needs of pupils in lower secondary which would imply more individualized didactic approaches. There is a general trend that the basic qualifications (language proficiency and math) must be strengthened. It becomes also visible, that sympathy and respect for pupils is central for teachetrs. Further quotations are about “knowledge” and “didactics” as well as connecting theory with practice. General educational competenties and specific subject knowledge have to be developed by reflection and prefessionalization in service. But it is also important that the students acquire management skills, classroom organisation and, most of all, be aware of the societal context within which they will have to teach.

In Poland, the experts perception of key issues in teacher training substantially varies. It seems that those differences come from the different perspectives and interests of the particular actors. The strongest emphasis on the education system by standardization is put by the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. The representatives of institutions of professional training focus on the implementation of an offer supplementary to the training in universities. On the other side, representatives of the faculties of Education criticise all attempts of standardization and indicate limits resulting from it. Experts name three fundamental aspects as relevant for teacher training: training for teaching a particular subject; training for recognizing pupils predispositions and individualized teaching; training for educational work taking the students background into account.

Slovenian experts in the field of education generally agree with the criteria for accreditation of study programmes for teacher education which were valid from year 2008 to the end of the year 2009. With the criteria discussions related to the share of pedagogical education and to the share of subject education were concluded. Those discussions are very common by experts and accompanying every teacher education reform. The criteria prescribed that in a pedagogical study programme, there must be a parallel, consecutive or integrated manner of linking educational sciences, disciplines on which specific school subjects are based, subject didactics and teaching practice. Educational sciences must include: pedagogical and psychological content with elements of developmental and educational psychology, pedagogy, andragogy and general didactics. Generally experts agree with this structure although contents of those subjects vary from faculty to faculty depending on the trainer teaching the subject. Teaching practice in school is conducted on the principle of reflective practice and must enable students to integrate subject knowledge with pedagogical and teaching profession knowledge. Graduates must be able to connect and apply the acquired knowledge in complex, unforeseeable and diverse circumstances, all of which requires a close interaction between three components: cognitive component (knowledge and understanding), action (professional abilities) and emotional-motivational component (views and values). Most of all, students must acquire the following general competences: ability to cooperate, efficient teaching, cooperation with the working and social environment, trained for permanent professional development, organizational and managerial abilities.

As the responsibility for Education has been devolved across the various National Assembles of the *United Kingdom*, there are three different sets of standards that provide the basic guidelines for the contents of an accredited teacher training qualification in England, Scotland and Northern Ireland (and also Wales, although this nation is not covered by the GOETE research). In each nation the standards specify what is expected of a student teacher at the end of initial teacher training or education and also the design requirements for training programmes provided by Higher Education Institutions (HEI). In England, teacher students must work towards the Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) standards regarding professional attributes (relationships with children and young people; frameworks; communicating and working with others; personal professional development; teaching and learning; assessment and monitoring; subjects and curriculum; literacy, numeracy and ICT; achievement and diversity; health and well-being) as well as professional skills (planning; teaching; assessing, monitoring and giving feedback; reviewing teaching and learning, learning environment; team working and collaboration (Training and Development Agency for Schools in England). The Standard for Initial Teacher Education (SITE) outlines what is expected of a student teacher at the end of Initial Teacher Education who is seeking provisional registration with the General Teaching Council of *Scotland*. The QTS in *England and Wales* set of benchmark statements, which are the requirements for each programme of Initial Teacher Education in Scotland: professional knowledge and understanding (curriculum; education systems and professional responsibilities; principles and perspectives); professional skills and abilities (teaching and learning; classroom organisation and management; pupil assessment; professional reflection and communication) professional values and personal commitment (GTCS, 2006). The General Teaching Council of *Northern Ireland* provides the competences listed in Table 12. The council asks that the competences be viewed in their entirety, along with the section on the 'core philosophy' behind their approach to education, which it is claimed 'seeks to celebrate the complexity of teaching and, as importantly, the reality that it is concerned with values and professional identity as much as knowledge and competences': professional values and practice; professional knowledge and understanding; professional skills and application (planning and leading; teaching and learning; assessment) (GTCNI, 2007).

Table 17 is the attempt to summarize and categorize the named aspects. Categorization is heavy, because partners named a mix of standards, competences, content descriptions and topics, which are not comparable by themselves. Therefore, the table shows no hard distinctions but it helps to get an estimation, which area of contents are more or less relevant in teacher training. Regarding every county, aspects of content knowledge, especially in relation to the subjects, is mentioned. Pedagogical knowledge is named in a more detailed way, but issues of professionalism (in the sense of learnable techniques) seem to be constitutive while describing key contents of modern teacher training. The professional habitus and aspects of a teacher personality are not described in a similar density than pedagogical knowledge and especially elements of professionalism.

Table 17: Key contents of teacher training

	Content knowledge	**Pedagogical knowledge**	**Professionalism**	**Habitus/personality**
Finland	Knowledge in subjects	Didactics; pedagogy	Practical matters	Social/ethical aspects; growing as human being
France	Subject-specific knowledge	Pedagogical knowledge; course planning; classroom management; adjustment of teaching to meet student's needs; assessment	professional development and innovation; cooperation with parents and school partners; team work, ICT; practical training	professional ethics; rights and duties
Germany	Teaching and learning	Education	Assessment and counselling; ongoing development; school development	–
Italy	Disciplinary expertise	Pedagogical, methodological and didactical skills	Organizational skills	Social skills
Netherlands	Competency in the subject area	Pedagogical competency; competency in subject didactics	Organizational competency; coordination; networking; reflexivity	Interpersonal competency

Poland	Training in particular subjects	Educational work taking the students background into account	Recognizing pupils predispositions and individualized teaching	–
Slovenia	Subject disciplines; subject-didactics; knowing and understanding	Educational sciences;	Teaching practice; professional abilities; cooperation/networking; efficient teaching; organizational and managerial abilities	Emotional-motivational component (views and values)
United Kingdom	teaching and learning; subjects and curriculum; literacy	assessment and monitoring; achievement and diversity; planning; teaching; giving feedback; learning environment	frameworks; communicating and working with others; numeracy and ICT; reviewing teaching and learning; team working and collaboration	relationships with children and young people; personal professional development; health and well-being

2.2.3 Main problems of teacher training

For a first orientation, the rating of partners in front of the backdrop of their analyses can be used. They were asked, how the situation of teacher training in general could be described (positively/negatively). Most partners answered that teacher training has average problems (France, Germany, Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia), two research teams outlined their teacher training as rather bad with a lot of problems. Most significant is, that only the Finnish team came to a positive estimation by trend (rather good with few problems). It can be assumed, that teacher training in most of the researched countries has numerous problems that have to be solved while reforming teacher training in the next years. Details regarding the single countries are described beneath.

Table 18: Situation of teacher training (amount of problems)

The situation of teacher training is all in all…	**very bad**	**rather bad**	**intermediate**	**rather good**	**very good**
	full of problems	a lot of problems	average problems	few problems	without any problems
Finland				X	
France			X		
Germany			X		
Italy		X			
Netherlands			X		
Poland			X		
Slovenia			X		
United Kingdom		X			

In *Finnish* subject teacher education, the teacher students spend the first years, the majority of their studies in their own faculties. The fact that subject teachers are first and foremost socialised into the “science culture” of their primary subjects and only secondarily to the “teaching culture”, was seen as a problem by one of the university departments interviewees. She also stressed that the pedagogical education not only comes later on but forms a considerably smaller share of the studies than the subject studies. The actual pedagogical studies, undertaken at a teacher education department, indeed form only a small part of the whole degree (60 credits; the whole degree approx. 300 credits). In subject teacher training there are overly tight schedules that are linked to the lack of (systematic) continuing education. According to a study by Piesanen et al. (2006, p. 38-40), when asked about topics which could be taught primarily in continuing education after the completion of the initial degree, both teacher students and teacher trainers put the prevention of learning difficulties and the prevention of exclusion on top of that list. It can be assumed that these are the kind of topics which would benefit from the teacher already having experience of the situations in the real working life. The amount of practice was an issue that separated the theoretical and practical teacher trainers quite clearly. Having too little time for practice was raised as a problem by only one of the university department trainers, but all of the practical trainers there raised the issue as a central problem.

The recent reform of teacher training in *France* was not really welcome because it changed a lot. Each IUFM (University Institute for Teacher Training) was integrated in one university (Loi d'orientation et de programme pour l'avenir de l'Ecole, 23 avril 2005). A Master degree for teachers was created and implemented since September 2010. This reform changed the teacher training system from two phases (national competitive examination, then teacher training) to a "simultaneous training" model. The change increases concurrency between universities in the same region because all of them can offer a Master degree. In some experts view, the reform increased the quality of teacher training and gave the opportunity to link teacher training to research on education. For others, this reform strengthens the theoretical aspects and cut the training from daily school life and in service teachers participation in teacher training is less important than before. The higher level of teacher education (now: Master) may have an impact on teacher recruitment and their social profile. Firstly, access to the teaching profession can be limited for some students or retraining persons that cannot face tuition fee (two years of master instead of one). Secondly, this situation can increase the gap between secondary school teachers and pupils: During their own education, teachers did not fail a lot and were part of the best pupils and therefore their own school experience does not facilitate the understanding of pupil's problems and behaviours. Another problem is that there is a difference between two models of teacher training: a teacher training only based on disciplinary knowledge and didactics without vocational training (inputs on education system, context of practice, learning processes, social and cultural selection processes etc.) and a training that combines both elements. Currently, disciplinary knowledge is still more important than didactics, education and vocational training. This situation is linked to the philosophy of national competitive examination: selecting the best specialist of a discipline. The interest in teaching and the ability to become a good teacher are not taken into account. It presumes: if you are good in a discipline you will be a good teacher. But this approach is not available anymore and some young teachers really struggle to face daily problems in school. They have a good level in their discipline but their vocational skills are not well developed. The main problem is that this way of thinking influences the way teachers are trained at IUFM. Teacher trainers in social sciences have some difficulties to convince their colleagues of the importance of their inputs to teach and face daily-problems in school. They often note that students are not so much interested by those courses. They do not really want to understand social and psychological problems, but they want effective solutions and recipes. The situation is quite different from one IUFM to another but there is the same finding: the link between disciplinary training and vocational training is not enough important and this has consequences on the way young teachers act in school.

From the *German* experts' point in view, the main problems of teacher training are in close relationship with the contents, respectively those that are unnecessarily covered or those not covered at all, although they seem to be important. Administrative responsible recognise primarily structural problems like the underdeveloped subject-didactics at universities or the unbalance of gender within the teacher candidates. Professors at university name structural problems as well. They refer to the organisation and shape of academic training. One interviewee fears that teacher training contents fragment into small units that lead to a de-professionalization. Another professor thematises the change of education as a scientific discipline. Finally, an expert responsible for practical training recognises a substantial amount of single deficits like a lack of practical training, unqualified candidates and the need to reacting on problems in the past or missed contents. They show a closer understanding of problems that students may have as well and offer ideas that can directly be implemented. Thus, they might be more efficient regarding a reform of teacher training as their colleagues at university who stick to fundamental discussions. All in all, the voices of the experts refer to the realisation that the current teacher training is not adjusted to the needs of daily in-service teaching very well. Teacher training targets the required skills and expertise to deal with the daily challenges in school only partial. However, this conclusion is based on very different understandings of what the main problems of teacher training are. The experts of both phases are focussed on their specific situation and loose a broader view that takes the whole teacher training into consideration. While professors discuss problems on a very abstract level, directors of teacher academies become very clear. It is hard to find a common basis of what necessary reforms should be about. As before regarding the key contents, the view of administrative responsible show possibilities to realise reforms in a pragmatic way. They name deficits and possible steps of quality improvement.

In *Italy*, after ten years operating, in July 2008 the teacher training (SSIS structures) had been suspended. The reason was the impossibility to employ teacher training graduates of all Italian regions. For instance, Emilia Romagna Region had 946 places for teacher applicants every year, but it then was impossible to employ nearly 1 000 new teachers every 2 years (Decreto Ministeriale 7 maggio 2008 – Posti SSIS 2008-2009). In addition, the last minister, Mariastella Gelmini, announced a reform of secondary teacher training: the prospected changes imply a shorter and more experiential way to the teaching profession: three-year course (general) plus two additional years of specialised and pedagogical training plus one year of school placement. The reduction from two years of specialization to one could cut the time for studying, reflecting and researching on emerging educational topics. There will also be the risk that not prepared students would be used as unpaid substitutes for missing permanent staff. Furthermore, as research on subjects didactics is not so common at Italian universities, at Master level only few professors focus on teacher training and are able to guide teacher students. Experts say that the school system reform (Gelmini Law) will shorten 27 000 teaching positions in the next years which implies more pupils per class but less support, with a worse effect on pupils with special needs and disadvantaged.

The *Netherlands* experts have considerable agreement about problems connected with teacher training. The recall: teacher shortage, ineffective infrastructure (too many too small institutes) and disproportionally high drop out rates, especially in the first year of study, and accordingly low output of certified teachers. Only 4 out of 10 students graduate within four years and only 50% after five (not the legal 4) years. One of the reasons for that result is that the students during their in-service are placed “in the most deplorable classes with the most incapable teacher who has to do a job which is impossible to do.” Another problem is connected with the BA/MA-structure: Master students do not go into lower secondary schools but to higher general eduation (brain-drain).

In *Poland*, at all researched levels fundamental problems affecting teacher training: the issue of admission restriction regarding educational studies; the proportion between practical training and theory; the incompatibility of directions of future teacher training to the current demand on labour marked; the lack of possibility too verify teacher training prior to in-service experiences. The decision for becoming a teacher at the age of 19 is to early, in the view of the administrative representatives. Interviewees also indicated the lack of extra seminars that hinder prospective students with physical disabilities (for instance speech impediment) to become a teacher. The issue of insufficient practical training elements is brought up at all levels of education. According to the representatives of the ministry, teachers should gain experience first, then learn theory. The representatives of centres of professional training express that internships do not enable students to obtain skills of keeping discipline in class and coping with a problematic clientele of pupils. Among universities representatives, people in charge of the apprenticeship system point out the limits in their conduction i.e. schools are reluctant to cooperate with universities, as well as the lack of incentives for mentors. A connection of the two systems that nowadays are completely separated, would allow to train teachers better. Another problem is the lack of procedures to screen future teacher candidates. The admission is based merely of the results of final examination at the end of upper secondary school which says few about the competences for becoming a teacher.

The interviewees in *Slovenia* highlighted many problems of modern teacher education. One stressed there are two contents that do not get enough attention, namely the mutual relationships (teacher and pupils, teacher and parents) and in that context also solving conflicts. The second weak area is better understanding to use the information technology while teaching. Another interviewee highlighted as a key problem the supremacy of academic knowledge over professional training and marked a lack of transition of theory into practice. In her opinion, there is a need of a higher quality training for teacher-mentors to help students at practical training. And the third challenge is the period of apprenticeship, because it happens to often that it is mentored by a person who does not belong to the same professional field (e.g., principal). In her opinion, mentors need to be trained and this issue needs to be solved systematically. A third interviewee thinks the main problem is the limited background of single students, who choose the teacher profession. Lately they have noticed that the attitude of students towards work, study and people in general, especially a respectful stance, has ‘decreased’. Another interviewee votes for professional education being an integrated part of programmes of teacher education and not only a component of one of the main parts of teacher education. Further named problems are about financing of programmes

that do not have enough students enrolled (e.g., natural sciences), less realization of the last reforms, less regard to children with special needs and not enough emphasize on pedagogy.

In the *United Kingdom*, a clear issue of problems is limited time and excessive workload for teacher students. For example, academic tutors interviewed for the *Trainee Teachers* project identified that high achieving PGCE/PGDE students who might be 'perfectionists' could often find university-based learning having a negative effect on their well-being as the volume of work meant they would commonly not be able to perform to their usual standards. Interviews with teacher students show that their relationships with school-based mentors are most important for them, and that when these are perceived as dysfunctional, serious problems can arise. The student-mentor relationship was seen as being the key for socialisation into the school as a workplace and the nurturing and supporting of novice practitioners. School-based mentors expressed concerns about the time given over to them to carry out this important role, and that preparation for the mentoring role varied between institutions. University tutors also focused on this key relationship, emphasising the importance of school-based mentors attending mentor training (which was sometimes not the case), and reiterating the seriousness of problems arising from the non- or partial-fulfilment of the mentor role, or when there is a 'personality clash' between student-teacher and mentor. The "Work of Teacher Education" project (Ellis et al. 2011) found that a recurrent problem from the perspective of university tutors was the sheer amount of work that went into maintaining relationships with partnership schools. As the GOETE interviews illustrated, this situation is most marked in England, where schools have become increasingly released from local authority control with respect to their budgets and expenditure. The situation is different in Northern Ireland because schools do not receive funds for taking student-teachers, so this is done on a voluntary basis. Teacher educator interviewees therefore expressed that problems may arise from schools being unwilling to take their students, or placing them with non-exam level classes. At a governmental level, the conservative-liberal coalition government has framed the problem of teacher training in the United Kingdom (particularly England) as being related to the 'craft' of teaching (see DfE, 2010a; DfE, 2010b; DfE, 2011a). While there are excellent teachers in the United Kingdom, schools do not have enough of a say in how the training is structured or delivered, and that there is not enough emphasis on behaviour management or core skills like reading (DfE, 2011a).

Table 19 shows the different aspects of the named problems to summarize the description above and the attempt to categorize them. Except Finland, all partners describe problems in structural and organizational regard. Six countries report worries regarding contents, most of all in the field of underrepresented pedagogical and didactical elements. Four countries (Finland, France, Germany and Poland) point out inconveniences in case of the balance between theoretical and practical elements in the training, especially regarding a lack of practical training or a missing conjunction between both. Problem occurring because of individual attributes, such as a problematic group within the teaching clientele, report five countries.

Table 19: Main problems of teacher training

	Theory versus practice	Contents	Structure/organization	Individual attributes
Finland	Too theoretical; too less practice	Too less pedagogy	–	–
France	Too theoretical; distance from the reality of pupils and school; only subject-related knowledge counts; missing link between theoretical and practical elements	Trainers in education struggle while convincing others from the need of the pedagogical training	Exclusion of students with low socio-economic resources	–
Germany	Lack of practical training; training not adjusted to the daily needs in-service; less professional training	Subject didactics are not established very well	Too fragmentary	Unbalanced gender ratio; unqualified candidates
Italy	–	Missing research on subject didactics	Reduced learning time after reform	Use of unqualified personnel as substitute teachers

Netherlands	–	–	Fast training (teacher shortage); ineffective infrastructure; high dropout-rate; bad working conditions in first years of teaching	Brain-drain (BA/MA double structure)
Poland	Unbalance: too theoretical; insufficient practical training; less cooperation between training institutions and schools	–	Admission restriction	Too early biographical decisions necessary (no opportunities)
Slovenia	–	Relationships between actors in school not reflected enough; missing training regarding ICT; not enough emphasis on pedagogy and special needs	No systematic qualification of mentors in practical training; reforms not implemented very well	Limited background of candidates; missing professional ethos
United Kingdom	–	Too less focus on behaviour management or on developing reading skills	Limited time and excessive workload; risk of bad relationships with mentors (less training of mentors); schools unwilling to support trainees	–

2.2.4 Main educational philosophies and approaches

It is difficult to rate the teaching and learning approaches in teacher training because of the following reasons: (1) There is no representative research on teaching and learning in case of the use of methods; (2) The examination regulations define only contents, but not the use of methods in teacher training; (3) To answer that question, an analysis of the single lessons would be necessary in order to be able to quantify.

In the *Finnish* documents analysed, e.g., respect others regardless of their background, encountering of heterogeneity and equality were emphasised. Also the teachers' co-operative skills were mentioned in many documents, especially co-operation between the school and the parents. This came up also in several interviews. In the interviews, generally it was emphasised that not even subject teachers should be limited to only teaching their subject(s), but the teacher's point of view should be holistic. According to the interviewees, it is important for teachers to be able to teach in a way that is understandable to the youth, have social skills to achieve a connection with the pupils. Also intercultural skills/knowledge and the ability to maintain and improve school-society relations were mentioned in several interviews. The approach in teacher training is a combination of theoretical and practical, and the practical training is carried out in front of real pupils in real schools. They are designated as practice schools but they are basically just normal schools. More detailed information is hard to anticipate, because teacher trainers make their own didactical decisions.

In *France*, throughout the twentieth century, the training of teachers was concentrated on the academic disciplines. The political left and right-wing policies are in confrontation: The right wing is in favour of the subjects, the left wing prefers educational sciences as leading in teacher training. The IUFM (University Institute of Teacher Training) provide prospective teachers with appropriate training allowing them to be successful candidates to the recruitment exams and to fulfil their role as education professionals. It's curriculum is based on the interdependence of theory and practice. All IUFM students complete vocational training periods in local schools while pursuing their Master of Arts in Teaching. IUFM training programmes help students to develop professional skills in order to comply with the French Teacher Competency Standards in: professional ethics; French for teaching and communication; subject-specific knowledge; course design and planning; class management and organization of students' work; adjustment of teaching to meet students' needs; assessment of students; ICT supporting teaching and learning; team work, cooperation with parents and school partners; professional development and innovation. French students are required to com-

plete the following teaching units: Subject-knowledge and teaching methods; introduction to research in didactics; contemporary issues in teaching; missions, processes, stakes; vocational training period. In the second year of IUFM students have to complete modules of vocational, didactical and educational training.

Traditionally there are two opposite ideas of teaching in *Germany*: a predominantly teacher-centred way of instruction (e.g., the method of direct instruction) and a predominantly pupil-centred way of teaching and learning (e.g., cooperative learning). For a long time, both sides were supposed to be subject of the discussion about the best or more effective teaching method. Nowadays, the majority of experts came to the accordance, that the different approaches have different benefits and disadvantages that differ dependant on the contents, objectives, group of pupils, teachers etc. that are part of the learning situation. Still, the belief in these general educational philosophies and approaches shows basic ideas of education. We assume, that teaching and learning in teacher training is comparable to the approaches in most other academic courses, especially the training of upper secondary teachers. Therefore, structured teaching models will dominate those lectures and seminars. The courses in primary teacher education might be based more on constructivist teaching models, such as group work. It has to be considered that those differences are limited to the courses in education, while the overall training is more on studying in two or three subjects. The practical training within the teacher training at universities (1st phase) is comparable to an internship in other academic fields, if there is one. To become as precise as possible within the GOETE-context, we asked experts if there is a link between the structure of the education system and educational disadvantage. The answers of administrative representatives show that all-day-schools or a two-tracked education system might help to handle social disparities, but the decisions on the system-level are not that important. There are more relevant factors like what happens in the single lesson or how teachers and parents work together in an educational partnership. Professors at universities who are responsible for theoretical training are much more convinced that the education system has an impact on educational disadvantage. The system forces or represses social disparities and the level of how teachers are able to cope with the challenges. Representatives of practical training see both the limited impact of the education system and the chances that a non-selective system would provide. At the same time, they mention that teachers finally are the key to provide disadvantaged students with the support they need. Regarding the initial question of main educational philosophies and approaches the excerpts and explanations show, that experts are split over the question if the structure and formal organisation of the education system is the most relevant key to reply on educational disadvantage; predominantly they deny that. Instead, the most important aspect stay the teachers, their attitudes and competences to support students and to handle heterogeneity. To get an idea, in order to assess the issue of how teachers could be prepared to handle educational disadvantage best, we asked – in a second step – if there is a special set of teaching methods or educational principles that are more appropriate than others to achieve this goal. The administrative representatives are of one voice and say that there is no better or worse teaching method – in the respect of handling heterogeneity as well. It is more important to prepare teachers to handle different methods adequately. The responsible professors for theoretical training explain that more open teaching methods are more appropriate to deal with heterogeneous learning conditions or are sceptical with regard to the whole debate on teaching methods. The highest sensitivity regarding the possibilities that open teaching methods offer in the case of handling educational disadvantage have the responsible for practical training. However, the first excerpt shows that some directors might also be very sceptical about any advantage of open methods. In conclusion, the question of teaching methods prompts similar reactions to the question of the impact of the education system. Experts articulate a moderate advantage of open teaching methods regarding the handling of educational disadvantage, e.g., meeting the requirements of heterogeneity, but they do not see that methods are a key issue. Back to the initial question: Experts have a broad view on several approaches of teacher training. They have no stated opinion which would be the most appropriate way to prepare future teachers to handle educational disadvantage. This might be a reflective and honest position, nevertheless, it is problematic when defining a core curriculum for teacher training.

Each single *Italian* university established evaluation criteria, phases and methods of the SSIS. The aim of historical and epistemological teaching was the acquisition of knowledge concerning the nature and development of specific subjects required to teaching qualification, their historical evo-

lution, the relations between them, the reflection on the source of teaching problems, and on the didactic methodologies in use. The institutional aim was to develop a specific professional role of lower and upper secondary school teachers. The training path was articulated for the acquisition of specific competences: educational sciences, historical and epistemological aspects of the subjects, subject didactics, approaches of active learning, methodologies to deal with disabled (Didactic Regulation of Sicilia SSIS). Didactic activities should have been significant, systematic, complex and motivating through a curricular flexible planning. Practical training should have included students' decisions with regard to learning objects, areas of knowledge and didactic methods in order to make pupils part of the acknowledge process. In addition, teacher students should have learnt how to organize school time, school spaces, materials and multimedia technologies. Teacher students should have also paid attention to civil and cultural aspects (Italian and European) and to ethnic issues in order to cope with specific teaching problems with foreign pupils. Furthermore, teacher students should have learnt how to pay attention to pupils' needs to foster their personal identity building. For each teacher student a mandatory individual study plan included at least one didactic activity for each learning field. A harmonious and complete teacher training can not be reduced to the acquisition of theoretical and methodological teaching skills, but has to include a close relationship with the school context, which is made possible through periods of observation and active learning, under the guidance of permanent school teachers staff.

All interviewees in the *Netherlands* stress how important it is that the students learn about the context within which they later will have to work. There is therefore a clear notion of education as being one integral whole – and because this point is so consistently stressed, it also means: that integral whole is not reality in the schools – but should be. The (future) teacher must disclose the potential talents of the pupils and constantly work for their further development, just as students and teachers are perceived as persons who are constantly developing their own personality and capacities. Allied with those notions is the officially claimed demand of further professionalization (Krachtig meesterschap 2008; van der Waals, 2009). An ideal teacher (student) is somebody whose school (training) career is an integral part of his/her life-course, as an interviewee explains. A key notion of modern education is diversity as a new guiding principle, not only in terms of gender and ethnic minority status, but also in terms of individual preferences like homosexuality. A good teacher is a democratic teacher who would not discriminate on ascribed criteria but solely on scholar achievement. A good teacher – certainly for pupils in lower vocational education – must not only be good in his or her respective subject and must be able to apply individualized didactics, which in itself is already difficult enough, but s/he must first and foremost approach the pupils with respect and affection. The fact that most of the interviewees make this point, demonstrates, that there exist in fact two notions of the “ideal teacher”: for teaching in higher educational tracks it might be enough to be a good professional (subject teacher), but for lower vocational education personality is more important. This ideal is a continuation of the traditional belief of the “born teacher” (du Bois-Reymond, 1983). But as not all (future) teachers “have it”, mastership must be acquired in the training.

In *Poland* prevails a constructivist approach in teacher training what determines the features of a perfect teacher. According to a professional training representative, “teacher direct the process of learning, teaches with methods of effective learning, shows new strategies of learning”. In the statements of experts there is no unanimous opinion on what a general educational approach is. The representative of university describes that teacher students are shown constructivist basics of teaching, but the way they are taught is „dry theory“. It may be concluded from the experts statements that the Polish system of teacher training is divided into two fields – educational training that enables a teacher to work with a student, coping with class and communicating with parents, on the other hand training in didactics which enables to convey knowledge of the given subject taught by a teacher.

There are three contents in *Slovenian* teacher training (knowledge of the subject of teaching, didactics and pedagogical-psychological knowledge) that are necessary for educating competent teachers, so the interviewed professionals agree. The knowledge on these three fields defines a good teacher. Pedagogical subjects, including didactics, have traditionally been seen as second class (inferior); the higher the grade teachers were trained for, the more this view was prevalent. Technical knowledge has always been seen as the most important, and a part of every teacher education reform is the fight about what portion the pedagogical subjects will be. The experts

stress the meaning of pedagogical knowledge especially from the point of view of how to teach the diverse pupils that shape a teacher's daily routine. They also stress the importance of teacher selection based on the need for the most quality staff. As they pointed out, the role of teachers in modern times has changed, because they are no longer the transmitter of knowledge, but the ones who encourage pupils to gain new knowledge on their own. This should be followed by the way of educating teachers with the use of active methods of teaching as a part of the teacher training itself. If we focus on the programmes of teacher education, teaching and learning approaches are different, depending on a programme and on a subject, and also on an individual professor. There is no defined concept, which would speak about a dominant teaching and learning approach. Content-wise these subjects are mainly meant for getting to know different theories and their usefulness on the level of practice. This is also true if we look from the point of view of the disadvantaged. We should add that only the children with special needs are mainly thought of as disadvantaged, while other groups of disadvantaged are often neglected also from the theoretical point of view. We lack knowledge about their current situation, and also knowledge about how to teach them, how to individualize and differentiate classes, so that we would enable them better options for a school success and social participation.

The General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland gives a useful summary of one of the main educational philosophies and approaches in the *United Kingdom* as a whole at the present time. Hence, a reflective and activist teacher has (1) values and attributes, (2) a mission and a purpose, (3) a sense of professional autonomy and (4) knowledge and competence (GTCNI). The GTCNI explains that 'the concept of a reflective and activist practitioner sees the teacher as a moral agent and as an informed, knowledgeable practitioner' (GTCNI, 2007, p. 10). This is a view held by all the teacher educators interviewed for the GOETE project and the *Trainee Teachers* project, and it is also reflected in the findings of the *Work of Teacher Education* project (Ellis et al., 2011). Although the model comes from the Northern Irish context, it is reflected in the notions of professionalism, competence and ethical practice in the other nations. In Scotland, for example, the policy context is one that stresses four models of teacher professionalism: effective, reflective, enquiring, transformative (Scottish Government, 2001). Thus, teachers are positioned as far more than instructors or providers of information and skills; they are also seen as moral agents engaged in reflective, ethical practices throughout every aspect of their professional lives. This is seen in the resistance of teacher educators in England to use the term 'training' and their preference for 'education' and hence the alternate philosophical and ethical underpinnings that such a terminological and semantic distinction is seen as bringing.

2.2.5 Theory and practice

The balance between theoretical and practical elements of the initial training and professional development is an important issue in the teacher training debate. It can be estimated, that coping with problems resulting from educational disadvantage of pupils and helping them to have successful educational trajectories is linked to the relationship between theory and practice. It seems necessary to be confronted with appropriate theoretical knowledge (e.g., about theories and ways of being disadvantaged) as well as being practically trained (e.g., to counsel pupils and parents while making reasonable decisions regarding educational transitions or in case of individual learning processes). To get a first orientation of the balance or unbalance of theory and practice in teacher training, partners were asked to rate their importance – separately for the initial training and professional development. Table 20 shows the results. In the initial training, practical elements are supposed to dominate teacher training by trend only in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. In Finland and Germany it seems to be hard to decide, which side is more important. French and Italian, especially Polish and Slovenian partners rate that their initial training is predominantly based on theory. Regarding the professional development, partners in Germany, by trend also those in Italy, Slovenia and the United Kingdom declare a predominantly practical focus, in France the proportion is equal. In Finland and in the Netherlands by trend and in Poland completely, partners rate the professional development of teachers as dominated by theory. In summary, it is not clear, if the initial training or professional development of teachers is more or less dominated by theory and practice. At the same time it becomes visible, that initial training and professional development have a different character in most countries. Assuming that a well-balanced and cross-

linked relation of theory and practice is necessary to prepare future teachers to handle educational disadvantage of their prospective pupils (GOETE focus), this patchwork of different relations and models in Europe leads to the notice that the current situation is not satisfying. Beneath the table, the situations in the eight involved countries is described in detail.

Table 20: Theory and practice

Theory and practice		theory	theory (by trend)	neither/nor	practice (by trend)	practice
Finland						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by			X		
2	The professional development is dominated by		X			
France						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by		X			
2	The professional development is dominated by			X		
Germany						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by			X		
2	The professional development is dominated by					X
Italy						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by		X			
2	The professional development is dominated by				X	
Netherlands						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by				X	
2	The professional development is dominated by		X			
Poland						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by	X				
2	The professional development is dominated by	X				
Slovenia						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by	X				
2	The professional development is dominated by				X	
United Kingdom						
1	The initial teacher training is dominated by				X	
2	The professional development is dominated by				X	

In *Finland*, there is obligatory practical training on every level of teacher training, but the amount depends on the level: primary school/class teacher education: 6 months; lower secondary/general upper secondary school subject teacher education: 4 months; vocational studies, general subjects: 3 months; vocational studies/vocational subjects: 3 months. During internships, the teacher students are guided by appointed teachers from the practice schools. The assessment of teaching skills varies, but generally the feedback is given in discussion right after the practice teaching sessions. While the situation of practical teacher training appears to be fairly good in Finland, and the amount of practical training should be sufficient, several interviewees mentioned that having more practical training would not hurt, in any case. Both, theoretical (university) and practical (teacher training school) interviewees were generally of same opinion. There are however limits to what can be added, it is not really possible within the current frameworks. The total time spent in the practical training should be increased, if the teaching practice hours were to be increased. Also, as commented by one teacher trainer, quantity does not compensate for quality. In other words, the quality of practical training is even more important than the sheer volume of training

The balance of theory and practice in the *French* teacher training changed during the Bologna process. Before the introduction of the Master degree in teacher training, the alternation model (mid-time in class and mid-time in IUFM) balanced theory and practice. There were training modules, named ‘professional practices analyses’ that gave the opportunity to teacher trainees to analyse their practices, find solutions and improve them. The main issue for IUFM trainers was to make the link between theory and practicing in school. They also had to deal with the secondary school advisor who was following each teacher trainees. Sometimes, there were differences between advisors’ points in view and the IUFM trainers’ points in view on how to teach and face different kinds of problems. After the introduction of the Masters degree, vocational training is less important (only two internships during the Master). So, there is an imbalance between theory and practice. There

is also less time dedicated to 'professional practices analyses'. Students sometimes consider that IUFM training is too theoretical and do not provide solutions to teach or face problems. Many teacher trainers answer that their goal is not to give recipes, but to make students understand learning processes and the school context and to give them tools to help them building their own way of teaching. This gap was noticed already before the change and some experts think that the Master-structure will stress it for two reasons: First, there is less time dedicated to the link between IUFM and practice in school and second, there are less teacher trainers who are in classroom as well (half time in class and half time as a teacher trainer). With the reform, those trainers are replaced by academic trainers.

The *German* national standards for teacher training (KMK, 2004) show, that balance of theory and practice is not only dependent on the weight of 1st (academic) versus 2nd (professional) phase, but also in which way the academic training has relations to practice and how the 2nd phase relates to theoretical concepts. Nevertheless, the two phases divide the training into a more theoretical and a more practical period. Usually, the first days of each internship during the 1st phase are characterised by more or less systematic observations of teaching-learning processes (lessons). Own teaching is mandatory in a second step, but always under observation of an experienced teacher and/or a lecturer from university. The final responsibility for internships during the academic training usually lies with the university, but in fact the school has the responsibility for what the students do during their training. Within the university, short internships (e.g., one day a week) are guided by the subjects or subject didactics, the longer internships (up to four weeks) are most often organised by the schools of education. The 2nd phase is a permanent combination of practical experiences within school and reflecting them during seminars at the teacher academy. Usually, trainee teachers give lessons from the very beginning, but experienced teachers are forced to observe every lesson for about six or twelve months. After that period, trainee teachers are allowed to give lessons on their own if they are evaluated positively. The administrative responsibility for training in the 2nd phase lies with the teacher academies. Academies ask principals and experienced teachers at the schools to judge the trainees performance (especially teaching skills). During their time in school, the principal has the authority to make decisions regarding the concerns of the trainees training. The training is split into the subjects that a trainee has studied during its academic training and is accompanied by general educational and judicial elements. Experts point out the problem of insufficient coordination and cooperation between the universities (theoretical training) and teacher academies (practical training). Professors at university accept that practical training is part of the academic teacher training as well. At the same time, they make clear that the task of the first phase is to help teacher students to step back of their pre-concepts of school, teaching and teachers. This is why it is necessary to base teacher training on a theoretical basis first and then to add practical experience. Experts responsible for practical training feel the same: The cooperation and coordination between both institutions have to be intensified. They accept theory as a necessary and helpful basis for their practical training. In some cases, the cooperation seems to be successful already, but it has to be part of the structure of teacher training in general. Furthermore, experts were asked to rank the significance of several components of teacher training, such as the subjects, subject-didactics, pedagogy, internships, training at teacher academies (traineeship) and support during career entry. Administrative responsible argue that all components are necessary. They do not favour either theory nor practice. Professors agree that scientific knowledge is necessary but not sufficient. Practical training is not dispensable. The directors of teacher academies tend to give practical training the primacy – not only during the 2nd phase of training but as well for teacher training in general. However, they accept that a basis of theory is important as well. All in all, there is obviously no primacy of theory or practice in the experts' view. Together with the named problem of cooperation between both phases of training, this raises the question as to why the situation is as problematic as illustrated above. Probably the interviewed experts represent a more open and flexible perception than the broad majority working at both institutions. But maybe it is only the assumption, that the respective others are not flexible enough to bear down the tensions. This leads to the deeper insight, that the traditional difficulties in cooperation might not be constitutive any longer and approaching one another is easier than most persons concerned believe.

The *Italian* responsible for practical elements before the suspension of teacher training were the tutor of practical teacher training (lecturer) and the in-service teacher tutor. As specified in the doc-

document by the governmental commission for teacher training, teacher education should promote pedagogical reflection and the achievement of educational, organizational, interpersonal and communicative skills. It is also underlined that a harmonious and complete teacher training can not be reduced merely to the acquisition of theoretical and methodological teaching skills. It also has to include a direct relationship with the school context through periods of observation and active learning, under the guidance of in-service school teachers. Experts interviewed agreed with the need of balancing theory and practice and with the necessity of a close partnership between schools and university teacher training. Experts say that during the first SSIS years there were some difficulties to define the relationships between several actors, but that the pedagogic and didactic reflections helped to organize the different paths and criteria. For guiding and counselling the teacher students, the responsible were the tutor of practical teacher training (lecturer) and the in-service teacher tutor. Each teacher student had an university professor as tutor for the internship and a tutor in school as referent. Result of the interviews was that the key of teacher training is the balance between theoretical and practical elements and the discussions and critical reflections about practical knowledge and students' experiences. Furthermore, during the lectures, epistemological reflections were stimulated through group discussions. In particular, few experts told that workshops should represent the link to epistemological reflection on subjects. However, SSIS was an university school and theory was more consistent than practice and this helped to open minds and provide a solid basis for practical knowledge.

Throughout the training program in the *Netherlands* there are periods of teaching practice at secondary schools. The organization of in-service periods differs per institution. In the first year, school practice is an orientation period during which the student learns to observe classroom as well as individual pupils and to get an impression of what it means to be (become) a teacher. In the second year the students work as teaching assistants, working with small groups of pupils and assisting in the development of teaching material. Third year students start to teach a class independently, with the subject teacher coaching them. The forth year of study is deemed to an independent teacher-in-training. In that final year, students are fully responsible for teaching and all other tasks involved. Normally, there is no coach present in the classroom and the student has to act on his own. Students focus on their subject area and gain teaching experience. In general the teacher trainers agree on a close relationship between what is taught in the respective subjects (subject didactics and subject discipline) and in general pedagogy and how that knowledge prepares students to deal with their internship periods. As teacher trainers say, the problem is not a misfit between theory and applicable knowledge in the classroom but more a problem of integrating subject-knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge *within* teacher training. In other words: all teacher trainers have different ideas about what is relevant for internships and send the students with different messages to the school.

All interviewed experts in *Poland* agree that the practical training is not substantial enough. Another problem of practical training is, that teachers in service do not only watch, prepare and conduct lessons, but do other tasks not related directly with the process of teaching as well (e.g., organizing, counselling) – these are not part of the training in schools. Furthermore, teacher students are not trained by teachers with school experience, but by academic lecturers that have no direct link to school practice. This results in a lot of knowledge delivered to the teacher students without any support resulting from experience. The training in the subjects is the prevailing element of teacher training – a teacher student is basically a student of mathematics, Polish language studies, Physics, Chemistry, etc. and then in the course of studies he obtains teaching specialisation, what involves the necessity of participating in extra modules and obtaining credits.

In *Slovenia*, criteria for evaluation of pedagogical programmes define that a programme which trains teachers has to comprise of 60 ECTS of pedagogical contents, of this at least 25% or 15 ECTS should be intended for practice. Thus, all programmes for teacher education also include practical training, but the share of practical training varies between the programmes, and also the way how practical training is integrated to a programme differs. One part of practical training usually comprises of direct, continuous practice in class and other parts of practical training which are usually integrated in the subjects from the area of subject didactics and which are evaluated with credits. In addition to continuous practice, practical training as a rule comprises of attendances and performances and also of other kinds of training. The interviewees point out that the new Bologna programmes improved the balance between theoretical training at university and practical training

at schools. Mainly it is about the portion of practical training being bigger than it was before at numerous faculties. The faculties also want to plan it much more carefully. Still the portion of the practical training differs according to the level of schooling the teachers are being trained for. The younger the pupils they will teach, the more practical training they have and vice versa. Practice is on one hand the responsibility of mentors at schools where the students perform practice. The other part of responsibility is taken by members of the university, who teach the students about the purpose of practice, about their obligations and who also check, e.g., through a portfolio, how a student has performed at practice. Practice is usually performed as a part of a subject (pedagogy, theory of education, psychology, special didactics…) or as an individual course. Taking the ratio of the portion of subjects that the students have to complete, the subject discipline is predominant. It is followed by pedagogical subjects and special didactics**,** and the smallest portion belongs to the practice. The theory is therefore predominant, which is especially the case in subject teacher education, less so with class teacher education.

One aspect of the document analysis and expert interviews in the *United Kingdom* was to determine what the balance between theory and practice was within initial teacher training. Teacher educator interviewees stressed that it was highly problematic to make a separation between the categories 'theory' and 'practice,' emphasising that they always encouraged theory-informed practice and, complimentarily, practice-informed theory. As such, this mirrored the commitment to enabling 'reflective practitioners' that is made explicit by the General Teaching Councils in Northern Ireland and Scotland, and shared by teacher educators in England (even if it is less strongly stated in policy). These kinds of positions were also reflected in the institution-specific course materials, where there is a sense of practicability and reflexivity associated with all forms of pedagogical theory. In practice though, it was difficult for the academic tutors in universities to bring this message across to their teacher students, because their relationships with them were far more fragmented than those established with school-based mentors, who students were in regular contact with while on placement. However, teacher students interviewed for the *Trainee Teachers* project often perceived an over-emphasis on pedagogical theory at the cost to practice-based learning. This was primarily the case where block placement and block university learning occurred, with the latter being viewed as 'wasting valuable time' that could be used to learn within a classroom environment. This was particularly the case between the two statutory placements, when interviewees expressed a fear of forgetting their newly developed classroom skills and taking a backwards step at next placement. The associated 'theory fatigue' caused students to feel frustrated and stressed with the course structure. Moreover, some students found that topics such as 'classroom management' were delivered at university after they had experienced problems on their school experience. Overall, then, it could be possibly concluded from the findings of both studies that the ability to make theory-practice connections is affected by a lack of time given over during the training year for reflection and reflective dialogue.

2.2.6 Major discourses (public/scientific)

Partners were asked to rate their analysis of major public and scientific discourses about teacher training regarding their intensity (Table 21). This allows a rough estimation which discourses are virulent in which participating country. The public discourse regards teacher training is rather strong in Finland only. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom it is similar to other educational topics and in all other countries it is rather (France, Germany, Italy) or very weak (Poland, Slovenia). In summary, teacher training seems not to be an important issue in the public discussion. The academic discourse regards teacher training is very strong in the Netherlands and stronger than about most other educational topics in Germany as well. In Finland and France it is similar to other educational discourses and in Italy, Poland and the United Kingdom it is rather weak. Summarized, the academic discourse regards teacher training is little stronger than the public discourse, but both are not very important compared to other areas of education. Beneath the table, the situation of both discourses in the single countries is described.

Table 21: Discourses regards teacher training (public and academic)

Discourses regards teacher training		very weak	rather weak	intermediate	rather strong	very strong
Finland		no discourse at all	weaker than about most educational topics	average (similar to other educational topics)	stronger than about most educational topics	intensive discourse
1	The public discourse is …				X	
2	The academic discourse is …			X		
France						
1	The public discourse is …		X			
2	The academic discourse is …			X		
Germany						
1	The public discourse is …		X			
2	The academic discourse is …				X	
Italy						
1	The public discourse is …		X			
2	The academic discourse is …		X			
Netherlands						
1	The public discourse is …			X		
2	The academic discourse is …					X
Poland						
1	The public discourse is …	X				
2	The academic discourse is …		X			
Slovenia						
1	The public discourse is …	X				
2	The academic discourse is …		X			
United Kingdom						
1	The public discourse is …			X		
2	The academic discourse is …		X			

[1] The public discourse about teacher training is …
[2] The academic discourse about teacher training is …

After the PISA results the criticism of *Finnish* academic teacher training has ended and the university teacher training has become 'glorified'. Some critics say that Finnish teacher training as well as primary and secondary education place too little emphasis on art subjects and too much on academic subjects. Some critics say that social competences and human competences of teachers in communication with multicultural pupils and their parents and pupils with social differences and many kinds of problems are weak and the teacher training should take these issues more seriously. The shortage of qualified special education teachers is still vast. In general, Finns rely highly on the Finnish educational system and Finnish teachers.

In *France*, the radical voice anti-IUFM gathers two sorts of criticisms come from different horizons: the ideological speech of the intellectuals (scientific discourse) and the experience of the trainees (pragmatic experience). In the radical criticism, the pupil is in the centre of the school system, marginalizing the importance of the content knowledge in the subject and the role of teachers. There is a front of refusal widely mediatised against the idea of a professionalism of the teachers activities. The attack against IUFM feeds a radical criticism of the school and even sometimes the culture. The second type of radical criticism emanates from trainee teachers or young in-service teachers. Their contesting was widely relieved by the press. It is at first the infantilisation which is denounced: the obligation of presence in the course, the delicate evaluation of the training and certain 'blackmail' to the certification is particularly mentioned. In brief, the IUFM would not allow, in spite of its first intentions, the development of a real professional autonomy. Another theme which returns ceaselessly is the cut of theory and practice. The course companying vocational training would be too theoretical, would have the character of pseudo-science (sciences of education) and without a real connection to practice. On the other hand, the role of mentors is approved by a large majority. The practical course is often criticized as verbose. The scientific low level of the course is also often pinned, especially by the qualified teachers who compare the courses of IUFM with the courses which they had at University. Finally, the fact that all the teachers, regardless of weather they are trained for primary or secondary schools, study together in one structure is criticized.

For a long time, teacher training was not a part of public discussion in *Germany*. It changed as a consequence of PISA-results. People asked who could be responsible for the achievement of average results. Firstly the quality of teaching and secondly the way teachers are trained came back in the publics mind. Some people think teachers are not prepared for the challenges they have to deal with in school life. But there is no ongoing public debate about reforming the teacher training systems. The scientific discourse has a lot of different emphasis. A first debate is along how the Bologna process can be realised in teacher training. The change from the former state examination to the current Bachelor/Master-structure is very difficult. Because of the responsibility of each federal state for its own education system, it is almost impossible to find joint efforts in arranging the new structures. Polyvalence was meant to increase, but in fact decreased while implementing the new programmes. A second discussion is about standardisation and competences and the question, how professional competences of teachers could be measured. Accountability is no longer limited to students, it is a demand for teachers as well. As a third example, there is a lot of research dealing with teachers' mental health. More than 60% of Germany's teachers belong to so called »risk groups«, that run the risk of excessive demand and burnout (Schaarschmidt, 2005). Different strategies are discussed, if and how such mental illnesses can be prevented.

Due to the highly dynamic political history of *Italy* (65 changes of government in 60 years!), the school system has been reformed and rearranged many times in the last 30 years, but each new reform has simple undone what the former had established, causing a general sense of precariousness among the stakeholders missing the necessary time for the system to adjust to the new norms and evaluating their effectiveness. For example, the 2000 (Berlinguer, from the name of the promulgating Minister) reform was abrogated by the 2003 (Moratti) reform which was abrogated by the 2006 (Fioroni) reform, which was in turn abrogated 2008 by the Gelmini's Reform. Over the last thirty years, professional and university-based teacher training has been a major focus of the Italian debate on education reforms, but the results did not correspond to the good intentions discussed both in the political and in the academic arena. Educational scientists and school teachers are maturing the idea that more than on accomplished changes, Italian education accounts normally focus on the reform aspirations. At the moment, the academic debate is deeply criticising the ongoing school reform. Educational and social scientists recognize that it represents a complex task: it has as an aim to reduce budget spending, to push teachers on the labour market and to improve the system, correcting its deficiencies and updating it according to the challenges of the knowledge societies. Though, it seems that the cost-containment is the most apparent dimension, risking to destroy also the best performance of the system. In order to overcome the deep economic crisis of the state with the cut off of several teacher places, the primary school after twenty years of brilliant results due to the team teaching (three teachers in one class) will come back to the system of one teacher per class. Teachers fear to loose not only their job, but also their professional dignity.

Since a couple of years there is broad concern in the *Netherlands* about lacking qualification in education. It is discussed in public and among educational scholars who complain about the insufficient competence level of pupils and teachers at school and students at teaching colleges (Boomsma, 2010; Blokker, 2011). Students enter the colleges with too little basic knowledge and leave the college to become teachers with too little knowledge acquired so that their (future) pupils acquire again too little competence to be prepared for a life in knowledge society. This and other discussions about the school system have led to a vigorous discourse of professionalization of the profession of teachers (Krachtig meestership, 2008; Actieplan, 2020). Discussions about the qualifications of teacher students and the quality of teacher training institutes have resulted in a agreement among the institutes to work out a common knowledge basis for each subject discipline which sets minimum standards. An issue which relates to the professionalization discussion and which catches broad public and scientific attention is teacher shortage and how it is compensated by using teachers in training to fill the gaps. While there is general agreement about uplifting qualification standards, there is controversial discussion about how far unification and steering from outside must go. Damage has occurred over the years by problematic practices of institutions in claiming more students than they in fact had to get more government subsidies and giving diplomas to students without sufficient proof of their achievements. In as much as teachers, particularly at lower vocational schools, have to do with growing numbers of pupils with behavioural and learning problems, the integration of pupils who formerly went to schools of special education is ques-

tioned. It was meant as a reform to enhance educational opportunity for those pupils but it turns out that teachers and teacher students are not prepared to treat them adequately and there is general complain that the schools are burdened with ever more problems which distract the teachers from doing a good teaching job („we are no social workers!“). Finally there is discussion about “black and white schools” (Vink, 2010): how to prevent further segregation and how to attract more students from ethnic minorities to become teachers and models for pupils with migration backgrounds. The public feels depressed and even desperate, when it comes to schools and school politics, which is expressed in many newspaper articles.

Polish interviews show that the view of the academic community does not fit the public opinion, and it often happens that political solutions are contradictory to the academic discussion. Scientists point out the dilemma between general studies and studies specialized for future teachers. The general studies are supported by the fact that the number of students trained for teaching profession prevails potential job posts – expanding the sphere of knowledge that increases job opportunities and taking up professional activities. Such studies demand a higher investment of time and more student's commitment, what results in lack of time for self-improvement and academic activities (in the students academic societies) on the other hand, specialized studies provide opportunity to reach higher level of knowledge and skills in the particular area. Another discussion pertains the issue of training process standardisation. Generally, the representatives of the ministries opt for highly developed standardisation and indicate benefits like curriculum adjustment to the current demands or European comparability of degrees. The opposite site is represented by the members of the faculties of education, that argue limiting the universities' autonomy of curriculum development results in unification limits it’s adjustment to the schools needs. The Public discourse focuses on one topic: teachers coping with students that show an aggressive behaviour. Additionally, decreasing school enrolment from the age of 7 to 6 refers to a lack of teachers that have an appropriate training to work with the younger clientele.

In the *Slovenian* public (newspapers review) there is almost no discussion about teacher education. Most discussions concern working conditions in schools (too many pupils, lack of equipment, overfilled curricula etc.). We can say that public discourse in this area is not really recognized. A manifesto for public schools, which advocates for the entrance examination for teacher education sows, that some believe that teacher education programmes should pay more attention to the development of emotional, social and spiritual intelligence and to the ability of a teacher for being dialogical, a team worker and upbringing – all is equally important as technical expertise. Scientific discussions which accompany reforms and evaluate the quality of teacher education were initially focused on a question of how many years of study should be a prerequisite for teaching; first level (higher education – two years of study) or second level (high education) and were concluded in 1986 when it was agreed that all teachers need a high level of education (four years of study). The next common question was of what kind of structure a programme of teacher education should be. It was mainly related to the share of pedagogical education and to the share of subject education. These discussions were concluded with the criteria for evaluating pedagogical programmes which were adopted by the Council for Higher Education in 2008, such as the questions how to ensure greater mobility of students and staff; how to ensure greater selectivity; standardization of evaluation of study obligation through a credit system and how to integrate dimensions of teacher education that are missed by the practitioners – teacher training for special needs pupils, immigrants, to deal with serious disciplinary problems and so on.

In the *United Kingdom* it is not possible to highlight a general discourse about teacher training across different public spaces and the popular press. What is clear, however, is that a general discourse of ‘professionalism’ is employed to justify proposed changes to the delivery of teacher education and training in policy terms. The current Coalition government – within the Education Act 2011 – aims to move teacher training from Higher Education institutions (HEI) to ‘teaching schools’, claiming that this will better connect trainee teachers with professionals in service. Academic debates about teacher training therefore tend to focus on critiques of these forthcoming structural and practical changes.

2.3 Professional development

2.3.1 Induction phase

In *Finland* there is no systematic or established way of companionship or supervision in the first years in service in Finland. Of course there may be unofficial instruction organised in individual schools, but there is no systematised scheme for guiding the newly graduated teachers. Once a teacher has graduated, he is considered fully qualified in the official sense, although in reality it is only the beginning of professional development. There may be some continuing education oriented towards teachers who are at the beginning of their careers (regarding continuing education see e.g., Hämäläinen and Hämäläinen, 2011), but according to the interviewees the system does not function as well as it should.

In 2006, the new *French* teacher training standard defined the induction period. After being validated, for about two years, teachers have a professional training: 4 weeks during the first year and 2 weeks during the second year. During the first year, an advisor (teacher of same discipline) can guide them. Since the introduction of the Master degree in teacher training, induction phase has changed. During the first year (after Master), teacher trainees spend two thirds of their service time in a school and one third in training (IUFM or inspection). As before, an advisor is present to guide them. In the old structure the induction started during the second year of IUFM (half in class, half at IUFM), so teachers were trained more intensively before being full-time teachers.

The career entry of graduates in *Germany* at the beginning of their work life as full teachers is a critical turning point. After years of support and companionship, the graduates are now on their own, combined with a high workload of up to 28 hours of lessons a week. This is why many young professionals feel burdened, and why some choose to work part-time until they are accustomed to their new situation. In this critical stage of occupational career of teachers there are almost no systematic or established ways of accompanying or supervising novices, although the risks and problems are well known since years. At the same time, efforts in improving this situation recently increased. In Baden-Württemberg many regional school supervising authorities arrange mandatory further training courses for teachers in their first year in service. North Rhine-Westphalia plans to implement different offers to support teachers during career entry and Saxony is working on a corresponding idea. There is much debate about the so called 3rd phase of supporting teachers in their first years in service. Yet, the current situation is not satisfying at all.

After appointment to a permanent teaching position in *Italy*, a teacher joins the induction phase, in which he receives training and support during his first year of teaching as a fully responsible teacher in the classroom, while continuing his professional development. Teachers must go through this trial period, which is actually an induction training that foresees guidance and support of a tutor selected by the Teachers' Assembly and appointed by the school manager. At the end of the academic year, the teacher on trial has to write a report on the activities and training experience carried out, and must discuss it with the committee for the evaluation of teachers in order to obtain confirmation regarding the permanent post.

In the *Netherlands*, teacher students spend their forth and last year of study almost full-time in school with full teaching obligations. They are coached by a regular teacher, but if and how frequently that happens is up to the school. If the teacher student acts competently and with self-assurance, he is left largely by himself. Coaching also depends on the pupil population: if there are many behavioural and other problems, coaching needs will be more urgent. During that year, the students usually spend 1 day per week at the college and work there in small groups with others. There are hardly any regular courses, the students are supposed to have learned what they had to learn about their subject discipline, subject didactics and general pedagogy in the years before. Therefore, the actual graduation at the end of the forth year is not finished with a heavy exam but is gotten if all previous tasks have been accomplished satisfactorily. The (digital) portfolio is the main document to prove the study achievements. Hardly any student fails in that last year. When the graduates enter school – or stay in the school they had been working during their last study year – the training institute does not feel responsible any longer and it is from then on up to the school to coach the new colleague according to her or his needs.

A graduate in *Poland* that holds a teacher diploma starts to work as a trainee teacher. This period lasts 9 months. The trainee conducts an own plan of professional training approved by a headmaster. A trainee teacher has a mentor chosen from regular teachers. The task for the mentor is to support the trainee especially in creating a plan for professional development for the period of the internship and supporting them while preparing a project-based assessment at the end. After the time of 9 months, the professional achievement is assessed. If he succeeds, the trainee teacher becomes a 'contracted' teacher. He may start to obtain experience with the next level of professional promotion that may be reached after 2 years and 9 months of work at school: the 'appointed' teacher level. Having completed the period of being teacher under contract, a report of its achievement is submitted to the headmaster. After one year working as an appointed teacher, the teacher may start to gain experience needed to obtain the title of a 'chartered' teacher. The period lasts 2 years and 9 months. After the positive assessment of the working period by the headmaster, the teacher submits an application for the qualification procedure achieving the rank of the chartered teacher. The procedure is conducted in the institution of educational supervision.

The Ministry of Education in *Slovenia* issues a call for applications for graduate teaching positions once per year. Graduate teachers are employed on a contract for the period of their apprenticeship which takes between six and ten months. Their payment is 70% of the basic teacher salary. A graduate teacher can also hold this position as a volunteer. During the apprenticeship period, a graduate teacher is assigned as mentor by the headmaster. Mentors must hold the title of a counsellor (the highest title) or adviser, or mentor (the lowest title) for at least three years. Together with the headmaster, the mentor devises an apprenticeship programme. Under their guidance, the graduate teacher learns about the planning, harmonization and conduct of educational work. The graduate teacher gradually performs a number of tasks independently, becomes involved with teaching and participates in other educational activities outside the classroom. He learns about the class master's responsibilities, cooperation with parents, the provision of counselling services, library, and so on. In the final stage, the graduate teacher independently plans the teaching methods and aids for presentations, conducts teaching presentations and assesses and examines pupils' knowledge. The mentor systematically observes and assesses at least 30 independently conducted teaching presentations. In the assessment of at least five presentations in the final stage of apprenticeship the head teacher also takes part. In the period of apprenticeship, the graduate teacher also prepares for the professional examination in the field of teaching.

Following their initial training, teachers in *England* must complete an induction year in order to gain Newly Qualified Teacher Status (NQT). This begins when they take up their first post after gaining their QTS. In order to pass their NQT year, teachers in their first year of service must provide a portfolio of evidence along side sessions of lesson observation and mentoring. From here they must complete two years of Early Professional Development, following a broadly structured pathway. After this time, schools may require their teachers to keep a standardised record of some kind of their Continuing Professional Development (CPD), although this is not compulsory and approaches vary. Under the requirements of the General Teaching Council for *Scotland*, all newly qualified teachers in Scotland need to undertake a period of probation. This is to show that they meet the appropriate teaching standard before they become fully registered teachers with the Council. Since 2003, CPD has been under review as part of a wider assessment of teacher education and training in *Northern Ireland*. Research has been undertaken and the resulting reports and recommendations are under consideration by the government. The resulting policies (see GTCNI, 2007) emphasise teaching as a 'community of practice' and mapping out planned activities under the mentorship of senior colleagues. In all nations therefore, there has been a clear move to substantiate CPD as something essential rather than ad-hoc, and something that every teacher has a right to engage in productively.

Altogether, teacher training graduates do usually not enter a teaching position without any period of induction. At the same time, this does not mean that there is a 'real' induction in the sense of supporting young teachers to get familiar with their full duties in school. Graduates in Finland start with professional development activities as soon as they enter school. In Germany and the Netherlands induction is part of the initial training in the sense that candidates enter schools in it's last phase while being mentored. Italian teacher graduates and those of Slovenia and the United Kingdom have a couple of months of induction while they have to proof their skills until they are fully paid or self-dependent. In Poland, the induction is the first step of reaching the next grade of being

a teacher. The most established induction phase, which is combined with theoretical professionalization, might be the French one. In none of the eight cases there is a real supervision- and counselling-system foreseen for full-time teachers in their first years in service. This leads to the assumption, that teacher trainers are initially prepared in theory and practice, but there is no established element that helps them to cope with the demands of the first years of teaching. There seems to be a gap between initial training and professional development.

2.3.2 Structure and organization

The structure of continuing education for teachers in *Finland* is quite fragmentary. In addition to universities, there are various kinds of institutions which provide continuing education. There is no nation-wide continuing education program for teachers. There have been many municipalities in which the planning of continuing education for teachers is not very methodical (Opetusministeriö, 2006, p. 35). Continuing education is one of the areas where need for development has clearly been notified, and there have been various development programs related to continuing and supplementary education (e.g., Luukkainen, 2000; Opetusministeriö, 2001). Some criticism towards the functioning of the continuing education for teachers was expressed in the interviews. Also, when summarily reading about the experiences of teachers concerning the obligatory continuing education, the general view of the continuing education is not very good. Not all teachers are happy with the actual contents of the obligatory supplementary education for teachers.

In *France*, there are two types of professional development: professional development for beginners and professional development for all teachers. For beginners, there is an induction phase during the first year. Before the beginning of the school year: three days to welcome new teacher trainees and give them practical advice (build a pedagogical sequence, first contact with the pupils, organize the work of the class, management of the class, build authority) and information on the discipline curriculum. During school year, one third of the service time (one day per week): subject discipline, subject didactics, education, practical elements. Professional development contents and organization is different from one region (Académie) to another. There is a partnership between Académie and IUFM to implement it. IUFM trainers and inspectors of schools are involved in it. After the induction phase, teachers have an 'individual professional development right' of 20 hours per year. They choose units in a professionnal development plan (catalogue with thematic units offered by IUFM, university and regional professionnal development service).

The *German* program for professional development of teachers is offered by regional and local institutions. Providers vary from state to state and region to region. The subsequent institutions are responsible for the training in the selected three regions (states) and offer the programmes. In *Baden-Württemberg:* The main institution for professional development of teachers is the State Academy of Professional Development and Human Resources Development at Schools. Additional courses are offered by the teacher academies and the local school supervisory authorities and the churches. Contents most often focus on the professional development regarding the single subjects and differ for the teachers of different types of school. Additional core areas are human development, quality insurance, and evaluation or school development. In *North Rhine-Westphalia* there is no special institution responsible for most of the programme of professional development. The coordination is done by the ministry of school and professional development that established competence-teams in 53 districts all over the state to coordinate the need of professional development on the level of single schools. The courses are offered by several providers that have to be certified before they are allowed to offer a programme. Offers cover a wide range of contents on the basis of addressing different school types and subjects. Additional key contents are support (e.g., diagnosis or occupational orientation), cooperation with different actors, supervision, media or school development. In *Saxony,* the program of professional development is offered by mainly two institutions: the Saxon Institute of Education and the Saxon Agency of Education. The joint programme is based on central and regional courses. There are additional offers by private institutions. Key contents are oriented towards the different types of schools or to special target groups such as teachers with special duties or executives (e.g., school principles). Some of the additional contents are school development, counselling, educational standards, democracy learning, teaching and learning methods, diagnosis, and integration.

Italian teachers have to follow a compulsory curriculum of professional development. The goals of teacher training, together with the general aims and allocation of financial resources, are established in the national collective agreement signed by the Unions. As the law underlines, in service training is fundamental for the professional development of teachers as well as to support changes and an effective policy for the development of human resources. Bodies and agencies for school personnel in in-service training must be accredited and their training activities must receive specific recognition from the administration. At present, the 'Ufficio Scolastico Regionale' (Regional School Office) collects all the programs provided for the professional development. The aims of these programs are various: initial training, in-service training, mobility, requalification and professional reorganization, specific requirements. Training activities are generally carried out besides of the teaching timetable and teachers have the right to participate as they contribute to the development of their professional role. Furthermore, teachers have the right to have five days with exemption from service during the school year to participate. The teachers assembly of every school decides its annual plan for update and in-service training activities, consistently with the objectives and times of the plan for the educational offer, in the respect of the personal needs or options.

The *Netherlands* teachers are obliged to follow a certain amount of courses during the year which are organized by the school but conducted by out-of-school professionals who are hired (and paid) by the school or the school board. Those courses are intended to add to the further professionalization of the teacher. They can choose between various courses, ranging from special education problems to learning more about diagnosing ADHD syndromes, acquire skills in drama and dance or acquiring management knowledge. Such courses are usually offered by local institutions.

In *Poland*, the program of professional development is tightly linked with the professional promotion program. A person being in the internship period should participate as an observer in the corresponding classes conducted by the mentor or by other teachers in school. Within the plan of professional development, the trainee teacher should especially: learn to arrange and organize, learn tasks and rules of school; participate in-school professional development of teachers. The contracted teacher should participate in units related to didactics, education and custody and others resulting from the school's status and the needs of school and local environment. The appointed teacher should develop and improve own teaching methods including skills of computer and communication technology; execute tasks leading to school work quality improvement; expand knowledge and skills that support the individual development and school quality. Institutions that support teachers' professional development are centres of professional training for teachers. They operate on regional and local level. Their tasks are professional development activities for teachers and being counsellors regarding methods.

In *Slovenian* law, teachers have 5 days available for their professional development per annum or rather 15 days per three years of work in the course of their regular duties. The Program Council prepares a selection of the submitted programs and a scale for promotions. The minister makes the final decision regarding the programs which are then entirely or partially funded by the Ministry. The selected programs are published in the beginning of the academic year in a special catalogue, informing schools and teachers of their opportunities. Professional development programmes are offered by various institutions registered as education providers: higher education institutions; developmental-counselling public institutions; research institutes; pre-school institutions and schools; private companies, institutions, clubs and associations. There are many different programs available, e.g., about pedagogical-andragogical education; classroom management; subject or other area of work; programs of implementing good practice and for teachers' personal development; successful inclusion of children and adolescents with special needs in education; healthy life-style; active citizenship; learning to study and others. Apart from the programmes supervised by the Ministry of Education as a part of an in-service training and project of European Structural Funds, numerous other forms of education are offered, either by institutions registered as education providers of other private institutions or societies.

In the *United Kingdom* at present there is no *compulsory* curriculum for the professional development of teachers. This does not mean that continuing professional development is not expected or indeed essential for career development. Once in service, teachers will be expected to attend regular training sessions (usually five per school year), where it will be anticipated that they will acquire new skills and develop on their existing skill-set at both a discipline specific and generic

pedagogical level. In Scotland for example, a recent report illustrates that what work there is tends to focus on a narrow range of pupil outcomes that does not include "wider personal development" (Menter et al., 2010, p. 2). Several teacher educators explained that they felt that the publication of school league tables (e.g., in England) meant that the weight of expectation fell too heavily on the side of results, and that this was to the detriment of more tailored and open continuing professional development – like the cyclical and thoughtful process outlined above. Therefore, again it could be argued that there is a disconnection between the strategies laid out in policy and the realities of the teaching experience – with the pressure for results added to existing workload and time burdens.

Summarizing the structure and organization of professional teacher development, every country shows a differentiated system. Usually professional development is realized on a regional and local level. This leads to a plurality of offerings regarding duration, contents and target groups that is hardly describable. Most often, professional development is a right and duty at the same time. Some countries define a number of days per school year that teachers must or can use for their professional development activities (e.g., France and Slovenia), in others, each school is planning its individual need (e.g., Germany and Italy). Compared to the initial training, professional development has no clear scope and is much more flexible. This leads to a need for reforms and in some cases also to a low satisfaction with the current system (e.g., Finland). With respect to the GOETE themes of access, life course, coping, governance and relevance it may be the case that professional development activities do not provide teachers adequately with the opportunity to develop supporting strategies for disadvantaged students.

2.3.3 Balance of initial teacher training and professional development

According to Hämäläinen and Kyrö (2011, p. 109-110) the participation rate in continuing education in *Finland* was approximately 77% in 2009, among comprehensive school teaching personnel (including also e.g., principals). The participation rate of full-time subject teachers was somewhat lower than average (71%), while the participation rate of part-time subject teachers was considerably lower (38%). In comparison, class teachers' (who teach on grades 1 to 6 of the comprehensive school) participation rate equalled the average, approximately 77%. Although the numbers cited above sound fairly high, the volume of continuing education that teachers participate in is not very high, looking at average hours spent in continuing education. Comprehensive school and general upper secondary school teachers spent, on average, slightly less than 6 hours in continuing education in 2009 (Hämäläinen and Kyrö 2011, p. 114). Also according to the interviews, the balance between the initial training and in-service continuing education is very strongly biased towards the former in Finland. As one interviewee stated, the trend in Finland is to force all possible contents into the initial teacher training, as a result of which the initial teacher is very cramped.

Concerning the balance between initial training and professional development in *France*, the first one is more theoretical than the second one. The change to the Master degree increases the gap between them. The partnership between former IUFM and 'Rectorat' (regional level) is quite different from one region to another: In some regions, links are very strong and in others, there is no collaboration. The quality of the connection between initial training and professional development depends on this partnership. Each 'Rectorat' also defines training orientations based on national policies and local context and characteristics. These orientations are not necessary connected to initial training. It is also important to notice that professional development is not compulsory.

The *German* curricula of initial teacher training and professional development have in common that most of the activities are subject-related and geared to specific teaching careers. The difference in contents is due to their relation to the different occupational fields. The 1st phase is focussed on academic studies that partly have a link to teaching practice but often do not fulfil the requirements of a real occupational development of professionalism. The 2nd phase indeed has a stronger relation to the occupational field, but there remains a distance to the all-day work of teachers, because of the continuous mentoring by experienced teachers and the reflection at the teacher academies. This is why the professional development has the closest relation to school practice and every day work of teachers. The contents predominantly focus on precise questions and teachers pick something up which they can directly use the next day they teach. Only few courses of professional development refer to a more in-depth reflection or lead back to an academic contention. The link be-

tween the 1st and 2nd phase of teacher training was remarked as being too tenuous. Even weaker seems to be the bridge between initial training and professional development. There is no institutionalised coordination. On the one hand, the programme of professional development is very versatile, on the other hand there are almost no contents that build on one another as the systematic curricula in the 1st or 2nd phase would (hopefully) do. To be sure, in-service teachers find almost every offer they are interested in regarding their personal professionalization, but it is unclear in which way these courses refer to the content already learned in the initial training – the professional development activities seem to be isolated in a way. Obviously, the programme for professional development more easily follows the needs of in-service teachers than that of initial training. Its contents are closely related to teaching practice and the aspects of daily school-life. But should professional development not be more than providing teachers precisely with contents that are directly adaptive to their daily work? For example, there are only few courses about mental health and coping with difficulties in classroom. Being a professional teacher seems to be more than the professional development can cover. This leads to the conclusion that professional development has to be based on a very solid initial teacher training and that both – initial training and further development – have to be coordinated much more in future to achieve their full potential.

Initial teacher training in *Italy* is principally based on theoretical knowledge. Experts think that theory is very important for teacher education. From the interviews also emerge the awareness of a gap between theory and practice. When teachers begin to work in school, they immediately understand how important practical skills are. For instance, teachers seem not to be very prepared in order to cope with general educational disadvantage. Such topics have often been addressed only at a theoretical level. Besides, the special needs issue was related only to handicap and disability. It means that, when teachers arrive in schools, they have to cope with different kind of problems – as social disadvantage – which they are not able to deal with. Finally, the professional development programs differ a lot one from another because they are provided at local level (regions, provinces, school institutes). Even bodies and agencies, who offer a program of professional development, focus on a wide range of topics. For that reason, we assume that the aim of linking together initial teacher training contents to practical skills is up to teachers themselves. The two trainings are separated, but the TFA year could be a new way to connect these levels of education. Anyway, programs for professional development should follow more the needs of in-service teachers than the initial training. From interviews and from our experience as teachers and researchers, the idea that teachers are generally not satisfied of their training tends to emerge. Initial teacher training and professional development are two different and separated fields.

In the *Netherlands*, the transition from initial teacher training prior to qualified teacher status and further professional development is not as distinct as it is for example in Germany. Already in the forth year of the study, the teaching practice at school is dominant and once the student is graduated, he does not get any theory, except through professionalizing courses. Recently though it is recognized by the ministry, training institutes, universities and educationalists that there should be a better and especially a continuous professionalization of the teaching corps (Krachtig meesterschap, 2008). In the first place, the qualification of teacher trainers must be upgraded. In 2008, the minister of education and the Higher Education Council made an agreement that 70% of the teaching personnel in teacher training institutes must have a Master degree by 2014 and that another 10% must acquire a PhD or participate in a PhD programme by 2017 (Krachting meesterschap, 2008, p. 31). A lacking of pedagogical-didactical knowledge and skills of teachers, especially in vocational education tracks, was recognized.

In the *Polish* teacher training prevails the concurrent model. This refers most of all to the training at educational institutions, such as academy of teaching, teacher training college, teacher training college of foreign languages, and it also occurs at universities. Within each path, students have the opportunity to chose teaching specialisation parallel to the essential training. A final on-the-job qualifying phase relying on formal qualification do not occur. An in-service beginner is employed for the time of one year in order to complete post qualification induction period that is required to obtain the promotion to the rank of a contracted teacher, therefore a trainee teacher does not stand for a person completing own qualifications but it stands for the first category in the hierarchy of professional promotion. Professional development for teachers is not obligatory in Poland. However, there are multiple offerings for professional development that are conducted as further studies and further professional training. The supplementation is needed to get on a higher level of

teacher status, while professional training supports the teacher's skills along the already reached competences. The proportion between theory and practice has been discussed in Poland for a long time. The interviews show that students have too less practical training and that they cannot develop their communication skills in an appropriate way. The attention is very much on education theory, therefore professional development is linked mostly to skills that teachers did not gained in the initial training. Professional development is a supplementation of the academic training.

Some *Slovenian* programmes of professional development are required due to reforms or substantial changes in curricula; participation in the so-called commissioned and priority programmes of in-service training is classified as compulsory or recommended. Most of the programmes offered in the professional development catalogue should update subject-related or technical knowledge in connection with innovative didactic training. These programmes are much more practical in the sense of solving occurring problems while teaching as the initial teacher training, and can at the same time adjust to the needs of teachers faster. Professional development programmes enable continuity in education and filling the gaps occurring in initial teacher education. Programs of professional development mainly connect to the didactics or teacher strategies, which are also an important part of initial education programmes. Some programmes are more specific in the sense that they respond to troubles, problems, modern-time teachers face in their pedagogic profession. Professional development more easily follows teachers' needs than the initial training.

In the *United Kingdom* at present, the major difference between initial teacher training and the continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers in service is that initial teacher education/training is provided, in the main, through state funded training based at higher education institutions, while CPD can be offered by any private provider with accredited status. In England in particular, head teachers are able to buy in the services of private providers in a number of ways (such public-private-partnerships are widespread and not restricted in teachers' CPD). The weight of professional development is heavily on more generic skills development, which can be applied to a range of subject areas.

In summary, there is weak or none cooperation between initial training and professional development (explicitly e.g., in France, Germany, Italy). Professional development seems to have a low impact because teachers do use the programmes only partial and selective. Most often, the focus is on the initial training (see Finland for example). The professional development activities are closer to the needs of teachers (e.g., France, Germany, Slovenia) but are strongly subject-related as the initial training is as well. The need of a higher level of professionalization of teacher trainers that are able to link initial training (theory) and professional development (practice) is necessary (example: Netherlands). If professional development is understood as a supplementation to academic training and if it is at the same time not compulsory (e.g., Poland), it can not be expected to provide a significant contribution to teachers professional skills to handle their pupils educational disadvantage. This is why not only the initial training but also the professional development activities in teacher training widely neglect the strengthening of supporting strategies for pupils that are educationally disadvantaged.

2.4 Governance of teacher training

2.4.1 Teacher training curricula and school curricula

In *Finland*, universities have autonomy in developing their teacher training curricula within the general structure of Bachelor and Master degrees. For school curricula, the government decides on the overall time allocation by defining the minimum number of lessons for core subjects. The Finnish National Board of Education determines the national core curricula for basic and general upper secondary education and the framework for vocational qualifications and competence-based qualifications in vocational education. The national core curriculum includes the objectives and core contents of different subjects, as well as the principles of pupil assessment, special needs

education, pupil welfare and educational guidance. The education providers draw up their own curricula within the framework of the national core curriculum.

The *French* Ministry of Education is responsible for the legislation of teacher training curricula. In line with governmental guidelines on education, the IUFM are responsible for initial teacher training. They also implement training programmes and take part in research on education. The IUFM provide prospective teachers with appropriate training, allowing them to be successful candidates to the recruitment exams, and to fulfil their role as education professionals. The curriculum is shaped by each IUFM but the resemblances between the trainings are very important. Master curricula are based on national guidelines: teacher training national standards (2006), national guidelines to organize Master courses of teacher training (2009) and new national competitive examination curricula and tests (2009). Universities have developed models of Master courses and the ministry of national education accredited them. The school curricula are developed by the schools and legislated by the ministry.

Each of the 16 *German* Länder Ministries of Education or those of Science and Research usually are responsible for the final legislation (not necessarily: development) of the teacher training curricula and examination regulations. Besides the officials from the ministries, different experts (e.g., teacher educators, scientists) and representatives (e.g., of policy, teacher training institutions, school authorities, churches) are part of the commission that develops the curricula. There are several commissions for the curricula development in each of the teacher training programmes. Often, the single teacher training institution takes the initiative to develop new teacher training curricula or they are charged by the ministry to do that. The fact that two ministries are involved, leads to organisational problems while implementing new teacher training curricula, e.g., the Ministry of Education defines requirements for the curricula, but the ministry for science and research does not provide the resources to implement the innovations. Responsibility for the legislation of the school curricula lies under the 16 federal ministries of education. There are most often no institutionalised steps of adjustment of contents between both curricula (teacher training and school curricula) or systematic cooperation between the developers in both curricula. The reason might be that the responsibility of development and accreditation is not necessarily in one hand.

The *Italian* Ministry of Education is responsible for the legislation of the teacher training and school curricula. The ministry establishes the guidelines and the general scaffolding of curricula and then each university provides the course organization. The didactic system of the course in Primary Education Sciences and SSIS courses have established by universities through teaching regulations according to criteria decided through ministerial decrees. Teacher training and school curricula are in some ways connected because they are both developed at first by the central ministry. But, in the phase of their implementation, it is difficult that schools and universities cooperate. The Catholic Church is the only other authority involved in the teacher training process as it provides 'religion teachers' for primary and lower secondary school (elective classes).

In the *Netherlands*, the law regulates the legal professional requirements for teachers. Teacher training institutes reside under the Council for Higher Professional Education (HBO) and have a considerable degree of autonomy in designing their curriculum program and in organizing teaching practice. The curricula are unified though by means of common 'knowledge bases' for each subject area and are further systematized in 7 competences. This was done through the cooperative work of the institutions themselves; the government/Ministry of Education is only responsible for guaranteeing minimum standards of quality and practice hours. On the other hand, school curricula are at the responsibility of the schools/school boards. The government determines the amount of school hours per year per subject. The Dutch Institute for Curriculum Development (SLO) serves as a national expertise centre and provides independent and professional advice and support for curriculum development in primary, secondary and vocational education. SLO involves the main national educational actors in its work: the Ministry of Education, other expertise centres (CITO for test development), schools, publishers, universities and teacher colleges.

The *Polish* ministry of national education determines the list of required skills, which a graduate in pedagogy should acquire. The ministry of science and higher education determines educational standards by releasing the minimal number of hours of theoretical and practical training. The organisation of the educational process and the terms of practice are in responsibility of the department's authorities. The 'Higher Education Main Board' is an elected organ, representing higher

education institutions. It cooperates with the appropriate Minister and other organs of the government and public administration in determining the principles of the national educational policy in the field of higher education. Universities training need to act in accordance with educational standards what in practice means the necessity of conducting the required hours in each subject.

Tertiary institutions in *Slovenia* have full autonomy in the adoption of their study programmes. Faculty prepares an appropriate programme of teacher education that has to be reconciled with the Organisation and Financing of Education Act (2007) which prescribes the degree of required education of a professional worker and also that his/her training has to include pedagogical-andragogical education. Proposed programmes have to be approved first by a Slovenian quality assurance agency for higher education since May 2012, while before it had to be confirmed by a council for higher education. Then the programme is adopted by the government. There are no other authorities (such as school administration, youth and welfare service, churches...) involved in the process of developing teacher education curricula/examination regulations. Publicly valid school curricula are approved by the Minister responsible for education in cooperation with proper professional council. To decide on professional matters and to prepare regulations, the government of the republic of Slovenia has established professional councils on the basis of the 'Organisation and Financing of Education Act', 'Act on Higher Education' and 'Act on Sport': for general education, for vocational and professional education, for education of adults, for sport, for higher education and for science and technology. Professional councils provide experts help in drafting legislation and in addition, they define contents of educational programmes, approve textbooks and teaching material and propose norms and standards for school equipment. There are no institutionalised steps of adjustment of contents and also any cooperation between the developers in both curricula.

Each of the *United Kingdoms* nations has responsibility for the training curricula of its teachers. In Northern Ireland this is the responsibility of Department of Education and the 'General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland'; in Scotland the responsibility is now with 'Education Scotland', the Scottish Government's national development and improvement agency for education (which was launched in July 2011) and the 'General Teaching Council for Scotland'; while in England it is the Department of Education along with the 'Training and Development Agency for Schools' who oversee this area (the current status of the 'General Teaching Council for England' being, as noted earlier, in abolition). With regard to school curricula, there is a structured and shared national curriculum for all state funded schools in England, while there is virtually no statutory curriculum in Scotland (Scottish Parliament, 2010) – schools and local authorities must develop curricula for approval by the government agencies. In Northern Ireland the responsibility lies with the 'Council for Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment'. Thus, the different authorities in each of the nations hold the responsibility for the legislation of teacher training curricula and school curricula.

Table 22: Responsibilities for legislation and development of teacher training and school curricula

	Teacher training curricula	School curricula
Finland	Universities (legislation and development)	Ministry (legislation); National Board of Education (development)
France	Ministry (legislation); IUFM (development)	Ministry (legislation); schools (development)
Germany	Ministry (legislation); university (development)	Ministry (legislation); special commission (development)
Italy	Ministry (legislation and development)	Ministry (legislation and development)
Netherlands	Council for Higher Professional Education (legislation); university (development)	School and school board (development, no legislation required)
Poland	Two Ministries (legislation and framework)	No information
Slovenia	Government (legislation); Slovenian Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education (accreditation); university (development)	Ministry (legislation); Professional Councils (development)
United Kingdom	Government (legislation); Departments of Education and Teaching Councils (development)	England: ministry (legislation and development). Scotland: ministry (legislation); schools and local authorities (development). Northern Ireland: Council for Curriculum, Examinations and Assessment (legislation and development)

Table 23 shows a synopsis of the Responsibilities for legislation and development of teacher training and school curricula. Regarding teacher training curricula, internationally there is a variety from full control by the state (Italy) to full responsibility by the university (Finland). Universities are most often involved in the curricula development. School curricula are stronger regulated by the authorities than teacher training curricula. Several boards have been established to push the work of curricula development forward. Only in two countries (Netherlands and Scotland) schools are involved in the process of developing curricula. Usually both curricula have to be accepted by the responsible ministries or authorities. This shows that state authorities explicitly and educational policy implicitly are responsible for contents that contribute to the GOETE focus: They take educational disadvantage into account or they leave it out.

2.4.2 Public discourse and reform of teacher training

Almost all interviewees in *Finland* said that public discourse does affect teacher training in one way or another. There were some differences in the opinions, however, in which ways and to what extent public discourse affects training. Many interviewees stated that current topics closely followed by the teacher trainers and are often discussed among colleagues. It may however be quite difficult to assess the actual effects, as one interviewee mentioned. According to several interviewees, the effects of public discourses are not necessarily reflected in the grand structures of the teacher training programs, but rather on the smaller scale. Current topics may affect the contents of individual lecture courses, the details of which can usually be decided by the lecturers themselves. The challenges of multiculturalism have been widely acknowledged, there has been effort to incorporate multicultural studies in the teacher education programs. One vice-principal stated that the issues related to the language skills of immigrant pupils (and pupils with immigrant origins) are widely acknowledged in their school. It was noted by several interviewees that the school simply cannot solve all the societal problems, although the school is often cried for help in all sorts of problems. In addition, various interest groups have very different and often conflicting criticisms towards teacher education. According to an interviewee, the increasing demands towards school may be linked to the general weakening of the social security.

In *France* this question was not asked during the interviews due to a lack of time. Because of the recent reform, interviews were focussed on the reform and its implementation.

The *German* public discussion about school and education is primarily concerned with the education system, with the funding of education or with the conditions of learning within the classroom. Teacher training seems to be second importance in the wider public debate (e.g., parents). History shows: first of all school is reformed (e.g., new/other subjects), then, often with a delay of one or more years, the administration thinks about changing or adopting teacher training against the background of the initial reforms. Nevertheless, some experts express the view that the public debate about educational disadvantage has a weak impact on reforming teacher training. If the public criticises schools or the education system, they might also criticise teachers and their way of teaching, but usually not their training itself. It is largely beyond perception that teacher training might have an impact on reforming school or increasing school quality as well.

In *Italy*, the public discourse on teacher training is quite poor and tends to be always turned into political discourse (because of the tough link existing between Italian education and political reforms). Anyway, people agree on the assumption that each school reform must first of all regard the aspect of teacher training. Italian teachers, in fact, do not enjoy widespread appeal except for pre-school and primary level teachers: secondary teachers are actually much more criticized. For this reason, people think that enhancing initial training should be a good means in order to improve teachers' capacities. Anyway, the professional category of Italian teachers would deserve more social and cultural credibility than that it actually receives.

Public discourses concerning teacher training and education in general in the *Netherlands* are very much focused on further professionalization of future teachers. There are, in the media (newspapers; TV) regular discussions on the sub-optimal efficiency of Dutch schools and deplorable knowledge of pupils/students as well as teaches in the basic subjects (Dutch language writing and mathematics). As to the different school levels, focus is especially on secondary vocational educa-

tion with the problem of early school leaving and insufficient connection with lower vocational education and it is recognized that teachers are insufficiently prepared to apply individualized teaching methods. Public discourse is also much concerned about the coming inclusion of pupils of special education in regular schools ('passend onderwijs'). That initiative of the Ministry of Education is sharply criticized in public as no additional means are provided to deal with these pupils. Finally there was – and still is – much indignation in the public discussions about mala fide practices in higher professional (teaching) institutes which claimed more government subsidies than was justified. That discussion includes general public opinion about totally exaggerated bonus gratifications for high managerial functionaries while at the same time the work load of teachers grows without adequate financial compensation.

In *Poland*, the public discourse on teacher training concerns most of all the lack of practical training of teachers for coping with difficult student behaviours. All relevant actors suggest different solutions for this deficit. Representatives of the Ministry of Education suggest to increase the number of hours dedicated for practical training and to improve the process of teaching skills acquisition. Experience obtained in the practical process would be the basis for the development of theoretical expertise. Representatives of institutions that train future teachers refer to the existing organizational and formal limitations in practical training and schools' reluctance in this area. At the same time, this group is convinced that the basis of teacher training should be theoretical knowledge, which creates the opportunity of experience obtained during internships. These actors suggest further solutions as well. According to the representatives of teacher training institutions, to opinion of the academic circles are not taken into consideration and suggestions are not even examined. In the opinion of representatives of schools of education, actions of the Ministry of Education leading to the standardization of training curricula have negative impact on the quality of training, because they limit the possibility of adjusting the curriculum to the demands of local labour market and education services. On the other hand, the representatives of the ministry point out that the schools of education admit such a high number of students that they are aware that only a handful of them find a job as teacher after graduation.

Slovenian interviewees note that the impact of public debates on the education of prospective teachers is in general almost unrecognisable. While they were designing their programmes, they relied not only on the opinion of experts in the field of teacher education, but also on teachers and principals, rather than on the public opinion. More influence of the public opinion can be detected according to disadvantaged in the education system which has an impact for teacher training. If there is a public debate about these groups of children in the media, then people that educate teachers might care more about respective questions as well.

As noted above, the debate in the *United Kingdom* has recently focused on the restructuring of teacher training and its move from higher education institutions to teaching schools. However, as this development has been positioned within a wide raft of education policy reforms – many of which have proved far more controversial in the eyes of the press, general public, and student protestors – this shift in delivery has been largely overlooked in comparison.

2.4.3 Cooperation with external actors

Finnish schools quite commonly have co-operation with social workers (child protection/child welfare). Child welfare social workers regularly have meetings with school personnel, not only in acute crises but to keep track of the situation. There may of course be a lot of local variation in how this works. The police also visits schools regularly to inform pupils about things related to the law etc. At least in the larger cities there are policemen who are specially designated for the co-operation with schools, i.e. 'school police'. The emphasis in their work is in distribution of information and prevention of problems, they are not keeping watch in schools and their task is not keeping order.

In *France*, this question was not asked during the interviews due to a lack of time. Nevertheless, cooperation with external actors concerning teacher training is not developed. Initial teacher training is entirely implemented in the training institutions.

The planning and delivery of teacher training in *Germany* is predominantly a task of the institutions directly involved in the task. While the ministries of education set the framework conditions, usually

the universities prepare the curricula on that basis. Finally, the ministries have to authorise the concepts to be the legal basis for teacher training (examination regulations). Representatives of other institutions partly participate, e.g., churches in the case of religious teaching. However, there is no institutionalised or intensive cooperation with external actors such as employers, youth and welfare services or institutions of non-formal education. This is remarkable, because prior to concrete work on the curricula there is a widespread debate on reforming teacher training with many institutions involved, e.g., scientists that are engaged in research on teacher training.

The planning and delivery of teacher training in *Italy* is run at university level only. As mentioned before, the catholic church provides religion teachers for secondary schools.

In contrast to other countries, the *Netherlands* educational system is not closely connected to the youth and welfare services. Teacher colleges do not prepare their students systematically for working together with youth or welfare professionals. Within the 7 basic competences, one is on learning to interact with the world outside the classroom, the parents, local organizations and enterprises which are of relevance for the pupils. These contacts, organization of excursions, and being in contact with the parents are not the direct responsibility of the teaching college but are in the hands of the staff at the internship schools and the student. Activities in this area begin already in their first study year, grow in complexity and self-responsibility of the students in the years to follow and must be documented in their digital portfolios.

In *Poland* there is a lack of cooperation between institutions. If the cooperation is set up, this is the initiative of the individual employees. The differences occur between local environment at the level of communities, districts and cities. The Polish legislative does not define a necessity of cooperation. Interviewed experts did not mentioned cooperation with external actors or the lack of such, because this issue does not occur in their practice.

Slovenian cooperation with external institutions in the development of new study programmes is possible only in the development of general and subject-specific competences that the researchers of this field developed with the help of employers and those teachers and principals, who are already in their sphere of work. In connection to this, some interviewees exposed that universities are inappropriately responding to the change of reality and social atmosphere and that the cooperation between schools and teachers on the one hand and the faculties of education on the other hand is weak. The most systematic collaboration between universities and schools are the internships. In connection to that, one interviewee points out the increased role of teacher-mentors at practical training and that this should lead to additional training of mentors, in order to obtain a suitably qualified colleague.

In general there is no coordination with external agencies in the planning or delivery of teacher training across the *United Kingdom*. There are some exceptions to this in England, one example of which is ‘Teach First’, a charity founded in England in 2002 with the aim of recruiting ‘exceptional graduates’ into the teaching profession in order to address educational disadvantage. Teach First teachers are placed in schools in challenging circumstances, where they must work for a minimum of two years as part of a Leadership Development Programme, after which they attain the status of ‘Teach First ambassadors’. From here, they may continue as teachers or enter other professions (hence, teach first). The charity’s philosophy is that through placing high-achieving graduates in schools where there are many children who suffer from educational disadvantages the expectations of these young people can be raised. They define educational disadvantage as ‘a series of social and economic circumstances which limit a child’s aspiration, achievement and access to education’.

Partners were asked to rate their analysis to which amount a cooperation of teacher training and external actors exist (Table 23). This allows a rough estimation which discourses are virulent in which participating country. The result is more critical than the explanations above might suggest. In none of the countries there is a (rather) strong cooperation which indicates that teacher training does not utilize the synergies. From the GOETE projects view it could help pupils to cope with educational disadvantage if future teachers would experience what a fruitful cooperation with external actors could provide to their professional development, so that they cooperate with external actors when they are once teachers in school.

Table 23: Cooperation with external actors

Cooperation with external actors	very weak	rather weak	intermediate	rather strong	very strong
	no cooperation of actors at all	rare cooperation of actors	occasional cooperation between actors	regular cooperation between actors	cooperation of actors in daily work
Finland			X		
France		X			
Germany		X			
Italy			X		
Netherlands		X			
Poland	X				
Slovenia	X				
United Kingdom		X			

2.4.4 Responsibility for accrediting a teacher education program

In *Finland*, the faculty board is responsible for approving the curricula, including teacher education programs. Teacher training graduates are awarded as 'qualified teachers' when they complete the teacher education studies, as defined in the legislation. The teacher student who completes the required studies, is given the university degree certificate, there are no separate "external" eligibility certificates. Those who take their teacher studies separately after their subject studies, do receive a separate certificate for their teacher studies, however. The limitations of the appointment are as well defined in the legislation. Class teachers are qualified to teach in primary schools, subject teachers are qualified to teach in lower secondary and general upper secondary schools. The eligibility of subject teachers depends on the subjects studied, e.g., history/social studies or mathematics/physics/chemistry are typical combinations.

In the *French* teacher training, the IUFM proposes an opinion regarding the success of a trainee but it is the vice-chancellorship which expresses the final recommendation. Validation is based on criteria derived from the course components. The decision to confirm the appointment of trainee teachers finally belongs to the Ministry of Education.

In *Germany*, the responsibility for accrediting a teacher education programme is less in the hand of experts, but more in the hand of educational policy. The ministries of education and/or those of science and research usually are responsible for the final legislation.

The university in *Italy* is the only institution who can provide legally teacher education at every level. Each single university establishes evaluation criteria, phases and methods. Final qualifications are generally two: a diploma indicating the type of degree or specialization with the final mark, and the certificate containing also a list of exams passed and related marks. The graduate certificate sets teachers as qualified teachers.

In the *Netherlands*, the Dutch-Flemish Organization for Accreditation (NVAO) is responsible for accrediting all programs of higher and university education. It was established by international treaty in 2002 as a consequence of the Bologna process and the introduction of the BA/MA structure. The organization independently ensures the quality of higher education (including teacher training) and accredits all existing Bachelor and Master degree courses. It validates new study programmes (or disapproves of them). Accreditation is a precondition for governmental funding.

In *Poland*, there are so called Community Qualification Commissions (UKA) which are not based on legal regulations. They are boards raised by the community in order to analyse and control the quality of higher education. UKA are not authorised to control a university (academy or college) on its own demand. These commissions can only operate when a university is interested in gaining an accreditation. UKA analyses both, scientific and didactic activities, which stimulates quality improvement in those two fields. State Accreditation Commission (PKA) was established concerning changes of regulations of higher education. It is an independent institution, operating as a part of the higher education system. Its goal is the improvement of education quality. PKA can control all universities, colleges and academies (both public and non-public). One of its goals is the assess-

ment of the didactic process at the chosen department. The differences between UKA and PKA is: PKA control is obligatory for the educational institution, PKA's decisions are binding.

Slovenian university departments prepare the teacher education programmes. The respective program is first approved by the academic senate of the faculty and by the study commission of the university. Then the proposal of the programme is confirmed by the Council for Higher Education and after the confirmation it is adopted by the government. Council for Higher Education was replaced by Slovenian quality assurance agency for higher education (SQAA) in May 2010. SQAA is responsible for accreditation, evaluation of higher education institutions and study programmes.

In the *United Kingdom*, the responsibility for accrediting a teacher education programme is held by the General Teaching Council for the particular nation. These bodies are also responsible for awarding QTS.

2.4.5 Teacher shortage or oversupply

There is some variation between the availability of teachers in the different subjects in *Finland*. The situation appears to be fairly balanced, in general, but e.g., according to the interview of the national expert, there is overeducation in subjects like history, religion and languages. During the next years, teachers belonging to the so called baby boomer generation (born right after the Second World War, approx. 1945-1950) will reach pension age. Their transition into pension has already started and will escalate during the upcoming years. It is still somewhat unclear, what the real effects will be regarding the supply and demand of teachers, as that depends also on the sizes of the age groups of pupils being taught and the number of schools (trend of rationalisation). It has been speculated, however, that the demand for teachers will increase due to this process.

In September 2010, there were less students in *French* IUFM and less candidates to national examination for three reasons: a decrease of the number of positions in primary and secondary schools (less opportunities), the introduction of the Master degree (one more unpaid year of training) and the rescheduling of the national competitive examination. Teacher training institutes have to attract students by providing them good conditions to prepare their national examination and their Master. With the reform, there is a competition among universities and students.

The *German* labour market for teachers is subject to recurrent cyclical periods of shortage and oversupply. This mainly applies to the west of Germany, in the east there is usually an oversupply of teachers. Although demography has made improvements in predicting needs, it has been impossible to govern the number of employed teachers so that there is a balance. The interviews with experts show that this recruitment policy does not affect the reality of teacher training, at least not explicitly. Other consequences as a result of shortage and oversupply could be for instance shorter/longer routes or more/less incentives to attract candidates.

At present, graduated teachers in *Italy* have to apply to a list of aspirants and wait for a place. It means that the degree is qualifying to become teacher, but it is not a warrantee to get a teaching position. Very often, the graduates with qualified teacher status at the beginning of their work are not recruited as full teachers, but only as substitutes of missing permanent staff.

In the *Netherlands*, teacher shortage is one of the biggest problems in education. It is estimated that there will be a shortage of 6% in 2011 which amounts to 3300 full-time employments. More than 10% of the lessons in secondary education are given by teachers who are not (yet) qualified (Krachtig meesterschap, 2008, p. 10). One of the main reasons is the high dropout rate of students. In the pedagogical sector of higher professional education, the dropout rate is the highest of all sectors (Multicultureel vakmanschap, 2010, p. 13). In 2008, more than 20% of native-born Dutch students and more than one quart of students with a non-western background quitted after their first year of study. More recently figures show a slightly more favorable picture (Nota Werken in het onderwijs, 2010, p. 89); the interviewees are deeply worried about the situation. Teacher shortage stimulates the attraction of teaching personnel who is not (fully) qualified, like students in their last year who are offered a working contract by the school and delay graduating, possibly over many years. Formally speaking that is against the rules, but the shortage at certain schools is so severe that the inspection accepts it with one eye closed. Teacher shortage has implicitly to do with a shortage of teacher trainers; the coming years many more 60 year old trainers will retire.

One expert from the Ministry of Education thinks that many potential teaching students chose the free marked rather than teaching because of high salaries that were paid for a long time. But when the economy went down, students returned to teaching with the prospect of safe employment.

Currently in *Poland* no shortage of teachers of any subject has been recognized. At the national level, no institution has the ability to regulate the number of people admitted to the universities that train future teachers. There is no planning or market research pertaining the demand for teachers of certain speciality at national level. Except for the universities themselves, nobody sets limits of students admitted to the university. This leads to shortage or oversupply from time to time.

The *Slovenian* participants emphasize that Slovenia currently does not suffer from a teacher shortage, but this does not mean that unqualified teachers are not employed in some regions, simply because they do not get qualified teachers that would want to work in 'remote' places. In the case of recognized shortage, as it was the case recently with the teachers of informatics, the Ministry of Education quickly reacts by creating in-service trainings, where teachers who already teach a related subject are trained to teach another one. In the event of teacher shortages, tertiary level graduates in a non-teaching discipline may be employed instantly. In such exceptional cases they are allowed to complete professional training later during service. But it is also true that the interest of students to choose the study of specific teacher education programmes (for example Natural Science) is smaller, wherefore the teachers who teach in these programmes work harder in order to attract prospective students to enrol. On the other hand, a higher surplus of teachers is not detected. Due to demographic trends and a year-earlier start of the compulsory education in the late 90s', there has been a decrease of available openings in pre-school education. The available statistics have been reporting oversupply of pre-school teachers. The qualified pre-school teachers who cannot find a post in pre-school institutions were seeking jobs in the compulsory education system as co-teachers of the first grade. But the situation is rapidly changing, since the demand for teachers in kindergarten is growing and anyone who had completed studies got employed as a result of the increased birth rate.

In the *United Kingdom*, financial incentives – particularly the 'golden hello' (a lump sum paid to teachers on their completion of induction) – have existed at various times, in this case in England. Until recently, they were common for core subjects like English and Maths. However, under recent financial pressures and the introduction of widespread austerity measures, golden hellos have become less common and tend to be restricted to the STEM subjects of science, technology, engineering and maths. None of the teacher educator interviewees stated that there were any immediate or longstanding problems with the recruitment of teachers onto their training programmes. The retention of teachers in the profession decreases for the age bands above 40. Moreover, in England and Scotland there have been major teacher shortages for secondary education for a number of years; the situation in Northern Ireland is quite the reverse, as there is now an over-supply.

2.4.6 Recruitment and selection of teacher students

Admittance to teacher training in *Finland* depends on (1) previous success in studies (the entrance examination, at the end of general upper secondary school), (2) success in the entrance examination and (3) results of the aptitude test, (4) in the case of vocational teacher studies, previous work experience is required in some cases. There is a national entrance examination for teacher education and general educational science, called VAKAVA. All universities with teacher education programmes, with the exception of the Swedish-language universities, are involved in the common national entrance examination. The VAKAVA examination consists of multiple choice questions. The applicant can apply to several programmes at the same time, and the examination can be taken in any of the universities involved in the co-operation network. The exact format of the aptitude test varies to some extent between universities/teacher education programmes, but in general the aptitude tests consist of individual and/or group interviews. The teacher profession is generally very popular. However, according to the expert interviews, there are differences between class teachers and subject teachers in their employment trends. Class teacher education is extremely popular in Finland, and according to interviews there is no fear at all of any decline in its popularity. Subject teacher education is also popular, but there is more variation in it (as there are lots of subject combinations). Thus, there is cyclic variation in the recruitment situation of subject teachers, as

other (often better paid) occupations may have more pull during periods of strong economic growth. This depends also on the subject that is taught, for some subject teachers there are not so many other alternatives.

In 2011, there was a decrease of the number of candidates for the *French* national examination. For primary school, there were 18 000 candidates instead of 34 952 in the last year for 3 000 positions. For secondary school: there were about 21 000 candidates instead of 38 249 last year for 8 600 positions. There are some important differences between disciplines. For the Ministry of Education, this is a cyclical situation linked to the implemented reform. Therefore, the Ministry offered 'merit grants' to students with less opportunities ("underclass") that can be cumulated with social grants for the second year at IUFM (2 500 Euros). In 2012 there was an advertising campaign to promote teaching. Since the introduction of the Master degree, there can be an entrance selection if the number of student is limited. It depends on each university.

There is no established way of recruiting new teacher students in *Germany*. The ministries of education of the Länder sometimes start advertising campaigns, mostly for attracting teacher students in natural sciences. In the last years, the supply of teachers was higher than the number of positions. This is why there is no need of putting much effort in recruitment, especially in the new states in the East, as the excerpts point out. The admission requirement for entering a teacher training program at university is the 'Abitur' (highest degree in upper secondary general education). Passing the 'First State Examination' (Erste Staatsprüfung) is the requirement for the admission to the preparatory service (2nd phase). The BA/MA system leads to new examination regulations and requirements. Probably, an MA degree will be required for entering the preparatory service while opportunities of BA graduates are unclear. When there are too many candidates (in special subjects), there is a selection process depending on the individual marks of the final school leaving certificate ("numerus clausus"). More and more training institutions try to develop recruitment tests, which are – at the moment – used for self-orientation of potential students. There are no written entrance examinations. It seems that the more pressing issue is not to find enough teachers, but rather to select the best candidates. Administrative responsible are searching for adequate ways of assessing the entrance qualification of potential candidates, but they are unsure about the methods and about the outcome of testing. The criteria seems to be unclear, which could tell something about the success of teachers in service.

In *Italy* there is no need to attract teacher students. There are much more applicants than teachers needed. Despite this, also in the recent past years, still many students were attending teacher training, but probably in the future the situation will change. To be admitted to teacher training, a five-year upper secondary school leaving certificate is required. Moreover, the candidates must pass an admission test because of the limited number of places planned each year at national level according to the requirements for teaching staff in school. Each university provides to the selection as well as it can entrust to a private company the task of submitting the test and carry out the evaluation of the candidates. The test must include questions on general knowledge and a part specifically focused on educational knowledge. The admission to former SSIS specialization course required a five-year Master degree and an admission test because of the limited number of places according to the requirements for teaching staff in schools. For the TFA course an entrance examination is foreseen, but its features are still not clear.

Teacher colleges in the *Netherlands* must accept every student with a diploma of general higher education and the appropriate subject area of their study – there is no selection. Some of the interviewed teacher trainers would want such an instrument of pre-selection, because the knowledge level of many students is (very) low. On the other hand, pre-selection could mean a decrease in student enrolment and endangers the existence of the college. Several initiatives have been undertaken to make the education sector more attractive. One such initiative was to improve the salaries of teachers to bring them more in line with salaries in the private sector. Although expenditure for education has not been increased in the last years, Dutch teachers earn more than OECD average but must work longer hours than their colleagues in other countries (www.stamos.nl). Most influential for the upgrading of the profession and attracting more teachers are initiatives for more differentiation in the teaching field in order to give teachers better career perspectives within the educational field. The implementation of integrated personnel management is considered a precondition for a modernized career path and instrument for improving education. Good person-

nel management for the school contributes to the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Schools have been given budgets to improve the conditions of employment and develop tailor-made solutions in this respect. By professionalizing teacher training, the reputation of the profession is supposed to outgrow the picture of an uninspired and traditional work field which is unattractive for ambitious young people. That is particularly true for ethnic minority male students who would prefer studies with more status and better financial prospects (management; banking). An open labour market is also considered to contribute to increases in the number of potential teachers. A broad range of trajectories is available to become a teacher, from regular full-time day study to various forms of part-time study, stepping in the teacher training with another study having done (career changers), becoming a 'dual' student and/or teacher by combining work and study (dual learning paths). Courses have been developed to train teacher assistants, which is not altogether a good development as these assistants often take over full teaching responsibility to fill the gaps of teacher shortage. Doors are also widely opened for re-entering women after some years of mothering, and for retired persons with previous teaching experience – or other work experience which connects to vocational education. A recent strategy to attract teacher students is offering academic teacher training programmes and provide opportunities to get a MA degree on top of a BA degree.

In *Poland*, there is currently no special criteria of teacher students selection (e.g., entrance examinations). The only basis for selection are the A-level marks. Presently everyone who submits his documents to university is admitted. For families with a difficult economic situation, subsidy is granted. Furthermore, there is no strategy of attracting new teacher students. According to Central Statistical Office data, on 30.10.2009 there where 1 900 014 students in Poland. 233 893 studied having a pedagogical specialisation (which is 12.3% of the total number of students). The following number of candidates refer to one university place: pedagogy 3.8, social communication 9.4, sociology 7.0, law 6.6. Thus, for many students pedagogy is a second choice as a way to get a Bachelor degree easily and to complete their education on the Master level of their original choice then.

Before enrolment, universities in *Slovenia* prepare an information day where they present their programmes to future candidates. The wish of each department is to prepare the most interesting presentation and to attract as many candidates as possible to be able to select and gets 'better candidates. Staff and students of some faculties with low enrolments go also to upper secondary schools and try to attract future candidates with interesting presentations. Interviewees from different universities point out that recently there has been a large interest and that the faculties do not pay much attention to attract prospective students. Also, in the coastal area, where teaching in Italian schools is in Italian language, they do not notice major problems while enrolling prospective teachers in their study programmes. Students who successfully completed an Italian grammar school, often enrol in their programmes and get the chance to attend an adapted programme. An interviewee pointed out, that the pedagogical courses are enrolled by students with lower grades as those, who enrol in law schools, medical schools etc. Their selection is negative, rather than positive. Another expert also points out the social background of those who opt for teaching profession, because the group of students from underprivileged backgrounds is more present. Regarding admission: Persons, who have passed graduation (Matura) can enrol to the first cycle of higher education. For specific study programmes special talents or mental-physical abilities can be defined as entrance-conditions (for example art pedagogy, physical education...). Persons, who have finished the study programme at a first cycle of the same programme or persons who have finished first cycle programme of other programmes with appropriate differential obligations, can enrol to the second cycle of higher education. In the case of enrolment restrictions for the second level, different criteria were developed at university. In order to enrol in some first level pedagogical study programmes, candidates must also take a test of their artistic aptitude (music, visual arts) or psycho-physiological ability (physical education).

None of the interviewees in the *United Kingdom* expressed any concerns about the recruitment and selection of teacher students. Teaching was generally seen as a stable profession by potential trainees and therefore reasonably desirable given the unpredictability perceived in the economy. Selection for PGCE/PGDE courses is made on an individual basis and suitability is judged by the course tutors, who will almost certainly be experienced classroom teachers with experience of management responsibilities in schools.

2.4.7 Awarding, distribution and retention of teachers in service

The qualified teacher status in *Finland* is awarded along with the completion of the required studies. There is no separate qualification process. Teachers apply for positions in schools on the open labour market, there is no system for their distribution.

In *France*, responsibility for awarding and distributing teachers is by the Ministry of Education. Teachers are recruited by means of competitive exams and, since September 2010, their Master degree. The distribution process starts after candidates success in the written test, when they are allowed to pass the oral test. Candidates choose the region (Académie) where they would like to go (six wishes). The ministry distributes all the candidates. Distribution process takes into account the following criteria: family status, number of children, disability and national competitive examination rank. A scale is used to distributed teachers and those elements give a bonus. There is no effort to keep teachers, because they are civil servants. However, there is a bonus to keep them in schools with problems ('education prioritaire') during three or five years. Beginners are often posted is those schools and try to leave them as soon as possible, because teaching is harder than in another school. But many surveys show, that if teaching staff is not stable for several years, it is difficult to remove learning and behaviour problems in those schools. The bonus is a kind of solution, because after five years those teachers can ask for a transfer and have a greater choice.

In *Germany*, the responsibility for awarding a teacher training graduate as a »qualified teacher« by a special certificate (QTS) rests with the ministries of education. Graduates from the 2nd phase of the initial teacher training are allowed to call themselves »state certified teachers«, but they are not yet real »teachers« until they begin working at a school. Usually, the privilege of awarding teachers is delegated to a subordinated institution of school administration. The same structure of responsibility is given regarding the employment of teachers. During the last years, more and more states opened their appointment policy in a way that it is no longer only a centralised procedure that leads to the allocation of jobs. A special quota (approx. 20%) of the positions is allocated on the basis of the selection of eligible candidates by single schools. Therefore, schools are allowed to advertise their open positions in advance. The centralised appointment is based on marks and combination of subjects, while candidates who directly apply to a position offered by a school can be hired even if they have lower marks than all other in the central list. They have to fit the profile the school announced. Becoming teacher in the status of a civil servant is limited to the age below 45 (Baden-Württemberg and Saxony) and 35 in North Rhine-Westphalia. The process of distribution of the appointed teachers is complex. The schools inform the local school authority regarding their demand of positions. Then the school authority provides that information to the Ministry of Education or subordinated authority, which decides about the number of appointments. It appoints the selected teachers and allocates them to the scope of the local school authority. Finally, the local school authority distributes the single teachers to the schools. This process is only an example of how the distribution of teachers work – with meanderings – in several states and it is only relevant for the centralised process of awarding, not for the individual selection of candidates by the single schools. In the case of the positions that are assigned by schools, the schools are informed about the number of teachers they are allowed to appoint. They are part of the overall contingent. For a long time there was no need to put effort in the retention of in-service teachers. The teaching profession is associated with good wages, secure employment and a predictable work schedule. This is why teachers traditionally stayed in their job until they retired. Two modern phenomena lead to exceptions. Teachers are more and more confronted with psychical pressure resulting from problems in the classroom or role conflicts, etc. This leads to an increasing number of early retirements that are expensive for the state as employer. The second observation is that even healthy teachers who stay in job until the regular retirement age become more and more expensive because of the fact that people are getting older and older and pensions have to be paid longer as well. Therefore, school authorities try to financially encourage retiring teachers to stay longer in job. The longer they stay, the less pension they need to be paid.

Italy's teachers are civil servants with a private contract. The employment is regulated by 'national collective labour bargaining' and integrative contracts. These contracts are defined in school full autonomy and under private law; they are only bound to respect the financial limits established by the state. As mentioned before, after teacher students have finished their training, they can be on a list of graduates on provincial level. The position of each teacher in the list depends on a score

based on marks, previous service length, in-service training and other qualifications. They are then checked at the beginning of the school year directly by 'Provincial School Office' (*Ufficio Scolastico Provinciale*), if there are some vacant places within the provincial schools. Hence, teachers are employed with temporary contracts that make them earn additional score for the provincial list. Recruitment of teachers for temporary positions (generally for some months or a single year), can also be done by principals, on the basis of a school list of candidates. If permanent positions are available, teachers who are on the top of the provincial list can get a permanent contract.

Teacher training colleges in the *Netherlands* are responsible for awarding a qualified teacher status (QTS). Schools or school boards are in charge of filling staff vacancies and choose their own recruitment strategies. They can form new vacancies out of several portions of vacant teaching hours, or split large vacancies up into smaller jobs if that fits the staff composition better – or guarantees more solicitations. Schools will generally try to fill a vacancy with someone from a school within their own school board before looking for external candidates via advertisements in newspapers, on internet, professional organizations or teacher training colleges. In secondary education, about 80% of the vacancies are filled by external candidates, the majority of them being teachers from other schools who go for a change and perhaps better career perspectives. Primary conditions of service, such as different functions and salary scales, are regulated at central level. Secondary and tertiary conditions of service (fringe benefits), such as career paths, in-service training, the starting level in the salary scales for particular functions and additional rewards for extra tasks) are regulated at decentralized level. There is discussion about the right of private schools and school boards to be autonomous in recruiting staff and accepting pupils. Because two third of Dutch schools are private, mostly traditionally of protestant or catholic denomination, which does not mean though that the pupils or the teaching staff is by definition of the same denomination, they have the principle right to refuse staff or students. But that right is increasingly contested by public opinion, for example if a Muslim teacher is refused by a catholic school/-board.

The headmaster in *Poland* is responsible for the recruitment, selection and hiring of teachers. He determines the terms of selecting the best candidates, taking into account only the necessity of fulfilling the requirements determined by the relevant regulation. The headmaster signs a labour contract with the teacher (junior or contractual teacher) or designates a person for the post of a teacher (designated or certified teacher) and becomes the teacher's employer. Therefore the head-master provides legal operations necessary to employ and to dismiss the teacher. Low remuneration discourages to take up the teaching profession. Persons who decide to work as teachers are those who want to do that. Salaries need to be increased to attract more graduates to become teachers, not only to study at the faculties of education. Among teachers there is a substantially large group of women because of the profession is attractive for them. Relatively low remuneration causes that men, commonly regarded as "bread winners", do not choose the teaching profession because of economic reasons.

Teaching positions in *Slovenia* are assigned by a headmaster on the basis of national standards, normatives and in accord with the Ministry of Education. Schools publishs vacancies on the basis of approved systematization and in concordance with the Minister. Headmasters make the selection of employees. They are responsible for labour contracts and for realization of employment rights, while the school council decides about complaints in this area. Headmasters decide about employment and discharging on the basis of a nationally defined regulation. Teachers have opportunities to influence their salary: the acquisition of a "title" leads to a salary increase. Titles are "mentor" (minimum of four completed years of work in education); "advisor" (the candidate must have held the title of mentor for a minimum of four years); "counsellor" (the candidate must have held the title of an advisor for a minimum of five years). It is also possible to be directly promoted to a higher title, bypassing intermediate title(s). All graduates, including future teachers and support, are entitled to temporary employment. Following the teaching certification examination, there is no legal entitlement to permanent employment in teaching. Appointments to permanent posts are made through an application procedure in accordance with the regulations and on the basis of current vacancies. Before gaining a teaching post, all teachers are required to satisfy the following eligibility criteria: appropriate initial and on-the-job training, teacher examination certification, proficiency in the language(s) of instruction and not having a criminal record. Following the established recruitment channels, they may be employed in the same or any other school for an indefinite pe-

riod of time if there is a vacant position. There is no need of putting effort in the retention of teachers in service.

In the *United Kingdom*, the 'General Teaching Councils' have the responsibility for awarding Qualified Teacher Status. Schools are responsible for the selection and employment of all staff. This process will involve candidates facing an interview panel that would include the head teacher, the head of the disciplinary subject area in the school, and a member (or members) of the board of governors. Governors hold their position on a voluntary basis and are responsible in law for the financial governance of the school.

2.4.8 Full certification versus alternative ways

It is possible in *Finland* to apply either directly to a subject teacher education program, after having started the subject studies, or carry out the teacher studies after separately finishing the Master degree. In each case, the applicant must participate in an aptitude test for the teacher studies. In addition, there are the general selection criteria into the subject studies, which vary according to the subject: the certificate of graduation of the general upper secondary school, the certificate of matriculation (of the matriculation examination) and/or entrance examination. If applying separately to the teacher studies during the subject studies, the student needs to have a certain amount of credits in the major subject and in the minor subject(s). The exact amount varies to some extent.

The *French* majority of teachers are civil servants, but there is an alternative way of entering teaching career. It is possible to be contractual teacher, based on a regional recruitment. To be contractual teacher gives the opportunity to prepare for an internal national examination competition.

In Germany there are alternative ways of entering a teaching career besides the regular teacher training programmes. Usually they are offered to persons holding a Master degree in natural sciences, because there often is a lack of qualified teachers in this field. The possibility to do so varies from time to time as required. There are different voices of experts regarding this practice. In general, they appreciate lateral entrants because of their view from outside school which can be a benefit for pupils. At the same time, they articulate that becoming a good teacher is always based on professionalization and not an automatism. As an interviewed expert points out, an intrinsic motivation for becoming a teacher is secondary for lateral entrants. This could lead to obscure practices of redefining any civil servants as teachers (e.g., from a forest official to a teacher). The regular teacher training programme leads to a higher identification with the job. In total, alternative ways of becoming a teacher besides the regular teacher training programme are acceptable if the lateral entrance is combined with a minimum of additional training regarding pedagogy, subject-didactics, and supervised practical training. In general, it should be the exception, because the full teacher training requires a higher intrinsic motivation, leads to a higher identification with the job, and is the more intensive way of systematic professionalization.

There are no alternative ways of becoming a teacher in *Italy* besides the regular way of full certification after graduating from a teacher training program: before the SSIS system, graduate students of all faculties had to pass a public competition in order to get the teacher qualification and could enter into the permanent professional graded lists on provincial level. With the introduction of SSIS system, students who got the specialization could directly enter into the list and wait for a school offering a post (public competition was abolished). Three years ago, SSIS schools were closed and since that moment there has not been any possibility to become a secondary school teacher. Starting from the academic year 2011-2012, the new teacher training system should be implemented: students already graduated would have the possibility to attend the practical training year (Tirocinio Formativo Attivo, TFA), after an admission examination; students with a bachelor degree, who want to become a teacher, have to attend a Master degree course on didactics (of a specific subject) and then the TFA year, after passing the admission examination.

All training institutes in the *Netherlands* have a highly diversified student population; full-time students often cover not more than 50 percent of all enrolled students. There is a variety of part-time study offers for students with a higher education or job experience and who can finish the study up to one year earlier, there are "dual students" who have work experiences (not necessarily in teaching jobs) and are contracted directly by a school and paid regularly, following only a short introduc-

tion course at the teacher college on pedagogy; it is “learning on the job” and at the same time a means for schools (school boards) to get cheap teaching personnel. A recent strategy to attract teacher students is offering academic teacher training programmes and provide opportunities to get a MA degree on top of a BA degree.

Attending teaching training in *Poland* can be obtained in two ways: major speciality in teaching or additional teaching speciality supplementing subject-related studies. The selection of additional teaching speciality is determined by the availability of courses at university. In this regard, the system allows different ways into teaching posts but it requires a specific training in general.

In *Slovenia* there is no alternative way of becoming a teacher besides the regular way of full certification after graduating from a teacher training programme.

Although there are no officially accredited pathways in the *United Kingdom* to becoming a teacher other than those approved by the state, it is possible for an individual to become a teacher in a privately funded school without an accredited teaching qualification (this is also the case in the newly founded ‘free schools’ in England). In these rare occurrences, the decision on whether to employ a potential teacher would be with the head teacher and governing body of the school. This does not lead to ‘full certification’ and teachers who enter the profession via this route will not be able to teach in state schools. The other route of note that deviates from the courses offered by higher education institution is the ‘Graduate Teacher Programme’ in England. This vocational route allows individuals to train while they work and earn a trainee teacher salary. It also results in the award of Qualified Teacher Status.

2.4.9 Standards for teacher training

As *Finnish* teacher training departments are fairly independent, within the limited scope of 60 credits of subject teacher pedagogical studies, there is some variation regarding what is emphasised in the teaching. For example, one of the interviewees commented that there is a lot of variation especially in the ICT skills given by various teacher training departments. Indeed, ICT courses are not always compulsory in teacher education (Meisalo et al., 2010). The general framework of teacher education, including the scope of teacher education and the required practice periods, is set in legislation. Regular evaluations of teacher education are carried out by the Ministry of Education and Culture. There are no specific, strict standards per se; teacher education departments are autonomous in drafting their own curricula, within the framework set in legislation.

With the integration of IUFM in universities in *France*, Master courses were created in accordance with LMD (Licence-Master-Doctorate) standard. The Master curricula are based on national orientations: teacher training national standard (2006), national orientations to organize Master courses for teacher training (2009) and new national competitive examination curricula and tests (2009). Based on standards, future teacher have to develop ten skills during their training: (1) acting as a state employee and in an ethical and responsible way; (2) speaking and writing fluent French to be able to teach and communicate; (3) being expert in the subjects and having a good general knowledge; (4) conceiving and implementing teaching; (5) organizing the work of the class; (6) taking the diversity of pupils into account; (7) assessing the pupils; (8) handling ICT; (9) working in a team and cooperating with parents and partners of the school; (10) forming and innovating. The implementation of these standards in 2006 changed the approach of teacher training and its evaluation criteria.

In *Germany*, since the year 2004 there is a national catalogue of standards in teacher training (KMK, 2004). Because of the German federalism this catalogue did not acquired a legal basis in the end, but was negotiated among the ministers of the responsible ministries so that it, in practice, has an authoritative character. The five standards defined by the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic (KMK) are: (1) teaching and learning; (2) education; (3) assessment and counselling; (4) ongoing development of competences and (5) school-development. The regional planning of teacher training (curricula, examination regulations etc.) takes these national standards into account. Nevertheless, there is no strong national governance of teacher training. On the regional level of the states, it is also an open question to which amount the curricula really determines the real training programme. It is

sure that with the implementation of module handbooks, the contents of single courses now are much more defined that they used to be. But there is still freedom of the single lecturer to arrange the lessons as she/he thinks it is adequate. Generally, the involved actors accept the given standards and orientate themselves towards them, while there is critique as well.

Italian teacher training standards are set by the Ministry of Public Education. Then, each faculty establishes evaluation criteria, phases and methods, in other words they govern the development of the training. Teacher training curricula have to be put by faculties into connection with the criteria decided in ministerial decrees that define the training objects; qualifying minimum contents and evaluation and assessment procedures. The Gelmini decree contains the standards of teacher training. The bottom line is that teachers at any level of education should get a five-year university certification: (1) teachers at pre-primary and primary schools are required to have a Master degree after a five-year course; (2) teachers at secondary schools are required to have a Master degree after a two-year course on the didactic of a specific subject, following a three years bachelor certification on the same subject plus a year of TFA (Active Formative Practical Training); (3) teacher students willing to specialise for supporting special need pupils must attend an additional training provided within the regular initial teacher training. The TFA year must cover: classes of educational sciences; 475 hours of practical training (75 hours out of the 475 must be dedicated to special education); classes of subject didactics (also within workshops); pedagogical and educational workshops to reflect on the connection between lessons and practical training. TFA will be delivered both by the faculties of education and school institutions in cooperation. The TFA should start by the academic year 2011-2012.

The contents of the teacher training in the *Netherlands* are based on nationally determined quality standards for all subject and pedagogic disciplines, so called “knowlege bases”. They are further specified in detailed competences with task and goal descriptions – the so called “7 competenties” which cover all aspects of the profession: 1) interpersonal competency; 2) pedagogic competency by making school and class a safe place for pupils to be and providing a powerful learning climate; 3) competency in subject area and subject didactics; 4) organisational competency concerning school affairs and management; 5) coordinating own work as teacher with that of the team and the school organisation; 6) establishing a relation with the parents, the living quarter of the pupils, local economy and other relevant actors; 7) reflecting on all these competences to the end of becoming a professional in teaching. It is the sole responsibility of the teacher training colleges to graduate their students after 4 years of study. Quality standards for each subject area and the 7 competences must be followed by the institutions since 2006.

In *Poland*, the curriculum of teacher training is determined by standards set by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (2007). BA studies can not last less than six semesters and cannot cover less than 1 800 hours of lectures, workshops and seminars. Fundamental contents (330 hours) and group of speciality contents (210 hours) are required. The fundamental content consists of subjects as philosophy (75 hours), psychology (90 hours), sociology (90), education systems (75 hours). The speciality must contain knowledge of history of educational attempts, theoretical basics of education, theoretical basics of teaching and special education. The remaining hours (over two third of all anticipated in the curriculum) are planned by the university with account to the speciality. MA studies have to last at least 4 semesters and cover at least 800 hours. 300 hours are covered by the standards for courses of fundamental contents and their speciality while the remaining 500 hours should be planned by the university in accordance with educational specialisations offered. Standards for the MA course anticipate that besides the obligatory content as a basis and the contents of the speciality there are courses in anthropology of culture, logic, sociology, andragogics and social education.

Slovenian experts often mentioned, that currently there are no criteria at the national level which contents educational programmes for teacher education should cover. The defined criteria for ‘Accreditation and External Evaluation of Higher Education Institutions and Study Programmes’ (2010) are very general and do not intervene at any point in the field of teacher education. Criteria for accreditation of study programs for teacher education, which were adopted by the Council of the Republic of Slovenia for Higher Education in 2008, are no longer valid, although in practice the Ministry of Education and Sport still gives approval only to programmes which are designed in accordance with these, otherwise invalid criteria. Therefore, faculties have high degrees of

autonomy while creating and conducting their teacher training programmes. Although there is no catalogue of standards for teacher training, interviewees point out that Slovenia has to think about standards, e.g., in order to prove quality systematically enough and in order to get a solid framework of contents and knowledge, which would also allow the evaluation of teachers' work, rather than only identify deficits in the study programmes. Systematic long-term approach of monitoring the effects is crucial.

As the responsibility for education has been devolved across the various 'National Assembles' of the *United Kingdom*, there are three different sets of standards that provide the basic guidelines for the contents an accredited teacher training qualification in England, Scotland and Northern Ireland (and also Wales, although this nation is not covered by the project). In each nation the standards specify what is expected of a student teacher at the end of initial training or education and also the design requirements for training programmes. The standards are listed elsewhere (see 2.2.2).

As the national research partners state with their summarizing rating, the level of standardization of teacher training vary significantly between the eight countries (Table 24). While Poland, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom have a high standardization, Finland and the Netherlands name their level 'moderate' and France and Slovenia do not recognize standards with no obligation only or no standards at all.

Table 24: Standardisation of teacher training

The level of standardisation of teacher training is	very low no standards at all	rather low standards with no obligation	moderate obligatory standards	rather high standards guide teacher training	very high standards determine teacher training
Finland			X		
France		X			
Germany				X	
Italy				X	
Netherlands			X		
Poland					X
Slovenia	X			X	
United Kingdom					

2.4.10 Inspection and/ or evaluation of teacher training system

There is no official regular evaluation concerning teacher education in *Finland*. The evaluation of teacher education is part of the broader assessment of quality assurance systems of Finnish higher education institutions, which has been carried out by 'The Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council' since 2005. Various national-level evaluation reports concerning teacher education have been published (e.g., Opetusministeriö, 2007b; 2007a) but there are no fixed intervals. When asked about evaluation, the comments from the interviewees were biased. There were, on the one hand, critical comments concerning evaluation. Need for follow-ups in the evaluations was mentioned in one interview. Some weariness regarding the various evaluations could be sensed in one interview. On the other hand, some interviewees had a very positive view also of the general kind of evaluation, stating that it is absolutely needed. Generally the internal feedback from students/trainees to teacher trainers was considered a quite fruitful way of evaluation by many interviewees, as that kind of feedback can be used directly in assessing the possible areas of development in teacher training. Even among those who also considered the "larger scale" evaluations useful, the importance of direct feedback from students was emphasised very much.

In *France*, reports on the organization and the implementation of teacher training can be asked by the president, prime minister or Ministry of National Education. They are done by 'Parliamentary School Inspectorates'. The Ministry of Education can also write a report with recommendations. Those reports can be public or not. They have two functions: to evaluate the implementation of a recent reform and indicate adjustments or to offer an overview to prepare a reform.

While there are a lot of individual initiatives to evaluate teacher training in *Germany* on the level of single institutions or by researchers who cover a few institutions, there is no formal or established way of inspection of teacher training (e.g., official external evaluation). Only self-evaluation by the single institutions is common in all institutions. External evaluation of teacher training is covered by the evaluation of the whole universities and is not specifically focussed on teacher training. Teacher academies are usually not evaluated externally at all. Their experiences vary from the idea that evaluations usually stays without implication or quality improvement to the idea that it is a proof of the successful work they did.

As for internal evaluation in *Italy*, teacher training was evaluated through submission to teacher students of questionnaires on their perception of the didactical quality. As for external evaluation, since 1999, the university evaluation has been carried out by the 'National Committee for the Evaluation of the Educational System' (CNVSU), that has got the tasks to promote experimentation, implementation and spreading of methodologies and assessment practices; to establish the nature of information and data that the university evaluation groups are bound to communicate; to establish an annual programme for the external evaluation of universities or single teaching structures; to arrange studies and documentation on the state of university education, on the implementation of the right to study and on access to university study courses. The CNVSU has been replaced by the 'National Agency for the Evaluation of the University and Research System' (ANVUR), which is due to implement activities related to the external evaluation of quality, efficacy, efficiency and expensiveness of universities and research institutes activities. Anyway, these kinds of formal evaluation are more focused on research than on didactic aspects. It is the 'University Interdepartmental Centres for Educational Research' that is appointed to foster research on teaching at all levels. Several university departments join these centres and 21 Italian universities are networked in the Conference of the Italian 'University Centres for Educational and Teaching Research' (CONCURED). Experts did not talk about a consolidated experience of inspection of teacher training. They mostly refer to the assessment of future teachers (see 2.4.11). Anyway, they said that evaluation of the training is up to each University and is on a pretty low level.

In the *Netherlands*, NVAO regularly audits the institutions that give accreditation, hence it is responsible for quality assurance at higher education institutions. Besides, the 'Inspectorate of Education', as part of the ministry, it is responsible for quality assurance for all levels of education. It is mainly concerned with the oversight of legal matters. However, the inspectorate does monitor some themes in higher education each year, i.e. assessment practices. It has the right and responsibility for stepping into review programmes or any other issues if problems are identified. The inspectorate produces an annual report that provides a summary of educational matters across the whole sector, in addition to publishing individual reports on themes, programs and institutions. Serious shortcomings could result in a public warning by the Minister and eventually lead to the withdrawal of financial support. Recently, there was a nation-wide scandal when it turned out that not only one teacher college had manipulated student numbers in their advantage and had graduated students without sufficient proof of their achievements, but that many more institutions had done so. This is a clear case of insufficient control of the inspection.

There is no formal method of external evaluation of teacher training in *Poland* and there is no kind of standardized self-evaluation of the single courses.

In *Slovenia* there is not any formal or established way of inspection of teacher education. At all three universities in Slovenia, self-evaluation of individual members of university is understood as a part of ensuring quality. University of Ljubljana (regulations on the system of monitoring an ensuring quality, 2008) an University of Maribor (regulations on the procedures of self-evaluation and evaluation of the University and its members and on formation and number of members of commission for assessment of the quality of the University) have regulations, which define the process of (self-)evaluation and the work of the commissions in detail. The elements of yearly reports are: formation of the development programme of the university; active work of commissions in charge of quality indicators; yearly self-evaluation of university members; acquiring feedback on the implementation of programme and other activities in the direction of testing of international comparability of the university and its members; involvement of students in management and the processes of quality evaluation; performing general mechanisms for monitoring and providing quality which encompass planning and reporting, external evaluation, self-evaluation and accreditation.

In the *United Kingdom* initial teacher training is inspected and evaluated as follows: In England the independent body the 'Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills' (OFSTED) conducts inspections and evaluations of initial teacher education. Provision leading to qualified teacher status is given through a range of partnerships, including: higher education institution (HEI) led partnerships of schools – the HEI is named as the accredited provider; consortia of schools providing school-centred initial teacher training (school-centred initial teacher training) – the school-centred initial teacher training is the accredited provider; partnerships of schools providing employment-based routes to qualified teacher status with the employment-based initial teacher training provider named as accredited provider. In Scotland and Northern Ireland this role is undertaken by the respective 'General Teaching Council'.

As the national research partners state with their overall rating, in the experts view the importance of inspection of teacher training is very heterogeneous between countries (Table 24). In Slovenia, inspection has no importance and in France and Poland only little importance. In Germany and the United Kingdom the importance of inspections was judged to be moderate, while in Finland, the Netherlands and especially Italy it seems to be very important.

Table 25: Importance of inspection of teacher training (experts view)

How do experts judge the importance of inspection of teacher training?	very low	rather low	moderate	rather high	very high
	no importance	only a little importance	moderate importance	high importance	very high importance
Finland				X	
France		X			
Germany			X		
Italy					X
Netherlands				X	
Poland		X			
Slovenia	X				
United Kingdom			X		

2.4.11 Assessment of future teachers

In *Finland*, the final evaluation is conducted in the form of a Master thesis and the assessment of the practical training, which takes place in the schools.

Concerning the final evaluation of teachers in *France*, there are differences between national examination competition and teacher training evaluation. The introduction of the Master degree also brought a new process of assessment. For the national competitive examination, there are written and oral exams (only for eligible students). For the Master degree, there are two examination sessions to validate credits (written and oral final exams). There are also relevant exams during the academic year (continuous assessment). Part of the examination is a research paper with oral presentation. After one year of in-service teaching, the evaluation is based on a visit of a regional inspector of the school administration and an academic committee.

In *Germany*, the usual way of assessing teacher students' performance regards the grading in final examinations are written and oral exams in the 1st phase as well as observed lessons and oral exams in the 2nd phase. Alternative ways, such as portfolios or presentations are used in some institutions in the 2nd phase, but not generally in teacher training. In any case, experts point out that it seems to be really complex or even impossible to measure real competences. Within the academic training, oral exams seem to be more appropriate than written exams to operationalize professional competences. Content knowledge in the 1st phase might not be meaningful for the success of teachers in school. This leads to a critique by representatives of practical training, because in 2nd phase more and more professional (occupational) elements become part of the assessment. Representatives of theoretical training agree with the deficits in their assessment strategy – partially very important as the following voice explains. The 2nd phase often is confronted with the allegation that the selective visitation do not do justice to the work trainee teachers do all-day. One expert disagrees and defends assessment based on attendance at school. In conclusion, the system of assessment within teacher training has a lot of problems and there are many ways of im-

provement. Regarding the GOETE context it is conspicuous that no expert talks about competences such as handling heterogeneity or developing skills of diagnosis as a difficult aspect of assessment. The question of assessing knowledge and teaching competences are the emphasis on which everything seems to be aligned. A focus on educational disadvantage will apparently not be a burning issue in the near future.

Each single university in *Italy* establishes evaluation criteria, phases and methods. Final qualifications are generally two: a diploma indicating the type of degree or specialization with the final mark and the certificate containing also a list of the examinations passed and the related marks. SSIS teacher students were required to pass an exam (written and/or oral) at the end of each class. They were also required to attend a specific number of workshops (normally 16 hours each) also requiring (but not always) a final form of examination. During their practical training they had to submit a didactic project to a placement commission: If the project was accepted, the students had to implement it in a class. At the end of practical training, students had to write a detailed report of their experience and this report was due to evaluation by the placement commission. In order to pass the final examination and get the teacher qualification, students had to write and discuss a thesis that was usually connected to the practical experience they had made at school. Experts were not able to evaluate the whole process of assessment, as in many cases they were responsible only of a single path: a single class discipline, the internship at school or a workshop. In general, they were quite satisfied with the achievements of SSIS students and worried about the effects of the new reform and the implementation of the TFA. Some experts admitted the difficulty of evaluating teaching skills in a quantitative way (through marks, exams, tests etc. as it actually works). They were convinced of the evaluation's importance but claimed that another way of teaching skills' judgment should be found. Others experts underline that practical training was crucial in order to observe and evaluate the behaviour of the future teachers, his/her way of approaching and interacting with students. Experts did not refer specifically to the evaluation of competences regarding educational disadvantaged pupils as they should have been covered by intercultural pedagogy, special education, psychology etc. Furthermore, some students attended an additional semester on special education and this means that they had to pass additional exams and make a practical training, considering the aspect of disadvantage more in-depth.

The final assessment of students in the *Netherlands* is based on the accumulation of credits of all modules of the courses they have done in the course of their study plus their work in teaching practice (assessed by and in discussion with the institute and school tutors) and three or four pieces of course work to be completed in the final year. The study is completed with the Bachelor degree. As the forth year is spent mainly on teaching at school, the final test in subject knowledge is at the end of year three. If students would not pass that test, or if they would get negative assessment from their school tutors, they would not be allowed in year four. Assessment is not yet nationally regulated, each institution is formally speaking autonomous, but the trend goes in the direction of increasing harmonization of assessments.

In *Poland* the format of assessment is defined by the single university. There are no general principles that regulate the assessment procedure, excepted the BA and MA thesis which are framed by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. Most often, assessment is based on written exams that generally refer to theoretical issues. The apprenticeship is credited but is not subject of assessment. During the final examination, the defence of the own thesis takes place. The thesis pertains generally theoretical aspects or presents results of research conducted usually only in one school or within a not substantial group of members of school society (for instance, teachers of certain subjects, pupils). The thesis is not a sufficient basis to assess the skills of graduates to work as teachers.

Assessment methods in *Slovenia* are set separately for each subject in the curriculum. In general terms, the traditional methods of examination (colloquium, oral/written exams, course work), taking into account the special requirements of individual subjects, are completed with project and research work: diaries, practical assignments or tasks, solving of real problems, portfolio, performances etc. are included. There are also various ways of evaluation, both formative (e.g., real-time feedback to student about his/her progress) and summative (final assessment). Methods of verification include a variety of current activities (protocols and diaries, which assess the level of writing and not the content), which is associated with formative assessment that allows students to im-

prove, upgrade assignments, and to increase the level of academic achievement (associated with higher grades). Taking into account the specifics of each subject, various ways of student activities and evaluation of academic achievement can be complemented and also separately evaluated. Interviewees point out that by increasing the proportion of seminars and practical courses, as well as training practice, the possibility of evaluating professional conduct and appropriateness of interactions with students become greater. They also add that the problem of evaluating the prospective teachers is mostly only measures knowledge and understanding of theory and maybe also the application of the knowledge in specific situations. Too little attention is paid to relational and communication aspects of pedagogical work, which is a shortfall, as teachers also testify.

Across the *United Kingdom*, trainee teachers are assessed according to criteria determined by each individual higher education institution. In general, however, the successful completion of a dissertation, a series of assignments, and a number of school-based observations (including feedback from placement school mentors) is required in every case.

2.4.12 Minimum legal requirements for professional development

The minimum legal requirement for supplementary education for teachers in *Finland* is 3 days per year, as defined in the teachers' municipal collective bargaining contract (Kunnallinen työmarkkinalaitos, 2010). One of these so called VESO (referring to obligatory education based on the collective bargaining agreement) days can be split into two half days of education. Continuing teacher education is organised by different actors such as university continuing education units, university departments of teacher education and summer universities. There are some obligatory training days (approx. 2 to 3 days per year) for the teachers in permanent office, but there is no nationwide program for professional development.

French teachers have the right of individual professional development (20 hours per year). They choose units in a professionnal development plan (catalogue with thematic units). Units contents are different from one region to another (with regional priorities defined by regional education institution (rectorat) but refered to the ten teaching skills (see 2.4.9). Professional development is not compulsory. All teachers can use this right or not.

In *Germany*, there is no compulsory curriculum for the professional development of in-service teachers, but there are minimum legal requirements. Teachers have to participate in several seminars of professional development by rotation. The frequency depends on the school type and the federal state. Teachers can choose from a variety of offered arrangements and contents (see 2.3.2). There is no compulsory predefined curriculum. For instance, in Baden-Württemberg, the whole teaching staff and the principle have to discuss a plan for professional development of its teachers. In the end, the school principal decides which kind of professional development-course is compulsory for which teacher or group of teachers and whether the interest of single teachers can be considered.

A present time, the training of *Italian* teachers in service is regulated by the current collective national labour contract for the school division, establishing that teacher training is fundamental for the professional development of teachers as well as to support the target changes and an effective policy for the development of human resources. The training has various aims: in-service training, mobility, requalification and professional reorganization, specific requirements. Training initiatives are generally carried out of the teaching timetable and teachers have the right to participate as they contribute to the development of their professional role. Furthermore, teachers have the right to have 5 days with exemption from service during the school year to participate in training initiatives. The teachers assembly of every school decides its annual plan for in-service training activities with respect for the personal needs or options. The present regulations do not foresee the compulsory verification of the learning outcomes and the certification of the acquired skills; such actions are carried out only on occasion of certain initiatives, upon proposals accepted by the participants. Generally, it is issued a participation certificate at the end of the course, with the indication of the days and hours of attendance. There is no institutionalised method of verifying whether what and how has been learned.

Professional development of teachers in the *Netherlands* is strongly pushed by the government and is the most advocated strategy to build a teaching corps which is able to face the challenges of a knowledge society (see Krachtig meesterschap, 2008). In-service training courses at schools are part of continuous teacher professionalization. The course offers are determined in most cases by demand from schools. They may vary from courses for individual teachers, to a small group of teachers, or to a whole teacher team of one or more schools (usually residing under one school board). Participation in further training is decided on a voluntary basis by the teachers themselves, the school principal and the competent authority (the school board). Schools have a budget to enrol teachers in these courses. Courses can be taken at any moment during the teacher's professional career, on the initiative of the school or of the teacher. Courses are offered by institutions for professional development, including teacher training institutes. A wide range of professional development courses for teachers is available annually on an ever growing market. The foundation 'Professional Quality of Teachers' (Stichting beroepskwaliteit leraren, SBL) provides a broad program for all kinds of further training, courses and any service schools need. At least ten percent of the teachers' actual working hours are available for professional development. Teachers are strongly stimulated to take courses by their head teachers as well as by incentives and funds provided by the ministry. Schools are obliged to keep a dossier of every teacher which must be continuously updated to follow his or her progress in professionalization. There is no effective control on how courses for further professional development are actually used by schools and teachers, and the quality of the offers and the coaches are not always what they should be.

In *Poland*, regulations for professional development vary according to the status of teachers. On the way to the each next level, further professional development is necessary. The single regulations are described elsewhere (see 2.3.2).

Professional development for teachers in *Slovenia* was introduced by the 'Organisation and Financing of Education Act' (1991) and the 'Rules for Promotions to Titles in Elementary and Secondary Schools' (1992) and allowed those undertaking professional training to be awarded higher titles (mentor, advisor, and counsellor). Training programs provided additional career opportunities for all teachers, resulting in significant and positive motivation for workshop training participants. A school must provide study leave, with a minimum of 5 days per year or 15 days every three years, for in-service training and must also cover these expenses: salary compensation, any travel expenses, participation fee and accommodation costs. Programmes are run partly during the week; when this occurs, the school administration finds a supplementary teacher. The rest of the programme is organised at weekends or on work-free days.

At present there is no minimal legal requirement in *the United Kingdom*. However, in England, the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) needs of individual teachers will be reviewed by schools, so that reviewers' training and development needs and the actions to be taken to address those needs, as well as determining the support that will be provided to help the reviewee meet specific performance criteria. In Northern Ireland such regulations are stipulated by the 'Department of Education' and the 'General Teaching Council', while in Scotland the standard for chartered teacher comprises part of the national framework for teachers' continuing professional development. It is also a component in the suite of Standards, which provides a standard-based professional learning framework for teachers in Scotland throughout their career. It defines the level of professional accomplishment teachers might seek to achieve, after completing the 'Standard for Full Registration' and once established in the profession.

2.4.13 Recent reforms and restructuring trends

The most important teacher training reforms in the post-war era in *Finland* can be listed as follows:

- Grounding of teacher training higher education institutions in the 1940's and 1950's: There was a vast shortage of teachers, due to the extremely large post-war generation entering the school system. Separate higher education institutions were grounded in addition to the old seminars. The career of teachers became more appropriate also to the children of urban families. The new institutions were placed in the bigger cities. The old ties of moral and religious curriculum were loosened.

- Moving almost all the teacher training to the universities in 1970's and 1980's and closing down the old seminars: The curriculum was modernized and the whole teacher education became academic. Faculties of education were founded and teacher education was extended to all the eight universities of the country. The old 'vocation' of teachers was weakened and teachers' work was beginning to be seen like any salaried academic work. Competition for the study places increased, the selection of teacher training students tightened. It started to become more difficult to enter into the academic career of a teacher.
- Rationalisation and scientification of the teacher training in 1990's and 2000's: The idea of a 'researching teacher' aimed to highlight the scientific prestige of teacher training, to make it equal scientifically compared to other academic education. The teacher training curricula were made more research oriented.
- The Bologna process decisions in Finnish university and teacher training in the 2000's: There have been pressures of internationalisation and harmonisation according to the European model (Bologna process). University degrees are now divided into three phases (BA, MA, PhD). The internationalisation has proceeded fast, but the new lower degree (BA) has had very limited consequences regarding teacher education, since the legislation still demands the teachers to be on MA level. The value of the BA degree is very limited also in many other educational fields. The university has undergone vast transformations in the 2000's (see e.g., Vanttaja, 2010).
- More recently there have been various reforms in both, universities and in the school, e.g., the new basic education law increases the integration of special students into normal classes. However, these are not directly linked to teacher education.

The *French* training approach and organization recently changed: content of the reform is integration of the IUFM in universities and change to a Master degree in reference to the Bologna process. The experts all highlight difficulties to implement the reform and they underline that it is quite difficult to evaluate it's impact on teacher training and school life. The chance to the Master degree has benefits and disadvantages. On one hand, the link between teacher training and research is stronger and the link between IUFM and the employer (rectorat) is less important. Teacher training is more autonomous than before. On the other hand, teacher training is more theoretical and more focused on the discipline than before. Teachers are less trained to understand professional contexts and to face with pupils' learning and behaviour problems. During teacher training, before and after the chance to the Master, there is tension between disciplinary training and professional training. Experts highlight that subject teacher trainers sometimes bring discredit on the social sciences regarding teacher training. Teacher trainers who are responsible for the professional training often consider that it is not enough developed and that many issues are missing. Concerning teacher training, the first institutions ('École normale') were created to contribute to public school development. The aim was to train teachers to compete private school (catholic school). Then, linked to the 1989 general law on education, teacher training was entirely changed and IUFM took the place of École normale. Through the last general law on education in 2005, IUFM were integrated in universities and teacher training became Master degree. The single steps of reforming teacher training can be summarized as follows:

- Écoles normales D'instituteuers, 1833, Loi Guizot (introduction of vocational schools to train primary school teachers; link to the generalization and development of primary public school): Teacher training is under responsibility of the state. From 1833 to 1991, there were different reforms of the organization and the curriculum of those vocational schools. They were closed during 'vichy period' and opened again in 1945.
- IUFM, 1990 (general law on education): Introduction of 32 IUFM in 1990 and 1991. Only one professional school to train public primary and secondary school teachers (but not agricultural school teachers). There is also a standardization of teachers administrative status.
- Loi D'orientation et de Programme pour L'avenir de L'Ècole de 2005, Loi Fillon (reform of the schedule of teacher training conditions): Integration of IUFM in universities. The administrative status of the 32 IUFM changed from independent schools to internal schools of the universities. The aim of this reform was to prepare the introduction of Master degrees in teacher training.
- Arrete du 19 decembre 2006 portant cahier des charges de la formation des maitres en institut universitaire de formation des maitres: The aim of this reform is to prepare the introduction of Master degrees in teacher training as well.

- Circulaire du 23 décembre 2009 sur la mise en place des diplômes nationaux de masters (introducation of the Master degrees in education): Teacher training organization and curriculum change. From September 2010, students have to prepare a Master (2 years) and pass a national competitive examination. Afterwards they become a trainee teacher but they have less professional training than before.

In *Germany*, the following three documents mark the most important steps in reforming teacher training since 1945. They are the documents with the strongest impact on the structure of teacher training and one of the few guidelines on national level. The first document was written by the 'Council of Education' (Deutscher Bildungsrat), a commission founded by the federal and regional governments to plan educational policy (exists 1966-1975). The second and third document were developed by the KMK (Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic) and is based on the decisions of the ministers of education of all Länder. The current goal of teacher training reforms is to adopt the courses to the new Bachelor/Master degree structure and to use that global reorganization to implement additional changes like modularisation of contents. Although there are content-related innovations, the GOETE focus on preparing teachers to handle educational disadvantage seems to be affected but not central for the current restructuring trends.

- Deutscher Bildungsrat: Strukturplan für das Bildungswesen (Bildungsrat, 1970): The document defines five functions of teachers for the first time: teaching, educating, counselling, assessing performance and innovating. These five functions are still widely accepted in the teacher training discourse today.
- Standards für die Lehrerbildung: Bildungswissenschaften (KMK, 2004): A national board of representatives from each federal state defined standards and competences for the educational sciences (pedagogy) in teacher training. Teacher training institutions and the individual Ministries of Education are required to consider the national standards while developing new teacher training curricula and by shifting teacher training courses into the BA/MA structure.
- Ländergemeinsame inhaltliche Anforderungen für die Fachwissenschaften und Fachdidaktiken in der Lehrerbildung (KMK, 2008): A national board of representatives from each federal state defined standards and competences for the single subjects and subject-didactics in teacher training. Teacher training institutions and the single ministries of education are required to consider the national standards while developing new teacher training curricula and by shifting teacher training courses into the BA/MA structure.

In *Italy*, the academic debate is deeply criticising the ongoing school reform. Educational and social scientists recognize that it represents a complex task: it has the aim to reduce budget spending, to push teachers on the labour market and to improve the system, correct its deficiencies and update the system according to the challenges of knowledge society. Though, it seems that the cost-containment is the most apparent dimension, risking to destroy also the best performance of the system. In order to overcome the deep economic crisis of the state with the cut off of several teacher positions, the primary school after twenty years of brilliant results due to the team teaching (three teachers in one class) will come back to the system of one teacher per class. Teachers fear to loose not only their workplace, but also their professional dignity. Academics as Baldacci and Frabboni (2009), affirm that the reestablishment of the old one-teacher scheme will have negative effects. Also the abolishment of the SSIS goes in this direction: the new system, in fact, establishes that teachers at secondary levels are required to have a Master degree plus one year of practical training (TFA). This means, that the two-year SSIS course, that focused not only on didactical skills but also on pedagogical, psychological, sociological, anthropological ones, has been completely erased and that there is no other opportunity for future teachers to learn those skills. The single steps of reform can be reflected as follows:

- Law no. 341 of 19 November 1990 and MURST decree of 26 May 1998 regard the reform of university teaching orders. The first established that students had to attend a four-year degree course in sciences of primary education to become primary teachers (up to 1990, the only qualification required for teaching in primary schools was a 4 year upper secondary school diploma of 'scuola magistrale'). After their disciplinary degree, the secondary school teachers had to attend a two year specialisation training course. After eight years, the MURST decree implemented the teacher training for secondary schools setting the guidelines for the SSIS.

- Reform law 53/2003 and the following Decree 227/2005 provided new procedures for initial teacher training and recruitment. However, the new centre-left government of prime minister Romano Prodi, elected in April 2006, suspended the implementation of this law, starting a revision process, which regarded the reform of the second cycle of education, curricula at primary and lower secondary levels, initial teacher training and the procedures for their recruitment.
- Law 244/2007 (financial law 2008) repealed law 53/2003 and its following decree established that new procedures for the initial training of teachers and for their recruitment should be adopted through a new specific ministerial decree. Therefore, up to school year 2007/08 it was restored the old legislation preceding law 53/2003 with the aims of granting that the recruitment of new teachers would have to be done according to the real available teacher positions, thus solving the problem of temporary teachers.
- In April 2008, after the crisis of Mr. Prodi's centre-left government and the election of a new, Mr. Berlusconi centre-right government, a public expense reduction plan (law 133/2008) and the subsequent urgent measures on education (law 169/2008) introduced once again changes in the school system.
- In school year 2008/09, the access to SSIS has been suspended through law 133/2008.
- The following Gelmini decree on the new procedures and requirements for teachers initial training and teachers recruitment started its implementation on 15th of February 2011. Students who would like to teach at all levels are required to have a five-year university degree ('laurea magistrale'): teachers at pre-primary and primary levels are required to have a five-year 'laurea magistrale' in sciences of primary education (after entrance examination); teachers at secondary levels are required to have a disciplinary 'laurea magistrale' (after entrance examination) plus a year of practical training (TFA: after entrance examination).

In the *Netherlands*, the most relevant elements of teacher training reform can be named as follows:

- Improved flexibility: Because of teacher shortage after 1945, teacher education programs were made more flexible. Alternative individual trajectories, which were based on agreements between a student and a teacher education course were made possible, taking into account previous qualifications and work experience. In 2000, the government launched an emergency measure to directly admit people from other professions (under a few conditions) to start teaching in schools and to train them on-the-job as licensed teachers. However, serious doubts were raised about the character of this measure as no assessment procedures were applied to control for quality. Yet up to the present, teacher shortage is combated by offering a wide range of trajectories to become a teacher (see 2.4.5).
- Emphasis on teaching practice: A stronger emphasis on practical teaching skills was to improve the lack of fit between theory and practice. In response, teacher training institutes have extended the length and number of teaching practice periods and have reduced formal training centred around general theory and subject disciplines accordingly. As a consequence, in-service schools have acquired a significantly stronger influence on teacher education curricula.
- Competence standards: In 2004, parliament passed the 'Professions in Education Act'. The essence of the act is that educational staff – teachers, assistant staff members, school managers – must not only be qualified but also competent. For this reason, sets of competences and its requirements have been developed for teachers, and are being developed for assisting staff members and (primary) school managers. Schools are obliged to take competent staff into their employment and subsequently enable them to keep up their competences.
- Prior to 1968, there was no difference in training for grade one or grade two teachers. In 1969, a higher professional course was introduced for grade two teachers under the name new-style secondary teacher training. In addition, there were part-time courses leading to grade one or grade two qualifications. For some years, courses were provided in two subjects. This has changed in 1990: students now specialize in one subject. University training courses for secondary school teachers were introduced in 1987.They lead to grade one qualification.
- Currently aspects of prospective reforms (here and following) are pointed out by the interviewed experts. First, professionalization in teacher training and of the teachers in school is discussed very much. Many teacher trainers study too short to provide the teacher students with enough subject- and general knowledge and to have enough time for them to develop their personalities and to reflect on what they are taught and experience in the practical periods.

- Connecting training, research and school practice: It is felt that further professionalization depends on a better cooperation between the main players in education: teacher trainers, students, school teachers and scholars who are close to scientific research and international developments. The bridge builders here are the assistant professors who work closely together with the training colleges and initiate applied research projects. Ideally, teacher trainers would (also) teach at schools and so would school teachers at the college, from where they get the in-service students, and the students also, be part of research projects.
- Integration of subject-disciplines in the vocational schools and (thus also) in the teacher training: students (and their trainers) should get more overview of how the diverse subject-disciplines connect to each other. That would at the same time stimulate schools to do so.
- Diversity as a new concept for teacher colleges to take into their program: It is important to create more knowledge and reflection by students and trainers about modern multicultural societies which is populated by so many different groups and cultures. But diversity is also seen as the capacity of the teacher to deal with pupils who are so different in so many other respects.

The *Polish* milestones of teacher training reform can be described as following:

- After the Second World War, when it turned out that almost one third of teachers died and Polish borders were shifted and migration processes increased, the demand for teachers increased an therefore teacher training was accelerated.
- The time of baby boom (1948-1956) intensified the demand. Teachers then were trained at a high school of education (4 years of training), in teachers colleges (post A-level school) and at teacher schools of higher education (vocational school, equal to BA level). Moreover, teachers were recruited among the graduates from universities. The condition to work as teacher was completing a one year course of education only.
- After 1971, higher schools of education were introduced that trained at the MA level and moreover, educational studies offered at universities were expanded.
- Since 1990, numerous non-public schools of education were established (operated privately also) to train students at the BA level.
- Nowadays, teacher training focuses more than before on knowledge that enables future teachers to solve difficult situations at school; cooperation with students demanding special care, and forge skills ahead that are prepare for all-day skills needed in school.

The *Slovenian* history and presence of teacher training reform is like the following:

- In 1919 a Slovene university was established in Ljubljana. It developed considerably in the period before and during World War II, particularly in the field of social studies. The Faculty of Arts functioned within the university and also played a role in the educating of upper secondary school teachers.
- The war period in Slovenia, from 1941 to 1945, was a time of stagnation in the development of education, so much that during the early post-war years it was necessary to renovate the facilities and reinvigorate the concept of higher education and teaching staff. As there was a shortage of teachers, progressive-minded young people were guided into the profession even though there was no time for their training. The government organised three-month, six-month and one year teacher-training courses. In the year 1947, the short two-year higher education programme offered by the Faculty of Arts was designed to expand the ranks of teachers who had been recruited from other fields of study. Only subject teachers for lower-secondary level were trained at this college, while class teachers (primary level) were trained at a five-years teacher training college (upper-secondary level), and teachers for upper secondary were trained at various faculties, where they have acquired a higher education degree.
- In 1964, the ‘Teacher Training College’ in Ljubljana was transformed into the ‘Teacher Training Academy’. The new academy started to train teachers for primary level as well.
- In 1975, the teacher training academy became a member of the University of Ljubljana and its 'twin institution' was established within the University of Maribor as well. Both academies provided two-year tertiary studies leading to an associated degree (a 'short degree'). Teachers who teach in upper-secondary schools were trained at other faculties within universities.
- The reform of upper secondary education in 1980 led to calls for a renewal of higher education teacher training programmes. From 1982 to 1984, decisions were made to train basic school

and upper secondary school teachers in one or two subjects under the same education programmes offered by various faculties or by teacher training colleges, even though upper secondary teachers were traditionally trained at the Faculty of Arts and other faculties. University studies focused on one or two academic disciplines with one or two supplementary school education subjects followed by study programmes in subject-specific didactics and a minimum of in-class observation and guided student teaching. Organisational and systemic issues of study programmes were a major concern at that time.

- Since the academic year 1986-1987, teachers for all schools (primary, lower-secondary and upper-secondary) have been trained in 4-year university programmes. At the beginning of the 1990s, both academies were transformed into Faculties of Education, while in 2003 a third one was established within the new University of Primorska in Koper. In 1996 (adoption of new higher education legislation) some new courses and optional subjects were introduced at the undergraduate level (natural sciences; ICT) and graduate programmes have been developed and extended (Master and PhD programmes in class teaching, special education, social education and fine arts education).
- In 2009, the implementation of the Bologna structure began; some courses developed according to the system 4+1 (e.g., class teachers, two-subject teachers etc.), some according the system 3+2 (e.g., history, languages etc.) and others according to the system 5+0 (mathematics).
- In recent years, intensive efforts have been made to renew objectives and methods, to the improvement of facilities (lecture rooms, seminar rooms, teaching aids) which allow a more active form of working with students, the introduction of continuous teaching practice and an increase in the number of higher education teachers and assistants of teacher training subjects, and smaller class sizes for students (Organization 2008/09).
- In expert circles concerned with teacher education, there has been a ongoing debate on the need to take further improvements in the process of introducing novice teachers to independent teaching. Projects of the 'Partnership of Faculties Providing Teacher Education and the Schools', which supported the introduction of young teachers to independent work in recent years, are very successful. Future reforms in this area should result from the experience gained from these projects.

In the *United Kingdom*, increased devolution throughout the late 1990's and early 2000's saw the further development of already differentiated education systems in Scotland, Northern Ireland, and England. In Northern Ireland a protracted review of teacher education began in 2003 (Devlin, 2011). Arising from a conference titled 'Teacher Education in a Climate of Change' the 'Department of Education' and the 'Department for Employment and Learning' jointly commissioned five studies. These were to focus on the following areas: demographic trends; costs; use of the Initial Teacher Education (ITE); potential impact of the proposed new curriculum, of e-learning and of the longer-term effects of the post-primary review on teacher education; appropriateness of the teacher competence model and relevance, effectiveness and value for money of the support provided to beginning teachers during early professional development; effects of ITE on existing diversification; co-ordination, effectiveness and funding arrangements for the continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers (Devlin, 2011, p. 11). The process of recommendation and reform was to suffer from a variety of micro and macro political pressures and struggles, meaning that the reform of teacher education was positioned as being of relatively low priority. Devlin (2011) notes that this difficult employment situation is to the detriment of schools, because they are unable to tap into the talent of enthusiastic young people entering the profession. For newly qualified teachers themselves, the loss of momentum by not finding employment means that they do not begin their induction phases, thereby missing out on valuable opportunities for professional growth and development. One suggested solution to this problem has been the introduction of a guaranteed induction year – a similar system exists in Scotland – but there has been no political movement on this issue. Somewhat paradoxically, these problems have coincided with a concerted effort to 're-intellectualise' the teaching profession in Northern Ireland. Another possibility for a change in governance is mentioned (Teacher Education in a Climate of Change – The Way Forward, 2010). Here it is suggested that the Department of Education will use quasi-market mechanisms in the future to allocate scarce resources to a range of bodies in order to provide CPD to teachers. This would mean the introduction of a system of CPD in Northern Ireland of a kind already present in England. However, this is not likely to be met without resistance.

2.5 Teacher training and educational disadvantage

2.5.1 Diversity of teacher students and teacher trainers

The diversity of teacher students regarding their own social background, educational biography and gender might be an indicator for how they handle the diversity of their future pupils. One possibility is, that teachers from a lower social origin choose school types that usually are concerned with pupils that have few socio-economic or cultural resources – teachers with a upper class origin will then choose schools that are engaged with pupils from the upper class as well. Another hypothesis could be, that teacher students with less social resources might understand the problems of disadvantaged pupils better because they know them by their own. Most often, the teaching profession is chosen by students from middle class or upper class. In both cases, this leads to the assumption that it might be eligible to recruit more teachers from a lower social origin. While most teacher students are female, their future pupils are equal regarding gender ratio, which may imply a lack of attachment figures, particularly for male pupils. The eight European partners asked the experts about how they judge these possible relations and if they think about or even support to recruit more teacher students with migration background or with few socio-economic resources to decide on a teacher training program. These points can also be put to the meta-level of teacher trainers and leads to questions, if trainers also have to be a heterogeneous group to educate future teachers in an adequate way regarding the problems of diversity.

In *Finland*, it was generally very hard for the interviewees to describe the backgrounds of the teacher students. The national expert stated that there is no research-based knowledge about this issue. The differences which did come up in the interviews, were firstly between class teachers and subject teachers. Subject teachers were considered to be first of all interested in their own subject, having a narrower point of view that is not primarily on supporting disadvantaged students. The parental education level is considerably higher among those applying to mathematics and natural sciences than among those applying to social studies or humanistic subjects.

French secondary school teachers' social profile is rather homogeneous. Little of them come from lower class. There are gender differences between disciplines. Humanities are more feminized than natural sciences and there are also differences between general secondary teachers and vocational secondary teachers. Teachers profile in vocational education is more heterogeneous. A part of them have a classical course (passed the national examination after three years at the university) and the other part was retrained (worked several years before they became teachers). In general, there are three types of motivation to become a teacher: vocation to be a teacher, lack of another professional project or for security of employment as a civil servant. Teachers profile and motivation have impacts on teaching of educational disadvantaged pupils. Those remembering their own time in school positively, have a more positive relation with school as a institution. Sometimes, their school experience does not meet their pupil's problems and behaviours and a gap between teachers and pupils can appear.

Teacher students in *Germany* are rather homogenous in their social background. Research shows that there are no or only partially differences in social diversity according to the teaching post. The number of teacher students of migration background is growing slowly. The gender division is significantly unbalanced: more than 80% of teachers in primary schools are female. Asking how interviewees do appraise homogeneity or heterogeneity of teacher students with a view to their teaching of educational disadvantaged students. Usually, experts vote for a stronger heterogeneity of teachers, because teachers of migration background not only understand students with comparable experiences much better, but also they may act as role models. There are initiatives to increase recruitment of teacher students of migration background who could be a role model for pupils with similar records and experiences of being disadvantaged. Recruiting teacher students with a lower social background is also an aspect of democracy, but they need a similar qualification. A problem of these efforts could be that the respective candidates are being socialised on a predefined way through the initial teacher training program, so that the potentials of their migration experiences could be reshaped or even negated – they have to behave like teachers have to behave, so they adopt their role from the imagination, how upper class teachers behave. One expert pleads

for comparable shares among of different backgrounds in the clientele across all types of teaching careers. A second names the ancillary advantage of a higher resilience of teachers from a lower class. A higher heterogeneity of teachers does not automatically have to be appreciated regarding the heterogeneity of pupils. The objective might not be to homogenise learning groups, but to learn in heterogeneous groups from each other. Experts favour a higher number of teacher students of migration background entering teacher training, because they can understand migrant pupils' problems better and could be a role model for them. There are several initiatives to attract migrants into entering teacher training, but a comparable qualification (comparable achievement in teacher training) is necessary for them to keep up with non-migrants. The heterogeneity of teacher trainers is not a big issue for the experts, because the appointment of professors, etc. is always based on qualification only.

In *Italy*, the majority of teacher students are female (especially in primary teaching courses); a huge part of them are already graduated (mainly in psychology, sociology, anthropology) but still unemployed. They think that a teacher qualification would make it easier to find a job. Males are fewer (most of them are in secondary teaching courses), but quite motivated. The number of migrant teacher students is increasing, but the majority of them are born in Italy (migrant children born in Italy do not receive the Italian citizenships). There are also many foreign students coming through the Erasmus Program (especially from Spain). With respect to the social background issue, there is a heterogeneous situation. Nowadays, in Italy a teacher student has to be really motivated, at least for two reasons: the length of the training paths and the very little number of posts needed by schools. This is the biggest difference compared with the past, when students could graduate in all subjects and, if they could not find their favourite job, they could always take, as a second chance, the teacher competition examination and get a permanent contract at school.

Netherlands teacher students have different educational backgrounds. Most of them enter the college after having completed general secondary school, but they can also apply with a diploma of middle vocational education or having completed pre-university tracks. They can also step in the training with a previously exercised other profession. These different educational trajectories form a problem for the college staff who must design the study so as to fit all these different categories. The effect is, as interviewees point out, that the intellectual level is rather oriented towards the students with lower than higher educational backgrounds which may means to satisfy neither group wholly. All interviewees (and public at large) complain about lacking basic knowledge of students in language proficiency and maths. High dropout rates are one of the indications. As to the composition of sex, there is a severe misbalance in favour of females and an urgent need for attracting more male students. The entry percentage of ethnic minority students was well over 15% and their dropout rate after one year of study was well over 20%. In cities with large populations of ethnic-minorities – mainly from Turkish, Moroccan and Surinam backgrounds – specific projects and initiatives are developed and partly financed by the government to attract more ethnic minority students to teacher training and school teaching. There is especially need for male students from ethnic minority groups to become teachers and serve as models for ethnic (male) minority pupils. The Council of Higher Professional Education under which teacher training resorts, has no specific policy on this matter because it regards it the responsibility of the colleges. One interviewee points to homosexuality as a criterion of diversity which must be reflected, for the teacher students who must not be discriminated as well as for pupils and colleagues in school.

Distinctively visible in *Poland* is the prevailing majority of female students in teacher training and therefore the feminization of the teaching profession. Interviewees estimate teacher students as heterogeneous regarding the aspects of vocational choice. Some of them are fully aware of their decision, others use teacher training as interim solution until they can obtain their desired course. Educational studies are supposed to be rather easy and studying of education is evidence of a lack of ambitions. This is due to many years of low salaries in the teaching profession and du to it's low social status resulting from the negative selection of students.

The *Slovenian* experts exposed the marked feminisation of the teacher profession: the younger the pupils, the greater portion of female teachers, which is also reflected among the students in study programmes, as well as among employees on faculties; there are more female students on these programmes than on other programmes. The older the children, the higher is the number of male principals. Feminisation itself might have consequences in results of educational processes, be-

cause the presence of one sex being so dominant/prevailing in the growing period of children can be problematic. The ethnic structure in Slovenia has been changing very slowly, at least in the past, and therefore change in the ethnic structure of teachers was parallel with it. There was no statistical data has been collected in this regard. Intolerance in schools is quite apparent and manifested, an expert said, and obviously there is a tacit agreement in Slovenia that religious differences, beliefs, or nationalities of the teachers are not publicly discussed. Another expert mentioned that there is a lot of prejudice among some teachers towards specific groups, especially the Roma, but also towards one-parent families and similar. Public school should have a value system, some affirmative stand that would balance the starting opportunities, especially for weaker students. The social background of the teaching staff is quite similar**,** but candidates from lower middle class with a rather weak cultural capital opt for the teaching profession.

As the data of the *United Kingdom* illustrate, there is very little diversity in terms of in-service teachers and this is also reflected in trainees. The majority are white and female. Although there is no available quantitative data concerning the social class backgrounds of teacher students, interviewees noted that in their opinion the vast majority came from middle class families. In both Belfast and Bristol this was seen as potentially problematic, because the demographic profile of the majority of teachers often did not reflect backgrounds of the majority of pupils in the schools.

Regarding gender, it seems an overall phenomena, that the teaching profession, in particular the teacher students are dominated by females. At the same time, the quota of female teachers increase the younger the target group of pupils is. In this case, (future) teachers are a very homogeneous group, that obviously does not match the gender balance that pupils represent. In case of ethnic or social background of (future) teachers only less data is provided. Most countries do not possess respective statistical data and experts are careful with comments, because they feel the political dimension of this aspect and its vagueness. However, teacher students are supposed to be a more homogeneous group than their future pupils. That implies the necessity of thinking about new ways of recruiting teacher students with migration background, from a lower social origin, with different religious convictions etc. to answer the heterogeneity of pupils by a heterogeneity of teachers.

2.5.2 Definition of disadvantaged youth

Experts were asked, how they define disadvantaged youth, respectively who disadvantaged pupils are and in which way they are disadvantaged. This gives an idea, how the responsible for education policy and teacher training perceive (educational) disadvantaged pupils, if they have a narrow or broad understanding of the term. The definitions might be an indicator, if disadvantages are relevant for decision makers or if they are not aware of the questions that are connected with multiple ways of being disadvantaged.

In *Finland*, the definitions of (educationally) disadvantaged youth did not differ very drastically between the interviewees. Most notably, parents' background, parents' own problems and the examples set by the parents came up in many interviews. However, the definitions of the university lecturers and of the training school teachers did differ to some extent regarding their point of view, not perhaps so much in their actual content. The university lecturers have a more theoretical approach to the question. They defined the disadvantaged youth mostly from the point of view of social, cultural and economic resources available to the youth, basically along the lines of Bourdieu's (1986) theory. The definitions of the practical trainers were closer on the view of the school. The parents' knowledge of the school system and the ability and interest of the parents to support the pupils in school were brought up as issues related to the problem of disadvantaged youth. As a special disadvantaged group, interviewees raised the immigrant pupils. One of the issues raised only by the national expert was those pupils who have a disability which has not been diagnosed in preschool education. The national expert also raised the issue of different counter-cultures contributing to the problem, that the youth in a way exclude themselves through different youth cultures.

French interviewees are aware of this question but they do not really succeed in defining disadvantaged youth. They link disadvantaged youth with areas of educational priority. For them, disadvantaged youth are the pupils of those schools.

In *Germany*, experts have a different way of describing disadvantaged youth. They differ in the way they define the manner they are disadvantaged. Most experts think that a lack of cultural resources is a key to be disadvantaged, e.g., missing support or opportunities. This kind of being disadvantaged is assigned to a lapse of families, not of teachers, state, economy or politics. Other experts explain that the financial resources are the main dimension of disadvantaged students. This socioeconomic interpretation of disadvantage results in further aspects of being disadvantaged. Some experts assign disadvantage to personal attributes: a sum of individual criteria that disadvantages pupils, such as a lack of stimulations, motivational problems, less financial resources, psychical illness, a lack of attention, social noticeability or physical disabilities. A contrary approach is to search the criteria for being disadvantaged within the highly selective education system. This is a way of assigning responsibility to the context, not to the individual. The problem of individual versus contextual interpretation of the reasons for educational disadvantage leads two experts to a general critique of the term, a third explains that the definition of being disadvantaged varies according to the targets that are aspired by the students and the another excerpt asks what the normative basis for being or not being disadvantaged is about. In conclusion, experts define educational disadvantage predominantly on the basis of a lack of cultural and socioeconomic resources. Considering the GOETE focus, the questions arises as to why social resources are not discussed at all. When experts discuss about family, they do not highlight the families function of giving a feeling of security, identity and empathy or sharing responsibility. This is why the interviewees are indeed aware of educational disadvantage as a problem and challenge for teacher education, but they are not very sensitive to the connection between several mechanisms or that educational disadvantage is associated with issues of the relationship between teachers and students or the acceptance of students by their teachers.

In *Italy*, the first association of disadvantaged youth regards physical and mental disability as confirmed by all experts' answers. Special needs are related mainly to handicap and disability and this aspect is the most underlined within teacher training courses. After a thorough explanation of what GOETE was trying to survey, experts came to additional responses, such as disadvantages resulting from socio-economic aspects, learning difficulties, language problems, a gap between teachers and youth culture, social backgrounds and cultural issues. All experts are aware of educational disadvantage as a problem and that it represents a big challenge for teacher education. Altogether, experts consider educational disadvantage as both, disability and socio-cultural deprivation, while experts who teach educational sciences are more sensitive in this regard than officials or professors of specific subjects.

The experts interviewed in the *Netherlands* take effort to give a broad understanding, defining educational disadvantage as a result of more than one factor, such as bad school achievements in primary school, problematic family context, language difficulties, low incomes, „wrong“ friends in the criminal sphere, aspects of ethnic minority challenges, negligence, low language proficiency, undiscovered talents and a lack of support by school and surroundings. They state educational disadvantage as a huge problem that has not enough attention in the educations system.

In the view of *Polish* experts, disadvantaged youth is the youth with limited educational chances. The reasons of less chance in education are very various. There are financial reasons, but the interviewees underline the meaning of the cultural dimension like parents educational background, culture at home, the language used by pupils in their peer group that lead to communication deficits in the school environment. Experts underline, however, such problems are not limited to the groups of low income, they indicate a lack of brining up skills even among affluent parents that limit their actions to satisfy basic needs of children and do not care much about anything else. A student with less educational chances has no opportunity for individual development and insufficient support. This is why experts state that work with educational disadvantaged and with special educational needs students requires special training, but there is none such right now in initial training.

Slovenian experts put the label of disadvantaged children to those pupils, who under the current system have difficulties operating for whatever reason, deficit, whether economic or social. Namely the children with special needs, children from minority ethnic groups, children who do not speak Slovene, some that come from socio-economically weaker families, to those who come from other regions, some also mentioned those with "different" sexual orientation. One expert raises the question, whether this kind of labelling children is constructive, because it puts them in a special posi-

tion and has certain consequences for them in terms of stigma or labelling abuse. The experts are aware of educational disadvantage as a problem and challenge for teacher education, but they still emphasize that school adapts much more to younger children. They point out that children in higher grades of primary school and those in upper secondary school are not equally provided for as younger children. Some see this as a consequence of the selectiveness of school and in this sense they think that education for higher grades of primary school and upper secondary school should provide the students with knowledge how to recognize disadvantaged pupils, so that other experts can take care of them. Others expose it as a problem that shows especially in the transition from class to subject level, from primary to secondary school. With each of these transitions the technical knowledge is more emphasized while education, in terms of caring for individuals, is pushed to the background. Another expert points out, that the school system is rigid, adjusted for the average, everyone that stands out, falls out.

In the *United Kingdom* there is no single definition of disadvantaged youth that is commonly recognised throughout teacher education and the teaching profession. That is not to say that disadvantage is not a widespread discourse, however, rather that it is operationalized in a range of ways. The definition provided by Teach First bears repeating, as it specifically identifies 'a series of social and economic circumstances which limit a child's aspirations, achievement and access to education' – a framing that is close to that provided by the GOETE themes. This definition, however, is not the most common. The reason being a problem with which term precedes it: social or educational. Historically, until the 1990s, the dominant discourse was one that linked educational disadvantage to the rather nebulous notion of 'special educational needs', and as such was one that followed a medicalised and psychologised model of diagnosis and intervention. Recently the term 'additional educational needs' (AEN) has been used as a replacement, and with this shift there has been an incorporation of young people's social and emotional needs. Key indicators here are children in receipt of certain welfare benefits, particularly free school meals. Parallel schemes to encourage the most high-achieving pupils have also been put into practice, often under the headers 'Gifted and Talented' or 'More Able and Talented'. The meanings of social *and* educational are key in defining disadvantaged youth by teacher educators, and consequently in understanding which agencies are responsible for providing support in England. It is not that teacher educators do not understand the meaning of disadvantage, rather that it is sometimes difficult for them to position it as a theme within their courses. Teacher trainers in Northern Ireland have a positive view of the move towards 'inclusion', which they see as positively encompassing and addressing both educational *and* social forms of disadvantage. This view fits well with the current overall ethos in Northern Ireland. In England, the emphasis on 'joined-up' children's services means that disadvantage in its social configurations has been official located somewhat beyond the remit of the teacher and the school – it is for them to identify 'problems' and to alert external agencies who will then coordinate any interventions deemed necessary. Thus, the emphasis on reflection and moral agency that is promoted in Northern Ireland would appear to position the locus for agency and intervention within the school, while in England, the notion of agency partnerships has blurred the boundaries of what teachers might achieve in terms of social disadvantage, and even how they might be able to define what it means.

Reflecting the definitions and conditions of educational disadvantage by the interviewed experts, a huge variety appeared. The following table shows the named definitions/factors of educational disadvantage by keywords. Central aspects in some countries are highlighted in bold text.

Table 26: Categorized definitions/factors of youths being disadvantaged

	Socio-economic resources	Cultural resources	Social resources	Special needs	Individual dispositions	Education system and contexts
Finland	–	**family**; parents background; migration	youth cultures	–	–	–
France	–	–	–	–	–	educational priority areas
Germany	**financial resources**	**missing support or opportunities; lapse of families**	a lack of attention	–	lack of stimulations; motivational problems; psychical illness	highly selective education system
Italy	socio-economic aspects	language problems; cultural issues	social backgrounds	**physical and mental disability**	learning difficulties	gap between teachers and youth culture
Netherlands	low incomes	problematic family context; language difficulties; ethnic minority challenges	„wrong" friends in the criminal sphere; negligence		bad school achievements in primary school	undiscovered talents; lack of support by school and surroundings
Poland	financial reasons	parents educational background; culture at home; language used; parents that do not care; insufficient support	–	–	–	–
Slovenia	socio-economic deficit	social deficit; minority ethnic groups; language deficits	–	children with special needs	–	–
United Kingdom	economic circumstances	educational circumstances	social circumstances	–	–	–

Remark: Bold text indicates important definitions/factors.

Experts from some countries have a broad understanding of educational disadvantage (Germany, Italy, Netherlands). Nevertheless, the Italian interviewees focus on physical and psychical disabilities as major indicators for being educational disadvantaged. A second group of countries have experts, that show a medium-wide definition of being disadvantaged: Slovenia and the United Kingdom. While in the UK the focus is on Bourdieus' and Colemans' systematic of three sorts of capital, Slovenia has a parallel understanding to Italy, that an important part of educational disadvantage is having special needs. The third group has two or less facets of definitions/factors only: Finland and Poland, both with a focus on cultural resources, and France, where experts associate educational disadvantage with pupils in deprived areas or neighbourhoods. All together, a lack of cultural resources seem to be the most important factor of educational disadvantage in the GOE-TE-countries, while individual dispositions, the education system and other contexts seem to be less important.

2.5.3 Teaching disadvantaged students

It is an open question if there are differences between teachers who work primarily with privileged students and those that work with more disadvantaged ones. Against this background, experts have been asked what the characteristics of teachers who are going to teach particularly disadvantages students are. The answers might explain, if disadvantaged students are confronted with teachers that do not share own experiences of being disadvantaged or if they meet teachers that know what being disadvantaged means by their own. What do we know about teacher students that choose a type of school where mostly disadvantaged students go to? Do they have a special (intrinsic) motivation or special characteristics? How can this clientele be described? Is there a special training for those teachers and which competences do they need to succeed?

In the *Finnish* school system, the prevention of learning difficulties and exclusion has been and is an important area of emphasis. This is reflected also regarding teacher education. As there is a comprehensive school in Finland, there is no division of teachers into those who are going to teach disadvantaged students, as such. The interviewees were asked about qualities needed in teaching disadvantaged students on a more general level, however. In another GOETE sub-project (WP4), pupil questionnaires were distributed to schools. It was noted during school visits to presumably "disadvantaged" schools, that these schools were surprisingly well organised and appeared to have highly qualified teachers (as far as it is possible to assess this during a short visit). There is perhaps some "social mechanism", by which these disadvantaged schools end up getting competent teachers, but the reasons can only be guessed at this point. Some of the issues which came up in the interviews were helping to develop the Finnish language, knowledge of children's and youths' development; ability to see one's own subject's special demands from the point of view of the pupil; ability to cope in group situations; co-operation with parents, other officials etc.

In *France*, beginners are generally posted in secondary schools where the proportion of disadvantaged pupils is intermediate or important (suburbs schools). They often try to leave the school where they are posted during their trainee year or the school where they are posted after validation (when they become civil servant). If they do not succeed (ask for a transfer), they can stay several years in this type of school. As they do not choose this situation, it can have consequences on their teaching experience and motivation for this profession. Secondly, some teachers choose to teach in disadvantaged schools. This can be linked to their own personal trajectory or to a personal approach of teaching profession.

The basic finding in *Germany* is, that teachers working with disadvantaged or younger pupils have a high pedagogical orientation whereas teachers working in upper secondary are subject-orientated. Primary teachers often are dedicated to the work with young children. Because primary teachers work with students of all social backgrounds, they rather work with a group of disadvantaged than upper secondary teachers. Those who explicitly decide to work with the most deprived and disadvantaged pupils need a special motivation to take on this challenge. This could be a person who is strongly orientated on humans as individuals, who is very altruistic or who has the experience of a social mobility by him- or herself. One interviewee recognises that this teacher clientele often also has a high achievement orientation. All together, there are characteristics of teachers who teach particularly disadvantaged students, such as a strong altruistic orientation on individuals or an own history of being disadvantaged. With a view to the GOETE focus, this implies that there is a welcome self-selection of teacher students (voluntary) regarding the teaching careers that are concerned with disadvantaged students to a disproportionately high degree. This cushions possible failures of the teacher training system in case of preparing future teachers to handle social disadvantage, because the respective candidates already have a distinctive knowledge and competences in this respect (pupils and teachers clientele at 'Hauptschule').

Since teachers in *Italy* cannot choose the school they are going to teach in and since they often change school from one year to another because of their temporary position, it is impossible to state that some teachers are going to teach disadvantaged students more than others. For this reason, teacher education should prepare all students in the same way. This is also the general thesis of the experts interviewed. Nonetheless, some experts tried to give us their personal opinion about what it is supposed to be needed to teach to disadvantaged students, for example classroom management or being able to support by learning difficulties.

The *Netherlands* have no specific and obligatory curriculum for preparing future teachers to cope with educational disadvantage. However, some defined standards describe necessary requirements for teachers teaching primarily disadvantaged students: interpersonal competency (being capable to create a good climate in the class) or organizational competency (well-structured and performance-oriented atmosphere in the class). Colleges in areas with accumulation of "problem schools" and disproportional high rates of pupils with ethnic minority backgrounds would naturally "translate" the general descriptions/demands of the respective competences more often to problems of disadvantaged than colleges in areas with fewer such schools. Also there are minors which pay attention to the situation of schools in disadvantaged areas. Those students learn more about individual approaches in teaching and in designing appropriate teaching material. They would also

learn more about the complicated Dutch youth care system, which stands completely loose from the educational system, and about facilities of social-psychological and medical services.

The *Polish* interviewees did not indicate any specific characteristics of teacher who will teach disadvantaged students in future. More willingly they indicated features that all people that take up a teaching profession should be characterized with. For them, the key factor for being a "good" or "bad" teacher is personality, and then follows knowledge development and working on the development and acquisition of individual predispositions and features that lead to a original, creative teacher.

As the characteristics of teachers who teach disadvantaged youth, the *Slovene* interviewees emphasize their ability to distribute their energy, attention, and time equally among all the children. All these teachers should have a pronounced sense of justice and self-confidence. Some interviewees put professional competence in the second place. The teacher has to know in what way he/she can adjust to a pupil, or which mechanisms to use. If teachers are not sensible enough or sufficiently trained to perceive their needs, they risk that those children will get caught in a vicious circle of failure. Experts also stress, that if a teacher is good and feels comfortable in the classroom, he/she has no problem accepting disadvantaged children. Teachers must be sensitive, they should know and be able to detect and react to a problem and leave the rest to an expert. This important for all the teachers, but can most often be found and expected from the class teachers. Subject teachers' education is much more knowledge-oriented and not focused on the educational, forming dimensions.

In the *United Kingdom*, the development of the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) in England was ostensibly aimed at meeting the needs of disadvantaged pupils through attracting highly qualified individuals to the teaching profession, especially those who might otherwise have followed different career pathways. Similarly, Teach First (currently only in England but under consideration in Scotland) has placed all its trainees in schools with challenging circumstances. Exactly how or whether this remit will be expanded under the raft of changes in training provision in England is not yet clear.

Some teacher training systems have a clear focus on recognizing the requirements of teachers handling educational disadvantage (Slovenia), even when there is no special training for those teachers because of a comprehensive system (Finland). If teachers choose a school type or a school with predominantly disadvantaged pupils, they have an intrinsic motivation, potentially resulting from their own social background or own experiences of being disadvantaged in the past (France and Germany). In some training systems, there is no distinction between teachers who are going to teach privileged and disadvantaged pupils, because of a unified training (Italy) or the idea, that all teachers should be prepared in this regard in a same way (Poland). Those countries that have no special curriculum regarding preparation of disadvantaged students do anyway recognize the requirements by their general standards for teacher training (Netherlands and United Kingdom). All together, there is an awareness of the special demands and characteristics of teachers who are going to work with disadvantaged pupils, but in most cases there seem to be no major effort to take the challenges into account.

2.5.4 Preparation of future teachers to cope with educational disadvantage of their students

A main question of this report is to which amount teacher training can prepare future teachers to handle educational disadvantage of their prospective pupils. To answer that question, we operationalized, on the basis of preliminary document analysis, four dimensions that show whether and how teacher training matches the needs of the explained preparation (see 1.3). The analysis is carried out in two steps. Firstly, the given documents were analysed to proof, how national and regional policy guidelines as well as examination regulations cover the idea of preparing teachers to handle educational disadvantage. Secondly, the experts were asked how they judge the way and intensity of how future teachers are prepared to cope with educational disadvantage of their future pupils. The following paragraphs summarize the situation in the eight countries. A methodological challenge is, that only some teams researched documents and asked experts regarding

the coverage of the four dimensions, others used only one source for their argumentation. Furthermore, the way of reporting differs. While some partners explain the coverage of the dimensions by documents like curricula, others only show how depth the single dimensions are conducted in teacher training from the experts view. This leads to a heterogeneous database but, however, the findings and the way of argumentation are comparable. As far as the single dimensions rely to more then one aspect (support *or* individualised teacher for example), the description will be as precise as possible to distinct both facets if there is a significant difference.

Finnish experts had problems by localising the depth of dimension 1 (knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage). In some institutions it was covered theoretically only, in others also by using examples or even practically. Dimension 1 is taught, but perhaps in a more fragmentary way than dimensions 2 and 3. All interviewees explained that dimension 2 (diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes) is covered in teacher training theoretically, by using examples and in practice. The second best represented area in Finland is, according to the estimations of the interviewees, is dimension 3 (individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom). Experts did not talk about dimension 4 (school career planning advice) very much, which shows, that it is not present in teacher training.

The *French* curricula are not very detailed regarding the four dimensions. Some do not cover the dimensions at all, others only implicitly or casually. The curricula for the second year of IUFM has most references. Interviewed experts say that the four dimensions are weakly taken into account in teacher training. The first dimension is not really treated. Courses on school violence or an authority can deal with this dimension, but in an indirect way (reference to disadvantaged pupils' behaviours). For experts, the second and third dimension are treated in the didactic part of the training in subjects. This situation is linked to the important role that teacher trainers in subjects play. It raises the question of dividing teacher training in subject related training and training in social sciences. Experts think, that teacher trainers in subjects advice trainees and give them tools, but they do not give them knowledge to analyse educational settings. The fourth dimension is also not important in the teacher training except in the training of future teachers of vocational education (upper secondary). In general education (lower and upper secondary), teachers are not really interested in educational and professional guidance. In school, there are professional guidance advisors to help pupils. Therefore, most of the teachers think that they are not responsible of guidance while they influence it in different ways. In vocational education (upper secondary), teachers are more aware of this dimension. If the dimensions are part of the training, contents are not treated systematically. For experts, the lack of consideration of the dimensions in teacher training is due to the subject related training dominating instead of a educational related training. While young teachers meet difficulties during their first in-service years to adopt the contents of teacher training to handle pupils disadvantages, there are still resistances to implement those questions to a bigger amount. The change to the Master degree increases this gap between subject related and education-based training.

Germany's most significant finding is that all four dimensions are covered explicitly within the relevant documents. That means that all dimensions, in theory, are part of teacher training. However, the intensity of how the dimensions are covered varies between the three researched regions. For example, school career planning advice and occupational orientation (dimension 4) is not covered at all in North Rhine-Westphalia (region 2) and Saxony (region 3). Obviously, diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes are fully accepted as a very important element of teacher training (82 entries). The dimension is more than twice as frequent as individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom (33 entries). The dimensions knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage (27 entries), school career planning advice, decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school (24 entries) are by comparison unimportant, respectively not covered by the documents in a similar way. Experts highlight, similar as the result of document analyses, that diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes (dimension 2) as well as individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom (dimension 3) play a more important role in teacher training than the knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage (dimension 1) and school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school (dimension 4). In

conclusion, teacher training takes account of preparing future teachers to handle educational disadvantage of pupils. With respect to the answers of experts, the four dimensions of preparation are, in reality, not intensively dealt contents of teacher training as the document analyses might suggest. However, in general it seems appropriate to assess the connection between teacher training and questions on handling educational disadvantage, first of all, exists and is noticeable, secondly, it is growing in importance. This is visible by analysing the new teacher training curricula as well as by pursuing the experts' way of argumentation. The most important dimension in current teacher training is diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes (dimension 2), followed by individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom (dimension 3). Knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage (dimension 1) is covered but comparatively neglected, in particular school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school (dimension 4). Especially, regarding the sociological and occupational dimension of preparing future teachers to handle educational disadvantage the current situation seems not to be appropriate.

According to the *Italian* documents, the four categories are scarcely covered. As for the keywords search, there is an average of two/three words per document that are not always directly related to the deeper meaning of the four categories. An in-depth analysis of the documents on national and regional level are pretty much coherent to the experts' answers, that educational disadvantage is quite often linked to disability. Anyway, the analysis of the contents of lecturers' programs shows that contents do not only refer to disability but also to the importance of analysing educational disadvantaged contexts and effects of these contexts on pupils' educational paths. On national level, documents cover dimension 4 (school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school) quite widely. The documents foster the importance of teachers being able to provide pupils with good background knowledge and competence for university or job market. On regional level, documents only implicitly fit the four dimensions, when they care about disabilities and special educational needs. On the institutional level, programs and curricula show that the four categories are most often treated by the educational sciences (i.e. pedagogy, didactics, psychology) and insist on the importance that future teachers reflect on his/her educational history. The issue of educational disadvantage shows a few contradictions in the Italian teacher training system because of the general tendency of relating it to disability and learning disorders. Italian teacher training students, through the courses of pedagogy, sociology and psychology, receive information on social living condition of students and their effect in particular on students' capacity of learning. If they choose to attend also the additional semester for teaching to pupils with special needs, they also receive specific information on learning difficulties and disabilities. Vocational guidance is not specifically treated within teacher training courses. Teacher students scarcely know, instead, about transitions (also because it is very difficult to stay up-to-date to the continuous reforms of educational paths) but they receive some information about life long learning system. Furthermore, all experts showed clear difficulties on answering about the four categories in specific terms (number of teaching lessons; rating of theoretical and practical activities, etc.).

In the *Netherlands* there is no specific and obligatory curriculum for preparing future teachers to cope with educational disadvantage. These elements are implicitly part of the defined competences, e.g., working with pupils as to interpersonal competency is described as being capable to create a good climate in the class concerning teacher's approach in relation to pupils as well as how the pupils interact among themselves; or the organizational competency in relation to work with pupils is described as seeing to it that there is a well-structured and performance-oriented atmosphere in the class and school environment. All these competences are further differentiated according to general and subject-related competences, but always put in general terms. Experts react to the question of teachers preparation for disadvantaged schools often in general terms, telling that there is no specific attention for that problem in the curriculum.

In the *Polish* legal acts regulating competences of teachers there are general requirements of knowledge of educational disadvantage, support of individual learning, individualised teaching and career planning. Issues regarding training in psychology and pedagogy refer to the four dimensions, e.g., support, human development, planning of education in regards of students special educational needs, influence of the family on individual development etc. However, as this is high

level act, there are no detailed requirements, e.g., specific topics, that have to be covered regarding the four dimensions. Preparing teachers to support special educational needs students is getting more and more important in teacher training. Taking into account the relevance of particular elements in the process of teaching i.e. knowledge of theories of decreased educational chances, diagnosis, support and counselling with account to the individual process of learning and individualised teaching, advisory pertaining school career planning and decisions related to the next stage of educational selection: all dimensions are covered theoretically and by using examples/exercises. Experts rate that strongest emphasis is put on diagnosis, support and counselling, taking into account the individual process of learning and individualized teaching. The interviews underline that students of education have theoretical courses assigned for the issues of social exclusion, inadequacies in access to education. Still, it is often a very fragmented knowledge and not organized. The special educational needs issues are handled only within studies of special education.

The *Slovenian* analysis of initial teacher education programmes show that within the framework of certain subjects, teacher education is focused mostly on the field of knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage (for instance subjects like theory of education, educational and developmental psychology, philosophy and sociology of education) and on the field of individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom (subjects like educational psychology, didactics, special didactics). A thorough analysis of e.g., compulsory subjects shows that the first dimension (knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage, is present only once. The second dimension (diagnosis, support and counselling) occurs more often, especially as part of subjects working with children with special needs and didactics of Slovene language. The third dimension (handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom) can be detected most often. The fourth dimension, school career planning advice and decisions along educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school, could not be detected in the analysed curricula. Considerably neglected are within programmes of initial teacher education the dimensions of diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes. Here it is essential to note that in Slovenian basic school this is primarily the responsibility of school counsellors and not of teachers. Teachers seek solutions by cooperating with the counselling service, which is expected to have more respective knowledge. The dimension school career planning advice and decisions along educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school is entirely neglected in teacher education programmes. The analysis also shows, that mostly only children with special educational needs are considered as disadvantaged students, while the exposure of multiculturalism focuses predominately on the knowledge and understanding of this dimension as a fact within Slovenian social space rather than on the question of what would be necessary for teaching minority ethnic groups, so the teaching would be fair and would allow minorities to achieve learning and social success.

Teacher educator interviewees in the *United Kingdom* stressed that space on their courses that was given over explicitly for dealing with issues of social disadvantage was limited. The kinds of disadvantage captured in the GOETE dimensions is not covered in great detail, being limited to a small number of lectures and/or workshops. Instead of learning about social disadvantage on their courses, there was a tendency for teacher students to learn about social disadvantage through their placement schools. Social disadvantage is only gained on an ad hoc basis, as it depends on where a student is placed and how they are able to react when put in such a placement. There is a pressure for teacher educators to equip new teachers with skills that will somehow foster a meritocratic reality among young people – something that in the GOETE context is referred to through the theme 'access to education'. But once again interviewees from the GOETE and Trainee Teachers projects stated that the space for the kinds of reflection that was needed to bring this ideal to fruition was minimal because of the workload and time pressures of the course. That is not to say that some did not try to develop strategies in this area. Experts distinguish between what it means to be a teacher and what it means to be a social worker. So while there is the drive in Northern Ireland for teachers to be reflective and moral agents of social change, it is framed here in terms of the relevance of education, particularly qualifications and employability, and encouraging a cultural of achievement and esteem among pupils and their communities. This perhaps explains why – despite the official (in Northern Ireland) and unofficial discourses of differentiation and

inclusion – the difference between *social* and *educational* disadvantage is maintained by the interviewees. The young people are positioned first and foremost as *learners*, and teacher students must be instructed to offer support to them as *pupils*, rather than more generally as children. In this way, we can see how the holistic, active and reflective model of professionalism is encouraged among teacher students with regard to the support of disadvantaged youth. However, it is impossible to judge just by the aspirations of teacher educators whether this model of professionalism is taken up by teacher students. Indeed, as has been reiterated at several points above, teacher students are often primarily concerned with the practical aspects of classroom management and have difficulty locating value in theoretical pedagogy.

The following table tries to extract the overall similarities and differences between the eight countries regarding the coverage of the four dimensions how teacher training can prepare future teachers to handle educational disadvantage of their pupils. The most obvious finding is, that teachers are on average not prepared to handle educational disadvantage very much. Diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes (dimension 2) and individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom (dimension 3) are a significant part of teacher training in at least three of the eight countries. Knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage (dimension 1) is after all significant part of the Slovenian teacher training. Finally, school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school (dimension 4) is only marginally treated in six countries. In Finland, Germany, Poland and Slovenia minimum one dimension plays an important role in teacher training, in France and Italy there is less focus this aspect of preparation and in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom preparing teachers to handle educational disadvantage is covered by teacher training only implicitly.

Table 27: Coverage of dimensions of preparing future teachers to cope with pupils educational disadvantage

	Finland	France	Germany	Italy	Netherlands	Poland	Slovenia	United Kingdom
Knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage	0	-	0	-	-	0	+	-
Diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes	+	0	+	0	-	+	0	-
Individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom	+	0	+	-	-	0	+	-
School career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school	-	-	-	0	-	0	-	-

Symbols: - (dimension only marginally treated); 0 (dimension treated moderately); + (dimension treated significantly).

In general, the training of teacher students that are supposed to work with children with special needs has much closer relation the four dimension that the courses that prepare for general primary and secondary schools. While everybody emphasizes the problematic of working with children with special needs, not all faculties focus on minority groups. The integration of these competences and learning outcomes into the curriculum, except for subjects whose primary purpose is precisely teaching of particular groups of pupils (e.g., inclusive education), is more or less a matter of viewpoints, attitudes of individual students and teacher trainers rather than the result of any commitment on the national or regional level. It seems largely arbitrary to what extent and in which depth future teachers learn to handle educational disadvantage.

2.5.5 Links to WP4 and WP5 – the pupils and school principles views

During the planning of the different work packages it became possible to implement some quantitative scales in WP5 (survey with school principles) from the viewpoint of WP3. We wanted to complement the data from document analysis and expert interviews by the estimations of a group that

represents the consumer end of teacher training. In the WP5 survey N=984 Headmasters were asked by a standardized questionnaire (Finland: 100; France: 152; Germany: 119; Italy: 105; Netherlands: 169; Poland: 200; Slovenia: 101; United Kingdom: 38). Because the sample is not representative for each country, the countries cannot be compared in an appropriate way. Therefore, results are presented over all 984 asked school principles. In addition, one scale (Table 34) was taken from the WP4 pupils' survey. There were 6 389 pupils asked in all eight countries – the dataset is weighted by the spreading of countries and school type. For further information regarding these samples, see the WP4 and WP5 comparative reports.

Headmasters firstly have been asked, if and how they rate the recruitment situation of new teachers at their schools (Table 28). Most respondents (57.7%) say that they can select the best possible candidates, which indicates an oversupply of teacher training graduates in most cases. One third of respondents (33.4%) articulate that they can influence the criteria of recruiting their personnel. Only 9.4% explain that there is a shortage of qualified teacher applicants. With respect to the WP3 focus this means that headmasters can usually select new teachers which could have high competences with regard to educational disadvantage, individual support, counselling etc.

Table 28: Recruitment situation (data from WP5)

When recruiting new teachers, which of the following positions best describes the current situation in your school? (choose only one option)	Ranking: valid %
We have a severe shortage of qualified teacher applicants	9.4
We can apply some basic criteria when recruiting teachers	33.4
We can select the best possible candidates	57.1

The fact, that the majority of principals is able to influence the teacher recruitment at their school does not say something about the criteria that they weight the most important. As Table 29 shows, we therefore asked in a very general way how much attention they pay with respect on 9 different recruitment criteria. The question was answered by headmasters only, that can influence the recruitment process. Most important seems to be the level of qualification as well a social skills. Although this does not clarify which qualifications are meant in detail it becomes visible, that competences – especially social skills – are very important for newly hired teachers. Handling educational disadvantage requires those skills. The second important items are work experience and references. It seems unclear, if routine is a desirable attribute for teachers in case of helping students to cope with educational disadvantage. Usually it needs an open minded attitude to have an irrespective handling of individuals. Furthermore, freshly trained teachers might be better prepared for handling heterogeneity, individualisation etc. From the principles view, knowledge and skills related to multicultural issues are affecting teachers recruitment only by trend. From which institution candidates are graduating, which age or gender or wage claim they have, is less important.

Table 29: Factors affecting recruitment of new teachers (data from WP5)

How much attention do you pay to the following things when recruiting teachers?	n	AM	SD
Gender	695	1.92	1.19
Age	698	2.24	1.07
Work experience	703	3.42	1.06
Social skills	701	4.17	0.89
Knowledge and skills related to multicultural issues	696	2.98	1.21
Wage claim	603	1.79	1.02
References	694	3.39	1.11
The educational institution/city from where the degree has been obtained	692	2.42	1.30
Level of qualifications	694	4.24	0.97

Scale: 1=not at all; 5=very much. **Abbreviations:** n=sample size; AM=arithmetic mean; SD=standard deviation.

Closely related to WP3 is the question how happy principles are with several aspects of the teacher training system (Table 30). All in all, principles are not very happy with teacher training. Headmasters are most satisfied with the subject specific knowledge and the general knowledge base of teacher training graduates. The amount of developing pedagogical and social skills only

slightly appeals to principles. Almost neutral, the quality and amount of teaching practice, the practical relevance of teacher training in general, the intercultural knowledge and the institutionalised support given during the first years of working as a teacher are rated. Unhappy are headmasters with skills to confront bullying, dealing with violence or drugs. This implies, that young teachers probably are not very well prepared to handle problems that higher-than-average appear among students that are educationally disadvantaged and that are part of deprived schools.

Table 30: School principles satisfaction with teacher training (data from WP5)

How happy are you with teacher education regarding the following issues?	n	AM	SD
General knowledge base	968	3.41	0.95
Subject specific knowledge	965	3.68	0.96
Developing social skills	963	3.01	0.92
Teaching pedagogical skills	970	3.04	1.00
Quality of teaching practice	956	2.87	1.07
Amount of teaching practice	952	2.72	1.08
Practical relevance of teacher training in general	956	2.70	1.05
Skills to deal with pupils' problems related to alcohol, drugs and other intoxicants	920	2.12	0.92
Dealing with (threat of) violence	950	2.15	0.92
Skills to confront bullying	955	2.27	0.94
Intercultural knowledge	949	2.51	0.92
Institutionalised support given during first years of working as a teacher	953	2.43	1.08

Scale: 1=very unhappy; 5=very happy. **Abbreviations:** n=sample size; AM=arithmetic mean; SD=standard deviation.

Table 31 deepens this assumption. We asked principles according to the four operationalized dimensions (see 1.3.1) to rate how well, they think, teachers at their school are prepared regarding the named challenges and fields of knowledge. It seemed appropriate to split aspects of the dimensions into more than four items to be more precise. The results show no significant variation of means that are around 3.24 average. Based on a theoretical centre scale of 2.50, the ratings tend to the estimation of headmasters, that teachers in-service are prepared to handle educational disadvantage to some extend but not extensively.

Table 31: Preparedness of teachers (data from WP5)

How well do you think that teachers at your school are prepared regarding the following challenges and fields of knowledge?	n	AM	SD
Knowledge of structures of educational disadvantage in general	964	3.07	1.03
Awareness of mechanisms of educational disadvantage with regard to the own school/local context	957	3.13	1.07
Individualised diagnostic skills (e.g., regarding reading comprehension)	965	3.35	1.05
Individualised and differentiated teaching methods	965	3.38	1.04
Counselling of students with school problems (learning and behaviour)	964	3.30	1.05
Guidance of students and parents regarding educational choices	950	3.29	1.08
Vocational guidance and occupational orientation	541	3.13	1.13

Scale: 1=not prepared at all; 5=very well prepared. **Abbreviations:** n=sample size; AM=arit. mean; SD=stand. deviation.

The next items focus on the extend of agreement of headmasters with different propositions regarding learning in school. As far as the results show, the headmasters of the mostly deprived schools agree with supporting children of working-class families to a greater extent in the future. They think that in heterogeneous classes weak students are learning better if they are taught together with gifted students – at the same time they are not really convinced that gifted students then would learn less in this classroom situation. Headmasters are less convinced that supporting foremost students with difficulties is appropriate. Comparably they judge homogeneous classes only unassertive as best precondition of high learning outcomes. Principles deny by trend that gifted students can reach their full potential only if they are taught separately. All in all, and with regard to the WP3 focus, the principles responsiveness shows that heterogeneity is welcome in class an that it has a fruitful component in it.

Table 32: Learning in school (data from WP5)

How far do you agree with the following propositions regarding learning in school?	n	AM	SD
The outcomes of learning are the highest if all students of a single class are equal in their abilities.	956	2.67	1.25
If gifted and weak students are taught together, the gifted students are learning less.	958	2.48	1.22
The gifted students can reach their full potential only if they are taught separately.	958	2.18	1.24
Teaching should support in particular those students with difficulties.	963	2.67	1.21
If gifted and weak students are taught together, the weak students are learning better.	963	3.55	1.07
Children of working-class families should be supported to get into higher education to a greater extent in the future.	952	3.72	1.05

Scale: 1=totally disagree; 5=totally agree. **Abbreviations:** n=sample size; AM=arithmetic mean; SD=standard deviation.

The items questioned in Table 33 give an idea how school principles rate the handling of heterogeneity in class. All items are not treated in an accurately way. Almost neutral are the principles regarding an adequate attention to the preparation of pupils for their vocational tracks. Comparably retentive they state that workgroups are arranged according to the performance of students. Not accurately gifted students receive more difficult exercises. Even less, the schools pay adequate attention to the preparation of pupils for later educational or vocational choices. Altogether, although we asked headmasters from most of all deprived schools, they explain that their schools do not take heterogeneity of pupils into account very much. This remarks, that not only teacher training widely neglects the preparation of future teachers to handle educational disadvantage, it also seems like schools by themselves do react on difficulties and the potential caused by a heterogeneous group of pupils.

Table 33: Handling of heterogeneity (data from WP5)

How accurately do the following propositions describe the situation in your school?	n	AM	SD
Our school pays adequate attention to the preparation of students for later educational (or vocational) choices.	931	3.81	1.05
In our school gifted students receive more difficult exercises.	955	3.66	1.05
In our school workgroups are arranged according to performance of students.	955	2.66	1.35
In our teaching staff there are totally different opinions with regard to dealing with educational disadvantage.	951	2.66	1.21

Scale: 1=very accurately; 5=not at all accurately. **Abbreviations:** n=sample size; AM=arit. mean; SD=stand. deviation.

A more precise indicator of which significance handling of heterogeneity in classroom has, is to look at teaching methods that meet heterogeneous learning situations more. In this case, data from WP5 (principles) and WP4 (pupils) is available. Principles most often state that students are asked questions and have classroom discussion (low differentiation), at the same time they often work in groups and on worksheets and activity sheets (higher differentiation). The other learning arrangements also show no prevalence in the frequency they are used (as far as headmasters rate them). On the basis of data there is no consideration, if the reality of teaching and learning in class supports or restrains the coping of educational disadvantages. The pupils estimations vary significantly regarding some items. They experience group work, classroom discussion and projects as well as working individually in general is not so often than principles imagine. The same observation belongs to experts from outside visiting school and the use of the internet in class. On the other hand, there is a slightly trend that pupils experience, that they sit and listen to the teacher more often than principles realise. The pupils view puts into perspective that instruction might be based more on methods that do not take heterogeneity into account than school principles believe. In case of WP3 this indicates, that teaching and instruction could be more related to questions of handling educational disadvantage that it actually does.

Table 34: Learning arrangements (data from WP5 and WP4)

How often the following teaching-learning-arrangements are used in your school? (principles; WP5)	Principles (WP5)			Pupils (WP4)		
Thinking about your typical school day, how often do you experience the following in lessons? (pupils; WP4)	**n**	**AM**	**SD**	**n**	**AM**	**SD**
Students sit and listen to the teacher.	966	3.48	1.00	6348	3.68	0.98
Students are asked questions.	969	3.94	0.86	6337	3.74	0.88
Students have classroom discussion.	971	3.82	0.86	6324	3.40	1.06
Students work together in groups.	972	3.84	0.87	6295	2.69	0.84
All students in class do the same work at the same time.	967	3.32	0.98	6335	3.44	1.12
Students work individually.	969	3.53	0.85	6326	2.44	1.05
Students are assigned projects where they can work together.	969	3.60	0.93	6317	2.73	0.89
Students work on worksheets and activity sheets.	967	3.71	0.94	6317	3.41	1.21
Students watch educational movies.	962	3.25	0.94	6329	2.34	0.85
Experts from outside the school come and talk to students during lessons.	967	2.89	1.03	6308	2.01	0.82
Students make use of the internet in class.	967	3.30	1.18	6319	2.39	1.05
Students make use of computers in class for other purposes than accessing internet.	956	3.26	1.16	5552	2.43	1.11

Scale: 1=hardly ever; 5=very often. **Abbreviations:** n=sample size; AM=arithmetic mean; SD=standard deviation.

As for the WP3 focus, the observations based on WP5 data underline the results from document analysis and expert interviews, that all in all teacher training does not prepare future teachers to handle educational disadvantages in a significant way. Knowledge and instruction-related issues weight much more. At the same time it becomes visible, that not only the official documents and the experts voices describe and estimate the negligibility of handling educational disadvantage, but also school reality – as far as headmasters can picture it – gives significant remarks that there are initiatives to reduce educational disadvantage, but they are most often not established very well.

2.5.6 Key issues of the relation between teacher training and educational disadvantaged students in schools in international comparison

Reflecting chapters 2.5.1 to 2.5.4 the following key findings occur. All in all, teacher training takes educational disadvantage of pupils only marginally into account. There seems to be a difference between countries training systems though. Finland, Germany and Slovenia cover questions of educational disadvantage to a greater amount, while curricula of France, Italy, Poland and the United Kingdom cover respective contents less. The interviews with experts from the administration as well as theoretical and practical teacher training confirm those tendencies when they talk about the characteristics and needs of teachers who are going to teach disadvantaged students. Diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes as well as individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom are the two major fields of preparation of teachers students for handling educational disadvantage of their future pupils. Knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage as well as school career planning advice and vocational guidance of pupils is only marginally part of teacher training. Compared to other contents like those of the subjects or the practical training, components regarding educational disadvantage have only derivative. This indicates, that from the GOETE projects point in view, teacher training does not contribute very much to finally support pupils educational trajectories in Europe. At the same time, it does not mean that school or even teachers do not focus on that task, but teacher training most often neglects the respective elements.

3 Interpretation

3.1 Implications for the five thematic dimensions

While chapter 1 explains the scope and design of WP3 and chapter 2 is a very dense description of all findings resulting from the data, the present chapter transfers the results to the overall research questions and locates the findings in the main project in relation to the other work packages. This is done by a retranslation of the findings along the four research dimensions of WP3 (see 1.3.1) into the five thematic perspectives (section 3.1), followed by the attempt to cluster the comparative findings (3.2) on the basis of structures and the organizational context (3.2.1), the typology of welfare states (3.2.2), the distinction between comprehensive and differentiated education (3.2.3) and transition regimes (3.2.4). Complications occurring while trying to cluster on the basis of these typologies, because the data not completely relates to them, but also because there seems to be a natural limitation of the relationship between teacher training and the typologies. Thus, it is necessary to come to a more differentiated and complex comprehensive picture that is given in section 3.2.5 before a final summary is provided (3.3).

3.1.1 Access

Institutionalised (formal) education nowadays is concerned with a great diversity of pupil populations and multiple disadvantages (for instance such based on aspects such as migration, gender, socioeconomic, cultural and social resources or learning difficulties). It seems obvious that advice regarding the possibilities of the education system should play a role for transitions and trajectories. The report covers two central issues that provide information of how and to which amount teacher training prepares future teachers to take questions of pupils access to education into account: the awareness of future teachers about pupils' social and cultural backgrounds and coaching and counselling regarding the possibilities within the education system.

Generally, teachers are not well prepared to develop an *awareness about the social and cultural backgrounds* of their future pupils, and to what extent learning potentials may depend on such properties. Only in few of our researched countries there is room in the curriculum for sensitizing teacher students to issues of learning barriers which might relate to gender, socio-economic, cultural or lacking family resources. If curricula refer to »heterogeneity« as a term, they remain vague and imprecise. This lack of attention given to issues of inequality and disadvantage in teacher training seems widely independent of the education system. There are teacher training institutes, for instance in the Netherlands, which do put the question of growing heterogeneity of pupils, particularly in large cities with substantial migrant populations on their educational agenda and see to it that students follow some of their practical periods in such schools. But there are up to now no general directives to make such experiences obligatory. In other countries, the socio-cultural background of teacher students' future pupil clientele is analysed during the planning process of lessons (e.g., Germany) or the social structure of the respective society is picked out as an important issue (e.g., Slovenia). In any case, these initiatives seem to be without strong relation to the in-service teaching practice. They are suggestive of leading to tacit knowledge (Sanders, 1988) that has only weak impact on teachers' behaviour or at least does not allow them to justify their way of teaching. This implies that teacher training does not typically produce teachers that consider the social and cultural backgrounds of their pupils while they plan and deliver their lessons. Teachers rather are confronted with the individual characteristics of their pupils and they have to handle them apparently more by using the strategy "learning by doing" than professionally – if at all.

Coaching and counselling regarding the *possibilities within the education system* seems self-evident since the school system has the function of preparing and allocating pupils to the labour markets. Some countries have specially trained counsellors for this matter (e.g., Finland), while teacher students are usually not trained in this respect. They are supposed to acquire the necessary competences on the job and by being introduced to the problems through their mentors and

through learning by doing on the basis of daily demands. Because the existence of school career and vocational counsellors who advise pupils and their parents is certainly of great importance, it is all the more incomprehensible why teachers are not better prepared during their training for counselling tasks. Teachers share most of the school day with pupils, they are experts of subjects, they will motivate pupils to perform – why then is counselling not an integral part of teacher training? If teachers do not feel responsible for the access of their pupils to further education, educational trajectories and transitions are not accompanied as intensively as they could.

3.1.2 Coping

Having the problem of possible school failure in mind and how to overcome such problems (Faubert, 2012), coping practices of students are one of the most relevant issues for teacher training. How can teacher students be prepared to help pupils to cope with learning challenges, getting along with classmates, avoid mobbing and many other coping problems, which may account for educational disadvantages? The data provides first of all information on individual strategies of support and counselling covered as a content of teacher training. They lead to conditions (e.g., teaching methods) that allow individualised teaching. Problems of interaction (such as mobbing or discrimination) are usually dealt with by external experts like school social workers not teachers.

One strategy to help pupils to deal with learning difficulties is to prepare them to make an adequate *diagnosis* with the perspective of developing *individual strategies of support and counselling*. In Finland, Germany and Poland educational diagnosis is an important issue in teacher training. French, Italian and Slovenian training pay moderate attention to the issue. Other systems, like the Dutch or Finnish, opt for a clear division of tasks: diagnostic techniques demand specialized knowledge and should therefore be acquired in special courses outside the regular curriculum and while already working at school. The potential of individual support of pupils can be estimated roughly on the basis of the student-teacher-ratio or the number of teacher assistants, but that is no safe method as this does not take the individual competences of a teacher into account and as far as educational policies can change frequently why the facilities of schools vary from time to time.

Individual diagnosis implies the need of *individualized teaching*. Adequate diagnosis would lead to didactic strategies that allow the pupils to work on exercises that fit their needs. Lesson methods should allow individualized engagement of the teacher. In some countries, teacher training pays attention to individualisation, handling of heterogeneity and individualised teaching (Finland, Germany, Slovenia), others do less (France, Poland), delegate the issue to experts (the Netherlands) or neglect it altogether (United Kingdom). Apart from the question of lacking attention in teacher training curricula, teaching practices in school often stick to methods that do not take into account individual requirements (e.g., learning speed, motivation, previous knowledge). Because the reality of teaching at school was not subject of the research, the general observation of the domination of non-individualising teaching methods limits the relevance of our findings (Joyce/Weil, 2000)

Generally, the *cooperation of teacher training with external actors* (e.g., school psychologists, school social workers or labour marked) is marginal and it is up to the student to qualify in this field, either during in-service or at a later stage of their teaching career. Finland and Italy reported an occasional cooperation with external actors, France, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom only a rare cooperation and Poland as well as Slovenia no cooperation at all. If teacher training does not exemplify how cooperation with other actors can be initiated and developed, it is hard for teacher students to realise the potential of such expertise for their (future) teaching practice. Regarding the *structures of education and training systems* which are relevant to know in order to be able to counsel pupils and parents properly about their institutional and occupational possibilities (trajectories) our conclusion is that this issue is not covered extensively by teacher training (see 3.1.1).

3.1.3 Governance

The reform, respectively the governance of teacher training is influenced by educational policy, interest groups, economy, public meanings, evaluation results and other factors and authorities

(Gideonse, 1993). This leads to the question as to how the different actors realize preparing teachers to handle educational disadvantage. If that issue is relevant to teacher training and the most influential decision makers think that it is at least important, it should be reflected in teacher training curricula, in criteria of recruitment and selection of new teacher trainers and while distributing teachers to schools. Educational politicians as the final decision-making actors can either guarantee a fit between social changes and their implications for teacher training or disregard such relation. Both might have an impact for the preparation of teachers handling educational disadvantage.

For the recruitment and selection of teachers, being able to handle educational disadvantage is no relevant criterion. Particularly when there is a high shortage of teachers, there is no choice to select candidates that have respective competence. There are first initiatives of educational policies to react to the need of governing the teacher training system in such a way that a higher number of appropriate teacher students are trained with respect to learning problems of pupils. Both, the public and the scientific discourse about teacher training are willing to take into account that many pupils are disadvantaged, also in view of comparative PISA results. Nevertheless, there is no significant reform that reacts adequately to the current demands. Mechanisms as indicators of policy efforts to equip schools with teachers able to handle educational disadvantage (e.g., preferring teacher students from migrant background for big city schools with high percentages of migrant students and families is part of the discussion in Germany and in the Netherlands) can be observed, but no systematic approaches are made in this respect. In all countries with migrant populations it seems to be a problem that there is a lack of teacher trainers and teacher students from migrant backgrounds and, consequently, teachers from those backgrounds in schools.

The principles of distribution of teachers to different school types or teaching posts even complicate the matter: often teachers with a higher social background are appointed to „higher“ schools (upper general secondary), while those of lower social origin prefer primary or lower secondary teacher training – this might reproduce social differences in school. After graduation beginners are distributed to „problematic“ schools while expert teachers avoid a problematic educational clientele as pupils. There is a preference of teachers to teach in schools of general instead of vocational education with more disadvantaged students. There is (see WP6 report), a “knowledge hierarchy” with the upper secondary teacher on top and the vocational teacher in schools located in deprived areas with many migrants at the bottom.

As demonstrated in the sections above, teacher training curricula are not systematically adapted to changing social conditions and (new) educational needs of (disadvantaged) students. Yet, there are signals in most of our research countries that politicians and educational professionals begin to realize that fundamental teacher training reforms in combination with other measures could be a key to better handle violence at schools (mostly but by no means only in deprived city quarters), avoiding parents protesting against insufficient means apportioned to schools or avoiding families even move to privileged village quarters with few migrant pupils.

3.1.4 Life Course

With regard to education, the life course of pupils is characterized by challenges connected with their individual trajectories and transition (primary to lower secondary, lower secondary to higher secondary or vocation). Does teacher training prepare future teachers for their task of instilling in their prospective pupils a sense of what their living conditions in a (post-) modern society mean for their present and future life? Which challenges, but also, which opportunities are given in the information age? What is the role of school in a global and plural world? The data provides information about teachers’ own motivation as a key to encourage pupils lifelong learning, about competence-based knowledge, career planning and transitions.

There is little or no awareness in teacher training about what *lifelong learning* implies in terms of teacher preparation. How to instil in teacher students the notion that their daily work at school will not only have to consist of “surviving the day” but develop for themselves and their students a notion of learning in an encompassing understanding. Teachers who have themselves developed *motivation to learn* and teach will be able to passing learning joy over to their pupils more easily.

This idea is central to what is being discussed in discourses of lifelong learning, non-formal learning and knowledge society. The aspect is almost neglected in the teacher training curricula and it seems that teacher students are not often faced with lifelong learning during their training.

There is in all countries, albeit within different pedagogical and educational-political discourses, growing consciousness about the necessity of developing – besides specific subject knowledge – broader *competency based knowledge*: how to learn communicate, negotiate, acquire adequate behaviour dependent on changing and different social and work related contexts, etc. In teacher training these discourses are translated in new curricula, which try to combine subject and competence knowledge or to base all subject-knowledge on competences (standards).

An important aspect of lifelong learning is obviously careful *career planning*. As already explained (see 3.1.1), the preparation of teachers to give pupils advice regarding their school career planning and their decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories is weak. Vocational guidance and occupational orientation are important to support pupils on their way of becoming adult and autonomous. Some schools do have career coaching professionals, but most teacher trainings do not regard career coaching as belonging to their theoretical curriculum but delegate it to the in-service periods. Giving more theoretical thought to what career planning means in advanced societies could maybe confront teacher students with the contradiction, inherent in society and the labour market, that planning is necessary. But planning is only possible to a certain degree as conditions may change quicker than the planner had anticipated. Therefore, career planning must find a balance between long-term decisions (What profession do I want to take?) and flexibility (What "plan B" do I have if plan A does cannot be realized). These are the kinds of intricate tensions and deliberations future teachers need to be aware of in order to give informed advice to students in their transitions. They would also need much more specific and general knowledge of economic developments and local, national and global labour markets and living conditions (sociology and economy), as well of mechanisms of lifelong learning (educational psychology); knowledge that is not really covered in the researched trainings.

With respect to the contents of teacher training it could be questioned if and how teacher students develop *knowledge about the implications of prior and later transitions* in pupils' life courses. This would give us an idea, whether future teachers are able or not to follow up the previous experiences of pupils and reasonable ways for their further development. The document analysis as well as the expert interviews were not directed to that question; the analyses of both sources did not touch any content that, for instance, teacher training for lower secondary would treat the pupils' experiences from primary school to connect with the possibilities of higher secondary education and labour marked where pupils graduating from lower secondary could be discharged into.

3.1.5 Relevance

Looking at the process of standardization and evaluation of teacher training it becomes visible, that educational policy tries to define the relevance of education and training. The relevance of teacher training is contained in the fact that future teachers teach according to the systems' logic. At the same time, it can be questioned if and, if so, how teacher training is important for the relevance of education for the pupils taught by the graduating teacher students. Does teacher training contribute to pupils' becoming responsible and conscientious citizens? Does it rely on the meaning of education for the pupils' life course?

The relevance of education can be seen as the socialisation of children and youths to become *responsible and conscientious citizens*. If teachers contribute to this outcome of education, their preparation could help them to identify with a professional habitus (e.g., issues of democracy, participation and responsibility). It is difficult for us to rate, if these aspects are covered by teacher training and, and to which amount. We suppose that attention is given to the issues in various parts of the total curriculum and also during in-service periods but they do not surface explicitly.

The relevance of *learning and knowledge*, of acquiring a good education, is widely accepted today (sometimes more by parents and teachers than by disadvantaged pupils). Teaching (and learning) seems has become more difficult. The student population gets ever more diverse; not only in terms of different migrant groups, but also in terms of more individualized students future teachers have

to deal with. It seems difficult for a teacher to unite all these different trends and obligations. Teacher training has to cope with similar difficulties: training programs also become more diverse, including migrants (although few), part-timers, students entering teacher training from different other trainings or professions, second chance students, etc. But how does teacher training account for the increasing complexities of the teaching profession? The analysis shows that there is not much evidence in the curricula regarding the respective differences and new tasks. Teacher training has first of all logic by itself: it defines how teachers will be educated – often without questioning what they should learn and be able to do with respect to their future clientele.

Possible *indicators of pupils rating education as relevant*, such as motivation or being eager to learn, has not been part of research. At the same time it seems obvious that teachers, who motivate their pupils are motivated themselves. It is an open question if teacher training initiates a habitus or attitude in their students to realize that learning can be joyful, a privilege that enriches the own (educational) biography.

As mentioned regarding governance (3.1.3), administrative efforts to attract students with the experience of overcoming own disadvantages (e.g., social climbers and migrant students) are limited. Teachers (in lower secondary) are usually not *role models* for their pupils in this regard.

3.2 Clustering of cases

In this section the eight cases (countries, respectively teacher training systems) are clustered according to different typologies that can categorise countries into groups with similar characteristics. The used typologies are the structures and the organisational context of the education systems (3.2.1), welfare states (3.2.2), the distinction of comprehensive and differentiated education systems (3.2.3), transition regimes (3.2.4) and further typologies in order to achieve a complex comprehensive picture (3.2.5). Reading the interpretations, one has to keep in mind that it is difficult to understand the countries teacher training as single systems. For instance, in Germany or the United Kingdom there are different and independent teacher training systems, but the different systems within a country have much more in common than the systems across the countries. This made it reasonable to speak from the ‘German teacher training’ or ‘UK teacher training’ as well.

3.2.1 Structures and organisational context

Crucial for the evaluation of the quality of teacher training systems related to the GOETE focus is the question how well teacher students are prepared for their future tasks of supporting educational disadvantaged students. Banal as this may sound, the assumption is by no means warranted that there is a close fit between the two systems, that of teacher training and that of schooling (Ballou/ Podgursky, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Galluzzo/ Craig, 1990; Ingvarson/ Beavis/ Kleinhenz, 2007; Rowan/ Chiang/ Miller, 1997; Wright/ Horn/ Sanders, 1999). Our findings show various degrees of good and bad fit. An indicator for a good fit seems, first, a convincing integration of theory and in-service parts of the whole curriculum; second, an organisational as well as methodological responsive relation between subject and general contents, and third, the will and capacity of institutions to update their knowledge, work on their own professionalization and keep in critical contact with outside actors (labour market, ministries, unions, school boards, etc.). There are institutions that are more effective in interrelating theory and practice (e.g., Finland, Netherlands) or weaker in this regard (e.g., Germany, Italy). Others have established fruitful contacts with social institutions like psychological or educational knowledge centres (e.g., France, Netherlands). However, there is no example for close cooperation between the general and the subject curriculum – both exist more or less independently at universities and teacher colleges.

An assumption is that education systems which afford teacher assistants in the classrooms to support the work of the regular teachers, for instance in the Netherlands (most researched countries did to various degrees) are better equipped for dealing with the learning difficulties of pupils; there are simply more hands to help. While this *may* be true and can be sustained by our data to a cer-

tain extent, that finding is not waterproof as it depends on *contextual* and *situational* factors besides structural ones: teacher assistants may be more a burden for the regular teacher than a help if she or he is not well prepared for her or his task (i.e., does not know the implications of a certain mathematic method herself and therefore cannot assist weak learners) or is a bad communicator (lacking social competences) or lacks essentials pedagogical knowledge (i.e., functions and ways of assessment). Or, teacher assistants may be misused for regular teaching in order to compensate for insufficient personnel coverage. In this case, it can be questioned if it is possible or acceptable to teach as a professional without sufficient knowledge and skills.

Another plausible assumption would be that countries with a *better student-teacher-ratio* such as Finland and Slovenia are by definition better equipped to support weak or otherwise disadvantaged pupils because there is more time for the individual learner. Again, this assumption can only be confirmed (or must be rejected) under certain conditions. Indeed, GOETE provides evidence that Finland and Slovenia do more individualized teaching and pupil support than other countries, but does that depend on the ratio or on a thorough teacher training or is the explanation based on the education system and it's contexts? – probably on multiple factors. Germany, on the other hand, has a very unfavourable pupil-teacher ratio but shows nevertheless a long tradition of proving individualized teaching methods (at least referring to single innovative teachers). In both cases it remains undetermined which factors are most relevant.

As none of the researched teacher training systems comply to all possible structural and organisational prerequisites that would guarantee a widespread impact of the training on pupils access to education, coping with educational challenges and lifelong learning, the relevance of current teacher training for the governance of educational trajectories of pupils seems limited. On the basis of our empirical material we are not able to take all factors and conditions into account, which apply to our exemplary assumptions and would justify confirmation or refusal.

3.2.2 Typology of welfare states

As the WP2 state of the art report explains, welfare has been one of the central areas of studies in social research, which includes welfare components such as education, employment, economy, housing, health or security (Parreira et al. 2011; Esping-Andersen, 1990; 1999). For the GOETE perspective, welfare regimes allow to consider differences in welfare regimes while understanding them as specific arrangements that show differences in social rights and social stratification. According to Esping-Andersen (1990, p. 3), there are three types of welfare regimes: liberal, conservative and social democratic. United Kingdom and Ireland are categorized as liberal, which goes hand in hand with encouraging the marked and allowing individuals to optimize their potential while having a low level of decommodification and social solidarity. All other GOETE countries have to be categorized as conservative-corporatist welfare regimes, maintaining the status quo in power structures between state and civil society and within the civil society as well, while having a medium level of decommodification and social solidarity.

Looking more into detail (Parreira et al. 2011, p. 99-102), Germany can be characterised as a strong welfare state, however, there is a relatively high level of social inequality as social security reconciles redistribution with status differentiation, which allows for a substantial degree of segmentation of individuals. Italy is characterized by two ideal-typical features: social protection is dependent on the individual position in the labour market and family plays an important role in supporting people in need. Slovenia's current welfare system can be characterized as a corporatist system including elements of liberal and universalistic types. France orientates at the fundamental position of the State in society, unimportant local authorities and centralised socio-economic planning, relative historic weakness of trade unions and employer organisations. The United Kingdom is a typical liberal welfare state with emphasis on individual rights, while having a very liberal market orientation. The Netherlands today combines elements from liberal, conservative-corporatist and social-democratic welfare types, but is most often characterised more by a conservative-corporatist welfare system. Poland's welfare spending is lower than in any other EU member state but has implemented the most common model of welfare in continental Europe where institutions of the social insurance play the dominating role among the institutions of social policy. Finland is

kind of a social-democratic welfare regime that combines social insurance and elements of social assistance for a universalistic character of public health-care, which is open to everyone and financed by taxes as well as social services.

We encounter problems when trying to cluster our results according to welfare state typologies as outlined above. According to the classification above it would be obvious, if countries with a socio-democratic welfare regime (Finland) or a system close to that (Slovenia) would have a closer co-operation with external actors because of a stronger relation between welfare and education. While Finland reports occasional cooperation (which is the strongest cooperation among the eight countries), Slovenia says that there is no cooperation at all. Apparently there is no significant relation between welfare and teacher training.

Besides what the data provides, it could be conjectured that the fact that in conservative-corporatist welfare states such as France, Germany and the Netherlands more female teachers work part-time in comparison to male teachers impacts on subject choices of pupils: more boys than girls in vocational schools would be oriented by their (male) teachers to choose technical sectors and professions, and vice versa more girls would be "talked into" soft/female sectors and professions (care, welfare). And, the other way round, a social-democratic and universalistic welfare regime (Finland) with less pronounced gender divides, would give girls more chances to choose for "male" sectors and prepare them gender-neutral for the labour market. The data does not provide reliable information in this regard, but it also does not refute such a hypothesis. Also, to confirm the gender-welfare type assumption, one would have to quantitatively check if gender specific vocational choices are, a) dependent on part-time working female teachers, b) related to gender-biased teacher training curricula, and c) are indeed dependent on specific welfare states or pertain more or less to all of them and have much more to do with comprehensive as opposed to selective systems. In conclusion, on the basis of our material, we cannot make substantial statements about the relation between welfare state types and certain properties of teacher training, teacher recruitment, and vocational choices of students.

3.2.3 Comprehensive and differentiated education systems

Another attempt to cluster data of teacher training according to typologies concerns the difference between *comprehensive and differentiated school systems*. To the former belong our research countries Finland, Italy, (partly) France, Poland, Slovenia and the United Kingdom and to the latter the Netherlands, (partly) France and Germany. It could be examined what the countries with a comprehensive or differentiated school system have in common in case of teacher training. As experienced before, we do not notice significant differences along the researched aspects of teacher training according to the type of school system.

There seems to be an effect on schools of a teacher training system that emphasizes the division between general and vocational education like selective systems do as opposed to comprehensive ones. We have indications that teachers in selective vocational schools feel at a disadvantage in comparison with their colleagues at general schools and would prefer teaching there instead of where they are employed (i.e., Netherlands). The same accounts for teachers at a "lower" type of school (schools with disadvantaged pupils) in comparison to those at "higher" schools (schools with privileged pupils), for instance the tension between "Hauptschule" and "Gymnasium" in Germany, where teachers not only have a different clientele of pupils but are also paid differently.

On the basis of our data, we are not able to produce more evidence for the fruitfulness of such a typology regarding teacher training and would have to wait for further international comparison which pays specific and more detailed attentions to that matter. Other possible assumptions, like the one that teacher training within comprehensive systems would pay more attention to pupil support than in selective systems are untenable.

3.2.4 Transition regimes

From the beginning of the project, European coverage was secured by selecting countries according to a model of "transition regimes" (Allmendinger, 1989; Walther & Pohl, 2005; Walther, 2006) to allow distinguishing between the different kind of constellations how young people's school-to-work-transitions happen (Parreira et al. 2011, p. 10). Transition regimes distinguish clusters of socio-economic, institutional and cultural factors that interact with individual elements, so the regime types combine the typologies discussed before (3.2.1 to 3.2.3; for details: see Parreira et al. 2011, p. 41-43). The model of transition regimes relies on and combines the both typologies presented above: the typology of welfare regimes and the typology of comprehensive versus differentiated education systems. Four regime types have been modelled (Walther et al., 2009): (1) The *liberal* transition regime (United Kingdom), characterised by the individual responsibility in which young people without work face major pressure to enter the workforce; (2) The *universalistic* transition regime (Finland) based on comprehensive education in which general and vocational education is largely integrated and reflects the individualisation of life courses; (3) The *sub-protective* transition regime (Italy), where due to a lack of reliable training pathways into the labour market, transitions often involve a waiting phase until the mid-thirties, with unequal outcomes, and (4) The *employment-centred regime* (Germany, France, Netherlands), characterised by a differentiated (and partly highly selective) school system connected to a rigidly standardised and gendered system of vocational training. Supplementary, *post-socialist* countries (Poland, Slovenia) appear rather close to the sub-protective type, but a differentiation is needed: the increasingly sub-protective presence is still related to the (socialist) past and an employment-centred logic (as these social positions were tied to employment, to which everyone was entitled and respectively obliged).

As analyses suggest, the typology of transition regimes and the different teacher training systems follow different logics. While transition regimes are constructed with high-level variables (macro-level), studying teacher training is based on medium range variables (meso-level). To give an example: One might speculate whether teacher training of employment-centred transition regimes (Germany, France or the Netherlands) focus less on vocational guidance than for instance a universalistic model (Finland), because vocational training is stronger separated from general education and highly selective in the employment-centred countries. Analysis shows, though, that this is not the case, rather the contrary it is true for teacher training in Italy and Poland, which both belong to different other transition regimes. In conclusion, teacher training systems and transition regimes do not appear to have a direct correspondence; the two systems operate largely independently from each other. This does not mean that *no* relations exist between transition regimes and teacher training: with increasing labour market pressure on education, vocational guidance and occupational orientation is of equally increasing relevance for pupils (and parents). If we then find that teacher training systems give only marginal attention to such aspects, we can at least establish a *negative* relation: in employment-centred transition regimes (and others) vocational students are disadvantaged if teacher trainings do not spend adequate attention to matters of labour market entry, but this also pertains to all other transition regimes as all students need guidance.

3.2.5 Coming to a complex comprehensive picture

The attempt to cluster characteristics of teacher training by single typologies (3.2.1 to 3.2.4) largely fails due to the complexity of the teacher training systems. To tackle this problem – which was already anticipated in the state of the art report – we suggested not to stick to only one typology to come to a comparative understanding, but to take account of different dimensions of characteristics of the countries (Parreira et al. 2011, p. 183-185). The findings regarding teacher training are now discussed before the backdrop of those dimensions. The problem, thus, is that the dimensions first of all apply to the education system, respectively school system, but not to the teacher training system, which is in fact a special track of the tertiary education system. Therefore one must ask which implications teacher training *might have* as a function of governing individual trajectories of young people. This is why all interpretation remains largely on a hypothetical level.

The *degree of differentiation* or tracking (high, middle, low) distinguishes between countries according to the extent to which educational trajectories are structured by hierarchically segmented or comprehensive tracks from primary to the end of lower secondary levels. It appears that countries that have a differentiated teacher training system will reproduce the principle of differentiation within the school system because teachers feel themselves educated as lower-secondary-teacher or higher-secondary-teacher – associated with (the feeling of) a hierarchy between teachers. Although this does not apply to all countries to a similar degree, Germany and the Netherlands as representatives of high differentiation have a very differentiated teacher training system as well, while Italy and Poland with a low differentiation at the same time have a more unified structure of teacher training. It is unclear if a higher differentiation or tracking also leads to a lower differentiation in classroom because classes are more homogenous, and vice versa.

The point in time of the *transition from primary to secondary education* hints at whether segmentation of pupils and/or educational trajectories takes place early or not. It is obvious that countries with an early primary-secondary transition (4-6 years in Germany, 5 years in France and Italy) usually have younger children that change from primary to secondary and pupils have less time to build a "learning community" as a class (learning environment, trusting each other etc.) than in countries with a later (between 6 and 8 years in Poland, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands) or such with no transition at all (Finland and Slovenia). Thus, teacher training has to prepare different kinds of teachers: Germany and the Netherlands have strictly separated training systems for primary and secondary school teachers while Finland and Slovenia have a much more integrated way of educating teachers. It this respect, teacher training adopts the structure of the education system. The duration of *compulsory education* differs between 9 years in Slovenia and Finland and 12 years in the Netherlands and the UK. Countries with a close link between general schooling and the vocational system (Finland and Slovenia) have a shorter compulsory education, maybe because both have smoother transitions from secondary school into labour marked or tertiary education. Regarding teacher training this would imply that teacher students are explicitly confronted with questions of transitions, vocational guidance and occupational orientation because their future pupils have a higher demand of support in this respect compared to better linked systems. This might be one explanation why career counselling does not play a big role in Finland and Slovenia; in these countries the school-job-transitions are less risky and therefore pupils do not need that much support – of course finding a job is first of all related to the number of vacant positions in the labour marked.

Parental and pupils' *free school choice* and the share of the *private sector* may have relevance for accessibility and equity of educational options. The availability of free choice in Finland, the Netherlands, Italy, Slovenia and the United Kingdom may be seen as a possibility for pupils to choose (subjectively) "better" educational trajectories (private schools), but at the same time that contributes to social and ethical homogeneous schools of different status (inequality). It is unclear under which circumstances graduates from teacher training institutes which are (part-)financed by the state go into the private or public school sector and what their most important motivation is (finding a job, higher salaries, other educational philosophies for teaching in class etc.). Teachers are usually educated in the same institutions, independent of the schools (state/private) they are going to work in. This is why teacher training has few possibilities to react to the distinction between both sectors, at most it can broach the issue of the differences and different possibilities and advantages as well as disadvantages of the systems. It seems to be more a question of demand, philosophies and incentives if a single teacher training graduate chooses a private or public school. Because the majority of private schools in the GOETE countries are not-for-profit private schools, a high share of private schools has to be seen as contributing to unequal access to education (Netherlands has the highest level although private schools are usually accessible and with very few exceptions financed by the state; followed by France and the UK; lowest level Slovenia, Italy, Finland and Germany). If the private sector has higher incentives (better payment, better facilities, higher reputation etc.), probably in-service teachers feel more strongly divided into groups with different social status and prestige (those in public and those in private schools). If this applies, it should lead to a different self-conception of teachers that may indirectly influence the self-conceptions of pupils at private and public schools as well or even potentiate them. If this assump-

tion has an element of truth, teacher training has to consider the problem of teachers self-conception and their meaning for educational disadvantage or problems of accessibility of education due to both sectors of schooling.

Centralised policy-making is a key aspect of *educational governance* as analysed throughout the GOETE project. The responsibility for planning policy (i.e. standards, curricula, etc.) tends to be centralised as opposed to implementation which is more decentralised. Decentralisation is highest in Finland and the United Kingdom, followed by the Netherlands, but centralised in the other countries (Germany: specific characteristic of governance is centralisation on regional level). Compared to the governance of the school system, the governance of teacher training is less extensively discussed in public and seems to be less relevant for educational policy, although there are exceptions (e.g., in the Netherlands). In other words: it is widely neglected in the public and in political discourse that the quality of schools depends amongst others on the quality of teachers – and thus on the quality of teacher training, although there seems an increasing attention to this. As long as these relationships are not subject to a bigger change, thorough reforms of teacher training will not be an integral part of national educational policies. From the pupils' and their parents' point in view this means that their teachers are not specifically prepared for their life and learning situation in a fast changing world.

The *relation between education and welfare* refers to cooperation at political, administrative and practical levels, which is seen in the GOETE project as a precondition for support mechanisms. Links are tight in Finland and the UK, and at local level also in Slovenia; in France and the Netherlands some bridges to exist while in the other countries both areas, school and welfare, are strictly separated. Teacher training at present will not be able to contribute substantially to a better synergy between education and welfare to the detriment of pupils.

As regards the three research hypothesis brought up in the state of the art report (Parreira et al. 2011, p. 182), the comparative report on teacher training comes to the following conclusions:

(1) Independent of contextual specifics of teacher training it became visible that there is no strong link between the teacher training systems and the emerging needs of the education systems in the GOETE countries. Future teachers are not well prepared to handle educational disadvantages of their pupils (and their parents), especially not for the transition periods. Teacher training is therefore not a major factor in the relation between education, life course and social integration of young people.

(2) Students would have broader access to education if future teachers were prepared more intensively regarding knowledge and techniques to help students effectively in coping with learning difficulties, giving individual support and counselling, understanding the pupils' specific social situation in relation to their life course. This would allow for a better reconciliation of systemic and subjective criteria of educational relevance.

(3) According to our findings there is fallow potential of teacher training to better adjust to problems of educational disadvantage. Teacher preparation in the future can do more for handling support and thereby indirectly support the transitions of (disadvantaged) students.

3.3 Summary

All in all, teacher training takes educational disadvantage of pupils only marginally into account. There seems to be a difference between the countries' training systems though. Finland, the Netherlands, Germany and Slovenia cover questions of educational disadvantage to a greater amount while the curricula of France, Italy, Poland and the United Kingdom cover the respective contents less. The interviews with experts from political and administrative levels as well as those with theoretical and practical teacher trainers confirm that tendency when they talk about the characteristics and needs of teachers who are going to teach disadvantaged pupils. Diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes as well as individualised teaching, handling of

dling of heterogeneity and differentiation in the classroom are the two major fields of the preparation of teacher students for handling educational disadvantage of their future pupils. Knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage as well as school career planning and vocational guidance is only marginally part of teacher training. Compared to other contents like subject knowledge and practical training, components regarding educational disadvantage are only derivates. This indicates that young people's access to education, their coping with educational disadvantage, lifelong learning and the relevance of education for their educational trajectories and transitions seem not to be significantly supported by the way future teachers are trained in the eight researched countries. That does not mean though that the particular school and individual teachers do not focus on the needs of students. Furthermore, we found it difficult if not impossible to cluster the teacher training related findings by using typologies like transition regimes, because national training systems have a long tradition and follow their own logic that is separated from the education system in many ways.

4 Documentation

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4.2 Abbreviations

ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
AEN	Additional educational needs
AM	Arithmetic mean
ANVUR	National Agency for the Evaluation of the University and Research System (Italy)
ATA	Administrative Technical-Auxiliaries (Italy)
B.A.	Bachelor of Arts (HONS; UK)
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education (HONS; UK)
B.Sc.	Bachelor of Science (HONS; UK)
BA	Bachelor degree
CAPES	Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement du second degré (France)
CAPET	Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement technique (France)
CAPLP	Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de lycée professionel (France)
CAPSAIS	Certificat d'aptitude aux actions pédagogiques spécialisées d'adaptation et d'intégration (France)
CITO	Centre for Curriculum Development (Netherlands)
CNEFEI	Centres d'études et de formation pour l'enfance inadaptée (France)
CNVSU	National Committee for the Evaluation of the Educational System (Italy)
CONCURED	University Centres for Educational and Teaching Research (Italy)
CPD	Continuing Professional Development (UK)
CRPE	Concours de recrutement des professeurs des écoles (France)
ECTS	European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System
EU	European Union
EUR	Euro
GOETE	Governance of Educational Trajectories in Europe
GTCNI	General Teaching Council for Northern Ireland
GTP	Graduate Teacher Programme (UK)
HAVO	Hoger Algemeen Voorbereidend Onderwijs (Netherlands)
HBO	Hogeschoolen voor Hogere Beroepsonderwijs (Netherlands)
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
HONS	Honours (a bachelor that is a precondition for QTS (UK)
ICT	Information and communication technology
IME	Institut Médico-Éducatif (France)
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
ITEP	Institut Thérapeutique, Éducatif et Pédagogique (France)
IUFM	Institut Universitaire de Formation des Maîtres (France)
KMK	Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder in the Federal Republic (Germany)

LA	Lehramtsstudiengang (teacher-education-course in Germany)
LMD	Licence-Master-Doctorate
MA	Master degree
MBO	Different vocational degrees (Netherlands)
n	Sample size
NQTS	Newly Qualified Teacher Status (UK)
NVAO	Dutch-Flemish Organization for Accreditation (Netherlands)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education, Children's Services and Skills (UK)
PABO	Pedagogische Academie voor het Basisonderwijs
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education (England, Northern Ireland, Wales)
PGDE	Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Scotland)
PH	University of Education (Germany, Baden-Württemberg only)
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PKA	State Accreditation Commission (Poland)
PLN	Polish Zloty
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
QTS	Qualified Teacher Status
SBL	Professional Quality of Teachers Foundation (Netherlands)
SD	Standard deviation
SEGMA	Sections d'Enseignement Général et Professionnel Adapté, (France)
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SITE	Standard for Initial Teacher Education (UK)
SLO	Dutch Institute for Curriculum Development
SQAA	Slovenian quality assurance agency for higher education (Slovenia)
SSIS	Specialization School for Secondary School Teachers (Italy)
TA	Teacher Academy (provides compulsory post-graduate practical training in Germany)
TFA	Tirocinio Formativo Attivo (practical training in school; Italy)
UK	United Kingdom
UKA	Community Qualification Commissions (Poland)
UNI	University
USD	US Dollar
VAKAVA	National entrance examination for teacher education and general educational science (Finland)
VESO	Municipal collective bargaining contract (Finland)
VMBO	Voorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs (the Netherlands)
VWO	Voorbereidend Wetenschappelijk (the Netherlands)
WP	Work package

4.3 Link to national reports

This comparative report is based on eight national reports of our research partners (countries and authors listed below).

Mikko Aro (Finland); Valérie Becquet and Magali Hardouin (France); Colin Cramer and Thorsten Bohl (Germany); Morena Cuconato, Silvia Demozzi, Federica Taddia and Alessandro Tolomelli (Italy); Manuela du Bois-Reymond (Netherlands); Piotr Bledowski, Beata Blaszczyk, Izabela Buchowcz and Monika Fedorczuk (Poland); Mojca Peček Čuk and Irena Lesar (Slovenia); David Mellor (United Kingdom).

4.4 Guidelines for document analysis and expert interviews

4.4.1 Document analysis

Methodological guidelines

The corresponding document analyses have to be done prior to the interviews, because interviewing the experts assumes detailed knowledge of the documents.

Focus is on lower secondary teacher training. Please only analyse documents that match this requirement. Selected types of documents for analyses are:

a) National policy guidelines regarding teacher training (e.g., »Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training« in the UK)

In *each* of the three regions and their corresponding cities/institutions:

b) Regional policy guidelines (if applicable)
c) Examination regulations and corresponding guidelines like module handbooks (if they exist) of the relative (main) teacher training institution
d) Offered program for professional development

Examination regulations are defined as the lowest level of legal guidelines for teacher training at a single teacher training institution. Corresponding guidelines like module handbooks define the curriculum of a single teacher training institution considering the examination regulations. The module handbooks are given by the institution itself. Module handbooks are on the level between examination regulations and the table of time and contents of a single course/seminar offered by the lecturer.

Each of the following guidelines are compulsory to guarantee international comparison:

- completed tables as below
- relevant parts of the documents translated in English (see tables)
- half-page summary of relevant findings of every analysed document in English
- providing a pdf-version or scan of the analysed documents.

Analysing the documents

The basic idea of document analyses is to figure out how far the four categories that provide an indication of the amount and quality of how teacher training prepares future teachers for handling and coping with educational disadvantage are covered by the standards of the analysed documents. A teacher training program that does not imply at least one of the categories' contents would probably not have the ability to guide future teachers in handling educational disadvantage. Because the same categories are used in part 2 of the corresponding expert interviews, a comparison of both data sources is possible. The four categories are:

- knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage
- diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes
- individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom
- school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.

Conducting the document analyses means (1) searching for the key words given in the four categories (using manual or, if files available, automatic search) and (2) searching for parts of the documents that cover the four dimensions correspondingly without using the exact terms. The key words are underlined. Furthermore, please (3) write down aspects that might not be covered by the categories but are associated with the overall question of preparing teachers for handling and coping with educational disadvantage of their (future) students.

Please provide a completed table for every analysed document (like below for steps 1 and 2). These are two samples regarding documents from the UK and Germany:

Example UK (no complete analysis, two single aspects only)

Name: Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training in English: Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status and Requirements for Initial Teacher Training			
Level: national policy guidelines			
category	**original wording**	**English wording**	**page**
knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage	Understand how children and young people develop and that the progress and well-being of learners are affected by a range of developmental, social, religious, ethnic, cultural and linguistic influences (Q18).	Understand how children and young people develop and that the progress and well-being of learners are affected by a range of developmental, social, religious, ethnic, cultural and linguistic influences (Q18).	8
diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes			
individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom	Have a knowledge and understanding of a range of teaching, learning and behaviour management strategies and know how to use and adapt them, including how to personalise learning and provide opportunities for all learners to achieve their potential (Q10).	Have a knowledge and understanding of a range of teaching, learning and behaviour management strategies and know how to use and adapt them, including how to personalise learning and provide opportunities for all learners to achieve their potential (Q10).	7
school career planning advice and decisions along educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school			

Possible levels are: national policy guidelines; regional policy guidelines; examination regulations; module handbooks; program for professional development.

Example Germany (no complete analysis, two single aspects only):

Name: Realschullehrerprüfungsordnung I (RPO I - 2003) in English: examination regulations for the first state examination (Realschule)			
Level: examination regulations			
category	**original wording**	**English wording**	**page**
knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage			
diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes	Pädagogische Diagnostik, Beratungs- und Förderkonzepte	Pedagogical diagnosis, concepts of counselling and support	31
individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom	Differenz / Heterogenität der Schülerschaft als didaktische Herausforderung: Interkulturelle, milieurelevante und geschlechtsbezogene Perspektiven des Lehrens und Lernens	Difference and heterogeneity of students as a didactic challenge: intercultural, social environmental and gender specific perspectives of teaching and learning	31
school career planning advice and decisions along educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school			

Possible levels are: national policy guidelines; regional policy guidelines; examination regulations; module handbooks; program for professional development.

4.4.2 Expert interviews

Methodological guidelines

The corresponding document analyses have to be done prior to the interviews, because interviewing the experts assumes detailed knowledge of the documents.

Each of the following guidelines are compulsory to guarantee international comparison:

- audio-recording of the interviews (e.g., mp3); inform experts in advance
- transcription of the whole interviews
- key parts of the interview translated in English
- half-page summary of every interview in English
- national analysis via using codes (if reasonable possibly software-based, e.g., atlas.ti or MAXQDA)
- central questions of part 2 have to be translated and asked the experts literally

In a later stages:

- We will provide a scheme for analysis on the basis of a code-system. Then we ask you for co-operation regarding its further development. This guarantees a final structure that fits the national specifics and international basis of comparison at the same time.
- Each partner is asked to provide emerging issues (see deliverable 7 in the annex).

Interview guidelines

The expert interviews are split in three parts. The first and second part is compulsory for all partners, the third part can be designed individually by each partner and its specific conditions and interests. In case of the first part, please follow all topics. Please follow the central questions of the second part literally. This is absolutely necessary to guarantee international comparison. Feel free to design the third part of the interview anyway you like. It will be necessary that every interviewer specifies the pre-given topics and central questions bearing in mind the special national conditions and the progress of conversation. So she/he will usually ask more detailed questions than described in the following.

Outline of the interview:

Part 1: general and structural issues	
related to topics	use the given topics for the first part
Part 2: content issues	
related to central questions	Follow the central questions of the second part literally
Part 3: individually by each partner	
individual	use the third part to operationalize your own interests

PART 1: related to topics

The first part is related to topics. This more open approach allows a higher flexibility in the interview. Please follow the list of topics while conducting the interview. The order of topics can be changed, but make sure to cover all topics during the conversation.

A) General issues

- Key contents of modern teacher training
- Main problems of teacher training
- Recent reforms and restructuring trends
- Diversity of teacher students and teacher trainers

- Relation between the public discourse around educational disadvantage of students in schools and teacher training
- Definition of disadvantaged youth; ways they are disadvantaged

B) Structural issues

- Full certification (regular program, degree and subject related competences) versus alternative ways of training and different programs to become a teacher
- Impact of teacher shortages on teacher training institutes (lowering of standards, shorter routes to a teacher certification; incentives to attract potential candidates)
- Assessment of future teachers (how they are judged on their teaching skills, professional conduct, and appropriateness of their interactions with students)
- Balance of initial teacher training at university and professional development in service
- Balance between theoretical training at university and practical training in schools (quality, timing, coordination)
- Standards for teacher training (development, assessment, experiences, quality assurance)
- Recruitment and retention of future teachers (selection, distribution of graduates)
- Characteristics of teachers who are going to teach disadvantaged students (if applicable)

PART 2: related to central questions

The second part is related to the following central questions. The national/regional administrative responsible is asked questions from categories A and B only, institutional experts and teacher trainers are asked all questions (A to D). Please follow the central questions literally.

At the beginning of this part: Please introduce the four dimensions of how teacher training programs might deal with educational disadvantage of students in schools:

- knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage
- diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes
- individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom
- school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.

On the last page of this document there are four cards for the use in the interview (please translate). They show the four dimensions in order to help keeping them in mind and to indicate which dimension the interview is addressing at different points in times. Please use these cards to explain the four dimensions first: »We think that there are four major dimensions that show, how teacher training might prepare future teachers in dealing with educational disadvantage…; The four dimensions are used to specify the further process of our interview…«.

A) Questions regarding the teacher training curricula

- How and to what extent does the public discourse affect the reform of teacher training curricula?
- Are the following contents part of the teacher training curricula? (*use dimension cards*)
    - knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage;
    - diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes;
    - individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom;
    - school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.
- How has the importance of these elements of teacher training changed in recent years (increasing/decreasing importance)? (*use dimension cards*)

B) Institutional situation

- How are the following contents delivered in the teacher training program of a single institution (e.g., special lectures/seminars)? (*use dimension cards*)
  - knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage;
  - diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes;
  - individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom;
  - school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.
- How is the achievement of these elements/dimensions ensured and evaluated? (*use dimension cards*)

C) In-depth

- How thoroughly are the following elements/dimensions covered in teacher training? (*use dimension cards*)
  - knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage;
  - diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes;
  - individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom;
  - school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.

  - Please ask experts for a detailed rating (see levels in the following) in case of any of the content dimensions (*use dimension cards and level cards*):
    - Level 1: in a theoretical way only (e.g., part of lectures or obligatory literature)
    - Level 2: theoretically and examples and/or exercises (level 1 + reflecting, for example by using a video lesson)
    - Level 3: theoretically, examples and/or exercises, and practical training (level 1 + 2 + teaching a lesson using methods of differentiation)

  - Please ask if there is a combination of the levels within a single course/seminar (e.g., micro-teaching-course) or if the levels are unconnected (e.g., lecture on level 1 in the first semester and lesson on level 3 in the third semester, but no connection). There might be also examples/exercises (level 2) without theoretical foundation (level 1) or other combinations of levels related to the four dimensions. It might be helpful to ask for a rough estimation (explicit combination – implicit combination – more or less separate courses – don't know).

D) single courses/seminars

- How many courses/seminars pay explicit attention to the following contents (quantity and quality/intensity)? (*use dimension cards*)
  - knowledge of theories and the current situation of educational disadvantage;
  - diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes;
  - individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom;
  - school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school.
- If experts can not answer this question precisely, ask them to make a rough estimation.

<u>PART 3: individually by each partner</u>

The third part can be designed individually by each partner and its specific conditions and interests. Part 3 is voluntary.

Educational disadvantage as a part of teacher training

Dimension 1

knowledge of theories of, and the current situation of educational disadvantage

Educational disadvantage as a part of teacher training

Dimension 2

diagnosis, support and counselling regarding individual learning processes

Educational disadvantage as a part of teacher training

Dimension 3

individualised teaching, handling of heterogeneity and differentiation in classroom

Educational disadvantage as a part of teacher training

Dimension 4

school career planning advice and decisions related to educational transitions and trajectories as well as vocational guidance and occupational orientation of students in school

Educational disadvantage as a part of teacher training

Level 1

(1) in a theoretical way only

- e.g., part of lectures
- e.g., obligatory literature

Educational disadvantage as a part of teacher training

Level 2

(1) theoretically

+ (2) examples and/or exercises

- e.g., reflecting a video lesson

Educational disadvantage as a part of teacher training

Level 3

(1) theoretically

+ (2) examples and/or exercises

+ (3) practical training

- e.g., teaching a lesson using methods of differentiation