

Auswertung internationaler Erfahrungen für die Hochschulent- wicklung in der österreichischen Lehrerbildung - *Endbericht*

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Auswertung internationaler Erfahrungen für die Hochschulentwicklung in der österreichischen Lehrerbildung - *Endbericht*

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1. Projektkontext und Vorgehensweise

Ziel des Projekts war es lt. Offert, internationale Erfahrungen mit der Hochschulentwicklung in der Lehrerbildung sowie mit aktuellen Problemen der Organisation und Didaktik der Lehrerbildung für die Zwecke der Planungs- und Evaluierungskommission sowie in der Folge für die Bewusstseinsbildung im österreichischen Lehrerbildungssystem aufzubereiten. Dazu sollten keine Originalstudien durchgeführt werden; vielmehr wurden im Bereich der Lehrerbildung eingearbeitete ForscherInnen aus den Ländern England/Wales, Finnland, Niederlande, Portugal und Schweden gebeten, auf der Basis ihrer früheren Forschungsarbeiten Kurzdarstellungen der didaktischen und organisatorischen Probleme der Lehrerbildung in ihrem Land sowie Entwicklungsperspektiven nach vorgegebenen Fragestellungen in kurzen (10 – 15 Seiten), problem- und leserorientierten *Länderstudien* aufzubereiten.

Die *Vorgehensweise* war dabei die folgende:

- Der Projektkoordinator erarbeitete den Vorschlag für AutorInneninstruktion und Fragenkatalog für Länderstudien. Dieser wurde in der Planungs- und Evaluierungskommission diskutiert, ergänzt und gutgeheißen.
- Nach Konsultationen mit o.Univ.Prof. Dr. Peter Posch und Prof. Dr. Friedrich Buchberger erstellt der Projektkoordinator eine Liste von einzuladenden ExpertInnen und schickt ihnen Autoreninstruktion und Fragenkatalog.
- Alle eingeladenen ExpertInnen mit Ausnahme eines niederländischen Kollegen sagen sofort zu. Für die niederländische Studie wird ein Ersatzautor gefunden.
- Alle AutorInnen mit Ausnahme des schwedischen Kollegen übersenden draft-Versionen ihrer Studie im Wesentlichen zeitgerecht. Diese werden vom Projektkoordinator jeweils umgehend in elektronischer Version an die Mitglieder der PEK weitergeleitet mit der Bitte, etwaige zusätzliche Informationsbedürfnisse zu äußern. Solche können vereinbarungsgemäß an die AutorInnen vor Beendigung der endgültigen Version der jeweiligen Länderstudie herangetragen werden.
- Nachdem auch nach einer Nachfrist keine schwedische Studie vorgelegt wird, trägt der Projektkoordinator diese Sachlage der PEK in ihrer Sitzung von April 2001 vor. Dort wird beschlossen, weiter zu versuchen, eine schwedische Studie zu erhalten. Der Projektkoordinator versucht brieflich und über Mittelsleute eine verbindliche Abgabeterminzusage von dem schwedischen Autor zu erhalten. Schließlich wird ein Termin nach den Sommerferien 2001 zugesagt.
- Nachdem dieser Abgabetermin verstrich, und auch weitere Versuche erfolglos blieben, beschloss die PEK in ihrer Sitzung vom März 2002, das Projekt ohne die schwedische Studie abzuschließen.

In dem hiermit vorgelegten *Synthesebericht* soll zunächst auf einige Entwicklungen in den deutschsprachigen Ländern, die ein Umfeld der Lehrerbildungsreform in Österreich bilden, eingegangen werden (Für diese wurden keine gesonderten Expertisen beantragt, da einige Mitglieder der PEK aus eigener Anschauung mit diesen Entwicklungen vertraut waren).

Sodann erfolgt eine Zusammenfassung der wesentlichsten Aussagen vor dem Hintergrund der österreichischen Situation und der Fragestellungen der Kommission.

2. Internationale Tendenzen der Entwicklung der Lehrerbildung

2.1. Kontexte und Gründe der neu aufgeflamnten Diskussion über Lehrerbildung

Die Lehrerbildung ist in allen deutschsprachigen Ländern gegenwärtig in Diskussion gekommen und teilweise schon in Veränderung begriffen (vgl. Beck et al. 2001). Die aktuellen Auslöser für diese neue Phase von Dynamik mögen in den verschiedenen Staaten unterschiedlich gewesen sein: Während wir in Deutschland explizite und z.T. scharf vorgetragene Kritik an der bisherigen Lehrerbildung hören, fehlte diese lange in Österreich und der Schweiz, wo die Reformimpulse im Wesentlichen von einem Versuch des upgrading von institutionellem Status der 'niederen Lehrerbildung' ausgingen. Dennoch wird im internationalen Kontext bald klar, dass es - selbst angesichts unterschiedlicher lokaler Auslöser der Reformdebatte - einen breiteren Kontext für diese Debatte gibt, der einige gemeinsame Züge in den verschiedenen Ländern trägt.

So zeigt Criblez (1998) in seiner Analyse der Entwicklung der Lehrerbildung in England und den USA, die hier wie in vielen anderen Bereichen als Vorreiter und Testfelder neuer, oft extremer gesellschaftspolitischer Entwicklungen gelten können, dass seit den frühen 80iger Jahren eine erneute Diskussion über die erst in den 70iger Jahren reformierten Lehrerbildungsinstitutionen zu beobachten ist. In beiden Ländern ist der Auslöser für diese Diskussionen nicht eine direkte Kritik an der Lehrerbildung selbst, vielmehr führen die *Knappheit öffentlicher Finanzen* und die *Diskussion über die Leistungsfähigkeit des öffentlichen Bildungssystems* zu einem Reformdruck auch auf die Lehrerbildung. Dazu gesellt sich in den USA die Sorge um die *wirtschaftliche Prosperität* als weiteres Reformmotiv, während in England auch *neue Steuerungsansprüche und -vorstellungen* der konservativen Regierung vorherrschend waren. Immer jedoch sind aktuelle Reformprojekte der Lehrerbildung mit der Hoffnung auf Schulreform verbunden (vgl. Criblez 1998, 53). Die Abhilfen, die in diesem Kontext geboten (gefordert) wurden, bestanden in *Ökonomisierung, Praxisorientierung, Professionalisierung und Standardisierung* (vgl. a.a.O., 43ff):

Die neu aufgebrochene Diskussion über Lehrerbildung in Deutschland enthält in ihrem Kern durchaus *altbekannte Elemente*: Die didaktisch-organisatorische Frage des Theorie-Praxis-Verhältnisses, hinter der die Grundsätzlichere nach dem Verhältnis von Berufsbezogenheit und Wissenschaftsorientierung, nach dem relativen Gewicht und der Art der Relationierung der wissenschaftlichen Disziplinen in ihrer Eigenstruktur und dem Verwendungsinteresse im Berufsfeld steht (vgl. Prondcynsky 1998, 61). Sodann die Frage nach dem besten Ort für die Lehrerbildung, die durch die „10 Thesen zur Hochschulpolitik“ des Wissenschaftsrats (1994) angestoßen wurde, in denen vorgeschlagen wird, z.B. Studiengänge für das Lehramt für die Primarstufe und für die Berufsschule, Sozialpädagogik, Freizeitpädagogik an Fachhochschulen zu verlegen (vgl. Beck et al. 2001, 11ff). Schließlich jüngst die Idee von konsekutiven Lehrerbildungsprogrammen (ein Pädagogik-Zusatzstudium schließt an ein fachliches BA-Studium an), die weniger curricularen denn organisatorischen Überlegungen zu entspringen scheinen.

Historisch ist die Lehrerbildung in Deutschland aus *zwei Traditionen* entstanden: Aus Handwerk und aus humanistischer Bildung, die kanonisiertes Wissen, nicht Forschung pflegte (Oelkers 1996, 46). Die Akademisierung und universitäre Integration der Lehrerbildung in Deutschland ist vollzogen. Während die alte Ausbildung kurz, praxisbezogen, curricular beschränkt, personell einheitlich und einphasig war, hat sich die Neue am Muster der Gymnasiallehrausbildung orientiert (die in Preußen schon 1890 durch Gymnasialseminare als Kritik an der Universitätsausbildung ergänzt wurde), die lange, gespaltene, limitlose, personell uneinheitliche und übertrieben differente Ausbildung bietet (vgl. Oelkers 1996, 42). So hat die Verwissenschaftlichung der Pädagogik - die Schulpädagogik des 19. Jahrhunderts hatte einen engeren Praxisbezug, der durch die Lehrerprofession selbst vermittelt wurde – "zu einer Distanz geführt, paradoxerweise durch Formen der Verschulung, die die eigene Forschung - *intellectual independence* im Sinne Deweys - behindern" (a.a.O., 47).

Was als die ewige Schwierigkeit des Theorie-Praxis-Problems erörtert wird, kann aber auch als eine *Vernachlässigung der Lehrerbildung durch die akademische Erziehungswissenschaft* rekonstruiert werden. Eine prominente Stimme, die diese Kritik äußerte, war jene von Dieter Wunder (2000), einem ehemaligen GEW-Vorsitzenden. Er wies darauf hin, dass im Jahr 2000 veröffentlichten Text "Selbstverständnis der DGfE" – und damit offenbar im Bewusstsein der 'akademischen Erziehungswissenschaft' Lehrerausbildung – "fast keine Rolle" spiele. Wie schon in der schriftlichen Stellungnahme der DGfE zur KMK-Kommission (Terhart-Kommission) zeige sich die akademische Erziehungswissenschaft "strukturkonservativ-selbstzufrieden" (Wunder 2000, 47). In dem genannten Text (vgl. Sekretariat 1999) würden die Mängel der Lehrerbildung "primär bildungs- und finanzpolitisch sowie bürokratisch" begründet: es fehle aber "jeder selbstkritische Ton" (Wunder 2000, 47). Während die bisherige Phaseneinteilung, die Trennung des Studiums nach Lehrämtern und die wissenschaftliche Schwerpunktsetzung positiv eingeschätzt würden (vgl. Sekretariat 1999, 22ff), wird offenbar vor stärkerer Praxisorientierung gewarnt: "die "Orientierung auf ein Praxisfeld" und die "Forderung nach einer Praxisorientierung der Lehrer" dürften nicht als "Simulation und Einübung einer bevorstehenden Berufstätigkeit oder als Vermittlung unmittelbar verwertbarer Berufsfertigkeiten missverstanden werden" (Sekretariat 1999, 28), "eine allzu frühzeitige und engführende Orientierung der Ausbildung an unmittelbaren Berufsproblemen" sei nicht zu rechtfertigen" (vgl. Sekretariat 1999, 67).

Wiewohl die Warnungen vor zu enger und übertriebener Anbindung allein an speziellen Praktiken nicht unsinnig sind, wundert es nicht, dass sich Wunder über den besorgten – gerade jeweils in Zusammenhang mit Praxisorientierung der Lehrerausbildung auftauchenden, an vielen anderen Stellen, die die eigenen universitäre Lehrtätigkeit betreffen, aber abgehenden – Ton wundert. So wird auf die KMK-Frage zum Praxisbezug geantwortet: "Die Kritik, dass die in der Lehrerausbildung vermittelte Theorie oft nicht unmittelbar praktisch nutzbar sei, zeigt eine verkürzte Wahrnehmung an ... Schon aufgrund des Umstandes, dass die Einmündung in die staatliche Schule nur wenigen Absolventinnen und Absolventen in Aussicht steht, ist eine Engführung auf Praxiskontakt einzig in diese Institutionsform zweifelhaft ... Ferner teil die DGfE die Ansicht nicht, Praktika in der ersten Phase der Lehrerausbildung seien mit dem Ziel der Einübung berufspraktischer Fertigkeiten durchzuführen" (Sekretariat 1999, 79). Man kann den Text natürlich als Warnung vor einer 'Engführung' der Praktika lesen. Auf der anderen Seite kann man es Lesern nicht verdenken, dass – nachdem das beleibte nicht häufige Wort immer wieder in Zusammenhang von Praktika auftaucht – sie vermuten, die AutorInnen der Stellungnahme könnten Praktika gar nicht anders als 'enggeführt' denken.

"Der Vorstand der DGfE betont zum Einen die eigenständige Rolle der Erziehungswissenschaft, ihrer Theorie, ihrer Reflexion außerordentlich stark – sozusagen wie eine neu erworbene Errungenschaft, die auf keinen Fall in Frage gestellt werden darf. Zum anderen wird eine strukturelle Veränderung – gerade wegen des Wissenschaftsbezugs – abgelehnt, jede berufsvorbereitende Positionierung als unwissenschaftlich gebrandmarkt" (Wunder 1999, 49). Damit, meint Wunder (ebda.) verweigert sie sich "der Suche nach einem neu zu findenden Verhältnis von Theorie und Praxis in der Ausbildung". Der Text spiegle eine "starke Tendenz in der Erziehungswissenschaft wider, in der universitären 'Ausbildung' von Lehrkräften allein den Disziplinbezug zu betonen und damit die Praxisanforderungen aus Politik wie 'Praxis' von sich zu weisen" (a.a.O., 50). Es scheint eine Tendenz mancher ErziehungswissenschaftlerInnen zu geben, sich von den Aufgaben der Lehrerbildung zu distanzieren. Diese Tendenz erscheint kurzsichtig und selbstgefährdend, wenn man sich bewusst macht, dass die Erziehungswissenschaft "wegen der Lehrerbildung [ihren] universitären Ausbau erlebte und nur *aufgrund* dieser Verbindung institutionell gesichert scheint" (Oelkers 1996, 43).

Oelkers (1998, 3) scheint beiden Seiten halb recht zu geben, wenn er das Problem der Theorie-Praxis-Vermittlung einesteils ein *Managementproblem* und andererseits ein solches *erhöhter (und durch Ausbildungsversprechungen hochgetriebener) Erwartungen* ansieht:

- "Das Kardinalproblem ist also nicht der Ort, sondern die Organisation der Ausbildung. ... Die Struktur ist das Problem, nicht die allgemeine Verfassung. Wissenschaft wird angeboten, aber unspezifisch genutzt; sie wird konzentriert auf die erste Phase und hat nachfolgend keine Funktion, die tatsächlich nachgefragt würde; für den Konnex von Wissenschaft und Praxis gibt es kein effektives Management, alle Systemteile arbeiten isoliert und gegeneinander. Was soll da Anderes herauskommen als ein 'low impact enterprise'?" (Oelkers 1998, 3f).
- "Offenbar besteht das Transferproblem überall, wenn man irgendeine Idealanpassung von Ausbildung und Fertigkeit vor Augen hat. Diese Passung ist sozusagen die Systemlüge. Professionelle Lernkarrieren beziehen sich auf fortlaufende Herausforderungen ..." (Oelkers 1998, 4).

Als "Management-Problem" ist es nicht durch Erörterung 'lösbar', sondern erfordert aktive Beabreitung in trade-off-Situationen, wo Wunder offenbar zuwenig Einsatz sieht. Als 'übersteigerte Erwartung' verweist es nicht nur auf eine Beschneidung der Ansprüche, sondern durchaus auch darauf, seine längerfristige Beabreitung in Berufseinstieg, in der beruflichen Karriere und in weiteren Bildungsphasen in den Blick zu nehmen und auch in geeigneter Weise zu stimulieren und zu unterstützen.

Für Oelkers (1998, 3) hat diese Lehrerbildungsdebatte trotz vieler altbekannter Elemente doch einige *neue Komponenten*: Die *Krise der öffentlichen Haushalte*, die sich in Ökonomieerwartungen und Effizienzforderungen niederschlägt, sowie damit zusammenhängend, die Tendenz, zunehmend empirische Fragen an die Ausbildung zu stellen und dabei die Ziele der Ausbildung von *Effizienzerwartungen* her neu und konturierter zu definieren.

Darüber hinaus spielen wahrscheinlich auch *neue Vorstellungen über staatliches Handeln* (new public management) und über die Steuerung öffentlicher Einrichtungen (Autonomisierung der Einzelinstitution bei gleichzeitiger Bindung durch Leistungsverträge und Evaluation) eine Rolle (vgl. Criblez/Wild-Näf 1998).

In diesem Kontext fand sodann Ende der 90er Jahre die Arbeit verschiedener Enquetekommissionen zur Reform der Lehrerbildung statt, in denen systematischer und oft auch durch eine profunde Auseinandersetzung mit den verschiedenen Argumentationen im

Feld und mit internationalen Erfahrungen versucht wurde, einen neuen Konsens und neue Perspektiven für die Weiterentwicklung der Lehrerbildung zu erarbeiten. Die Ergebnisse der Beratungen der KMK-Kommission (Terhart 2000) und der Hamburger Kommission zur Reform der Lehrerbildung (Keuffer/Oelkers 2001) wurden auch in Österreich rezipiert. Auf europäischer Ebene bietet das "Green Paper on Teacher Education in Europe" des Thematic Network on Teacher Education in Europe (Buchberger et al. 1999) eine beachtenswerte Analyse des Ist-Zustandes der Lehrerbildung in den EU-Ländern und der Herausforderungen, die sich durch die gegenwärtigen gesellschaftlichen Entwicklungen stellen, die schließlich in einige Reformszenarien und Vorschläge für konkrete Maßnahmen münden.

2.2. Die Vision einer 'standardorientierten' Lehrerausbildung von Fritz Oser

Etwas anders ist die *Schweizer Situation* einzuschätzen. Wir finden hier gegenwärtig eine "große Wende von der sorgsam gepflegten Seminarkultur zur wissenschaftlichen Ausbildung an Pädagogischen Hochschulen, die bis ins Jahr 2004 weitgehend vollzogen sein wird" (Beck et al. 2001, 23). Diese Entwicklung hat jedoch ihren Grund nicht etwa in einer Krise des Berufsstandes oder in Unzufriedenheit mit der bis dahin bestehenden Lehrerbildung, sondern wurzelt im Wunsch einer gesamtschweizerischen Akkordierung der Lehrerbildung, die auch zu internationaler Anerkennung der Schweizer Lehrerdiploome führen sollte. Dennoch hat sie bald zu einer dynamischen Entwicklung bei der Erstellung neuer Curricula (vgl. z.B. Brandenburg/Keller 2002), zu einer Weiterqualifikation von Lehrenden für professionelle Lehre und berufsfeldbezogene Forschung geführt (vgl. Beck et al. 2001, 25).

Wahrscheinlich stimulierend auf diese Entwicklung hat sich die Tatsache ausgewirkt, dass zeitgleich vom Schweizer Nationalfonds ein breiter Verbund von Forschungsprogrammen über "Die Wirksamkeit unserer Bildungssysteme angesichts der demografischen und technologischen Entwicklung und angesichts der Probleme in der mehrsprachigen Schweiz" lanciert wurde. Die Zielsetzung des Nationalfonds-Projekts lautete "Ausgangspunkt ist die Notwendigkeit, unser Wissen über die Bildungssysteme zu vertiefen und auf den neuesten Stand zu bringen. Es geht darum, mehr verlässliches Wissen darüber zu gewinnen, wie diese Systeme funktionieren, über die Stärken und Schwächen, aber auch über die Grenzen ihrer Wirksamkeit, die ihnen schon durch die vielfältigen, einander oft widersprechenden Anforderungen gesetzt sind" (zit. nach Criblez/Wild-Näf 1998, 24f). In diesem Projektverbund war auch ein Projekt zur Wirksamkeit der Lehrerbildung enthalten (Oser/Oelkers 2001). Im Versuch, die Funktionsmechanismen der Lehrerbildung zu verstehen, wurden dort Studierende am Ende ihrer Ausbildung, nach einem Jahr Unterrichtspraxis, LehrerInnen nach zwei bis fünf Jahren nach Ausbildungsabschluss sowie AusbilderInnen und ExpertInnen befragt (vgl. Criblez/Wild-Näf 1998). Im Endbericht des Projekts (Oser/Oelkers 2001) wurde einerseits eine eindeutig kritische Position zu der bis dahin vorherrschenden Deutschschweizer Lehrerbildung formuliert, andererseits eine neue Idee zur Orientierung der Lehrerbildung vorgetragen, die offenbar großen Einfluss auf die Entwicklungsbemühungen an verschiedenen Orten nahm: Der Vorschlag, Lehrerbildung an professionellen Standards zu orientieren (zuerst in Oser 1997a). Es sind dabei weniger seine Einzelelemente, die Osers Konzept Sprengkraft geben, sondern die Verbindung einiger bekannter und einiger neuerer Argumentationsfiguren zu einem umfassenderen Konzept, das auf mehreren Ebenen *anspruchsvolle* Aussagen macht. Weil dieser Ansatz offenbar einige attraktive und diskutierenswerte Elemente enthält, soll im Folgenden eine etwas eingehendere Analyse versucht werden.

2.2.1. Was sind 'Standards' in der Lehrerbildung?

"Wenn Lehrpersonen in komplexen Situationen des Unterrichts ein abgrenzbares, zieladäquates, effektives und ethisch gerechtfertigtes Einflusshandeln, das das Lernen von Schülern und Schülerinnen differenziell fördert, zeigen, sprechen wir von professionellen Standards des Lehrberufs. Wenn sie eine Kette solcher Handlungen bewusst oder spontan initiieren und reflexiv umsetzen können, dann sind sie Berufsleute mit professionellem Können" (Oser 2002, 1).

Zunächst enthält das Standard-Konzept materiale, relativ konkret ausformulierte *Zielorientierungen* für die Bildung von Lehrerinnen und Lehrern und damit auch einen Maßstab für die heute so oft beschworene Qualitätsevaluation. Oser's Standards sollen ohne Scheu vor Explizitheit auf mittlerer Abstraktionsebene beschreiben, was von qualifizierten LehrerInnen heute an Qualifikation zu erwarten wäre.

Der Begriff *Standard* steht "a) für eine hochprofessionelle Kompetenz und b) für deren optimale Erreichung. Wir meinen also Standards seien optimal ausgeführte bzw. optimal beherrschte und in vielen Situationen anwendbare Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten, die nur von Professionellen Verwendung finden können, aber nicht von Laien oder von Personen anderer Professionen" (Oser 1997a, 28). Standard meint also, "ein Handeln in der Situation und zugleich eine optimale Erreichung dieses Handelns als Können; "dies sind zweierlei Dinge", die allerdings für Oser (2002, 4) "situativ zusammengehören".

Für Oser wird eine professionelle Kompetenz dann zu einem "Standard", wenn sie 4 Bedingungen erfüllt:

- *Theoretische Fundierung*: "Es muss Theorien (nicht-falsifizierte Hypothesensysteme) darüber geben, welche Bedingungen zu optimalem Lernen führen ... Theorien sind also begründete Annahmen über die Wirkung und die Wirkungsbedingungen von Standards" (Oser 1997a, 29).
- *Empirisches Wissen*: Es gibt durch empirische Untersuchungen erworbenes Wissen - "zumindest *einzelne* Forschungsergebnisse zu den komplexen Handlungsformen" (Oser 1997a, 29) - bezüglich dieser Theorien.
- *Qualitätsmerkmale zur Erreichung des Standards* (Oser 2001, 217f), *evaluative Kriterien* (Oser 1997a, 26): Kriterien, um gute und schlechte Handlungsformen bezüglich des Standards zu unterscheiden, will Oser (2001, 218) aus den "Theorien und Befunden zur Expertenforschung ... von Experten abgucken, die den Standard in komplexen Emergency Situationen des Klassenraums realisieren."
- *Ausführbarkeit* (Oser 1997a, 29) / *Handlungstradition* (Oser 1997a, 26): "Ein Standard muss in der Praxis repräsentierbar und einsetzbar sein; insofern unterscheidet er sich von anderen Formen professionellen Wissens. Standards sind repetierbar, die können als komplexe, in die Situation eingebettete Verhaltensweisen eingefügt werden" (Oser 1997a, 29).

Auf jeden einzelnen Standard sind alle 4 Kriterien anzuwenden, wobei "nicht die Abfolge, wohl aber die Vollständigkeit" entscheidend ist (Oser 2002, 10): "Wir sprechen ja von Lehrer- und Lehrerinnen-Professionalität, weil jeder Standard theoretisch und empirisch abgesichert ist, weil zugleich ein Forschungswissen darüber besteht, wann er unter welchen Bedingungen effektiv und qualitativ gut realisiert wird, und weil die bisherige Praxis zu seinem Verständnis erheblich beiträgt" (Oser 2001, 224).

Standards sind mehr als berufsbezogenes Wissen und sie sind auch "keine skills, weil ihr Einsatz reflexiv, unter Anwendung von Theorien in je unterschiedlichen Situationen geschieht" (Oser 1997a, 30; 2001, 224f).

Auf welchen Wegen können nun solche Standards formuliert werden? Oser (2002) sieht hier im Prinzip drei Möglichkeiten: Expertenurteil, Forschung und Metaanalysen. In seinen bisherigen Untersuchungen (und auch in seiner Geplante für den Berufsbildungsbereich; vgl. Oser 2002b) ist Oser immer den ersteren Weg gegangen. Durch eine "Quasi-Delphibefragung" von ExpertInnen des Berufsfeldes wurden Kandidaten für solche Standards eruiert. Voraussetzungen, um sich als Standard zu qualifizieren, waren, dass die entsprechenden Fähigkeiten im Praxisfeld allgemein als notwendig anerkannt und im Diskurs der Fachleute akzeptiert waren sowie mit einer gewissen Validität und Reliabilität im Feld gezeigt werden konnten (Oser 2001, 215f). Auch sollten Standards auf einer "mittleren Abstraktionsebene" erfasst werden; die Formulierung richtete sich auf "ein Handlungsbündel ..., also eine variable Fähigkeit, welche Situation, Intentionalität, Einwirkung und Steuerung bzw. Evaluation umfasst" (Oser 2002, 6).

Die Ergebnisse der Expertenbefragung wurden schließlich als 88 Standards ausformuliert und in 12 Gruppen geordnet (vgl. die vollständige Liste in Oser 2001, 230ff). *Beispiele für derartige Standards* sind:

In der *Standard-Gruppe 2 Schüler unterstützende Beobachtung (Diagnose) und Schüler unterstützendes Verhalten* der Standard:

"Ich habe in der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung gelernt, den entwicklungspsychologischen Stand der Schülerinnen und Schüler in verschiedenen Bereichen (Intelligenz, Sprache, Moral, soziales Verhalten usw. zu diagnostizieren und daran anzuknüpfen" (Oser 2001, 232).

In der *Gruppe 9 Zusammenarbeit in der Schule* der Standard:

"Ich habe in der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung gelernt, den Unterricht von Kolleginnen oder Kollegen zu beobachten und differenziert Feedback zu geben" (239).

In der *Gruppe 10 Schule und Öffentlichkeit* der Standard:

"Ich habe in der Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung gelernt, wie mittels Methoden der Selbst- und Fremdevaluation die Leistungen der Schule öffentlich dargestellt werden können" (a.a.O., 240).

In der *Begründung seines Standard-Konzepts* bezieht sich Oser (1997a , 27) zunächst auf die Ansätze von Shulman (1986, 1987) und Bromme (1992), von denen er sich ohne lange Argumentation absetzt. Ihm geht es um eine Konzeption, "die Wissen und Handeln in vielfältiger Weise miteinander verbindet. In ihr soll aber Wissen nicht bloß Handlungswissen sein, sondern von komplexen übergreifenden Wissensstrukturen mitgestaltet werden ..." (Oser 1997a, 27). In meiner Lesart ist in den diesbezüglichen Arbeiten Osers nicht genau ausgeführt, aus welchen theoretischen Gründen denn eine solche Absetzbewegung nötig ist. Im Ergebnis wird jedoch deutlich, dass es Oser um eine Verbindung verschiedener- oft konkurrierender- Blickwinkel auf Lehrerbildung geht:

- Er greift die Kritik der Expertenforschung und professional development-Ansätze auf und meint in ihrem Sinn, dass Lehrerbildung von *Handlungskompetenz* ausgehen und zu ihr führen müsse. Oser betont, dass die notwendigen Qualifikationen nicht aus Fächern oder der Didaktik abgeleitet werden können, sondern sie entstehen "aus den Notwendigkeiten der Praxis" und führen "zu einer Wissenschaft der Praxis", zu einer Praxeologie (Oser 2002, 2).

- In der Stoßrichtung neuerer sozio-kultureller Ansätze, wie z.B. jenes des situierten Lernens (vgl. z.B. Lave/Wenger 1991) betont er, dass Standards die bestehenden *Handlungstraditionen* im Praxisfeld berücksichtigen müssten.
- Schließlich will er nicht – dies in der Tradition einer verwissenschaftlichten Lehrerbildung, die in den letzten Jahren zumindest im theoretischen Diskurs deutlich im Rückzug befindlich war - auf eine Verbindung dieser praktischen Kompetenzen mit *bereichsbezogenen Theorien und Forschungsergebnissen* verzichten. Verschiedene relevante Wissensarten können professionelle Handlungen nicht ersetzen, sie müssen aber dennoch "mit ihnen verbunden sein" (Oser 2002, 2).
- Dies allerdings nicht in bloßer Addition, sondern als *erarbeitete und reflektierte Vernetzung von Kompetenzelementen*, die sich eben nicht umstandslos verbinden lassen. Gewiss ist dies eine Neuformulierung des ebenso bekannten wie selten eingelösten Topos der Theorie-Praxis-Verbindung, die aber möglicherweise durch die Differenzierung der vier 'Standardelemente' eine neue Konkretheit für Planung, Umsetzung und Evaluation bietet.

2.2.2. Überprüfung der Wirksamkeit der Lehrerbildung in der Schweiz

Die Ausformulierung dieser Standards hat ihren Ursprung und wohl auch ihre Ursache in einem Projekt, das die Wirksamkeit der Schweizer Lehrerbildung (nun veröffentlicht als Oser/Oelkers 2001) untersuchen sollte. Wohl wären Standards (sensu Oser: als Realisierung) direkt beobachtbar. Da die relevanten Situationen aber nicht künstlich hergestellt werden können, ist der Aufwand für eine Beobachtung groß. Das Untersuchungsteam hat sich dann entschlossen mit Selbstberichten von AbsolventInnen dieser Lehrerbildung zu arbeiten, also mit subjektiven Meinungen eingeholt, die "nur ein Indikator für bestimmte Ausbildungszustände sein können, nicht aber diese selber darstellen" (Oser 1997b, 211). Gesucht waren offenbar, durch die Betroffenen der Lehrerbildung berichtbare Indikatoren, mit denen zwischen qualitativvoller und schlechter Lehrerbildung unterschieden werden konnte. Dies wird in der Untersuchung durch die Verbindung zwischen *drei Variablen* angestrebt:

- Durch die *inhaltlichen Qualifikationsbereiche*, wie sie durch die 88 Standards umschrieben werden;
- Durch eine Unterscheidung von *Lernwegen* bzgl. dieser Qualifikationsbereiche, die deutlich mit den Elementen von Standards korrespondieren. Oser unterscheidet hier, die 'Lernwege' (vgl. Oser 2002, 7)
 - in "Theorie" (theoretisch abstrakt) etwas über den Standard gehört;
 - in einer Übung mit diesem Standard gearbeitet
 - in der Praxis mit diesem Standard gearbeitet.
- Durch das *Konzept der "Verarbeitungstiefe"*, das eine Rangreihe zwischen diesen Lernwegen bzw. Kombinationen davon herstellt und damit eine "aufsteigende Skala von Übungsintensität und -qualität" (Oser 1997b, 212) postuliert:
 - Nichts gehört
 - nur theoretisch (in abstrakter Form) davon gehört
 - nur Übungen gemacht oder nur in der Praxis gehört
 - Kombinationen von zwei Antworten
 - Verbindung von Theorie, Übung und Praxis, der Oser die in diesem Zusammenhang etwas eigenwillig Bezeichnung als "Portfolio" gibt.

"Portfolios sind Sammlungen von reflektierten Erfahrungsstücken, Unterrichtsmaterialien, analysierten Video-, Tagebuch- und Unterrichtsprotokollaufzeichnungen, Berichten über Zusammenarbeit mit Expertenlehrern und ähnlichem. Portfolios sind stets das Resultat eines

längeren Theorie-, Übungs- und Praxisumgangs hinsichtlich einer professionellen Kompetenz. Sie sind ein Hinweis der Erreichung von Standards." Auch "ständiges Aufeinanderbeziehen von Theoriestücken, zahlreicher Übungsgelegenheiten und ausdauernder Reflexion episodischer Erfahrungen in der Praxis [muss] noch keineswegs automatisch zu einem qualitativ besseren Unterricht führen. Trotzdem ist mindestens anzumerken, dass durch dieses intensive Zusammenbringen von Theorie, Empirie, Evaluation und Praxis Vorbedingungen geschaffen werden, dass Standards erreicht werden können und Expertenwissen erworben werden kann. Die Intensität, mit der Theorie, Übung und Praxis aufeinander bezogen und von der wissenschaftlichen Forschung her beleuchtet worden sind, ist also hier ein [allerdings sehr indirekter] Indikator für die Ermöglichung der Erreichung von Standards und damit auch für die Ermöglichung eines besseren Unterrichts" (Oser 1997a, 36f).

Die *Ergebnisse* der Untersuchung: Die Studie zeigt zunächst, dass die Ziele der Schweizer Lehrerbildung in der Einschätzung ihrer 'KonsumentInnen' unklar sind. Dieses Ergebnis trifft sich im Übrigen mit einer zentralen Aussage des TNTEE-Green Papers, das die Ziele der Lehrerbildungsprogramme in den meisten europäischen Staaten für unklar, unrealistisch ambitiös, inkohärent und manchmal intern widersprüchlich hält. Dort wird es als eine zentrale Aufgabe der Lehrerbildungsreform angesehen, diese Ziele in kohärenterer Weise und bezogen auf eine berufsbiografische Perspektive von Lehrerbildung zu redefinieren (vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 38).

Weiters werden der Schweizer Lehrerbildung in Osers Untersuchung ein überdurchschnittliches Sozialklima, aber keine hohen Leistungsanforderungen attestiert. Im Hinblick auf viele Standards berichten die AbsolventInnen, dass sie darüber nur theoretisch gehört oder sich praktisch auseinandergesetzt haben. Die Verbindung von Theorie mit Übungen und Praxis wird "stets von weniger als 10 % der Personen angegeben" (Oser 1997b, 216). "Insbesondere findet sich keine Ausbildung, die systematisch die Verbindung von auch nur zwei Zugangsweisen für den Erwerb von Standards verwenden würde" (Oser 1997b, 217). Es gibt jedoch einige Standards, von denen die Befragten in der Ausbildung überhaupt nichts gehört haben (z.B. "Lerninhalte, sach- und lernlogisch gliedern") oder die sie als wenig wichtig einschätzen (z.B. "Transfer systematisch einbauen").

Osers Schluss aus diesen Daten (1997b, 224): Die Intensität der Ausbildung ist "ungenügend". Aus folgenden Gründen herrscht seiner Meinung nach gegenwärtig ein Mangel an auf Standards ausgerichtete Ausbildungsprozesse:

- Während der Erstausbildung kann man nicht alle Standards lernen, sondern nur einige exemplarisch. Hier wäre Weiterbildung im Berufsverlauf notwendig, wofür aber in der Erstausbildung, in der der Standard "die eigene Weiterbildung planen" vollkommen vernachlässigt wird, eine schlechte Grundlage gelegt wird (Oser 2002, 11).
- Es herrscht ein "Andachtsmodell" in der Schweizer Lehrerbildung, deren Sozialklima hoch positiv eingeschätzt wird, in der die Klarheit der Ziele und die Höhe der Anforderungen aber eher niedrig liegen (a.a.O., 12).
- Unterricht werde "als unteilbarer (und schwer zu verdauender; HA) Kuchen" gesehen; es fehle eine Unterteilung von Standards nach Schwierigkeit in grundlegende, mittlere und komplizierte (a.a.O., 12 und 15).
- Den LehrerbildnerInnen fehlen orientierende Instrumente, wie es eben die Standards sind, für Planung und Ausbildungskanons (a.a.O, 12).

Osers Urteil über die gegenwärtige (Schweizer) Lehrerbildung fällt demgemäß vernichtend aus: Gegenwärtig stellt die Ausbildung "ein Konglomerat von Pädagogik, Soziologie,

Didaktik, Fachausbildung, Fachdidaktik u.a. [dar]. Dieses Konglomerat wird im Kopfe des Lehrerstudierenden zu einem Habitus. Sein Kern lautet: Es gibt keine Einheit in diesem Beruf und alle anderen sind wichtiger als wir. Standards erhalten, wenn sie über das ganze Studium verteilt erworben werden, jenen identitätsbildenden Effekt mit der Möglichkeit, eine neue Wissenschaft des professionellen Umgangs mit schulischen Lehr-Lernprozessen zu begründen" (Oser 2002, 15).

"Wir bilden Laien aus, die durch Praktiker in das Bisherige hineinsozialisiert werden, aber nicht Fachleute, die das Umfeld ihrer Tätigkeit professionell beherrschen. Dies deckt sich mit den Hilflosigkeitsäußerungen in diesem Beruf, mit dem vorausgesagten burn out, mit den Abwehrstrategien gegen Neues u.a. Verantwortung übernehmen für etwas, wo keine Kausalität empfunden wird, führt zu professionell gelernter Hilflosigkeit" (Oser 2002, 10).

2.2.3. Standards als Professionalitätskonzept

In dem Standard-Konzept ist, wie ja schon aus dem beschwörenden Unterton der Kritik an der Lehrerbildung erschießbar, eine Vorstellung davon, was Lehrerprofessionalität heißen könnte, enthalten: "Professionalität bedeutet also, dass eine Handlung und ihre Wirkung unter vielfältigen Gesichtspunkten zuverlässig und nachhaltig in komplexen Situationen ausgeführt werden kann, wobei zugleich eine nichtprofessionelle Person die Hintergründe solchen Tuns nicht unmittelbar durchschauen kann" (Oser 2002, 2).

Professionell sein bedeutet offenbar,

- Über bestimmte Handlungskompetenzen (i.e. Standards) zu verfügen, (Für die "Bestimmung" dieser Handlungskompetenzen scheint Oser (2001, 215) durchaus eine gewisse Normierung vorzuschweben: "Gegenwärtig findet man keine minimalen, verbindlichen Festlegungen darüber, was denn eigentlich an sicheren Fähigkeiten notwendig sei, um effektiver intervenieren und unterrichtlich handeln zu können.")
- Diese im Sinne der 4 Standard-Elemente erworben zu haben und praktizieren zu können, und
- Damit Handlungen setzen zu können, die Nichtprofessionelle nicht zu setzen vermöchten (vgl. Oser 2002, 1) bzw. gar nicht durchschauen (vgl. Oser 2002, 2) bzw. die für andere Berufe gar nicht "sinnvoll" (Oser 2002, 5; vgl. auch Oser 1997a, 28) wären.

Eine Professionalisierung des Berufs erwartet sich Oser (2002) davon, dass Standards in den Mittelpunkt von Aus- und Fortbildung gestellt werden. Die die Lehrerbildung bisher dominierenden Wissenschaften (Fächer, Psychologie, Soziologie) würden dadurch - wie in der Medizin - zu Hilfswissenschaften.

2.2.4. Konsequenzen für eine Reform der Lehrerbildung

Das Standard-Konzept insistiert auf der *Erlernbarkeit* wesentlicher Lehrerqualifikationen und stellt diese als *Forderung* an Ausbildungsinstitutionen wie Studierende. Folgende *curriculare und didaktische Konsequenzen für die Lehrerbildung* werden von Oser aus dem Konzept abgeleitet:

- *Individualisierung*: "Die Hauptaufgabe der Lehrer- und Lehrerinnenausbildung ist es, mit jedem Lehramtskandidaten und jeder -kandidatin einzelne solcher Standards zu entwickeln" (Oser 2001, 226).
- *Enge Vernetzung von Theorie, Übung und Praxis*: Aus der Unterscheidung verschiedener Lernweg und dem Konzept der "Verarbeitungstiefe" wird der Anspruch einer standardorientierten Ausbildung abgeleitet, Theorie, Übungen und Praxis reflexiv zu vernetzen: Für einen solchen Standard ist "eine Verbindung von sorgfältigem

theoretischen und empirischen Wissen mit Qualitätsvorstellungen und mit einer repetitiven Praxis (was bedeutet, dass ein /eine Studierende/r so viele Male ausprobieren kann, bis das Gefühl der Beherrschung in schwierigen Situationen gegeben ist)" (Oser 2002, 10). Das bedeutet, "dass Studierende in der Lehrerbildung a) in Pädagogik, Pädagogischer Psychologie und Didaktik Informationen [zum jeweiligen] Thema erhalten, dass sie b) Forschungsberichte dazu lesen, dass c) handelnde Experten aus Videobeispielen auch in Unterrichtssituationen analysiert und mit Novizenhandlungen verglichen werden, und d) dass Übungen in Unterrichtssituationen einerseits und ganze Unterrichtsabschnitte andererseits durchgeführt und mit Verantwortlichen besprochen, reflektiert, bewertet und repetiert, das heißt wieder und wieder in der Praxis ausprobiert werden" (Oser 2001, 226).

- *Portfolios als Instrument und Dokument dieser Vernetzung*: Oser sieht Standards durch "Portfolios" repräsentiert, "eine Art Sammlung von Übungen, Analysen, Forschungspapieren, Selbstreflexionen, case studies, Beispielen, Reports über Praxis, Fortschritttabellen u.ä. ... Ein Portfolio enthält den berufsbioграфischen Weg vom Novizen zum Beherrscher eines Standards und impliziert die Konstruktion von Lernwelten (Lektionen) für den Schüler und die Schülerin, in denen dieser Standard mehrere Male zur Anwendung kommt" (Oser 2001, 226).
- *Früh anfangen, Differenzierung nach Schwierigkeitsgraden und Vorbereitung von Weiterbildung*: Die ersten Standards sollten schon in der Grundausbildung erworben werden. Allerdings könnte es keine Lehrerbildung schaffen, schon in der Erstausbildung alle 88 Standards zu vermitteln. Daher sollten sie nach Komplexität hierarchisiert werden und eine Kompetenz, seine eigene Weiterbildung zu orientieren und zu betreiben – selbst ein Standard –in der Grundausbildung grundgelegt werden.
- *Standardbezogene Modularisierung*: Das Studium sollte nach Vorstellung Osers jeweils die verschiedenen Lernwege bezüglich eines Standards miteinander vernetzen. Daraus folgert er die Notwendigkeit einer Modularisierung der Ausbildung, in der verschiedene Fachleute "über eine bestimmte Zeit zusammenarbeiten und einen Standard mit den angehenden Lehrpersonen realisieren" (Oser 2002, 14). und in der Module eher nach Standards(-Gruppen) organisiert sind und in sich verschiedene Lernarten anbieten. "Jede Lehrerstudentin und jeder Lehrerstudent soll *gleichzeitig* jene Teilaspekte erwerben, die heute getrennt erworben werden und deshalb unwirksam sind" (Oser 2001, 226).
- *Aktives Lernen, Längerfristigkeit und Wiederholung*: "... sind Standards darauf angelegt, übungsintensiv ausgeführt und wiederholt in kontextueller Vielfalt eingesetzt zu werden ... wäre die Erreichung eines Standards die Frucht einer langen Auseinandersetzungsperiode" (Oser 1997a, 36). Für das Erlernen von Standards ist es nach Oser (2002, 14) nötig, sich "längere Zeit im Kontakt mit KollegInnen oder Experten mit einer Sache, eben mit Standards [zu] beschäftigen... Immer in Bezug auf Situationen und Inhalte ... Risiken eingehen und Neues ausprobieren ... Schule zu einem Lehr-Lernfeld für angehende Lehrpersonen werden."
- *Aufwertung von PraxislehrerInnen*: "Denn sie müssen die Türen öffnen für den Zusammenfluss der verschiedenen Ansprüche, die gleichzeitig ein Ganzes bilden und dies exemplarisch schon während der Grundausbildung ..." (14).
- *Biographische Einbettung*: Es geht Oser aber nicht nur um den Erwerb von Standards. "Die jungen Lehrpersonen müssen auch einen *sozialen Sinn* im Zusammenhang mit den Standards erarbeiten, das heißt, sie müssen die professionellen Kompetenzen in einen Lebenshorizont einbauen und ihn biografisch verankern" (Oser 2002, 16).

2.2.5. Diskussion

Es ist weniger die Neuartigkeit seiner Einzelelemente, die Osers Konzept interessant macht, sondern die Verbindung einiger bekannter und einiger neuerer Argumentationsfiguren zu einem *umfassenderen* Konzept und die Tatsache, dass daraus auf mehreren Ebenen durchaus *anspruchsvolle* Aussagen abgeleitet werden. Osers Konzept ist inhaltsreich, damit aber auch voraussetzungsreich. Weil es inhaltsreich ist, lassen sich eine Reihe von Anforderungen an Lehrerbildungskonzeptionen ableiten. Weil es voraussetzungsreich ist, stecken noch eine Reihe von Annahmen in seiner Formulierung, die leicht kritisierbar sind und weiterer Forschung bedürfen.

Im Folgenden werden einige potentielle *Einwände* aufgelistet:

- Die handlungstheoretische Begründung des Konzepts besteht aus einer Abgrenzung zu Shulman und Bromme, ist aber darüber hinaus theoretisch wenig ausargumentiert.
- Eines der grundlegenden Konzeptmerkmale, nämlich dass eine aufeinander bezogene und integrierte Konfrontation der Lernenden mit den Elementen Theorie, empirisches Wissen, praktische Übung und Arbeit in der Praxis wirksamer wäre als jedes dieser Einzelelemente, klingt zwar hochplausibel, ist bisher aber wenig untersucht. Eine Untersuchung von Mayr (2002) an einer Stichprobe österreichischer GrundschullehrerInnen kommt dabei sowohl zu bestätigenden wie auch zu differenzierenden Befunden.
- Alle bisherigen Untersuchungen beruhen auf Selbstberichten.
- Ob die Kriteriumsvariable "Selbstbericht über Ausbildungserlebnisse" tatsächlich in irgendeiner systematischen Weise mit letztlich anzustrebenden Kriteriumsvariablen, wie z.B. Schülerleistungen und Schülererfahrungen, Performanz dieser Standards von LehrerInnen im Klassenzimmer, zusammenhängt, ist bisher nicht hinreichend untersucht.
- Oser (2002b) meint, dass man die Qualität von Unterricht über zwei Maße messen könnte, die beide ihre Vor- und Nachteile hätten:
 - Die tatsächlich erbrachte Leistung von SchülerInnen, die von entsprechend qualifizierten LehrerInnen unterrichtet wurden.
 - Eine vorentworfene Qualität von Lehrerhandlung.
 - Tatsächlich erscheint aber gerade der Zusammenhang dieser "unterschiedlichen Qualitätsmaße" der Kernpunkt dieser Theorie und damit auch ihr gegenwärtig neuralgischer Punkt: Sie unterstellt ja, dass LehrerInnen, die bestimmte Lernwege in entsprechender "Verarbeitungstiefe" durchlaufen haben, auch zu besseren Leistungen und Lernerlebnisse bei den SchülerInnen beitragen können.
 - Schließlich findet sich noch eine dritte Facette der Qualitätsdiskussion im methodischen Setting von Osers Untersuchung: Die "vorentworfene Qualität", die Definition der Standards nämlich, erfolgt ja im vorgeschlagenen Projekt und auch in früheren Projekten Osers durch eine "Quasi-Delphi"-Studie bei ExpertInnen. Nun geht ja der gesamte Untersuchungsansatz von Oser davon aus, dass offenbar nicht alle LehrerInnen ausreichend qualifiziert sind (zumindest nicht durch ihre formelle Lehrerausbildung; man wird mit Oser annehmen können, dass sich dennoch viele LehrerInnen durch ihre Berufserfahrung und sonstige Lernaktivitäten nach der Lehrerausbildung Expertenstatus erworben haben). Auf der anderen Seite würden wahrscheinlich die meisten WissenschaftlerInnen und PraktikerInnen übereinstimmen, dass nicht alle praktizierenden LehrerInnen als ExpertInnen in diesem Sinn anzusehen sind. Daraus ergibt sich, dass die Definition und Auswahl der ExpertInnen eine Vordefinition dessen, was qualitätsvolle Lehrerhandlung bedeuten soll, mit einschließt, indem definiert wird, welche Personen als ExpertInnen anzusehen sind und welche nicht.

- Der Portfolio-Begriff wird eigenwillig verwendet.
- Es ist eingewandt worden, dass eine derartige standardbezogene Ausbildung hohe Ansprüche an die Lehrenden in der Lehrerbildung stelle (was Oser wahrscheinlich nicht anders sieht); daher hätte sie entweder schlechte Chancen auf praktische Realisierung oder es bestünde die Gefahr, dass alter Wein in neuen Schläuchen kredenzt würde (z.B. Lernzielkataloge nun als 'Standards' ausgegeben würden; vgl. z.B. Guldemann/Zutavern 2002).
- Die Ausschließlichkeit, mit der Oser den Berufstätigen spezifische Kompetenzen zuordnet, erscheint unrealistisch: Warum soll sich nicht ein Laie spezifische Segmente professioneller Fertigkeiten aneignen können? Gibt es keine professions-übergreifenden Fertigkeiten? Ist nicht vielleicht das Ensemble der Standards typisch für eine Profession und nicht jede Einzelkompetenz?
- Wird durch Osers praktische Vorschläge nicht mehr Deutungskompetenz als Handlungskompetenz erworben? Oser (2002b) konzidiert, dass dies der Fall ist, entgegnet aber, es ginge ihm um die "Eroberung" des psychologischen Wissens, das die Handelnden selbst hätten. Deutung und Situationsbewusstsein wären hier ein wichtiger Zwischenschritt.
- Der Standard, der auf mittlerem Komplexitätsniveau angesiedelt sein will, stellt selber eine Komplexitätsreduktion dar. Wenn nun Ausbildungsmaßnahmen auf der Basis von Standards entworfen werden (Videsequenzen), werden nicht wichtige prozessuale Wirkungselemente der Situation ausgeblendet (z.B. die Vorgeschichte, wichtige Mikrovariationen der Situation), sodass die Gefahr besteht, dass eine derartige situative Ausbildung Transfervorstellungen bei den Studierenden nahe legt (Kunstlehre statt theoretisches Wissen!).

2.3. Internationale Tendenzen in der Reform der Lehrergrundausbildung

Lehrerbildung war in allen untersuchten Ländern in der letzten Dekade ein Feld, in dem *einschneidende Änderungen der bisherigen Strukturen* stattgefunden haben. Im Folgenden sollen einige übereinstimmende Tendenzen der in den vier Länderstudien untersuchten Länder sowie Einzelentwicklungen und widersprechende Tendenzen herausgearbeitet werden.

2.3.1. Tertiärisierung und Verlängerung

In allen Ländern ist die Lehrerbildung Teil des tertiären Sektors. In Finnland und Portugal können neben Universitäten auch nicht-universitäre postsekundäre Institutionen (Polytechnics) bei einem Teil der Lehrerbildung, meist bei den Programmen für LehrerInnen jüngerer SchülerInnen, mitwirken. Auch in den deutschsprachigen Ländern wird nach der Reform der Deutschschweizer Lehrerbildung (vgl. Beck et al. 2001) überall Lehrerbildung starken post-sekundären und tertiären Institutionen mit Forschungsauftrag übertragen.

In Portugal (seit Mitte der 80iger Jahre) und in der Schweiz (Ende der 90er Jahre) finden wir in relativ junger Zeit eine Aufwertung und Tertiärisierung lehrerbildender Studiengänge, die in einer Verlängerung der Gesamtausbildungsdauer bis zum Abschluss einer Lehrerqualifikation resultierte. Dies ist wahrscheinlich als Nachholeffekt von in der historischen Entwicklung 'weniger fortgeschrittenen Hochschulsystemen' zu interpretieren, wenn man bedenkt, dass die Grund- und Sekundarlehrausbildung in Finnland bereits 1971 akademisiert wurde und Mitte der 90er Jahre dies auch für KindergärtnerInnen/VorschullehrerInnen und BerufsschullehrerInnen nachgeholt wurde. Das Mindestniveau der Lehrerbildungsprogramme besteht in allen Ländern in einem mindestens 3jährigen Bachelor-Programm.

Viele Länder (wie z.B. Portugal, Finnland) setzen aber den Mindestabschluss auch für das Grundschullehramt höher – bei einem mindestens 5 jährigen Master-Grad – an.

2.3.2. Zugang und Rekrutierung

Der Zugang zur Ausbildung für den Lehrerberuf zeichnet sich und in vielen Ländern durch *leichte Zugänglichkeit* und *nicht-elitäre Anforderungen* aus (vgl. Lortie 1972). Es gibt relativ viele und regional gut gestreute Bildungsinstitutionen¹. Lehrerbildende Studiengänge gelten im Allgemeinen als leichter als vergleichbare 'Diplomstudien'. Die wichtigsten persönlichen Qualitäten, die LehrerInnen nach Ansicht von Berufstätigen haben müssen, sind persönliche Präferenzen (gerne unterrichten wollen) und interpersonelle Qualitäten (Geduld, Humor, Führungsqualitäten). Diese Kriterien sind nicht so strikt, als dass sie eine Selbsteliminierung von Aspiranten herausfordern könnten. Als Ergebnis zeigt sich z.B. bei Giesen/Gold (1994), dass LehrerstudentInnen in verschiedenen leistungsbezogenen Kriterien (wie Intelligenz und Abiturnoten) schlechter abschneiden als Studierende derselben Fächer, die nicht das Lehramt anstreben². Mayr et al. (1985) weisen auch darauf hin, dass engagiertere Studierende besonders häufig ein Lehrstudium abbrechen: StudienabbrecherInnen einer Pädagogischen Akademie "hatten bei Studienbeginn in allen leistungsbezogenen Prädiktoren (Notenschnitt im Reifezeugnis, Intelligenz, Kreativität, Fähigkeit zur Sprachgestaltung) günstigere Werte und waren auch von der Aufnahmekommission besser eingeschätzt worden als jene Studierenden, sie schließlich das Lehrstudium abschlossen" (Mayr 1994b, 3). Wenn man jedoch nicht Studierende anderer Studienrichtungen, sondern den Bevölkerungsdurchschnitt zum Vergleich heranzieht, dann erscheinen angehende LehrerInnen als überdurchschnittlich intelligent, extrovertiert und feinfühlig (Mayr 1994c).

Die Gesellschaft bevorzugt offenbar in vielen Ländern die Rekrutierung der LehrerInnen über leichteren und breiten Zugang statt durch erhöhte Anreize (Lortie 1975, 23). Dies wird erstens Berufstätige mit sehr unterschiedlichem Hintergrund anziehen und zu großer Heterogenität in der schon an sich großen Berufsgruppe führen. Zweitens ist dadurch zu erwarten, dass sich überzufällig häufig einesteils Personen, die mit den ideellen Zentralwerten des Berufes (Dienstleistungsideal, Arbeit mit Kindern) übereinstimmen ("Idealisten"), und anderenteils Personen mit weniger dynamischen Einstellungen, die hohen Anforderungen und Leistungswettbewerb eher scheuen, angezogen fühlen. Leichter Zugang und Subjektivität der Zugangserfordernisse lassen einen höheren Anteil von 'second best'-Wahlen erwarten: Die Entscheidung für den Beruf erfolgt, weil in anderer Hinsicht attraktivere Alternativen zu schwer zugänglich oder zu unsicher sind oder abgebrochen werden mussten (vgl. z.B. Kelchtermans 1992, 263f).

Dieses für die Sozialisation in den Lehrerberuf bedeutsame Merkmal findet sich auch in den meisten unserer Länderstudien wieder. Auch dort, wo durch eine staatliche Lenkungs politik eine beschränkte Anzahl von Studienplätzen zur Verfügung gestellt wird, wie z.B. in Portugal, erbringt die Auswahl aus den BewerberInnen offenbar nicht, eine spezifische durch allgemeine oder berufsspezifische Leistungskriterien herausgehobene Gruppe von Studierenden (vgl. Campos 2001, 4: Minimalnoten in Gegenständen als Zugangsbedingung).

¹ SEIFERT (1994) fand bei angehenden HauptschullehrerInnen eine (im Vergleich zu VolksschullehrerInnen) stärkere Bedeutung extrinsischer Berufswahlfaktoren, wie Nähe des Studienortes, Kürze der Ausbildung), die wiederum mit geringerer Zufriedenheit mit der Studienwahl und schlechteren Leistungen im Studium korrelierten.

² Vgl. auch Terhart (1994, 24). Keine derartigen Unterschiede konnten dagegen Bergmann/Eder (1994a) zwischen höheren SchülerInnen, die sich mit dem Gedanken trugen, ein Lehramtsstudium aufzunehmen, und solchen, die das nicht taten, finden.

Eine Ausnahme von dieser Regel stellt offenbar der PISA-Musterschüler Finnland dar. Auch hier herrscht aufgrund staatlicher Regulierung von Studienplätzen eine Zugangsbeschränkung und nur 10 bis 15 % der AnwärterInnen auf ein Grundschullehrerstudium werden aufgenommen (Die Sekundarschullehrerbildung ist weniger attraktiv, was mit schlechteren Arbeitsbedingungen und *burn out* zusammenhängt). Allerdings gelingt es den Studiengängen zum Grundschullehramt offenbar, besonders talentierte Studierende anzuziehen. Die Auswahl der Studierenden ist Sache der Universitäten. Auch sind die Zugangskriterien, deren Festlegung in der Verantwortung der Universitäten liegt, anspruchsvoller als in anderen Disziplinen, weil die Ergebnisse der Immatrikulationsprüfung und des Abschlusszeugnisses oft durch persönliche Fähigkeitstests und Interviews ergänzt werden. Finnische GesprächspartnerInnen auf dieses Phänomen angesprochen, scheinen selbst nicht sicher über dessen Ursache zu sein. Hoher Stellenwert der Bildung in der finnischen Gesellschaft und damit zusammenhängend der Status der LehrerIn, angenehme Arbeitsbedingungen, Förderung akademischer Weiterqualifikation von LehrerInnen werden oft als Gründe angegeben. Jedenfalls scheint das Gehaltsniveau nicht zu den ausschlaggebenden Gründen zu gehören.

2.3.3. *Weitung der Perspektive: Berufsbiographische Perspektive und systemische Relationen*

Weitgehende Übereinstimmung unter den TheoretikerInnen der Lehrerbildung herrscht darüber, dass man heute nicht mehr über Lehrergrundausbildung diskutieren könnte, wenn man nur sie im Blick hat: Einesteils müsste die Grundausbildung als ein Schritt in einem *continuous professional development* von LehrerInnen gesehen, der von der Rekrutierung für ein Studium, über die Grundausbildung, Berufseinführung, Fort- und Weiterbildung gehe und in seinen spezifischen unterschiedlichen Aufgaben und Bezügen verstanden werden müsste (siehe dazu ausführlicher im Abschnitt "Kohärenz und Abstimmung" in 2.4). Anderenteils dürfe die Grundausbildung auch nicht bloß als abgeschlossener und dem auf zukünftiges gerichtetes Lernen gewidmeter Ort gesehen werden, sondern auch in ihren sich ebenfalls dynamischen ändernden Bezügen zu anderen Systempartnern, wie Schule, Verwaltung, Bildungspolitik, Bildungsforschung (vgl. z.B. Buchberger et al. 1999, 3ff). Themen, wie Schulentwicklung, innerschulische Personalentwicklung und Aufgabenverteilung, Eltern- und Öffentlichkeitsarbeit kommen dadurch in den Blick.

2.3.4. *Kohärenz der Curricula*

Die *Spezifikation der Lehrerbildungscurricula* wird in den meisten Ländern als Sache der weitgehend autonomen Anbieterinstitution angesehen. Dies bietet Spielräume für Curricula und führt in der Praxis zu einer *Diversität der Angebote und Lernerfahrungen* (vgl. z.B. Niemi 2001). Verschiedene Instrumente werden gefordert oder eingesetzt, um eine größere Kohärenz in den Programmen zu erreichen.

Das TNTEE-Green Paper fordert - im Gegensatz zu der an vielen Orten herrschenden unverbundenen Ansammlung akademischer Disziplinen - die Entwicklung von integrativeren Curricula, die um "*thematische Schwerpunkte*", die aus den 'professionellen Anforderungen' von LehrerInnen abgeleitet sind, organisiert sind (vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 39f). In Portugal leitet ein *professionelles Leitbild des Lehrberufs* die Ausbildung. Diese macht klar, dass nicht Beamte, nicht Techniker, sondern "Professionelle" ausgebildet werden sollen, die Unterrichtssituationen analysieren können und solche Unterrichtspraktiken verwirklichen, die die größte Zahl von Lernenden durch den Lernprozess leitet und die auch ihre Praxis in einer Weise evaluieren können, die ihre eigene Kompetenz erhöht. Außerdem werden staatlicherseits einzelne "breite Curriculumkomponenten" (wie z.B. persönliche, soziale,

kulturelle, wissenschaftliche Bildung; Erziehungswissenschaft inklusive Fachdidaktik; Pädagogische Praxis) und deren minimales/maximales Gewicht (als Prozentsatz der Gesamtstundenanzahl) definiert (vgl. Campos 2001, 5).

"Im Jahre 1996 setzte der [niederländische] Minister für Unterricht, Kultur und Wissenschaft ein *Prozessmanagement für die Lehrerausbildungsinstitute* ein, das unter anderem die Aufgabe bekam, Kohärenz in den Programmen der Lehrerausbildung für den Primarunterricht zu fördern. Im Jahre 1998 führte dies zu einem gemeinschaftlichen Curriculum. Der Vorschlag ist nicht präskriptiv und hat aber durch sein interaktives Zustandekommen eine breite Basis in der Gesellschaft. Im Augenblick benutzen viele Ausbildungsinstitute diese Lehrplanvorschläge als Ausgangspunkt für ihre eigene Lehrplanreform" (Letschert 2001, 4; meine Hervorh. HA).

Ein wichtiges, weiterhin unterentwickeltes curriculares Element scheint die *Fachdidaktik*. Initiativen zu deren Weiterentwicklung – insbesondere in Form von übergreifenderen *Bereichsdidaktiken* - erscheint dem TNTEE-Green Paper essentiell (vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 40f).

2.3.5. Rechenschaftspflicht und Qualitätssicherung

Die *Informationsbasis* über Prozesse und Ergebnisse der Lehrerbildung wird oft als unbefriedigend beklagt (vgl. Campos 2001, 10). Nur in der Finnischen Studie wird über Ergebnisse von Evaluationen berichtet (vgl. Niemi 2001): Graduierte finnische Grund- und SekundarschullehrerInnen geben an, in den pädagogischen Grundfertigkeiten gut ausgebildet worden zu sein. Gewünscht werden Kompetenzen für Verwaltung, Elternkooperation, Arbeit mit der Gemeinschaft, Krisenintervention, Umgang mit Heterogenität, Integrationspädagogik, Schüler-Wohlfahrt, Internationalisierung sowie Vorbereitung für die Arbeit unter Zeitdruck. "Ein generelles Resultat der Evaluation ist, dass die Studien um so nützlicher evaluiert werden, je anspruchsvoller sie waren" (Niemi 2001, 7).

Eine durchgehende Tendenz der Lehrerbildungspolitik in allen besprochenen Ländern ist die verstärkte Bedeutung der Themen *Rechenschaftspflicht und Qualitätssicherung*. Einerseits werden die tertiären Institutionen und damit auch die in ihnen verankerten Lehrerbildungsprogramme zu *Selbstevaluation und interner Qualitätsentwicklung* verpflichtet. Andererseits werden verschiedene Instrumente *einer externen Evaluation und Qualitätssicherung* – oft erst seit kurzer Zeit – praktiziert. Darunter sind zu nennen:

- *Akkreditierung von Studiengängen*: Eine Akkreditierung evaluiert die Angemessenheit eines Lehrbildungsprogramms und verleiht der entsprechenden Institution das Recht, dieses Programm anzubieten – stellt damit eine ex ante Prüfung von Input-Faktoren dar. Diese Akkreditierung ist meist für eine begrenzte Periode gültig und erfordert eine Erneuerung der Akkreditierung, meist auf der Basis entsprechender Qualitätsevaluationen (und kann der Prozedur damit ein Element der Prozess und Output-Evaluierung hinzufügen). Solche Akkreditierungen können durch den Staat selbst (bzw. von ihm beauftragt Institutionen) oder auch von Fachorganisationen durchgeführt werden. Die Akkreditierung, in den USA schon lange ein Mechanismus mit der v.a. durch (selbst 'dezentrale' und regierungsunabhängige Organisationen) eine gewisse Vergleichbarkeit zwischen Ausbildungsgängen hergestellt wird, kann auch ein Instrument zur Durchsetzung staatlicher Interessen sein, wie sich an der Zentralisierung der Lehrerbildung in England seit 1984 studieren lässt (vgl. Biott et al. 2001; Criblez 1998, 50ff). Mit Hilfe des *Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education* (CATE; 1994 durch die Teacher Training Agency (TTA) ersetzt) wurden

- (i) *alternative Ausbildungswege zum Lehrberuf* geschaffen, die auf vollakademische Ausbildung verzichteten und den Anteil schulpraktischer Ausbildung erhöhten.
 - (ii) *fachliche Anteile* im Studium vermehrt und neuer Curriculuminhalte (z.B. Informatik, Sonderpädagogik, interkulturelle Studien) eingeführt;
 - (iii) *unterrichtspraktische Anteile* im Studium vermehrt und
 - (iv) eine durchgehende *Kompetenzorientierung* der curricularen Elemente angestrebt.
- Ein Akkreditierungs-Mechanismus wurde jüngst auch in Portugal eingeführt, allerdings in der spezifischen Version einer "professionellen Akkreditierung", in der Anbieterinstitutionen, die im Prinzip autonom sind, Studiengänge anzubieten, das Recht verliehen wird, auch Berufsberechtigungen für den Lehrberuf zu vergeben. Das Nationale Institut für die Akkreditierung der Lehrerbildung, das diese Akkreditierung vornimmt, wurde erst im Juni 1999 gegründet und ist eine öffentliche, vom Ministerium eingerichtete Institution. In seinem Leitungsgremium sind tertiäre Institutionen, Lehrer, Eltern, Ansteller, Ministerium, Studenten und die Wirtschaft repräsentiert (vgl. Campos 2001, 9).
- *Selbstevaluation und peer reviews, Nationale Evaluationen, monitoring*: Die Prüfung der Effektivität der Lehrerbildung ist eine weit verbreitete Forderung (vgl. Oelkers 1996, 48f). Der Einsatz diverser Instrumente externer Evaluation (vgl. Posch/Altrichter 1997, 33ff) werden aus verschiedenen Ländern berichtet (vgl. Campos 2001; Niemi 2001), ohne dass hier lehrerbildungsspezifische Prozeduren beobachtbar wären.
 - *Leistungsvereinbarungen und darauf bezogene Evaluationen*: Ein Modus der Steuerung von nachgeordneten Organisationen, wie sie z.B. in der öffentlichen Verwaltung häufig zu finden sind, ist das vom 'new public management vorgeschlagene Modell (vgl. Dubs 1996): Hier werden von vorgesetzten Instanzen mit den Suborganisationen Leistungsvereinbarungen getroffen, die bestimmte Ziel/Produkte vorgeben und vielleicht einige prozessbezogene Qualitätsstandards definieren, im übrigen aber bezüglich der Wege den Suborganisationen große Freiheit zugestehen. Für die Erbringung dieser Leistungsziele wird der Suborganisation ein 'Globalbudget' zugeordnet. Die Erreichung der vereinbarten Ziele wird jeweils durch Evaluation festgestellt. Dieses Modell wird auch im Bildungswesen erprobt und beispielsweise von Keuffer/Oelkers (2001, 15) für die Lehrerbildung vorgeschlagen.
 - *Festlegung von Standards für Ausbildung und Berufsqualifikation*: (Input-)Standards können einesteils für die Auswahl und Vorbildung von Studierenden sowie für bestimmte Elemente und Inhalte der Ausbildungsprogramme formuliert werden (die dann in Akkreditierungsprozeduren überprüft werden). Dies ist eine in den USA schon lange herrschende Praxis, die allerdings im Zuge der jüngsten Lehrerbildungsdiskussion zu einer Vereinheitlichung und Erhöhung von Standards genutzt wurde (vgl. NCATE-Standards von 1987 bei Cribblez 1998, 44).
Eine alternative output-orientierte Strategie besteht darin, extern (staatlicherseits) Berufsqualifikationen zu definieren, die von einzelnen LehrerInnen erfüllt werden müssen; diese sollen dann – durch den Bedarf der LehrerInnen vermittelt - auch die Grundausbildungs- und Fortbildungsprogramme beeinflussen. Diese Strategie findet gegenwärtig stark steigendes Interesse und ist in einer besonders differenzierten Version in der Studie von Biott et al. (2001) nachzulesen: Die Teacher Training Agency in England und Wales hat so beispielsweise für Berufsanfänger (newly qualified teachers; NQT) ebenso wie für spätere Karrierewege (siehe dazu Abschnitt 3.2) Qualifikationsstandards formuliert³.

³ Die Standards für Advanced Skills Teachers finden sich unter http://www.dfes.gov.uk/ast/brochure/sup_02.shtml. Jene für headteachers unter <http://www.ncslonline.gov.uk/programmes/npqh/210.asp>. Alle anderen Standards finden sich auf der website der Teacher Training Agency <http://www.canteach.gov.uk/info/standards/index.htm>.

Dieser Typ der Standardisierung setzt die Tendenzen zur Vereinheitlichung der schulischen Curricula und zur Messung ihrer Wirksamkeit fort, wie sie in England durch das Nationale Curriculum und die vergleichenden Tests der Schulleistungen im Alter von 7, 11, 14 und 16 Jahren (die aggregiert als "Leistungen der Schulen" national publiziert werden) erreicht wurden.

- *Inspektion*: Eine im Schulsystem traditionelle und dort in Transformation befindliche Methode der Qualitätssicherung, die Inspektion, scheint im Bereich der höheren Bildung wieder verstärkte Aufmerksamkeit zu finden. So wurde in Portugal erst kürzlich der Aufgabenbereich der Inspektion auch auf die Institutionen der höheren Bildung ausgedehnt, die die Übereinstimmung der Programme mit den gesetzlichen Richtlinien zu überprüfen hat (Campos 2001, 10). Das Niederländische Higher Education Inspectorate hat eine meta-evaluative Funktion: Es beobachtet die Qualität der Selbst- und peer Evaluationen und die Maßnahmen, die als Konsequenzen der Evaluationen ergriffen werden (vgl. Letschert 2001). Die Inspektion durch das englische OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education) entscheidet über Größe und Weiterbestehen von Lehrerbildungsprogrammen (vgl. Biott et al. 2001).

Ein wesentliches Element einer Strategie zur Qualitätsentwicklung wird aber gerade in einen Sektor, der eine vergleichsweise kurze Geschichte auf tertiärem Niveau hat, ein kohärentes *Personalentwicklungsprogramm* sein, das MitarbeiterInnen die Erhöhung ihrer formalen Qualifikationen (vgl. die Nachdiplomkurse in der Schweiz), den Erwerb spezifischer Zusatzqualifikationen für den tertiären Bereiche (z.B: Forschung, Präsentation von Forschungsarbeiten, erwachsenengerechte Lehre) und den Aufbau einer spezifischen Identität als akademischer LehrerbildnerIn⁴ erlaubt (vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 53).

Das Ergebnis dieser vielfältigen Rechenschaftsbeziehungen ist oft einigermaßen komplex, wie Biott et al. (2001) zeigen. In einzelnen Ländern, so z.B. besonders deutlich im englischen Bericht (vgl. Biott et al. 2001), werden die unter der Flagge der Qualitätssicherung segelnden Maßnahmen schmerzhaft als verstärkte zentrale Regulierung durch eine sich liberal gebende Administration empfunden. Deutlich wird, dass auch die Lehrerbildung unter verstärktem *Wettbewerbsdruck* steht. In manchen Ländern, wie z.B. in England, haben Regierungen versucht, die Zahl der Anbieter von Lehrerbildung zu steigern (z.B. durch die Ermöglichung schulbasierter Ausbildungsgänge). In vielen Ländern bekommen Lehrerbildungsfakultäten oder -programme den verstärkten inneruniversitären Wettbewerb um Ressourcen zu spüren. Dessen Kriterien, die oft aus der Forschungsqualität abgeleitet sind (z.B. Anzahl von Doktoraten, hochqualitative Forschung und internationale Publikationen, Kooperation mit der Wirtschaft; vgl. Niemi 2001), bereiten Lehrerbildungsfakultäten, die traditionell lokaler und weniger forschungsintensiv ausgerichtet waren, oft Schwierigkeiten.

2.3.6. Forschung

"... the research basis for such important work as educating the nation's teachers is still extremely thin" (Houston 1990, IX) steht in der ersten Ausgabe des Handbook of Research on Teacher Education zu lesen. Die Situation hat sich seither nicht entscheidend gebessert und so herrscht große Übereinstimmung, dass eine Reform der Lehrerbildung auch mit einer

⁴ Eine solche ist an Universitäten ja üblicherweise auch nicht gegeben. Status kann nur durch Engagement in möglichst grundlegender Forschung gewonnen werden; die Tätigkeit in 'angewandten Bereichen, wie Lehrerbildung eine ist, wird geringer geschätzt. Die Ausnahme zu diesem Muster konnte ich nur an der Universität Helsinki beobachten, wo sich der Arbeitsbereich für Lehrerbildung, durch ein gut funktionierendes Ausbildungsprogramm und internationale Vernetzung seiner Forschung ein eigenständiges Profil erworben hatte, das durchaus neben jenem der 'allgemeinen PädagogInnen' bestehen konnte.

quantitativen und qualitativen Entwicklung der Lehrerbildungsforschung einhergehen müsse (vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 43).

Insofern sind die finnischen Anstrengungen, die Forschungsbasis in der und über die Lehrerbildung zu stärken, besonders erwähnenswert (vgl. Niemi 2001, 13): Im Zuge der Forschungsförderung in allen Disziplinen, wurden auch in der Lehrerbildung gut ausgestattete post-graduate schools gefördert. Die Anzahl der Dokorate im Bereich der Lehrerbildung konnte mehr als verdoppelt werden. Der Bericht weist daraufhin, dass für eine intensiviertere Forschungsorientierung in der Lehrerbildung ein Wandel von Rahmenbedingungen und Institutionskultur nötig ist: So sind größere Teile des Personals als an anderen Fakultäten lecturers ohne Forschungsverpflichtung. Pädagogische Forschungsprojekte sind häufiger klein und kürzerfristig, während die Tendenz der Forschungsfinanzierung in die Richtung großer langfristiger Projekte geht. Indikatoren der Forschungsqualität richten sich häufig an "referierten internationalen Publikationen" aus, was mit der derzeitigen Publikationsstruktur, in der nationale Publikationen (die für die Entwicklung des pädagogischen Feld ebenfalls wichtig sind) vorherrschen, nicht gut zusammenpasst. Nicht diskutiert wird in dem Bericht die Frage, ob und wie bei einer Intensivierung der Forschungsanstrengungen die Lehrqualität erhalten und weiterentwickelt werden kann.

Ein Ansatz zur Steigerung der Bedeutung der Forschung in der Lehrerbildung, der in Finnland offenbar erfolgreich verfolgt wird – Finnland hat einige international renommierte ProtagonistInnen einer forschungsorientierten Lehrerbildung (z.B. Pertti Kansanen) -, besteht in einer "reflektierenden oder forschungsorientierten Lehrerbildung" (vgl. auch Criblez 1998, 41f, über die Rezeption von Donald Schöns Konzept des 'reflective practitioner' in den USA; Altrichter 2000). In einer solchen wird versucht, die Fähigkeiten von LehrerstudentInnen zu entwickeln, ihre eigene, sich entfaltende Praxis mit Hilfe verschiedener Forschungsstrategien zu reflektieren und ihre Fähigkeitsentwicklung dadurch zu evaluieren und zu orientieren – oder wie Niemi (2001) sagt, "Forschung und professionelle Entwicklung zu verbinden". In den Evaluationen zeigt sich offenbar, dass die entsprechenden Elemente der Ausbildung von den Studierenden durchaus goutiert werden: Die abschließende Forschungsarbeit (master thesis) und die Ausbildung in Forschungsmethoden erscheinen vielen Studierenden als die besten Teile der Grundschullehrerbildung, weil sie dabei ein echtes Projekt im Kontakt mit dem Praxisfeld machen können (vgl. Niemi 2001, 7). Eine derartige "forschungsorientierte Lehrerbildung" böte auch die Möglichkeit, größere Teile des Personals in Kontakt mit aktiver Forschung zu bringen, indem sie ihre eigene Lehrerbildungspraxis evaluieren und weiterentwickeln bzw. sich auf gemeinsame Forschungsprozesse mit Schulen einlassen.

Der Stellenwert der Forschung *im Studium* ist auch in anderen Ländern ein wichtiger Punkt in der Debatte der Lehrerbildungsreform. So fordert Oelkers (1996, 50f) "ein forschendes, empirisches Verständnis von Erziehungswissenschaft". Stärkeren Forschungsbezug versteht er als Mittel um die Ausbildungsorganisation "besser als bisher auf die *Probleme des Berufsfeldes* [einzustellen]. Dazu zählen ein verstärktes Forschungsaufkommen, die Steuerung durch Forschungsdaten, der Aufbau neuartiger Serviceeinrichtungen im Evaluationsbereich, die Abnehmerorientierung der Fortbildung, die Rotation des Personals und Ähnliches mehr" (Keuffer/Oelkers 2001, 15). Er will auf Erziehungsberufe nicht durch Erziehung vorbereiten, sondern im forschenden Lernen und zwar in der gesamten Ausbildung und auch in der Weiterbildung. Das heißt jedoch nicht, dass er "jeden Realitätsbezug mit dem Ehrentitel 'forschendes Lernen' ... versehen [will]. Nur bestimmte Probleme - unbekannte Dimensionen, herausfordernde Fragen, aufregende Möglichkeiten ..." (a.a.O., 51). Als Möglichkeiten für solches 'forschendes Lernen' nennt er "Einbindung in Forschungsprojekte: Wissenschaftliche Begleitungen, neutrale Evaluationen, größere Forschungsvorhaben, die sich mit akademischen Qualifizierungen verbinden lassen, Beteiligung an Unterrichts-

forschung oder Fachdidaktik" (ebda.). Beispiele 'forschenden Lernens' in der deutschsprachigen Lehrerbildung finden sich in Dirks/Hansmann (1999), Altrichter/Lobenwein (1999), Feindt/Meyer (2000) und Schneider/Wildt (2001).

Wichtig erscheint in diesen Bestimmungen, dass Forschungsbezug und Praxisbezug nicht als unverbunden oder gar gegeneinanderstehend konzipiert werden, sondern – wenn sie richtig "organisiert" werden - als einander zuarbeitend, als Voraussetzung, um reflektiertes und praxisrelevantes Expertenwissen aufzubauen. „Die Bedeutung des pädagogischen Expertenwissens [ist] unbestreitbar. Unterrichtserfahrungen alleine scheinen für den Erwerb dieses Wissens und Könnens aber nicht ausreichend zu sein, denn es gibt im Gegensatz zu anderen Expertisedomänen (z.B. Schach, Physik, Medizin) keinen signifikanten Zusammenhang zwischen der Dauer der Berufstätigkeit von Lehrern, dem Niveau ihres Expertenwissens und ihrem Unterrichtserfolg. ... es spricht trotzdem schon jetzt vieles dafür, dass quasi-experimentelle Einstellung zur eigenen Unterrichtspraxis, verbunden mit kooperativen Formen der Lehrerweiterbildung ..., von großer Bedeutung für den Erwerb professionellen Wissens und Könnens sind ... " (Weinert/Helmke 1996, 232).

Das TNTEE-Green Paper empfiehlt den europäischen Ländern den Aufbau von kohärenten Strukturen für Lehrerbildungsforschung, die auch ein nationales knowledge resource center für Lehrerbildung auf tertiärem Niveau umfassen, das ein umfassenderes und koordiniertes Forschungsprogramm für alle Phasen der Lehrerbildung entwickelt (vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 51f).

2.3.7. Praxisorientierung und schulpraktische Anteile

Die Bedeutung, die den schulpraktischen Ausbildungsanteilen im Rahmen einer tertiären Lehrerausbildung gegeben wird, scheint in allen Ländern im Steigen zu sein. Dies trifft ebenso (und in moderater Weise) für die Niederlande zu (vgl. Letschert 2001, 6) wie für England, wo die konservative Regierung eine Zeitlang sogar einen teilweisen Ersatz tertiärer Lehrerausbildung durch schulbasierte Lehrerbildung anstrebte (vgl. Biott et al. 2001).

Auch für Oelkers (1996, 44ff) sind 'klinische Erfahrungen' anhand des 'Ernstfalls' ein zentrales Element einer Lehrergrundausbildung und auch ein Mittel gegen "die Beliebigkeit wenigstens der erziehungswissenschaftlichen Angebote". Er schlägt vor, "das Studium mit dem Ernstfall beginnen zu lassen und die Themen aus der Erfahrung von Gelingen und Scheitern zu entwickeln" (a.a.O., 46). Der 'Ernstfall' wäre dann nicht, das was 'am Schluss warte', sondern würde zum "Lernobjekt", "wäre so früh wie möglich zu suchen mit begrenzter Aufsicht und hoher Verantwortlichkeit" (a.a.O., 51). Organisatorisch wünscht er sich die Anbindung der Studien an *Universitätsschulen*, die einem Klinikum vergleichbar wären; eventuell ein praktisches Jahr vor dem Studium, "in dem Lehrer die Novizen anleiten und ihnen Ernstfallsituationen übertragen. Sie können ein Problemverständnis entwickeln, das die Fragestellungen der Erziehungswissenschaft testen und zugleich nutzen kann" (a.a.O., 50).

Auch das TNTEE-Green Paper erachtet "aktive wechselseitige Partnerschaften zwischen Institutionen der Lehrerbildung und Schulen [als] ein Schlüsselproblem für alle Formen der Lehrerbildung" (Buchberger et al. 1999, 43). Solche Partnerschaften eröffnen den Lehrerbildungsinstitutionen ein Potential für ihre schulpraktischen Anteile, für Bildungsforschung und für Schulentwicklungsaktivitäten. Schulpraktische Anteile dürfen aber nicht bloß der sonstigen Lehrerbildung hinzugeführt werden, sondern müssen sich auf ein Netzwerk von Modellschulen mit hochqualifizierten und speziell für ihre Lehrerbildungsaufgabe ausgebildeten Mentoren stützen. Aktive wechselseitige

Partnerschaften zwischen Institutionen der Lehrerbildung und Schulen sind ein Schlüsselproblem für alle Formen der Lehrerbildung" (Buchberger et al. 1999, 43). Solche Partnerschaften eröffnen den Lehrerbildungsinstitutionen ein Potential für ihre schulpraktischen Anteile, für Bildungsforschung und für Schulentwicklungsaktivitäten. Schulpraktische Anteile dürfen aber nicht bloß der sonstigen Lehrerbildung hinzu addiert werden, sondern dürfen sich auf ein Netzwerk von Modellschulen mit hochqualifizierten und speziell für ihre Lehrerbildungsaufgabe ausgebildeten Mentoren stützen (vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 44).

Ein Kernstück vieler US-amerikanischer Konzepte zur Lehrerbildungsreform waren *school-university-partnerships* mit besonderen *professional development schools (PDS)*, die als Weg zur Lösung des Theorie-Praxis-Problems angesehen wurden. Diese Schulen sollten Orte sein, an denen die professionelle Entwicklung der LehrerInnen gefördert wird, die aber auch einen wichtigen Beitrag zur Ausbildung der Lehramtskandidaten leisten. Sie sollten Orte der Forschung sein, an denen Universitätslehrende mit der Schulpraxis in Kontakt kommen und die LehrerInnen vor Ort mit der Forschung und deren Resultaten vertraut gemacht werden (vgl. Criblez 1998, 44). Tatsächlich wird eine steigende Zahl solcher PDS eingerichtet. Erste Evaluationen zeigen aber, dass sich "die PDS aufgrund der institutionellen und organisatorischen Rahmenbedingungen sehr unterschiedlich entwickelt haben, dass die Übernahme von Lehrerbildungsaufgaben durch die Schule keine signifikante Veränderung der Schule in Sinne der Schulreform erzeugt, und dass der Support für die PDS innerhalb der Universitäten und der Schuldistrikte zu gering ist" (a.a.O., 48).

In Portugal ist wie in vielen anderen Ländern die schulpraktische Ausbildung in Diskussion, und es herrscht Übereinstimmung, dass hier große Verbesserungen notwendig sind. Die Probleme ergeben sich aus dem Mangel an qualifizierten Mentoren, aus der Vernachlässigung der Praxis durch tertiäre Institutionen, aus den mangelhaften Verbindungen zwischen Schulen und der Universität (Campos 2001, 10). In vielen Ländern, auch in jenen, in denen – wie z.B. in Finnland spezifische an die Universitäten angegliederte Universitätsschulen existieren – scheint ein Problem darin zu bestehen, genügend geeignete Praxisorte und qualifizierte PraxisbetreuerInnen zu finden: Ebenso wird in vielen Berichten über 'schwierige Abstimmung' bis 'mangelhafte Kooperation' oder "Kohäsion" zwischen Universitätsausbildung und schulpraktischen Erfahrungen (vgl. Letschert 2001, 6).

Keuffer/Oelkers (2001, 56) nennen einige *Probleme der derzeitigen Gestaltung von Praktika*, die so gravierend sind, dass sie es überraschend finden, dass Praktika nicht stärker in Diskussion stehen:

1. "Die universitären Praktika sind nicht untereinander verbunden und ermöglichen auch keine kontinuierliche Erfahrung.
2. Die Praktika werden zwar zumeist mit einzelnen Lehrveranstaltungen verbunden, aber nicht systematisch in das Studium eingebunden.
3. Die Praktika beeinflussen nicht oder nur zufällig die Entscheide für die Berufseignung.
4. Die Prüfungen beziehen sich nicht auf die Praktika.
5. Universitäre Praktika und schulpraktische Ausbildung in der zweiten Phase haben keinen Bezug aufeinander.
6. Beide sind nicht oder nicht genügend gebunden an Ausbildungsstandards."

2.3.8. Neue Ausbildungskonzepte

Pädagogische Neuerungen spielen eine relativ untergeordnete Rolle in den Länderberichten, vielleicht weil sie sich auf strukturelle Fragen konzentrieren, vielleicht auch weil

gegenwärtige Lehrerbildungsinnovationen oft eine Variation schon bekannter Themen darstellen (vgl. dazu auch Abschnitt 2.5). Neben der schon genannten *reflektierenden oder forschenden Lehrerbildung* (vgl. Dirks/Hansmann 1999; Altrichter/Lobenwein 1999) sowie einer *standardorientierten* Lehrerbildung im Sinne der Vorschläge Osers (vgl. Abschnitt 2.2) ist hier der verstärkte Einsatz *selbstgesteuerter Lernformen (independent study)* zu nennen, der im finnischen und niederländischen Kontext zu beobachten ist (vgl. Letschert 2001, 7). Derartige Lernformen in der Lehrerbildung reflektieren einerseits den Aufstieg der verschiedenen Variationen offenen Lernens in den Schulen, sie werden begleitet von konstruktivistischen Argumentationen und sollen Voraussetzungen für das bildungspolitische Postulat nach lebenslangem Lernen schaffen. Selbständigere Formen des Studiums erfordern allerdings auch neue Überlegungen in Hinblick auf Studienbegleitung und Lernberatung (Beck et al. 2001, 27).

Formen selbständigeren Studiums werden oft begleitet von einer *Modularisierung der Ausbildung* (die überschaubare - in den deutschsprachigen Ländern meist umfangreichere - Lerneinheiten schafft, die mit bestimmten Kompetenzzielen assoziiert sind) und einer Berechnung von Lehr/Lern-Einheiten nach der angenommenen *Arbeitszeit der Studierenden* und nicht nach der Präsenzzeit der Lehrenden. Diese Entwicklung wird durch die Berechnung des Gewichtes von Kursen in ECTS-Punkten unterstützt und spiegelt einerseits ein wachsendes Bewusstsein über die Bedeutung der Eigenaktivität der Lernenden, ermöglicht aber auch andererseits eine Ökonomisierung des Mitteleinsatzes (weniger Präsenzzeit der teuren Lernenden bei nominal gleicher Zahl der Lehrveranstaltungen).

Vor allem in Deutschland hat die Idee eines *Kerncurriculums* einen hohen Stellenwert, auch in den schon genannten Berichten der Enquetekommissionen. Darunter versteht man einen im Lehrbildungscurriculum explizit ausgewiesenen "verbindlichen Kern an wissenschaftlichen Fragestellungen und Grundkenntnissen ..., der es Studierenden und Lehrenden erlaubt, zwischen dem für die Vorbereitung auf die künftige Tätigkeit von Lehrkräften *unentbehrlichen* Wissen und *speziellerem* Wissen zu unterscheiden ... Die Funktion eines solchen Kernwissens besteht darin, eine verlässliche Grundlage an Kenntnissen zu schaffen, die als gemeinsame Basis sowohl für die individuellen Schwerpunktsetzungen im übrigen Studium als auch für die an das universitäre Studium anschließenden Phasen der Lehrerbildung dienen kann" (Keuffer/Oelkers 2001, 48). Seine ProtagonistInnen erwarten von Kerncurriculum folgenden Funktionen (nach a.a.O., 46):

- Es soll die Beliebigkeit der Themen im Studium einschränken;
- Das Angebot spezifizieren und auf die Zwecke der Lehrerbildung ausrichten: Dabei soll es "verbindliche Standards festschreiben, die mit der Entwicklung eines individuellen Profils der künftigen Lehrkräfte verträglich sein sollten" (Keuffer/Oelkers 2001, 49);
- Verbindlichkeiten für Lehrende und Lernende formulieren;
- Anschlüsse und Abstimmungen erlauben und
- als Steuerungsinstrument für die Entwicklung der Ausbildung " dienen.

Keuffer/Oelkers (2001, 49) sehen die mit dem Kerncurriculum verbundene "Paradoxie, Studium zugleich als forschendes Lernen *und* als verpflichtende Inhaltlichkeit begreifen zu müssen." Sie halten sie für nie ganz auflösbar, wollen sie jedoch durch selbstständige Arbeit der Studierenden an den verpflichtenden Inhalten, z.B. durch Fallstudien und Fallanalysen, mildern.

2.4. Internationale Tendenzen in der Reform der Lehrerfortbildung (Continuing professional development)

Im Bereich der *Fortbildung von Lehrpersonen* und anderen im Schulwesen pädagogisch-professionell tätigen Personen sind nach Auswertung der diesbezüglichen Aussagen unserer internationalen Expertengutachten, der OECD-Studie "Staying ahead" (1998) sowie des TNTEE-Green Papers folgende Tendenzen erkennbar:

2.4.1. Ziele von Fortbildung

Von allen denkbaren Zielen von Fortbildung, wie z.B.

- Auffrischen des Fachwissens individueller LehrerInnen
- Auffrischen individueller Kompetenzen
- Persönliche Weiterentwicklung von LehrerInnen
- Karriereförderung für LehrerInnen
- Implementierung zentraler Reformen
- Schulen bei ihrer Entwicklung unterstützen
- Austausch von Information und Expertise zwischen Lehrern und mit anderen
- Unterstützung schwächerer LehrerInnen

haben in den letzten Jahren *gesamtsstaatliche und einzelschulische Reforminteressen* gegenüber den Interessen einzelner LehrerInnen stärkeres Gewicht gewonnen. Dies geht einher mit der Tendenz, Fortbildung eher als *Verpflichtung* denn als Gelegenheit, eher in Hinblick auf *aktuelle Leistungen* von LehrerInnen denn auf deren zukünftige Perspektiven zu sehen (OECD 1998, 33f). Die Verbindung von staatlicher Reform und Fortbildung war nicht immer vorhanden, hat sich jedoch neuerdings stark gefestigt (a.a.O., 11f).

2.4.2. Anbieter und Angebotsmodelle

LehrerInnen können auf unterschiedliche Weise lernen; das geht vom Selbststudium über die Zusammenarbeit mit Kollegen und einzelne Abendkurse bis zu weiterführenden Universitätskursen. International sind folgende Typen von Anbietern, überall in größerer Diversität als in Österreich, zu beobachten:

- *zentrale, regionale und lokale Bildungsverwaltung bzw. von ihr abhängige Einrichtungen* (z.B. Pädagogische Institute, deutsche Landsinstitute, englische Lehrerzentren der LEAs)
- *verwaltungsunabhängige öffentliche Institutionen, v.a. Universitäten und andere Bildungseinrichtungen*
- *private Firmen und Personen*
- *Organisationen, wie Fachgesellschaften und Lehrergewerkschaften* (vgl. z.B. Campos 2001)
- *Schulen*
- *Netzwerke von Schulen* (South Dakota Study Group)

Hauptanbieter von Fortbildung waren traditionellerweise einerseits Einrichtungen der Bildungsverwaltung (z.B. in England LEAs und deren Lehrerzentren) bzw. andererseits überall auch tertiäre Institutionen. In der Regel bieten alle Institutionen, die in der Lehrergrundausbildung engagiert sind, auch Fortbildung an (vgl. Campos 2001; Niemi 2001). Die Tendenz geht in vielen Ländern – v.a. in Kontext von Dezentralisierungs- und Deregulierungsmaßnahmen - in die Richtung, die *Zahl und Diversität der Anbieter* zu steigern und *Wettbewerb* zwischen ihnen zu stimulieren (vgl. das besonders weitgehende ungarische Beispiel bei Setenyi 2000, aber auch Biott et al. 2001). Dies führt zu einer stärkeren, wenn

auch bisher selten überwältigenden Beteiligung von *privaten Anbietern* und zu neu gestalteten Beziehungen der Anbieter mit Schulen und (regionalen) Bildungsbehörden, die – an Stelle der traditionellen Modi der 'anbietergetriebenen' Ausschreibung von Kursen (die dann von EinzellehrerInnen konsumiert werden können oder eben auch nicht) und der von der Bildungsverwaltung bestellten Programme – vielfältigere Instrumente der Generierung von Angeboten umfassen (vgl. Biott et al. 2001), wie z.B. 'tenders' zur Ausarbeitung von Fortbildungsprogrammen und Entwicklungsprojekten durch die Bildungsverwaltung; Leistungsvereinbarungen zwischen Bildungsverwaltung und Anbieterinstitutionen; Fortbildungsmittel direkt oder als voucher an Bildungsverwaltung, Schulen und/oder Lehrerinnen, die damit ihre verschiedenen Fortbildungsbedürfnisse bei unterschiedlichen Anbietern befriedigen können.

Auch die Bedeutung von Schulen als "Fortbildungsanbieter" nimmt zu: Einesteils treten *Schulen* bei SchILF und bei Schulplanungs- und Entwicklungsaktivitäten als "Fortbildungsanbieter"; andererseits treten manche Schulen, die sich durch interne Entwicklungsarbeit entsprechendes know how verschafft haben, als Anbieter von Kursen und Lehrgängen auf, die mit Besuchen der Schule, Hospitationen und Praktika verbunden sein können. Obwohl dieses Phänomen verstärkt in deregulierten Systemen zu beobachten ist, in denen Schulen auf der Suche nach zusätzlichen Einkünften sind, gibt es dafür auch in Österreich interessante Beispiele (vgl. die "Rufmodule" des Schulverbundes Graz-West; Messner 2001, 41).

2.4.3. Rechenschaftslegung und Qualitätsevaluation

Auch in der Fortbildung gewinnen die Themen der Rechenschaftslegung und Qualitätsevaluation in einer Reihe von Ländern eine verstärkte Bedeutung (vgl. z.B. Biott et al. 2001; Niemi 2001). Mit der Diversifizierung der Anbieter tritt die Frage der *Legitimierung von Angeboten*, (wer sagt, was denn ein legitimes Lehrerfortbildungsangebot ist?) in den Blick, die in Systemen, die von der Verwaltung kontrolliert waren, sich nur in Einzelfällen stellte (Sind Surfurse für LehrerInnen als berufsbezogene Fortbildung anzusehen?). Interessanterweise wurde das auch in Systemen, bei deren Reform die Markt-Argumente eine große Rolle spielten, nicht allein Marktkräften überlassen (vgl. Kogan 1986 für die prinzipiell möglichen Strategien). Dazu gibt es international zwei Strategien,

- einesteils die *Akkreditierung von Anbietern und Angeboten*, wie es das ungarische Modell besonders radikal vorführt (siehe dazu die Kurzfassung von Setenyi 2002 in Anhang 2),
- andererseits die *Festlegung von Standards der Berufsqualifikation*.

Die letztere – "outputorientierte" - Strategie, die v.a. in angloamerikanische Ländern verfolgt wurde, enthält folgende Elemente (am Beispiel von England; vgl. OECD 1998; Biott et al. 2001): Die Teacher Training Agency in England und Wales hat beispielsweise ein Konzept professioneller Standards entwickelt, die unterschiedliche Qualifikationsniveaus unterscheidet: Sowohl für Berufsanfänger (newly qualified teachers; NQT), für den qualifizierten "Normallehrer" (qualified teacher status; QTS) als auch für verschiedene Karrierewege nach Erreichen des QTS (z.B. special educational needs - coordinators, special educational needs specialist teachers, Fachbereichsleiter, Lehrer für fortgeschrittene Fähigkeiten, SchulleiterInnen) wurden Qualifikationsstandards⁵ formuliert. Diese werden dazu benutzt, die Leistungen von LehrerInnen zu prüfen, aber auch ihre Bedürfnisse

⁵ Die Standards für Advanced Skills Teachers finden sich unter http://www.dfes.gov.uk/ast/brochure/sup_02.shtml. Jene für headteachers unter <http://www.ncslonline.gov.uk/programmes/npqh/210.asp>. Alle anderen Standards finden sich auf der website der Teacher Training Agency <http://www.canteach.gov.uk/info/standards/index.htm>.

festzustellen. Es wird erwartet, dass die Anbieter von Lehrerbildung sich von diesen Standards leiten lassen, wenn sie Fortbildung planen.

Durch die unterschiedlichen Qualifikationsniveaus wird einerseits eine "Standardisierung" der angebotenen Leistungen angestrebt, andererseits Karrieremöglichkeiten für LehrerInnen eröffnet, die Einsatz und Qualifikation herausfordern und belohnen sollen. So erfordert der zertifizierte Lehrerstatus in manchen Staaten der US vom LehrerInnen 2000 US\$ Prüfungsgebühr, wird aber durch teilweisen Kostenersatz, Gehaltsbonus und -verbesserung, Erweiterung der Rollen und andere professionelle oder finanzielle Incentives gefördert (OECD 1998, 42).

Außerdem erwarten sich manche ProponentInnen dieses Systems mehr Kohärenz der Fortbildung und der schulischen Leistungen, mehr Anerkennung für LehrerInnen sowie eine Reduktion der Diskrepanz zwischen Schul- und Karriereentwicklung (vgl. a.a.O., 43).

Die verschiedenen Instrumente der Rechenschaftslegung und Qualitätsevaluation zielen nicht nur auf eine formale Erhöhung der Qualität, sondern bieten auch die Möglichkeit *inhaltliche Prioritätensetzungen* in einer effektiven Weise zu kommunizieren (vgl. z.B. die Fokussierung auf nationale Prioritäten und die Hebung der Bedeutung von Schulentwicklung in England vgl. Biott et al. 2001).

2.4.4. Kohärenz und Abstimmung

Ein Problem in einer Reihe von Ländern scheint die *mangelnde Abstimmung innerhalb des Fortbildungssektors* sowie jene *zwischen Ausbildung und Fortbildung* zu sein. Ein indirekter Ansatz, hier größere Kohärenz zu erzwingen, ist die in England praktizierte Verpflichtung für Schulen, durch *performance management schemes* für jede/n LehrerIn eine stärkere, nachvollziehbare und auch evaluierte Verbindung von Fortbildung und Entlohnungs- und Karrierefortschritt herzustellen (vgl. Biott et al. 2001). Davon erwartet man sich auch längerfristig eine größere Responsivität von Anbietern gegenüber jenen schulischen Bedürfnissen, die in den innerschulischen Fortbildungsplänen festgelegt werden. Ein prinzipiell anderer Weg ist die aus Finnland berichtete Förderung von neben- oder hauptberuflichen weiterbildenden Universitätsstudien von LehrerInnen, die auch wissenschaftliche Arbeiten zu Fragen der entsendenden Schulen umfassen und einen aktivierenden Einfluss auf die Schulkultur haben sollen (vgl. Niemi 2001).

Auch in Deutschland wurde die mangelnde Abstimmung zwischen Grundausbildung, Referendariat und Fortbildung vielfach kritisiert. Oelkers (1996, 43) sieht sie als rivalisierende Phasen, die institutionell getrennt sind und mit mehrfacher Personalausstattung "unkontrolliert viel Zeit in Anspruch [nehmen] und ... noch nie auf ihre Effektivität hin überprüft worden" sind. Nicht zuletzt durch berufsbiographische Forschungen (vgl. z.B. Terhart et al. 1994) ist die große Bedeutung beruflichen Lernens von LehrerInnen und die real mangelnde Koordination und Abstimmung der verschiedenen Phasen der Lehrerbildung wieder bewusst geworden (vgl. Beck et al. 2001, 14f). Eine "berufsbiographische Sicht" auf Lehrerbildung, die Entwicklung der beruflichen Kompetenz von LehrerInnen als ein längerfristiges Unternehmen und die Grundausbildung, Fortbildung und selbstgesteuertes Lernen im Beruf als komplementär ansieht, könnte mehrere Konsequenzen haben:

- Erstens könnte die Grundausbildung von Stoffüberfüllung entlastet werden, wenn das Bewusstsein sich verbreitet, dass in der Grundausbildung eben nicht alles gelernt werden kann, aber für zentrale Handlungskompetenzen und Wissens Elemente genug Zeit und vielfältige Übungsmöglichkeiten vorhanden sein müssen.
- Zweitens müsste eine "massive Verlagerung [von Aufmerksamkeit und Ressourcen; HA] von der Grundausbildung auf die Fort- und Weiterbildung" (Oelkers 1996, 49) erfolgen.

- Drittens müsste die Organisation und rechtliche Fassung der Lehrerarbeit mehr als bisher Weiterbildung als ein notwendiges Element umfassen, indem beispielsweise Zeit für Weiterbildung und weiterführende Studien zur Verfügung gestellt wird, reflektierte Entwicklungsarbeit von LehrerInnen und das Engagement in Weiterbildung, das zu Weiterentwicklungen des Unterrichts und der Schule führt, auch entsprechend honoriert wird. Ein "rotierendes System" von Abordnungen, Freistellungen und Forschungsjahren für Forschung und Weiterbildung könnte neue Herausforderungen für LehrerInnen, weiteren Qualifikationserwerb und soziale "Auffrischungen" zugleich bieten (vgl. auch Oelkers 1996).
- Viertens gewinnt in einer Reihe von Ländern ein spezifischer Fortbildungsbereich, der in vielen Ländern aufgrund der genannten Abstimmungsprobleme ein "blinder Fleck der Lehrerbildung" (Buchberger et al. 1999, 45) war, an Aufmerksamkeit und Bedeutung - nämlich die *Berufseinführung (induction)*; vgl. Beck et al. 2001b), die durch Fortbildung, Beratung und organisatorische Strukturen unterstützte Phase des Berufsbeginns. Aus der Forschung ist sie schon seit langem als neuralgischer Punkt der Lehrersozialisation bekannt (vgl. Lortie 1975). In England wurden 1997/98 durch Standards für "newly qualified teachers" Anforderungen an Ausbildungsinstitutionen und Schulen formuliert (vgl. Biott et al. 2001). Die 'Referendarzeiten' (Unterrichtspraktikum) haben ihren Schwerpunkt in universitäts- und schulexternen Seminaren, die allerdings den Anforderungen dieser offenbar besonders sensiblen Phase der Berufssozialisation nicht mehr gerecht zu werden scheinen, weshalb Reformvorschläge formuliert werden (vgl. Terhart 2000; Keuffer/ Oelkers 2001, 65ff). So empfiehlt die KMK-Kommission durch selbstorganisierte Arbeitskreise, spezifische Fortbildungsverpflichtungen und innerschulische Angebote zur Kompetenzentwicklung von BerufsanfängerInnen beizutragen (vgl. Terhart 2000, 127). Wenn auch für die künftige Gestaltung einer sinnvollen Berufseinführung v.a. an den Schulstandorten neue Konzepte und Qualifikationen notwendig sein werden, können dafür jedoch aus dem Fortbildungsbereich wichtige Impulse und Anregungen kommen.

2.4.5. Ressourcen

Die Ressourcen, die in verschiedenen Ländern für Fortbildung zur Verfügung stehen, unterscheiden sich stark (was z.T. mit Berechnungsweisen und Fortbildungstraditionen zusammenzuhängen scheint; z.B. fallen Supplierkosten an?). Nur drei Industrieländer (Norwegen, Portugal, Schweden) geben mehr als 1% des Bildungsbudgets für Fortbildung aus (OECD 1998, 45)⁶. Private Finanzierung von Fortbildung (sieht man einmal von Zeit und Geld, die Lehrer dafür verwenden, ab) ist seltener, aber es gibt in einigen Ländern Stiftungen, private Schulträger und Sponsoren in diesem Feld.

Fortbildung wird in einer modernen Wirtschaft als strategischer Faktor angesehen. Dies gilt für Bildungssysteme, die einerseits besonders personalintensiv intensiv sind, andererseits stark durch Personen wirken, in besonderem Maße. Dennoch wurde, wie Walo Hutmacher (1998, 84) sagte, "im Vergleich mit der gängigen Praxis privater Organisationen ... in Bildungssystemen die Heranbildung des professionellen Nachwuchses für Kaderpositionen generell vernachlässigt", was für Institutionen, die sich sonst mit der Ausbildung des "Humankapitals" beschäftigen, einigermmaßen paradox erscheint.

Es herrscht Übereinstimmung, dass der Fortbildungsbedarf gesamtgesellschaftlich steigt (und zwar stärker als der Erstausbildungsbedarf) und es gibt keinen Grund anzunehmen, dass dies in Bildungssystemen anders ist. Im Gegenteil scheint auch durch die Welle der

⁶ Israels Ausgaben, die in der genannten Aufstellung nicht berücksichtigt wurden, scheinen besonders hoch zu sein, sind Lehrer dort doch alle 7 Jahre zu einem Sabbatical mit 2/3 ihres Gehalts berechtigt (OECD 1998, 45).

Systemreformen der Lenkungsbedarf von Seiten des Systems, der z.T. über Fortbildung wahrgenommen wird, zu steigen. Durch die gleichzeitige Politik der Einschränkung der Staatsausgaben, die in vielen europäischen Ländern zu beobachten ist, stehen dafür aber keine vermehrten Mittel zu Verfügung, was eine Erklärung für die Umorientierung von Fortbildung von der Befriedigung individueller zu jener schulischer und staatlicher Bedürfnisse zu sein scheint.

Auch die Art der *Verteilung von Fortbildungsressourcen* unterscheidet sich in verschiedenen Ländern. In manchen Ländern (wie in Österreich) fließen sie direkt in die zentralen Institutionen, die Fortbildung anbieten. In anderen müssen sich potentielle Anbieter mit Projektvorschlägen bei Fonds bewerben, in wieder anderen wird Geld für Fortbildung direkt an Schulen gegeben⁷, die sich die von ihnen speziell gewünschten Leistungen direkt von verschiedenen Anbietern einkaufen oder maßschneidern lassen können, wodurch ein käufergesteuerter Markt entstehen soll.

In Übereinstimmung mit den – zunächst als widersprüchlich erscheinenden - Tendenzen des vermehrten Staatseinflusses und der Betonung von Diversität und Wettbewerb (vgl. dazu Biott et al. 2001) sind die letzteren Strategien zunehmend häufiger zu beobachten. Die Erfahrung zeigt, dass die direkte Angebotsfinanzierung den einzelnen LehrerInnen und professionellen Anbietern mehr Freiheiten gibt, während das Modell "Geld an die Schulen" eine erhöhte Einflussmöglichkeiten von Regierung⁸ und SchulleiterInnen bringt (OECD 1998, 47).

2.4.6. Ausmaß und zeitliche Situierung von Fortbildung

Auch das Ausmaß und die zeitliche Situierung von Fortbildung sind sehr unterschiedlich, z.B.:

- *Schweiz*: Einige Kantone verlangen von LehrerInnen, dass sie 5 % der jährlichen Arbeitszeit für Fortbildung verwenden und dies auch dokumentieren. Im Kanton Zürich wird gegenwärtig diskutiert, für die 10.000 LehrerInnen eine Weiterbildungsverpflichtungen von 5 – 7,5% der Arbeitszeit zu verankern. Viele Kantone gewähren lange unterrichtenden Lehrern drei- bis sechsmonatige Sabbaticals (Im Kanton ZH haben Mittel- und BerufsschullehrerInnen nach 10- 12 Dienstjahren ein Recht auf 12 Wochen Bildungsurlaub, der auf 20 Wochen erweitert werden kann). In diesem System gibt es eine hohe Anzahl von SupplierungslehrerInnen.
- In *Schweden* gibt es seit langem fünf Studientage pro Jahr während der Schulzeit. Neuerdings wurden sie auf 104 Stunden/Jahr ausgedehnt.
- *Irische* LehrerInnen beteiligen sich traditionellerweise weithin (60 %) freiwillig an Sommerkursen. Dafür bekommen sie 3 extra Urlaubstage während der Schulzeit und sind verpflichtet, curriculumsbezogene Kurse während der Schulzeit zu besuchen.
- In *Japan* wird jeder Donnerstagnachmittag von Unterricht freigehalten, um für verschiedenste Fortbildungsaktivitäten genutzt zu werden.
- In *Finnland* gibt es keine spezifische Gesetzgebung für Fortbildung; Teilnahmeverpflichtungen sind allerdings aus verschiedenen Statuten und Kollektivverträgen ableitbar. Finnische LehrerInnen nehmen üblicherweise 3 Tage im

⁷ Dieses System wurde partiell von einigen österreichischen PI-Abteilungen simuliert, die Schulen "fiktive Konten" zuwies, die für die Finanzierung von der Schule selbst bestimmter SchILF verwendet werden konnten. Allerdings war es nicht möglich, diese Mittel für Angebote außerhalb der PIs zu nutzen.

⁸ Schulen werden durch Anforderungen und Initiativprogramme dazu gebracht, bestimmte Angebote 'selbst zu wählen'; z.B. durch die englische Verpflichtung zu performance management (vgl. Biott et al. 2001), aber auch durch die Verpflichtung "Fortbildungspläne" in Schulprogrammen festzulegen.

Jahr bei vollem Gehalt an Fortbildung teil. Ansteller haben das Recht, vollbeschäftigte LehrerInnen zur Weiterbildung zu verpflichten.

2.4.7. Organisations- und Gestaltungsprinzipien

Der OECD-Bericht (1998, 54ff) schließt mit folgenden Organisations- und Gestaltungsprinzipien für Lehrerfortbildung: Effiziente professionelle Lehrerfortbildung

- Identifiziert die Bedürfnisse unterschiedlicher stakeholders;
- Findet eine sinnvolle Balance von systemweiten Politikzielen und einem Gefühl der Eigentümerschaft über das eigene Lernen bei den LehrerInnen (Dieser Gesichtspunkt wird angesichts der Formierung der Fortbildung unter staatliche Entwicklungsziele als besonders wichtig erachtet: Da es beim Lehrberuf weithin nicht nur um die Beherrschung von Techniken geht, sondern auch um "emotionelle Arbeit", muss der Enthusiasmus der teilnehmenden Lehrer für ihre Arbeit und ihre Weiterentwicklung erhalten werden; vgl. a.a.O., 55);
- Braucht Partnerschaften zwischen LehrerInnen, Schulen und SystemvertreterInnen;
- Nutzt schulinterne Fortbildung, die sich aber nicht abschottet, sondern im Kontakt mit tertiären Institutionen und anderen Schulen steht;
- Findet ein ausgewogenes Verhältnis zwischen Lernen außerhalb der Schule, in der Unterrichtspraxis und in kollegialer Diskussion;
- Betreibt systematischere Evaluation und verbreitet gute Praxisbeispiele von Fortbildung (zwei Dinge, die bisher in wenigen Ländern geschehen sind);
- Ist erfahrungsorientiert und verwickelt LehrerInnen in konkreten Aufgaben;
- ist in Untersuchung, Reflexion und Experiment an für TeilnehmerInnen relevanten Fragen verwurzelt;
- Ist kooperativ und interaktional;
- Ist verbunden mit und abgeleitet von Lehreraarbeit;
- Ist intensiv und länger dauernd um spezifische Praxisprobleme herum organisiert;
- Ist verbunden mit anderen Aspekten des Wandels in Schulen;
- Baut auf Daten und Forschung auf;
- Verwirklicht Prinzipien des Erwachsenenlernens.

Der Bericht schließt mit der Feststellung, dass auch in eher deregulierten Systemen, die zentrale Verwaltung eine gewisse Verantwortung dafür behält, für ein ausreichendes Angebot externer Kurse mit anerkannter Qualität zu sorgen (vgl. OECD 1998, 58).

2.4.8. Nationale Aktionspläne für Fort- und Weiterbildung

Das TNTEE-Green Paper kommt zu folgender abschließenden Empfehlung hinsichtlich Fort- und Weiterbildung: Die Diversifikation der beruflichen Aufgaben der LehrerInnen steigt: Einesteils werden früher 'mit'-übernommene Funktionen in spezialisiertere Tätigkeiten (teilweise) ausgelagert (z.B. Beratungslehrer, Netzwerkmanager, Mentor in der Berufseinführung, Schulentwickler, Community worker usw.). Andererseits entstehen neue organisationsbezogene Verantwortlichkeiten (LehrerIn, LeiterIn einer Abteilung, SchulmanagerIn, QualitätsbeauftragteR) und neue Gegenstände (wie z.B. Gender Studies, Umweltbildung, Friedenserziehung, Informations- und Kommunikationstechnologie; vgl. Buchberger et al. 1999, 33). Dadurch wird Fortbildung, aber auch längerfristige Weiterbildung, die zertifizierte, auch weitere akademische Qualifikationen verleiht, immer bedeutsamer. Für diesen Fortbildungsbedarf müssen auch neue, dynamische Lösungen

angeboten werden, die z.B. auf einer Modularisierung der Programme und auf der Nutzung von Fernstudien und internetbasierten Lernformen aufbauen (a.a.O., 47f).

Dagegen wird in vielen Ländern kontinuierliche Fortbildung bis dato sowohl von Anstellern als auch von einer beträchtlichen Zahl der Berufstätigen nicht als integraler Teil der professionellen Verantwortlichkeit und der Arbeitszeit von LehrerInnen angesehen (a.a.O., 46). Das Green Paper fordert daher die Staaten der EU auf, kohärente nationale Aktionspläne für die Entwicklung von Fort- und Weiterbildung von LehrerInnen auszuarbeiten (a.a.O., 52).

2.5. Beteiligen statt Belehren – Hartmut von Hentigs Vision einer menschenbildenden Lehrerbildung

Die gegenwärtige Debatte über Lehrerbildung erscheint in mancher Hinsicht sehr nüchtern: Lehrerbildung wird weithin als Problem des Managements, der Steuerung und der Optimierung verstanden, durch die vorhandene pädagogische und strukturelle Versatzstücke in eine bessere Ordnung und zu erhöhter Wirksamkeit gebracht werden können. Gleichsam als emotiver Gegenpol, der verhindern soll, dass die gewiss notwendige nüchterne Bilanzierung zur Sterilität in Hinblick auf Zukunftsfragen verkommt, will ich mit einer Collage einiger Aussagen Hartmut von Hentigs zu Fragen der Lehrerbildung schließen. Sie scheinen mir geeignet daran zu erinnern, dass die Frage, welche und wie gebildete LehrerInnen wir für welche Art von Schule benötigen, auch heute noch in Diskussionen über die künftige Gestalt der Lehrerbildung gestellt werden muss.

Hentig will *Praxisnähe und reflexive Distanzierung* für die Lehrerbildung: "In der Ausbildung zu einem Beruf sollte es zugehen wie in der vermuteten Wirklichkeit unter vorgängiger und vorbildlicher Erfüllung seines Prinzips. Erfüllen kann man dieses besser und ausdauernder, wenn man es versteht. Also nicht nur Praxisnähe ist gefordert, sondern diese *und* Anlässe, frei und gründlich über sie nachzudenken. Die Ausbildung ist umso wirksamer, je realistischer *und* idealistischer sie zugleich ist" (Hentig 2000, 60).

Das Erlernen eines anspruchsvollen Berufs, wie eben jenes von LehrerInnen, erfordert die *Beteiligung* an dessen komplexer Praxis und deren *Reflexion*, erfordert *Tun und Forschen*. Dazu braucht es Schulen, die solche Beteiligung an und Reflexion einer in die Zukunft weisenden Praxis ermöglichen⁹; eine Bedingung, die Hentig in seinen Versuchsschulen angestrebt hat: "Hier sollten Lehrer durch Erfahrung *mit* und durch wissenschaftliche Bearbeitung *von* ausgewählten Schwierigkeiten ihres künftigen Lehrberufs auf diesen vorbereitet werden; dies sollte durch Wissenschaftler geschehen, die ihrerseits an der Laborschule und am Oberstufen-Kolleg unmittelbare Erfahrung mit heutigen Kindern und Jugendlichen mit heutigen Schulanforderungen und Schulsituationen machen. ... sie würden 'vorbereitet', nicht 'ausgebildet', ein Wort, das einen abgeschlossenen Vorgang, einen Zustand der Fertigkeit suggeriert, den man als Lehrer nicht ohne mehrere Jahre der Praxis erreicht, ja, dem man sich nur nähert, wenn man der Unvollkommenheit seiner eigenen Ausstattung bewußt ist" (Hentig 1996, 20).

Die Lehrerbildung sollte in solchen Schulen "als Forschung vor sich gehen" u.zw. mit drei Schwerpunkten: Entwicklung von Curricula, Beobachtung und Analyse des Lernvorgangs in der Schule sowie Nachdenken über die Anlässe, Verfahren und Kontrolle von Veränderungen in der Erziehung und Bildung (vgl. Hentig 1996, 20).

⁹ Vgl. Hentigs (1996, 34) Überzeugung, „dass die neuen Lehrer an den neuen Schulen entstehen.“

Eine solche Lehrerbildung, die praktisch bedeutsame Fragen erforscht, stellt er dem herrschenden "Philologismus" gegenüber, der nach seiner Beobachtung in Diplomarbeiten waltet; "aus Lehrerbildung ist eine Exzerprier- und Buchhaltungskost geworden" (Hentig 2000, 65). In Handreichungen für ReferendarInnen ist "alles unfraglich, imperativ, fix und fertig, alles großgeredet und kleingeregelt und dadurch alles tief entmutigend" (Hentig 2000, 67). "Eine Denkart, in der es um Vergewisserung durch Ordnung geht!" (Hentig 2000, 69)

Warum ist – trotz vieler Unzufriedenheitsäußerungen - *das Beharrende in der Lehrerbildung* so mächtig? Hentigs Erklärungen dafür sind:

- "Die Lehrerbildung ist für die vorhandene Schule und deren Verhältnisse da" (Hentig 2000, 64).
- "Die Erziehungswissenschaft ... befasst sich ... mit Götterkämpfen einerseits und mit Gehbeschwerden der Profession andererseits, sie stiftet nicht zu Reflexion und Selbstreflexion der Schulleute an, die mit den Widersprüchen und Demütigungen ihres Amtes nicht zurechtkommen" (a.a.O., 64).
- "So gut wie alle im öffentlichen Diskurs über die Schule und die Lehrerbildung eingenommenen Positionen und Gegenpositionen dienen der Wahrung von Ansprüchen von Personengruppen" (a.a.O., 64).
- "Die Lehrerbildung vollzieht sich administrativ, additiv, adhibitiv ... – sie bleibt unphilosophisch, unpolitisch, unpädagogisch" (a.a.O., 65).

Eine andere Lehrerbildung braucht aber auch eine *andere Erziehungswissenschaft*. Für Hentig ist die Erziehungswissenschaft keine Grundlagenwissenschaft, vielmehr ist sie darauf angewiesen, "dass sie der Praxis dient; dass sie eine *Ancilla*, eine Magd der Lehrerbildung, der Familienerziehung, der Sozialpädagogik, der Lehr- und Lernkunst ist ... " (Hentig 1996, 18). In seinen Bielefelder Schulprojekten sollte eine andere Erziehungswissenschaft "ihre eigenste Aufgabe besser (...) erfüllen, weil hier ihre Fragen, Hypothesen, Forschungen, Analysen von den Problemen der Praxis ausgehen, der sie - in der Form der Lehrerbildung und der Schultheorie - Klärung, Kritik, Kontextbewusstsein geben soll" (Hentig 1996, 20).

Heute wird wieder häufig der prinzipielle Unterschied zwischen Wissenschaft und Praxis betont; Hentig verwischt nicht, dass diese in unterschiedlichen Berufen betrieben werden, aber betont die wechselseitige Aufeinanderangewiesenheit ihrer Rollenträger: „Der Wissenschaftler wird seine Sache besser treffen, wenn er sie kennt. Ist die Sache ein längerer, wechselvoller, nicht vorherbestimmter Prozess, wo sie sich längere Zeit mit ihr befassen. Geht sie auch 'innerlich' vor sich, muss er sich an dem Prozess persönlich beteiligen. Nachdem er aus dem Prozess herausgetreten ist und wenn die Erfahrung aus dem nacherzählenden Imperfekt in das feststellende Perfekt übergegangen ist, fängt die Wissenschaft an: Die Überprüfung der Eingangsfragen, die Ordnung der Tatbestände, ihre Bezeichnung, Verknüpfung, Auslegung und so fort. ... die Verstrickung in die Realität ist wohl nie ein Vorteil für die Erkenntnis. Aber zu wissen, wie Verstrickung ist, macht den Erkennenden aufmerksamer, umsichtiger, selbstkritisch; dies bekommt der Erkenntnis, wo immer Menschen ihr Gegenstand sind ..." (Hentig 1996, 22).

Hentig betont weiter, dass die Lehrerbildung ihren *Anlass und ihr Ziel - Das Kind, das erwachsen werden will* – nicht aus den Augen verlieren dürfe. Heutige Lehrerbildung befasse sich "vornehmlich mit den *Schwierigkeiten* ... und nicht oder nur beiläufig mit dem ... *Auftrag* der Menschenbildung. Sie üben sich in den Mitteln ein, ohne den Anlass und das Ziel ihrer Anwendung deutlich wahrgenommen zu haben: Das Kind, das erwachsen werden will und das in der Schule vor allem zum Schüler gemacht wird; die Gesellschaft, die Bürger braucht und sich mit Konsumenten, Zuschauern, Steuerzahlern begnügt; die Idee vom Guten Leben, von dem man einen Zipfel erfasst haben muss, um für das einzutreten, und das meist in den

Schriften der Philosophen, in den Präambeln, in den Jubiläumsvorträgen stecken bleibt" (Hentig 2000, 61).

Der Lehrerberuf ist *Handwerk und Existenzform*, Lehrerbildung erfordert daher *Berufsbildung und Menschenbildung*. "Das Lehren ist ein Handwerk, das Lehrersein eine Existenzform. Das Handwerk ... gedeiht umso besser ... wenn die Existenzform 'Lehrersein' im doppelten Sinn wahrgenommen wird: Erkannt und erfüllt. ... Statt des Rufs nach mehr Praxisbezug hören Sie von mir den Ruf nach mehr Lebensbezug oder besser, weil 'Bezug' schon wieder etwas Systematisierbares meint, den Ruf nach mehr Leben – einem vollen, vielseitigen, gewagten, persönlichen und gemeinschaftlichen Leben während der Ausbildung" (Hentig 2000, 70).

Zu dieser Menschenbildung könne nicht allein formalisierte Ausbildung verhelfen, dazu brauche es auch *Lebenserfahrung an verschiedenen Erfahrungsorten*, wofür Hentig eine Reihe von Vorschlägen anbietet:

- LehrerInnen sollten andere Lebenserfahrungen gemacht haben (z.B. Ausübung eines anderen Berufes; Hentig 1996, 35).
- Erfahrungen vor der Lehrerausbildung machen durch ein "Allgemeines soziales Dienstjahr" (Hentig 2000, 71) oder Erziehtätigkeit. (Mit jungen Menschen leben und umgehen lernen, ein halbes bis ein Jahr mit Personen arbeiten, "die nur bedingt durch das Wort lenkbar sind", um zu lernen: "Führung durch Eingehen auf den anderen, durch Vormachen, durch Vorbild, durch Beteiligung"; Hentig 1996, 36)
- Auslandsaufenthalt von mindestens einem Jahr.
- Spezielle nicht fachliche Fähigkeiten erwerben und weitergeben können, wie Hentig (2000, 73) am Beispiel der Einstellungsmaxime in einer englischen Privatschule ausführt: "Jeder Lehrer muss bei der Einstellung in Bryanston eine Sache besser können als alle anderen an dieser Schule – und das darf nicht sein Fach sein."

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ENGLAND

Tendencies of teacher education policy and practice in England during the last decade

(a paper for the Commission of Planning and Evaluation of Teacher Education, Austria)

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1. Introduction

Teacher education in England has been transformed over the last decade, and far reaching change continues. In this introduction we outline, briefly, the political and ideological context for these changes. We then outline and discuss reform and developments in (i). initial teacher education, (ii) career entry and induction, (iii) continuing professional development. We conclude by discussing some of the issues and dilemmas that arise from the reform of teacher education in recent years.

The trend has been towards more diversity in the kinds of organisations providing teacher education, coupled with more standardised provision arising from increased regulation. This has its origins in the policies of the previous conservative government, and in the arguments of the ‘new right’. The trend has continued under the Labour government, which has been influenced by ‘the third way’ and is intent on ‘modernising’ the British economy and public services.

The education policies of the conservative governments of Margaret Thatcher and John Major were founded on the ‘new right’ argument that standards in schools had fallen as a result of a teaching profession dominated by left wing dogma. The ‘educational establishment’ (in particular Higher Education Institutions -HEIs - and the teacher unions) were seen as responsible for seducing teachers into ideologies and educational practices that denied traditional values and resulted in low attainment by pupils. In the name of raising standards, conservative governments in 1990s sought to undermine the influence of the ‘educational establishment’ and to regulate more closely Schools, Local Education Authorities (LEAs) and HEIs. Their strategy reflected tensions between neo-liberal and neo-conservative strands in the new right.

The neo-liberal emphasis on market forces, competition and choice led to a policy of increasing the routes into teaching and broadening the range of teacher education providers, in order to break the monopoly of Higher Education. As consumers in a teacher market, schools would appoint teachers whose training most fitted their needs. Schools, under a neo-liberal regime, would themselves operate in a market in which parents, armed with detailed information about each school’s performance, would select schools. In this way markets would ensure improvement in standards, because schools and teacher education providers that failed to provide what consumers required would go out of business whilst the best would expand. Whilst the neo-liberal strand of the new right was suspicious of central control because of its potential to distort the market, neo-conservatives argued for more regulation of teacher education so that traditional values could be restored. The Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (CATE) was established in 1984, and it was replaced by the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) a decade later. Both of these agencies, and particularly

the TTA, have overseen increasing regulation of teacher education, much of it emphasising traditional values espoused by neo-conservatives.

The tension in the new right, between neo-liberal emphasis on a free market in teacher education and neo-conservative demands for tighter regulation, failed to emerge as a political issue mainly because of the need to sustain teacher supply. It was recognised that it would take time for new providers to be established and it was necessary to retain a significant proportion of teacher education in HEIs in order to avoid, or at least alleviate, problems of teacher shortage. Both strands of the new right could, therefore, accept a need for regulation, at least until markets were sufficiently established. Both also supported efforts to involve schools more substantially as teacher education providers. In this way, conservative governments in the 1990s could be seen to be promoting choice and diversity, whilst also increasing regulation and central control.¹⁰

This trend has continued since the election of a Labour government in 1997 but the ideological basis of government policy has changed. ‘New Labour’s’ economic policy is focused on creating a high-tech, high wage economy that can compete in global markets. Investment in the workforce, through education and training, forms a key part of its economic strategy, and there is an emphasis on raising standards in schools and a return to ‘the basics’ which is reminiscent of the ‘new right’. Central direction, for schools and teacher education, provides one means through which government is seeking to ensure that schooling provides the labour market with the requisite knowledge and skills. At the same time local determination is stressed through the government’s promotion of social inclusion, stakeholder participation in the shaping of social policy and a citizenry that participates actively in a social democracy. It suggests that teachers, teacher associations, schools, LEAs, Higher Education and employers should participate in debate, and have some influence on teacher education. Nevertheless, government, it might be argued, has a responsibility to promote the values and a framework within which local determination will develop. (The recent requirement that ‘Citizenship’ should be taught in schools could be seen as one way in which government, through central control, is trying to meet this responsibility.) The Labour government, like its predecessor, can be seen as standardising teacher education through increasing regulation whilst at the same time encouraging greater diversity and the active participation of stakeholders.¹¹

2. Phases of Teacher Education: initial training, induction and continuing professional development

In the sections which follow we trace the implications of the tension between diversity and standardisation as it has emerged in the different phases of teacher education over the last ten years or so, and then we discuss some of the issues and dilemmas currently facing teacher education in England.

¹⁰ For a concise but useful exploration of the impact of the new right on teacher education in England see: Whitty, G. 1993, *Education Reform and Teacher Education in England in the 1990s* in **Journal of Education for Teaching**, Vol. 19, Nos. 4 & 5 pp447-465

¹¹ For a useful discussion and critique of the economic, philosophical and social/political basis of Labour’s education policies see: Bottery, M. 1999, *Education Under the New Modernisers: an agenda for centralisation, illiberalism and inequality?* in **Cambridge Journal of Education** Vol. 29 No 1 pp103-120.

2.1. Initial Teacher Training

2.1.1. Changes in courses of Initial Teacher Education

Anyone wishing to work as a teacher in state or ‘maintained’ schools and ‘non-maintained’ special schools in England needs to have ‘Qualified Teacher Status (QTS)’. Qualified Teacher Status is achieved by successfully completing a course of Initial Teacher Training (ITT). In the last few years ITT courses have changed considerably. The main features of those changes are:

1. The forging of stronger partnerships with schools. The teaching profession itself is actively involved now at all levels in any ITT course- from planning the course and the selection of students for entry, to actual participation in the learning/teaching situation and the assessment of the students.
2. The detailed specification of a set of ‘standards’ that have to be met by the student before QTS can be awarded. These standards run into the hundreds and are listed under the headings of ‘Knowledge and Understanding’, ‘Planning, Teaching and Classroom Management’, ‘Monitoring, Assessment, Recording, Reporting and Accountability’ and ‘Other Professional Requirements’. They are supported by a national curriculum for ITT in English, Mathematics and Science. In addition, each student has to pass ‘skills tests’ in Literacy and Numeracy. Soon this will be extended to include an ICT ‘skills test’ as well. All courses must involve the assessment of all students to ensure that they meet all the standards specified.
3. The development of a diversity of routes into teaching. Until 1993 there were only two routes into teaching- the ‘undergraduate route’ and the ‘postgraduate route’. They were both full-time and provided by HEIs, such as Universities. Each led to an academic and professional award. In the last seven years a variety of routes have developed so that anyone wishing to train for teaching has far more choice than ever before. Whichever route into teaching someone chooses, (s)he will need to meet the same QTS standards. Consequently every route leads to the professional recognition conferred by QTS. Not all, however, lead to a professional or academic award. Essentially, the growing choice reflects an increasing national emphasis on more flexible (‘trainee responsive’) and quicker (‘needs analysis led’) routes into teaching with less concern for Higher Education awards, and a greater role for the school.

Taken together, these three features have changed the landscape of Initial Teacher Training in England. In many ways the first two features were important enabling factors for the third.

2.1.2. The Diversity of Routes into the Teaching Profession

One of the biggest changes in the provision of different ITT routes is that Initial Teacher Training is no longer the monopoly of Higher Education Institutions. It is now possible for groups of schools or individual schools to be accredited as providers of training that lead to QTS. Although currently 96% of ITT provision is in HEIs, it is anticipated that this figure will drop considerably and rapidly in the future. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, as we explained in the introduction, the policy of the government is to actively promote choice and diversity. While there are ideological foundations for this policy it is also a pragmatic reaction to the problems of teacher recruitment and supply developing in England. Nationally there are several recognised ‘shortage subjects’ in Secondary teaching – Mathematics, Science, Design Technology, Geography, Modern Foreign Languages and Music. In certain localities, mainly in London, there is also a shortage of primary teachers. Policymakers are responding by developing a more sophisticated approach based on the identification of various distinct

recruitment pools - such as career changers, mature entrants and teachers trained overseas - who would be served by a commitment to flexibility and diversity. Secondly, as both the funding of Higher Education and the wider employment context for potential students changes some routes are becoming more attractive than others to would-be teachers. The implication of all this is that HEIs, the traditional providers of ITT, face increasing competition from providers with different missions, different modes of delivery and different costing bases.

The choice of route starts with whether or not a potential student is already a graduate with a relevant degree. There are undergraduate and postgraduate routes and opportunities to study full-time or part-time with the training base in either a HEI or a school. In addition, several postgraduate routes are now available by distance learning or other forms of flexible study.

1. Undergraduate teacher training programmes combine degree studies with QTS. Usually these are located in Colleges and Universities and offer the degrees of B.Ed, BA, or BSc. These undergraduate courses last for three or four years full-time with few, if any, opportunities for part-time study. Most of these courses prepare students for primary teaching but there are also some undergraduate secondary programmes. In addition there is a 'Registered Teacher Programme' (RTP) available to prospective students without a degree. This is located in a school rather than a HEI, takes up to two years and the student completes a degree while (s)he trains. This option is only available to mature entrants who need to find a job in a school first. The school then needs to work with an HEI to provide a suitable degree course.
2. Postgraduate programmes enable existing graduates to gain QTS. It is here that most diversity can be found. Essentially there are four types of route
 - a) The Higher Education Institution-based route. Usually located in a University, this route is normally a one-year full-time course leading to the award of a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) and of QTS. Most prospective Secondary teachers and an increasing number of prospective Primary teachers are trained this way.
 - b) The flexible Higher Education Institution-based route. Known nationally as the 'Modular PGCE', this provision allows trainee teachers to follow a more individualised programme in order to gain Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) usually with the award of PGCE. These programmes have a number of start dates per year, and the traditional one-year training programme is replaced with a student dependent time frame. Following the initial assessment of training need, each student is given an individual training plan. The training plan is designed to enable the student to reach the standards required for QTS while taking into account his or her personal circumstances and preferred mode and timing of training. Thus, someone can study part-time, often using distance-learning materials and the Worldwide Web, over a time-scale that suits him or her. The programme finishes with a consolidated period of teaching that is assessed against the QTS standards. Suitably experienced candidates are able to take the final assessment period of teaching without further training thereby enabling a much quicker route into teaching.
 - c) The school-based route run by a group of schools. These schemes are known as School-Centred Initial Teacher Training Schemes (SCITTs). In this route the schools play the leading role in the training that their scheme provides. They take responsibility for designing, delivering and assessing a course that is based on the ITT

National Curriculum and prepares students to meet the standards for QTS. Often, but not always, a SCITT will link to a HEI for the validation of the award of PGCE.

- d) The school-based route run by one school as an ‘employment-based route’. This is known as the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) and leads to QTS. This route enables the trainee to work as a teacher employed in a school and to train at the same time. This option is only available to mature entrants.

At its simplest, the diversity of routes can be characterised as in this matrix:

	Full Time Provision	Part Time Provision
HEI located	*Undergraduate degrees routes with QTS (BEd, BA or BSc) *Postgraduate routes (PGCE)	*Flexible Postgraduate routes (‘Modular PGCE’)
School located	*SCITT Postgraduate routes (usually PGCE)	*Work-based routes (e.g. GTP and RTP) – often with QTS but not PGCE

2.1.3. ‘Fast Track’ for those with potential for excellence

In addition, the Government has introduced also a new scheme for individual students available in some routes offered by some providers. The programme is designed to develop and support those considered to have the ‘highest potential for excellence in teaching’ and is called ‘Fast Track’. The intention is to use this as a means of recruiting those who may become outstanding classroom teachers, heads of department or head-teachers. If accepted onto ‘fast track’ the student undertakes tailored developmental activities designed to help him or her to realise his or her potential quickly. After successfully completing his or her initial training, the newly qualified teacher works through a structured programme of challenging teaching posts designed to give him or her a diverse range of experience. Promotion is achieved more rapidly than is normal.

2.1.4. Trends in students’ choice of routes

There is, however, another factor working in the present context – the ways in which potential students are ‘voting with their feet’ by preferring to follow some routes rather than others. In the last five years, for example, there has been a drop in applications for undergraduate ITT courses from approximately 100 000 to 50 000. One reason for this may be the funding factors associated with various policy changes introduced by the present Government – the first being the introduction of student fees for undergraduates, the second being the introduction of training salaries for postgraduate routes into teaching (with an even bigger training salary for those who take a postgraduate employment based route). Financially, postgraduate routes are much more attractive to a potential student than the undergraduate

route. Another reason, however, is the growing trend for successful trainees to spend only a limited part of their working life in teaching rather than making it their whole career. Thus, a first degree focused on preparation for teaching is perceived as less attractive to potential employers outside of teaching than other subject-based degrees.

This 'big picture', portraying a drift away in student applications from undergraduate to post graduate courses, together with recent policy initiatives, raises issues about the long term future of undergraduate routes, and even of full-time ITT. In England, then, there is likely to be a national movement away from undergraduate and full-time ITT towards postgraduate and part-time ITT routes with less emphasis on the role of HEIs.

2.2. Career Entry and Induction

A probationary period had been mandatory for Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) in England and Wales until 1992 when it was withdrawn and replaced with non-statutory guidance. After a period of patchy, discretionary support for new teachers, the Conservative government signalled the re-introduction of compulsory induction based on individual profiles. The Teacher Training Agency then piloted Career Entry Profiles over two academic years 1995/6 and 1996/7. The intention was that they should become compulsory in 1997/8, but this was delayed for one year because of the introduction of a national curriculum for initial teacher education. In 1997, the House of Commons Select Committee on Education and Employment endorsed the use of Career Entry Profiles, and it concluded that a statutory induction period should be mandatory - not as a course but tailored to the needs of each NQT. The 1998 Teaching and Higher Education Act, which was introduced by the new Labour government, enabled the Secretary of State to make regulations that required satisfactory completion of a period of induction for continued employment as a teacher in state schools. Regulations were introduced early in 1999¹².

The transition from pre-service training to employment now illustrates the growing importance of a performance management system for the teaching profession. It is the responsibility of ITT providers to make sure that those who achieve QTS have a Career Entry Profile to take into employment. NQTs then undertake a statutory period of induction in their first post. This induction period provides the NQT with targeted support and it also involves formal assessment related to specified Induction Standards. The standards are grouped under headings of 'planning, teaching and class management', 'monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability' and other 'professional requirements', and they also require the continued and consistent meeting of QTS standards in an employment context. Induction Standards build on QTS Standards in two main respects. They require the NQT to work independently, in areas such as teaching children with special educational needs and carrying out statutory assessment requirements. They also focus on aspects of professional practice, which, it is assumed, can be better developed after the student has completed ITT. The latter include working with parents, managing adults in the classroom and implementing whole school policies.

The aim is for the assessment of NQTs to be set within a professional development programme, the core components of which are 'needs identification', 'objectives setting', 'action planning' and 'review'. Each NQT will be allocated an induction tutor, who is responsible for providing or co-ordinating effective support, and each NQT also has a reduced

¹² Details of the government's requirements for Induction can be found in Circular 5/99....

timetable of 90% of normal average teaching duties for their school in their first year of teaching. This time, amounting to an average of one half day per week, is intended for induction activities rather than for routine work on planning and marking. The intention is that NQTs will set targets at the beginning of the year in consultation with their Induction Tutors. They should use Career Entry Profiles, which list information about strengths, areas for development and prior experience. Both the NQT and the Induction Tutor will also need to be confident that there will be opportunities for the NQT to demonstrate the Induction Standards have been met. It is therefore expected that there will be early discussion about these standards in the context of the school and NQT's own classes. Other essential components of induction are regular observation of NQTs' teaching, regular follow-up discussions and professional review meetings.

The DfEE expects that NQT's will be observed, by an Induction Tutor or other colleague, at least once each half-term, including the first four weeks in post. Notes from the observations should be used to inform follow-up discussions with NQTs and the outcomes will feed into the cycle of half-termly professional review meetings. The latter should also draw upon evidence from other sources, identify development needs, review and revise objectives, consider progress against the Induction Standards and review the support programme as a whole. TTA guidelines are available for all processes and procedures including assessment.

In addition to the professional review meetings, three formal assessment meetings are to be held, towards the end of each term, between the NQT and either the induction tutor or the headteacher. The final assessment meeting should take place in the second half of the third term. The focus of each meeting is set out in the guidelines and assessment will be expected to have the following pattern. The first meeting will consider the extent to which the NQT is continuing to meet QTS Standards, with some broad discussion of areas covered by Induction Standards. The second covers progress being made towards meeting Induction Standards and the third summative assessment meeting will focus on whether, or not, the NQT has met the Induction Standards. The headteacher of the school is responsible for ensuring that the outcomes of assessment meetings are recorded on standard forms. After the third and final meeting the headteacher makes a recommendation about whether the NQT has met the Induction Standards.

The DfEE has indicated that it expects that nearly all NQTs will have a successful induction experience and meet the Standards. A small number, however, may not make sufficient progress and be deemed unsuited to employment as a teacher. Detailed guidelines are set out for cases where NQTs are at risk of failing to complete the induction period successfully. These relate to the early identification and reporting of problems and offering of additional support and advice. NQTs who do fail to complete a successful induction period will, however, be dismissed from their posts and removed from the register of the General Teaching Council. Extensions to the period of induction will rarely be granted, and only where factors outside the control of the NQT and school have made it impossible to reach a judgement.

To ensure consistency the DfEE has also specified arrangements for the quality assurance of induction. It has set out roles and responsibilities of NQTs, induction tutors, headteachers, governing bodies of schools and LEAs as they relate to quality assurance. The role of the LEA is usually as the 'Appropriate Body', which makes decisions about successful completion of induction, based on recommendations made by headteachers. To meet their wider responsibilities as 'Appropriate Bodies', LEAs will also be expected to introduce a quality assurance system to monitor the implementation of government regulations, maintain

the recording and reporting procedures and respond to requests for support. At the time of writing there are no statutory requirements for auditing the work of schools in relation to induction, but the guidelines do suggest that some schools might voluntarily undertake self audit and that LEAs should be in a position to identify schools that might need focused support.

2.3. Continuing Professional Development

As well as introducing new induction arrangements, the British government has been demanding that in-service teacher education and training (INSET) has more coherence, a greater emphasis on school improvement, and takes more account of national priorities and initiatives. In addition, new performance management procedures are being introduced in English schools linking teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) to pay and career progression. These policies are having a significant impact on the content, teaching and learning strategies, assessment and quality assurance of INSET courses. In this section we highlight the shifting location of HEIs' INSET within the range of CPD opportunities for teachers. We argue that HEIs will face increasing competition from a wider range of other providers, they will be more accountable to central government, and they will need to develop new relationships with schools and LEAs.

2.3.1. National standards for teachers as a framework for CPD

We have already referred to the QTS Standards and Induction Standards'. These form part of a national framework for teacher education, and further standards have been identified that reflect different pathways that a teacher's career might take after QTS and the induction year. Currently there are standards for 'Special Educational Needs Co-ordinators', 'Special Educational Needs Specialist Teachers', 'Subject Leaders', 'Advanced Skills Teachers' and Headteachers¹³. These national standards provide a framework within which the performance and professional needs of teachers can be assessed, and providers of teacher education are expected to be guided by them when planning INSET curricula. National standards provide one of the ways in which government is exerting greater influence on the scope and emphasis of in-service teacher education.

Also relevant to a framework for CPD are new procedures for performance management that are currently being introduced into English schools. All schools are required to have a performance management policy which involves annual review of each teacher against targets that have been set during the previous year, including targets related to the performance of pupils. It also involves plans to link the remuneration of individual teachers to the outcomes of performance review. There are at least two implications of this for CPD. First, evidence that a teacher has sustained their own CPD is required before s/he can pass through the 'pay threshold' (at the top of the 'normal' pay scales) to a higher salary point, and become eligible for subsequent salary increases that are dependant on performance. Secondly the performance review procedures are likely to result in the identification of professional development needs. The impact of the new performance management system on CPD is not yet clear, but it seems likely that the outcomes of performance management will have a significant impact on the content and form of INSET curricula in HEIs.

¹³ The Standards for Advanced Skills Teachers can be seen on the web at http://www.dfes.gov.uk/ast/brochure/sup_02.shtml. Those for headteachers are available at <http://www.ncslonline.gov.uk/programmes/npqh/210.asp>. All the other standards can be found on the Teacher Training Agency website, <http://www.canteach.gov.uk/info/standards/index.htm>.

2.3.2. *The roles of Schools and LEAs in CPD*

In 2000-01 the British government has allocated £290.5 million to the ‘School Improvement Grant’. Whilst the funding is provided from central government to LEAs, 90% of it must be delegated to schools. It is intended that ‘the majority of the funding should be used for professional development of teaching staff, classroom assistants and management teams.’ (DfEE, 2000 http://www.standards.dfee.gov.uk/lea/school_grant.html). Underlying this approach is the belief that schools are in the best position to determine the in-service provision that will meet their needs, and that will address specific targets in their own ‘School Development Plans’. Schools can use the funding to provide for teachers’ CPD ‘in house’ and also to ‘purchase’ in-service training and other support for professional development from a range of providers, in both the public and private sectors. This has the potential to widen the range of INSET providers and to place schools at the centre of decisions about CPD. Currently, however, many schools continue to ‘buy back’ into the in-service and advisory services that are provided by their LEAs. Recently, schools have used much of their funding to support the introduction of new initiatives from central government. For example, the new performance management system has required extensive training for teachers and headteachers. Similarly, the introduction of a ‘National Numeracy Strategy’ and, prior to that, the introduction of a ‘National Literacy Strategy’ created training imperatives that dominated INSET for primary teachers. It might be argued that, despite the intention that schools should determine their own priorities, the number of government initiatives, and the pace of their implementation, leaves little scope for schools to decide the foci of their CPD activities. Partly as a result of this, much current INSET is provided by LEAs, has a technical orientation and is focused on the implementation of centrally determined policies.

2.3.3. *The role of HEIs in CPD*

In 1996/97 funding of £25 million per annum for teachers in-service education and training (INSET) that had been previously been allocated by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) to HEIs was transferred to the Teacher Training Agency (TTA). The TTA introduced a new funding mechanism, which required potential providers to submit bids for funding. Out of the total amount, 90% was to be allocated through a triennial round of bidding, with 10% to be subject to interim annual bids. In order to be successful bids needed to address one or more national priorities, that had been specified in the invitation to bid, and to show how they would meet six criteria, which included the extent to which:

- improvement of pupils’ performance is the main objective for INSET courses;
- clear and identifiable training needs are specified and based on needs assessment;
- rigorous internal and external quality assurance procedures are in place;
- courses lead to recognised academic or professional qualifications;
- schools are involved in the development and delivery of courses;
- courses reflect evidence from research and inspection, and develop teachers’ skills in using evidence and conducting research.

Whilst HEFCE funding had been confined to HEIs, the TTA opened the bidding to other organisations. Before the introduction of the new funding mechanism, 75 HEIs had been in receipt of INSET funding. Since the introduction of the new system an additional 30 organisations have made successful bids (17 LEAs, 6 Further Education Colleges, 5 Professional Associations and 2 HEIs). A further 8 organisations have made successful joint bids in new partnerships with existing providers. As a consequence of changing circumstances, 36 of the existing providers were unsuccessful in the first main bidding round,

although 25 of those have subsequently made successful bids in the smaller interim rounds of bidding. Initially, non-HEI providers accounted for only a small amount of the funding. In the first main bidding round 79% of the funding was allocated to existing providers, 15% to new partnerships that included existing providers and only 6% to new providers. In the second of the smaller, interim bidding rounds, however, 25 of the 68 successful bidders were new providers and they accounted for 31% of the allocated funding. Most of these new providers were LEAs. At the time of writing, the outcomes of the second triennial bidding round are awaited. We predict an increase in the numbers of non-HEI providers who bid successfully, and that the proportion of the funding that is allocated to them will also increase.

2.3.4. Changing patterns of relationships in CPD

INSET provision in England is going through a period of far-reaching and rapid change. As in initial teacher education, the diversity of providers is increasing, but the influence of central government is more keenly felt and regulation is becoming broader and more intense. This is giving rise to a number of tensions for INSET providers. First there is the tension between central control and local determination. Whilst schools have responsibility for setting their own priorities, and devising staff development policies to support them, their decisions are taken in a context in which government initiatives create imperatives that they are unable to ignore. INSET providers must demonstrate that their programmes address national priorities, but that they are also responsive to local needs, of schools and of individual teachers. Second, there is a potential tension between the professional development needs and career aspirations of individual teachers, and the priorities of their schools. Increasingly in England the emphasis is moving towards targeting INSET in relation to school and LEA development planning and away from CPD focused on the development of individuals' careers. Third, there is a tension between co-operation and competition. The emphasis of government policy on school improvement demands that INSET providers work in consultation with schools and LEAs, and collaborate to ensure that provision is coherent and relevant for schools. Increasingly, however, schools and LEAs are themselves INSET providers, and potential competitors of HEIs. The growth in private sector provision of INSET adds to the complexity of the relationships amongst schools and the increasingly diverse range of providers. HEIs are particularly vulnerable in this context. They need to develop partnerships with schools and LEAs to remain credible as INSET providers, but LEAs in particular may encroach further on what has traditionally been seen as the work of HEIs.

It is not entirely clear how these changing relationships will develop in the future. It seems that greater clarity about the distinctive contributions that different kinds of providers can make will be important. Existing providers who fail to play to their strengths are likely to find survival difficult in a context which is more competitive, and where central government is more willing to cut out those who do not meet its expectations. One niche that HEIs might seek to fill relates to the increasing expectations for schools to engage in planning based on monitoring and self-review. HEIs with a strong research base may be well positioned both to support schools own monitoring and review activities, and to make current research outcomes accessible to them. HEIs could have an important role to play in helping schools to develop as organisations that are conducive to professional learning and development that is embedded in their day to day work.

The future status of traditional HEI post-qualifying academic awards in education may also be in doubt. In the future, positive outcomes in performance management reviews, and professional qualifications based on national standards (such as the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers) may become more significant, than university awards, for

teachers' career development. All this might suggest that HEIs' provision increasingly may be commissioned by individual schools, or consortia of schools. It may move away from courses leading to academic awards towards an emphasis on supporting schools and collaborating with them in school-focused review and development activities. INSET courses might become more technical, have a stronger training focus and be offered by other kinds of providers, including LEAs, private sector organisations and schools themselves.

3. Themes and Issues

3.1. Accountability

University Professional Schools have always held an ambivalent position in UK Universities, partly because of the perceived status of various kinds of knowledge and partly because of issues about the relationship between academic and professional accreditation. The dilemmas and tensions inherent in university-based professional education are probably most prominent in University Schools of Education - a situation emphasised by the developments of the last two decades.

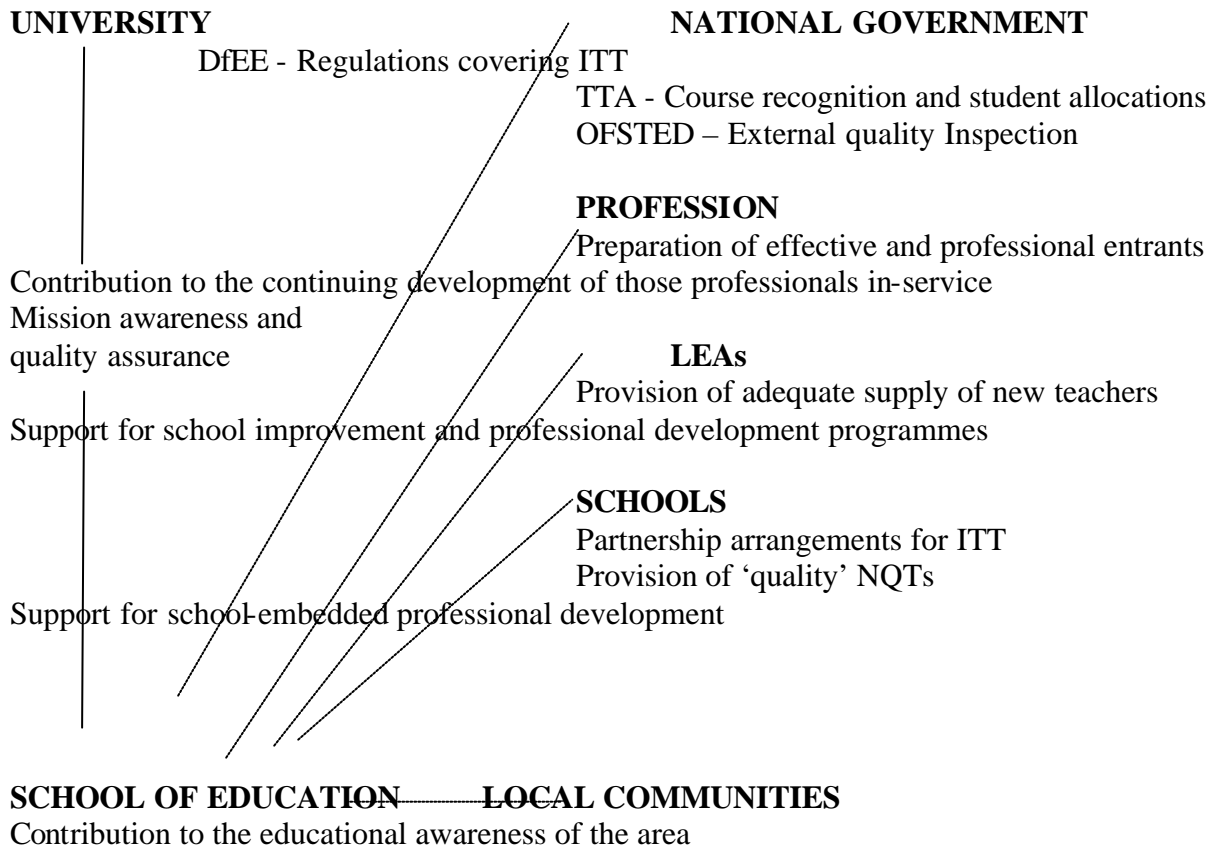
Schools of Education now operate in a complex web of relationships for accountability and responsibility. Whilst a School of Education, as with any other academic School, is directly accountable to its own University, it is also directly accountable to a number of external bodies. All of its ITT courses must conform to the regulations issued by the Government's Department for Education and Employment and must be based on the prescribed National Curriculum for ITT. Although the same detailed prescription of courses is not present for Continuing Professional Development, Schools of Education have to bid to provide courses designed to support Government determined priorities and meet very specific criteria. The Teacher Training Agency ensures that any course requirements for ITT or CPD are met, determines how many students each course is allowed to recruit and provides the funding. The national Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) inspects every course on a regular basis to determine the quality of the provision. The grading awarded by OFSTED is used by the TTA to determine how many student places to allocate to each course and, therefore, the level of funding for each provider. Funding can be withdrawn and courses closed as a result of these inspections. These interlocking lines of accountability at a National level provide the necessary control consequent on the recent moves towards the proceduralization of teacher education.

At the local level the School of Education is also accountable to the schools with which it works. All ITT courses, by regulation, have to be run in partnership with local schools, schools are paid by the University for their involvement and every ITT inspection includes visits to a sample of these schools. Formal agreements between a School of Education and these schools define the roles, responsibilities and expectations for each partner.

Although not lines of accountability, the University School of Education also has responsibilities to other bodies outside the University. In a sense, these may be seen as 'moral accountability' towards the teaching profession (to ensure committed entrants to the profession), Local Education Authorities or LEAs (to ensure an adequate and appropriate supply of teachers) and the local community (to contribute to the educational awareness of the locality).

This complex and sometimes conflicting set of accountabilities can be set out as in the following diagram.

Figure illustrating the complex relationships of accountability and responsibility for University Schools of Education



3.2. Educational Research and Development

Essentially, the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) determines the distribution of state research funding to Universities. The RAE is not a policy in itself but a device for the implementation of a policy of selective research funding. On a regular basis (every four or five years) assessment panels scrutinise and judge the quality of research in all subjects in all Universities. The resulting grades are used to allocate funds for the next four or five-year period. Those University Schools that achieve a high grading get proportionally more research funding; some Schools that achieve low gradings may get none. Generally, it appears that non-RAE activity, such as teaching and administration, has been downgraded in some Universities. Educational research operates in this context.

In the last few years, however, there have been other, particular, factors concerning educational research. Essentially, these are rooted in recent and considerable criticism of educational research on two main grounds. Firstly, that the actions and decisions of policy-makers and practitioners are insufficiently informed by research. This is linked to the movement towards ‘research and evidence based practice’ in the professions. Educational researchers are accused not only of failing to disseminate their work adequately but also, too frequently, of not engaging with the pressing problems of policymakers and practitioners.

Secondly, the non-cumulative nature of much educational research limits its capacity to impact by not generating a robust research base around issues. In recent years the Teacher Training Agency has sought to influence this debate both by funding some large-scale research into classroom practice and by making small grants available to teacher-researchers.

Impact on the University School Of Education

As may be inferred from the previous sections, in the last decade Teacher Education in England has changed in nature, structures and processes in the last two decades. University Schools of Education, cast by politicians and much of the press as monopoly providers of teacher education at the expense of the real client, are subjected now to a variety of external and sometimes competing demands that render them almost semi-detached from their University. Their funding provided from a different source than other academic schools, their courses tightly prescribed and their activities closely monitored, the School of Education is a part of the University whose autonomy has been undermined and which increasingly has less in common with other academic Schools. At least one University School of Education has even withdrawn from Initial Teacher Training because of the time-consuming nature of the work and the level of external control.

3.3. Teacher Supply: recruitment and retention issues

As we approach a general election in May 2001, the party political debate on education has shifted from concern about standards of pupil achievement to concern about teacher supply. Although the problems of supply are most pronounced in the capital city where reduced working weeks are evident, a number of schools in other areas of the country are also beginning to consider introducing four-day weeks because of staff shortages. Opposition parties and the media are making much of what they describe as an impending crisis in staffing public services, especially education, policing and health.

Recent statistics (DfEE 2000) do confirm worsening trends in retention of teachers. For example, there is an increase in the numbers of qualified teachers aged below 60yrs who are 'out of service'. In the period 1983-1987, there were 8,400 primary school teachers out of service, in the period 1988-1992 this increased to 15,800, and then the figure doubled to 36,000 in the period 1993-1999. For secondary school teachers the numbers 'out of service' have increased from 21,500 in 1983-7, to 22,500 in 1988-92 and then to 45,500 in the period 1993-99. Particularly striking are the figures for the 35yrs – 39yrs age group. Over the same period, the numbers 'out of service' increased, for primary school teachers from 3.5K to 10K in 1993-99, and for secondary school teacher from 4.4K to 13,5K. There has also been a similar doubling of the number of qualified teachers who have never been in service, from 3,100 in 1994 to 6,300 in 1998. The shortage of teachers is being felt most acutely in the London area where there are currently vacancy rates of 2.3% compared with 0.2% in Yorkshire, 0.3% in the North West and 0.5% in the North East (see www.dfes.gov.uk/teachingreforms/rewards/strb2000/tables/tab20.shtml).

A number of contributory factors are being cited as causes of retention problems, such as low salaries, more employment opportunities in other fields, and changes in the nature of the work. Of the latter, it seems that we may be seeing some effects of increasing bureaucracy and intensification of workloads associated with heavy external accountability, surveillance and inspection. It is unclear how far teacher education factors, including Continuing Professional Development Standards, are influencing supply. The most recent statistics show a 6% decrease in recruitment, over all programmes, between 1997-8 and 1998-9. For shortage

subjects the drop in recruitment is even more marked across the same two years: 23% in mathematics, 18% in science, and 15% in design technology (see www.dfee.gov.uk/review/body/tab27.htm).

Diversity of initial training routes into the profession, especially to employment-based routes, are seen, along with bursaries and training salaries for graduate trainees, as a part solution to difficulties of recruitment. It is too early to tell what the impact will be, but, according to the Teacher Training Agency, recruitment in 2000-2001 has increased by 6% overall, with an 8% increase in the Graduate Teacher Programme.

4. Summary of Main Trend

The main trend in teacher education over the past two decades has been increasing central control by the government, first through an input model and more recently through an output model. Key elements of both approaches have been increasing involvement of schools, increased accountability and a reduction of the influence of university departments of education. One consequence of this trend has been a move away from academic critique of professional practice and towards a more instrumental approach to training at all phases of teacher education.

The input model was evident, for example, in the setting up, in 1984, of the Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. With this came the specification of the time to be spent on different aspects of training programmes, such as minimum number of days for placements in schools and minimum time to be allocated to particular areas of training. The output model is evident, more recently, in the specification of Standards for Qualified Teacher Status, Induction and Continuing Professional Development. This standardisation of output criteria has been accompanied by diversity of routes, possibilities for individualised programmes of training and a wider range of providing agents.

FINNLAND

Expert Opinion: Tendencies of teacher education and practice in Finland

Hannele Niemi

1. Teacher education as a part of universities in Finland

Teacher education for elementary and secondary schools was transferred to universities in the Finnish educational system through the Teacher Education Law, in 1971. The earlier teacher training colleges, the "seminars" for the primary level, were attached to Education Faculties as newcomers. Secondary school subject-teacher education was also renewed by expanding pedagogical studies. Earlier subject-teacher education consisted of a basic degree in some academic field and thereafter teaching practice and some pedagogical studies (mainly reading materials). The purpose was to unify elementary and secondary schools and to develop an academically high standard of teacher education. It was also necessary to answer to the needs of a new comprehensive school system which was implemented in the sixties. In the late seventies, university education for both teacher groups was planned as 4 to 5 - year programmes. The basic qualification for secondary and elementary school teachers was decreed as a Master's degree. The first teachers who received a Master's graduated in 1984-85. In other words, Finnish TE has a 15 - year experience of university-based teacher education, with a strong research component.

Education for comprehensive school and general upper secondary school teachers is available in university faculties. In 1995, kindergarten teacher education was also transferred to universities. In Finland university students do not have to pay for tuition or for taking a degree.

Each teacher education unit has its teacher training schools. These are lower and upper stage of comprehensive schools, in some cases including pre-school, or general upper secondary schools.

Since 1996 Finnish vocational teachers have been trained in vocational teacher education colleges operating in conjunction with AMK institutions (polytechnics). All teacher education in the Swedish language, including vocational teacher education, is provided by the Abo Akademi University. Vocational teacher education always comes after graduation. At universities, teacher education is usually incorporated into the initial Master's degree, but the pedagogical studies in teacher education can also be taken separately after graduation.

2. What academic grades and professional licenses are awarded by the units of teacher education?

The university degrees in the Finnish universities are Bachelor, Master and Doctoral degrees.

Educational departments provide the following degrees:

- B.A., Bachelor of Education, (or Bachelor of Arts), 120 study weeks.
- M.E., Master of Education (or Master of Arts), 160 study weeks
- Licentiate of Education (or Licentiate of Philosophy) consists of 80 study week after Master degree. It is an intermediate degree for Ph.D. This level is not compulsory, but some doctoral students prefer to have this degree before their doctoral degree because of some tertiary level teaching posts (mainly in polytechnics) have this qualification criteria for teaching posts.
- Ph.D., Doctor of Education (or Doctor of Philosophy)

The degrees and grades are equivalent with the same level degrees in other academic disciplines. They are awarded by "the traditional universities" (the concept in the question). Major and minor in education and Pedagogical studies are organised in Faculties of Education. The name of the degree is depending on a major subject. The structure (major + minors) and standards of the degree of teachers are corresponding with other academic disciplines. The major subject includes always a research component with master thesis.

The degree of M.E. (Master of Education) gives a right to continue to doctoral studies (160 study weeks). Many teachers and school leaders at different levels of the Finnish educational system participate in doctoral programs as a part of their personal development plans.

The structure of academic degree in the universities:

- Major
- Minors
- Language and communication studies
- Optional studies or e.g. practical studies

The main structure and components of studies in TE departments are summarised in Table 1.

	Major	Minors	Master Thesis	Teaching practices	Other studies
Elementary School TE 160 credits (4 - 5 years)	Educational studies in Education Faculties 55 credits	Combination of basics of different school subjects and specialising in one or two subjects 35 + 35 credits	In education 20 credits	As a part of educational studies (20 credits)	Language and communication Optional courses 10 - 20 credits
Secondary School TE 160 credits (5 years)	Different school subjects in academic faculties 55 - 60 credits	One or two other subjects And Education in Educational faculties 30 + 35 credits	In academic subjects 20 credits	As a part of educational studies (20 credits)	Language and communication Optional courses 10 - 20 credits

Table 1. The main components of Finnish teacher education.

1 credit = One study week (40 working hours including contact sessions (as lectures, seminars, etc) and independent and peer group work.

Master Degree is the compulsory qualification to teaching profession. The pedagogical studies may be as a part of the major (class teachers) or as a minor (subject teacher).

Teacher's pedagogical qualifications are the same for all kinds of educational institutions (comprehensive schools, general upper secondary schools, vocational institutions and adult education institutions). The minimum extent of pedagogical studies is 35 credits for all these teachers. The pedagogical studies include the intermediate level in educational science, subject didactics and teaching practice. Teaching practice takes place in practice schools attached to universities or in ordinary schools. Teaching practice includes observation, supervised teaching (both individually and together with other teacher trainees) and didactic group counselling. In pedagogical studies, it is possible to specialise in adult education.

2.1. Class teachers

Class teacher trainees study for the higher academic degree (Master's; 160 credits), majoring in education. The Master's degree takes five academic years or more. Class teacher education consists of advanced studies in education, studies in subsidiary subject and teaching practice. Students usually specialise in one or two subjects. If they have a minimum of 35 credits in a given subject, they are qualified to teach at the upper stage of comprehensive school.

A graduate with a Master's degree in Education, or corresponding studies, is eligible for special-needs teacher education, which usually comprises 35-50 credits.

2.2. Kindergarten teachers

The minimum requirement for kindergarten teachers is the lower academic degree, (Bachelor of Education), which consists of 120 credits. The normative duration of studies is three years.

2.3. Subject teachers

Subject teachers have a Master level academic degree of 160 or 180 credits, which takes 5 or 6 years. The students major in the subject(s) they intend to teach at schools. The department of teacher education provides the pedagogical studies and these studies are concurrent with subject studies. Other academic faculties provide subject area studies. Subjects taught at school include religion, mother tongue, foreign languages, history, social studies, psychology, philosophy, ethics, biology, geography, mathematics, physics, computer science, chemistry, home economics, textile and technical work, physical education, music, and arts. University graduates with a Master's degree and qualified teachers can apply for separate student counsellor studies of 35 credits, which will qualify them as student counsellors.

2.4. Vocational institution teachers

The pedagogical studies required from vocational teachers are 35 credits. The studies include basic and subject studies in education, teaching practice and other studies. Prospective teachers can study full-time for one year or flexibly in multiform education during 1 to 3 years. Vocational teacher education colleges also offer special-needs teacher education of 35 credits and student counsellor education of 35 credits.

3. Organisational autonomy of teacher education

Teacher education units are parts of universities and have the same kind of organisational autonomy as other faculties. The university policy in Finland has moved from centralized system to more autonomous and decentralized during eighties and nineties. The ministry of Education gives frames for degrees, but otherwise the universities are independent. They are held accountable based on their functional effectiveness and outcomes (amount of Master and Doctoral Degrees; outcomes of Research e.g. publications etc)

The national degree regulations define the objectives, extent and overall structure of degrees at universities. Within the framework of these regulations, the universities decide on the contents and structure of their degrees in more detail and devise their annual curricula and forms of instruction. Teacher education at universities is regulated by a Decree Concerning Higher Education Degrees and Teacher Education (576/1995). Vocational teacher education is regulated by an Act (452/1996) and Decree (455/1996). The competencies of teachers are determined in a Decree on Teacher Qualifications (986/1998).

In the seventies and eighties, a fairly strict core curriculum was set by the Ministry of Education. It unified the teacher education in all universities. A good point was the standardised quality and unified programmes, but it made teacher education too inflexible. It also fixed the non-relevant practices and did not activate seeking new forms on the local level. The newest decrees provide a very loose framework for universities to plan their teacher education.

Recently, however, teacher educational departments have faced problems which place new restrictions on their development. There have been great economic pressures and budget cuts of basic degrees in a university sector. Accountability criteria emphasise doctoral degrees, high quality research and international publications. Also, co-operation with the business world and private money have become important funding sources for universities. It is for technological disciplines easier to find sponsors and co-funding, but the education sector has fewer chances. In Finnish universities, teacher education departments have succeeded to create a research tradition, but the opportunities for them to compete through research and external funding are weaker than in many other university sectors. The main resource allocation to TE units is based on Master degrees.

Although Finnish teacher education has nowadays fairly stable place in universities, they have some problems, which have been difficult to solve. One of these is the status of teacher education in universities. They have had to show and to convince other disciplines, sometimes also educational sciences, that teaching and research in TE have high academic standards. The path has been rocky and consisted of many tensions. After twenty years of work the TE departments have established Master and Doctoral level programs and they have their own academic traditions. At general level, and also politically, teacher education is now accepted as an academic partner at the universities. However, in late nineteen's the pressures towards universities require to produce more degrees with less money, to increase effectiveness of research work and to establish high quality international research projects. This means a high pressure also to teacher education and it has to seek effective strategies to find out how to combine professional components and high quality research with each other.

4. What quality criteria are formulated for units of teacher education? In what way must units of teacher education demonstrate that they fulfil these quality criteria?

The statutes and decrees set by Ministry of Education give basis to university degrees. These regulations give very general level aims to TE. Local teacher education departments or universities set more concrete objectives and quality criteria. Fulfilment of these criteria are evaluated in self-evaluation processes and through national evaluations. During the last ten years, Finnish teacher education has been evaluated systematically many times at national or international levels. There are no common national quality criteria for teacher education, but national evaluations provide information which directs teacher education to renew their teaching and research strategies. The following major evaluation processes have been carried out during last ten years:

- 1989 National committee for developing teacher education
- 1993-94 National and international evaluation of educational sciences and teacher

education. (The Committee Report, 1994; Buchberger et al. , 1994; Niemi & Kohonen, 1995a)

- 1995-1998 Research project “Effectiveness of Teacher Education” as part of a large national research programme “Effectiveness of Education”. (Niemi, 1996b; Niemi & Kemmis, 1999)
- 1998 National evaluation of ICT in teacher education. (Niemi, 1999a)
- 1998-99 National evaluation of teacher education. (Jussila & Saari, 1999)
- 1999 Evaluation of the quality of research in the teacher education department of the University of Helsinki. (University of Helsinki, 2000)

Main trends and scenarios emerging from the evaluations can be summarised as **strengths and weaknesses** of Finnish TE in the following way.

The evaluations have revealed many positive outcomes of TE in Finland. Elementary teacher education is one of the most popular study options. Teacher education has succeeded to recruit high quality students. The competition has made TE very selective, only 10-15 % of the applicants are accepted to start their studies. Secondary TE is not as attractive and there will be a lack of teachers in certain subjects in the coming years. Graduated teachers have good classroom skills and content knowledge. The future lack of qualified teachers, however, is not caused by the quality of teacher education. It is more a consequence of early retirement, poor working conditions in schools and teachers' burn-out problems.

Teachers in Finland until now have been highly committed to their profession. There has not been a real problem of dropouts in the teacher-education programmes and teachers do not usually change from their teaching job to another profession. Only 10-15 % of teachers have even thought of changing to another career. Young teachers see their profession as life-long learning process and they have a very positive attitude towards developing their job. Now the situation seems to point to the fact that older teachers have difficulties continuing in their career until normal retirement age.

The evaluation projects have also revealed that both schools and teacher education departments have overcome the attitudinal resistance of using ICT. There are several innovative processes, both in schools and in teacher education departments. They are distance-learning projects in which e.g. language teaching and optional courses are provided to schools in remote areas in Lapland or on isolated islands. Some pilot projects have opened new routes through ICT for partnerships between teacher education, local schools and business life. There are projects for media education and interactive technology projects for the evaluation of teaching practice.

The research component is an essential part in teacher education. Despite the first years' difficulties, in the eighties, to integrate research studies with other components of TE, research methods and the writing of a Master's thesis are the best parts in elementary school teacher education to many student teachers. Research studies give an opportunity to do a real project, in which students have to formulate a problem in an educational field, to seek information and data for the problem independently, to elaborate it with the newest research and to make a synthesis as a written thesis. They learn to study actively and internalise the attitude of how teachers may act like researchers in their work. The general result of the

evaluations is that the more demanding the studies were, in terms of quality of learning, the more useful they were evaluated as. There are also students who are very practically orientated and they would prefer to have more practical skills and school experiences. Sometimes the criticism is directed to the teaching methods how research studies are implemented.

Subject-oriented didactics has been evaluated as very relevant and meaningful component by secondary school teachers. They emphasise how important it is to learn to integrate educational methods in the context of the subject they teach at school. The contextual knowledge also helped them to understand how to better approach students' learning.

Although teacher education has succeeded in many respects, there are still many problems which need to be taken seriously. Many evaluations have pointed out that the lack of co-operation between different partners decrease the quality of teacher education. Co-operation should be much better organised, more oriented towards common purposes and more intensive. These needs are apparent between academic disciplines and educational departments, normal schools and teacher education departments, local schools and university schools, teacher education institutions and local communities.

5. Access of students to units of teacher education

The student selection is the responsibility of the universities and their faculties or departments. Students are ranked on the basis of grades in the matriculation examination and in the school-leaving certificate, plus entrance examinations.

Admission criteria and selection process of teacher education are more demanding if compared to other disciplines because of personal aptitude tests and interviews. The purpose is to get students who have high quality academic abilities and good social skills.

The admission requirements for class teacher education are a written examination, an aptitude test and interviews. Some universities also include a short teaching demonstration or group session in their entrance examination. The admission requirements for kindergarten teacher education are mainly the same as for class teacher education.

Those wishing to study for subject teachers apply for entry to universities according to their major subject (e.g. languages, mathematics). The entry requirement is the matriculation examination. The admitted students who wish to become teachers then apply for subject teacher education. The admission is based on an aptitude test and sometimes the applicant's study record.

Admission to the education of special-needs teachers and student counsellors is based on the general university admission rules and requirements defined by the faculty of education.

Persons who have the required education and work experience for teaching posts in AMK institutions (polytechnics) or vocational institutions can apply for vocational teacher education. Depending on the institution and subject, the required education is a university degree, an AMK degree or a post-secondary level qualification and work experience.

6. The relationship between teacher pre-service and in-service education

In-service training is organised by university faculties and departments, university continuing education centres, teacher education units, vocational teacher education colleges, summer universities and teachers' professional associations.

So far the majority of in-service training has been short-term courses and programmes designed to maintain professional skills. Lately the focus has been on curricular design and reform, as well as the educational use of ICT. On the other hand, teachers are more and more interested in education which upgrades their qualifications in the labour market and leads to degrees or other certificates. The assessment of study attainments in in-service training varies greatly: in some programmes there is no assessment and others use the same grading as universities. The participants are often asked to evaluate the quality of the education received

There is no specific legislation governing teachers' in-service training. The duty to participate in in-service training is partly defined in various statutes, partly in collective agreements. Teachers usually participate in in-service training for three days a year with full salary benefits. On the other hand, employers have the right to assign all full-time teachers to training. The employer also decides which training programmes and forms of education are accepted as statutory in-service training.

There is a lack of a continuum of pre-service and in-service teacher education. Many recommendations of national and international evaluations have been introduced to establish this kind of relationship. However, many different in-service providers and their various funding arrangements are not easy to combine with university teaching which is free of charge to students. Some universities have had innovative pilot projects where pre- and in-service students have worked together in the same projects, the teaching practice has been combined with action research processes in local schools etc. These projects have been very fruitful, but even barriers exist. These are partly organisational and also cultural. The university students have different time tables, working habits, dead lines, examinations etc. than the full-time teachers.

Some teachers continue their education as part-time or full-time students in doctoral programs provided by educational faculties or national doctoral schools in education (e.g. for science teachers). This kind of further education has activated a new school culture. These teachers work as researchers in their work and have an impact on a school community. Unfortunately only too few teachers have this kind of opportunity because of funding and lack of resources in universities.

Each university has its own further education center, even some educational faculties may have their own in-service education unit. There are informal relationships between pre- and in-service teacher education. But their policies and missions are different. The university continuing education centres are market-oriented and they are depending on special needs of their customers. Pre-service education in universities is free of charge to students, funded mainly by Ministry of Education and oriented to provide a broad competency to various teacher groups.

Co-operation between pre- and in-service education would need organisational restructuring. Universities, continuing education centres and local school authorities could make more systematic plans to carry out some training programs which start in pre-service stage and

continue later in in-service years. These kinds of programs have been planned in some universities e.g. in ICT and media education. The experiences have been encouraging.

7. Internal organisation

The internal organisation of teacher education departments is depending on the administration of the local university. The typical organisation model is illustrated in the following example:

Ministry of Education

Univeristy of Helsinki A Board of University

Faculty of Education

Dean

Faculty meetings:

- control over degrees and curriculum
- acceptance of graduate and post graduate students
- principles of money allocation to departments

Dep. of Teacher Education Head of department	Dep. of Education Head of department	Dep. Of Home Economics and Textile Work Head of department
--	--	--

The departments of teacher education may be divided into different units for special purposes (class teachers, subject teachers, special education etc). A common trend in eighties was towards very small sub units. The consequence was that the units became too separate, they worked alone, they had their own language and culture, they did not have the ability to communicate and interact with others. Some Finnish universities have restructured the departments. They have tried to seek more common strategies and joint projects. The same kinds of restructuring processes have been initiated between departments of teacher education and education.

8. Personnel

The personnel structure of the universities in Finland is the following:

- Professors
- University lectures
- Research assistants and pot doctoral assistenst

In the following table the personnel of educational faculties and some other disciplines is presented.

Numbers illustrating educational faculties consists of departments of teacher education and departments of (general)education but does not consist of the staff of the university training schools.

Discipline	Professors	Research assistants or Post doctoral assistants	Lectures
Education	15	17	68
Other Social Sciences	36	34	30
Natural Sciences	29	49	22
Medicine	39	29	32

Table 2. Structure of the personnel (%) in different disciplines in 1999 (Ministry of Education).

If we compared the structure of the personnel in the educational faculties with other disciplines, we may see big differences. A typical feature of educational sciences including teacher education is a high amount of lecturers. Professors and other research personnel is a smaller portion. The teacher education department teach more than other university sectors. Partly this is due to teacher education's professional nature. Partly it is because of the fact that the personnel structure in old seminars consisted of lecturers before they were attached to universities. During the years it has been a gradual transfer towards a larger portion of the research personnel.

9. Teaching in TE units and development of schools

The main fields of studies in teacher education are:

9.1. Pedagogical studies, e.g.

-educational psychology, philosophical basis of education, education and society, didactics and research on teaching

-research methods and research in education

9.2. Subject matter studies

- the academic content knowledge of school subjects

9.3. Teaching practice

- in normal schools and local schools

The objectives of teacher education have emphasised teachers' professional competency to work as independent experts and to develop their work. The common aim is to educate reflective practitioners who are able to confront changing circumstances and be active partners in a learning society. However, this is an ideal and we have seen that a written curriculum and a implemented one are two different things. A concern has been is the quality of learning. Do teachers have good enough capacities to teach different learners in a world that is more contradictory than ever? Learning in a multicultural information society, where social exclusion is a real threat, demands high teacher competencies. Year after year there has also been strong criticism of student teachers' own learning culture. It seems to be more receptive than active in parts other than the Master's thesis writing and teaching practice.

The evaluations have revealed that after graduation both elementary and secondary school teachers considered that they had obtained good or very good knowledge and skills in the planning of teaching, the evaluation of their own work and the evaluation of teaching methods. They thought they had a good basis for developing their own educational philosophy and differentiating teaching, for scrutinising their own work, for achieving lifelong professional growth and for independently exercising the teaching profession. These can be regarded as the teacher's basic skills, without which it is nearly impossible for them to cope with their work. This result in itself is no surprise, because the study guides of the faculties of education define these as important objectives. The outcome is also in keeping with recent trends in teacher education. The aim is to train investigative, critical teachers. According to teacher graduates, this has been achieved. (Niemi and Tirri 1997, 43-60.)

On the other hand, the same persons regarded that their knowledge and skills for administrative tasks, student welfare, cooperation with parents, and work within the school community and in crisis situations were poor. For extracurricular tasks they had received "some" preparation. In their opinion their skills in using modern ICT were not adequate. (Niemi and Tirri 1997, 43-60.)

According to different evaluations, the following aspects should be developed:

- Teachers' capacity for working with and understanding different kinds of learners, including skills in special-needs education and social psychology and an ability to cope with problems of exclusion;
- Student welfare work, competence in student counselling, cooperation with pupils' families;
- Internationalisation, multiculturalism and interaction between cultures;
- Skills relating to the operation of the work community and conflict management;
- Skills relating to welfare at the work place, motivation and professional development.

National evaluations have found out that even though the teachers had good experiences of their teacher education time, they criticized their education. The main reasons for the criticism was passive teaching and learning methods. The contents of their studies did not either have necessary connections to the real life. They had some weak, inexperienced teacher educators and conservative peer students who did not like to take part in active learning methods

The teachers mentioned many good experiences of teacher education in clarifying their role as a teacher and giving them the idea of teachers who develop their own work: "Teacher

education gave a lot of encouragement, self confidence, opened their minds to learning, broke the ice in many issues, opened new opportunities for different ways to teach, helped greatly to understand students' learning." And as one teacher described: "taught me that I have good reasons to use active learning methods. I learned an attitude towards the teaching profession. I learned that a teacher is a tutor."

Some studies had been excellent: "challenging lectures, real work, good discussions, evaluation tasks, real active learning experiences", "TE encouraged me to experiment and evaluate new methods - I dare to experiment more and more". "I learnt that teacher is more a tutor giving support in the background, not taking the floor herself". "The teaching-practice school in Oulu was excellent - I had opportunity to practice in an inquiry and research - oriented class." They described teacher educators and supervising teachers who had a strong positive impact on them. They also had many positive experiences of good teams of students. They worked, shared knowledge and experiences and had a lot of fruitful discussions. Working in groups and discussing, in their educational studies, was a very positive experience.

In the open questions of active learning student teachers and teacher educators described what kinds of active learning experiences they had had and what the greatest obstacles to active learning were. The best active learning contexts in teacher education had been teaching practice and studies which were connected with research studies, either as a part of the Master thesis studies of class teachers or as a part of the subject-specific research seminars of secondary school teachers. Also, portfolios, journals, writing reviews and new modes of examinations as group discussions were mentioned. Students also described opportunities for self evaluation as a positive experience. The common feature of all these activities was that students had opportunities to process knowledge, to produce something individually or in groups and to self-evaluate their product or their own development

Teacher education is working **under time pressures**. The time resource seems to be a serious problem for student teachers, teacher educators and teachers and pupils in schools. The curriculum is overloaded or there is a hidden curriculum which prefers quantity to quality. Learning is superficial, frustrating and exhaustive because of time pressure. The learning is more or less a survival game for getting grades and certifications. How to put together the many pieces of different courses and subject matters and to give more time for a larger and deeper learning process seems to be an unsolved equation.

There is a **lack of knowledge about active learning methods and strategies and a lack of metacognitive knowledge** at all levels of the educational system. Students do not have enough metaknowledge of learning. They are not used to steering their own learning and they lack the readiness to inquire, structure, elaborate and evaluate knowledge and their own learning. They are used to receive ready-made task settings and orders from outside. The teacher educators would also need more new knowledge of active learning methods. The effective use of these requires that the teacher educators master them and are aware that their knowledge, support and encouragement are needed more than in traditional teaching. Student teachers also need more opportunities to practice active learning during teacher education.

After graduation new teachers were in a very contradictory situation. The most important reason for student teachers' criticism was the experience of not having been taught through active learning methods. Active learning principles were introduced to student teachers, but they were not implemented in their tuition. If young teachers are very uncertain of new

activating methods after their graduation, the schools are not an effective place to practice them because of older teacher colleagues and critical secondary school pupils.

There seems to be an enormous need for experimentation (teaching methods, projects) in real contexts, "in a real normal school". Teachers would like to have a better idea of wholeness in teaching, they miss the experiences of planning larger periods and opportunities to experiment on their own to find different solutions. They would also need more psychological knowledge of learning difficulties and more special education knowledge to gain a greater readiness to help children who are misbehaving. They would need more knowledge and practice of active learning pedagogy. They would like to learn how to educate, not only teach the academic contents of school subjects. It would be very important to have experiences of implementing active learning in classes which have used, and also which have not used active learning. The teachers claimed that there was too little supervision in how to work with different students: disturbed and unmotivated students, talented or untalented students or how to react if e.g. some student started to cry during the lesson. They had too little psychological tuition and instruction about how to handle classes with more than 30 students.

The results in the national evaluations clearly indicated that schools and teacher education departments are in the middle of a cultural change. In both institutions, many indicators of active learning and other revisions of the learning culture can be seen, but active learning methods are implemented by only a few teachers, and mainly with fairly closed tasks. Open learning environments, which require students' own initiative, planning, experimentation, elaboration and self-evaluation, still seem to be rare. In both institutions, there are pioneers of active learning, but they face many obstacles to active learning. All interviewees emphasized that active learning methods require much more work and are harder on a teacher than traditional teaching. It is necessary **to create a strong cultural change** from outer-regulated learning and superficiality to the real responsibility of students for learning. We need a continuum of in-service education for teachers. The effectiveness of the teacher education depends on the teachers' capacity to learn new methods in their work and first of all to be ready to reassess their working culture.

10. Competing for research money?

Academy of Finland is the main research funding agency for basic research in the university sector. Education including teacher education belongs to the Council of Culture and Social Sciences. The competition is high, only 10-20 % from the proposals can be funded. Researchers of teacher education sector have the same competence and the same level funding rate as other researchers in education. Money allocation to projects in education is equivalent if compared education with other disciplines. However, all disciplines in the Council of Culture and Social Sciences have the same problem that many high quality proposals remain without funding because of the lack of money.

Ministry of Education and Academy of Finland have actively promoted post-graduate schools in all disciplines. Since 1995 national four-years doctoral schools in different disciplines have been established. Education has its own school, in which teacher education has research posts as other fields of education. The experiences from these schools are very positive. The teachers who have studying for or have completed their doctoral degree are

important key persons in renewing teacher education and school culture. The doctoral schools have been active in national and international networks. The schools have also combined cooperation among supervisors in different universities. There is a trend in Finnish higher education that has led to an increasing amount of doctoral degrees also in the educational sciences and teacher education in the last five-eight years. The number of doctors has more than doubled. This trend appears to be continuing.

The ministry of Education have also had some additional money for national innovative projects and strategies in teacher education e.g. Information and Communication Technology. Faculties of education compete about this funding. It is only a very small portion from the total budget of TE (1-3%), but it gives a sign to areas where TE should be developed.

National Board of Education has also some money for school development projects. This is also competitive money for TE units. The research component is not very strong in these projects.

Private sector has also provide money for some TE projects, particularly to ICT projects. In general, the business or private sector has a minimal share in the funding of the educational sciences. There are although some signs in the research area of vocational education that private companies are becoming increasingly interested in investing in education research, for instance by supporting doctoral candidates as members of their staff.

In all teacher education departments there is systematic research training at the following levels:

- Master thesis (methodological studies and research seminars)
- Doctoral programs (methodological and philosophical studies, research seminars, international research co-operation)
- Research projects (intensive projects funded by Academy of Finland, Ministry of Education, National Board of Education or private sector). Projects include also research training for younger partners.

The teacher education units compete about research funding as other units in universities, but the research potential could be stronger if research would be better organised and more focused at the teacher education departments. Among the typical features of the educational sciences and teacher education there has also been a tendency to create research projects which are fairly small and narrow. The same kind of research questions may be elaborated in different universities, but researchers are working alone. The structure of educational science may also cause segregation. There are also good examples of the research co-operation and intensive, fairly large research projects, which have initiated by teacher education professors and researchers. These projects concern e.g., teachers' professional growth, evaluation, effectiveness of education, and ICT in pedagogy.

The international review team of the evaluation project also made recommendations for renovating research supervision in the educational faculties in Finland (Buchberger et al., 1994, p. 21). The faculties' research policies should provide better opportunities for researchers to connect ideas with practice through organisational structures that do not

artificially separate the two domains (theory and practice). It would also be important to provide opportunities for novices to learn alternative strategies for research and to benefit from intellectual exchanges with the whole faculty.

There are signs that development of educational sciences has moved to this direction. The aim of many TE departments is to enlarge student teachers' competence to combine research studies with their professional development.

The Ministry of Education and Academy of Finland have stressed "the policy of units of excellence" as their most recent strategy. Those disciplines which are highly competitive at international level, such as medicine, technology and the biosciences are rewarded. This means that only those sciences which have big research groups, large, high-tech laboratories and which produce innovations which also can be commercialised are potential units of excellence. The educational sciences are too weak with small, individual projects to be competitive with the criteria which are used. The real challenge in the coming future is whether there is a capacity in the educational sciences to form real units of excellence and what would it mean in teacher education? Is it possible? At the very least it means a very strongly networked co-operation with several educational faculties or research groups.

When comparing the educational sciences to the humanities or social sciences, the volume of publishing and portion of referee publications is smaller. Typically, educational researchers publish their results in the research series of the university departments. The traditional publishing form has been a monograph. Educational science departments that include teacher education have actively established various research series for publishing recent research results and raising urgent themes in education into public discussion. This has been an indication of their scientific activities. The university series have not been very effective in delivering new information and research knowledge, but currently a greater problem is that departmental research series are no longer considered as accountability indicators in the university administration. The model comes from the hard sciences, such as medicine and technology. Only books of publishing companies and articles in referee journals are valid as accountability criteria. Thus, there is a real problem in educational science faculties concerning how to find other forums for publishing research results.

There is also a tension between national and international publication needs. The national educational field (i.e. schools, working life, etc.) would need information on the newest research in a national language, but university indicators value international publications more highly. The question of how is it possible to serve national needs and be in active communication in the international scientific community is a continuous challenge which should be taken seriously.

A typical problem in educational sciences is the structure of posts among the university staff. The largest portion of personnel (68%) consist of lecturers or teachers who have had no obligation to do research work. Since 1998 regulations concerning the working load of staff have been altered to allow more flexible opportunities to organise work, which would also emphasise the component of research. The real problem is, however, that resources have radically decreased in recent years and budget cuts appear to continue in many universities. This means that working load of lectures is almost totally tied up in teaching and there are very few resources for research.

Teacher education is nowadays based more on information and accountability steering than strict regulations from the Ministry of Education or central administration of the universities. The changes in teacher education can not be regulated from top to bottom as in seventies'. It

means that the teacher education departments have to grow from inside and find strategies to survive economically, also in difficult times. The basic condition for this kind of development is TE staff members' ability to be active innovators and high quality researchers. This is the most critical and difficult issue in teacher education. In Finland when teacher education was transferred in seventies to university sector, the old staff of earlier seminars came along. They had totally different working culture than what is needed in high quality universities. The research component was not an essential part of their work. They were very teacher-centered subject specialists and they wanted to have a lot of contact sessions for giving direct instruction to student teachers. The teaching practice was also very normative. The university culture with research orientation, independent studying and explorative workshops in teaching practice was an odd culture and this has caused a strong tension for twenty years (until retirement of some key persons).

Afterwards, lessons learnt from this transition period, I would recommend to invest more to teacher education staff development and provoke cultural changes in teacher education. The real issue is how to get teacher educators in touch with an active research work. They should have the identity "teacher educators as researchers" and they should be partners in action research processes with local schools as well as in university training schools.

Teacher education departments have a high accountability to produce master degrees and to keep high standards in teachers' professional competence. Staff members of teacher education departments are overloaded with teaching and they do not have sufficient time for research. Earlier (about 10 years ago) teacher education staff members had a sabbatical (half an year) every seven years. In difficult economic times this was cut out from budgets. This research opportunity should still be available for teacher education.

Although there has been and still are difficulties to carry out effective research strategies in teacher education, a positive trend is increasing numbers of doctors, and year by year a better competence to compete about research funding at national and also international levels.

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NIEDERLANDE

Teacher education in the Netherlands

Jos Letschert

The Austrian 'Commission for Planning and Evaluation of Teacher Education' is interested in tendencies of teacher education policy and practice in the Netherlands.

In this paper we first give some information about the construction of the education system in the Netherlands in general. We continue with information about the teacher education system.

1. Education system

1.1. General information

The Dutch education system comprises primary, secondary and higher education. In principle, the Dutch schools are for all children. All children, also those with behavioural or learning problems, are accepted in regular schools. For children with highly specific needs, such as those with serious mental or physical handicaps, there are separate, special schools.

1.2. Primary education

The primary school has existed in the Netherlands since 1985. This is a school for children between the ages of four and twelve.

Before the primary school existed, the Netherlands had a nursery school or kindergarten (for the four and five-year-olds) and an elementary school (for children between the ages of six and twelve). With the advent of the primary school, nursery school and elementary school have disappeared. They have merged into undivided primary education.

Compulsory education for Dutch children begins on their fifth birthday. Almost all children, however, start primary education at an earlier age. The door to primary school is open for them on the first day of the month following the one in which they become four years old. But many children have already experienced various kinds of pre-school day-care centres and other educational provisions, like crèches or playgroups.

1.3. Secondary education

Secondary education starts at the age of 12. Compulsory education in the Netherlands lasts until the end of the school year in which students reach the age of sixteen. The children's performance in the upper years of the Primary school determine the type of secondary school they should attend.

Secondary education starts with a period of two to three years in which a core curriculum of 14 or 15 subjects is offered to everyone. Core objectives are also available. After the basis period the secondary school contains four programmes. Two consecutive vocational programmes; pre-vocational education (VBO) and individualised pre-vocational education (IVBO) and three parallel programmes; junior general secondary education (MAVO) senior general secondary education (HAVO) and integrated pre-university education (VWO). The

programmes vary in length, from four to six years, and in the difficulty of their respective curricula, from vocational training (VBO) to university preparatory education (VWO). Teachers in secondary education are mainly specialists. They have been trained in one, two and sometimes three subjects. They are working together within the school in subject departments.

	Education	Age students
Primary education	- general education	04 - 12
	- special education	03 - 12
Secondary Education	- basis period	12 - 14
	- pre-vocational education VBO	14 - 16
	- individualised pre-vocational education IVBO	14 - 16
	- junior general secondary education MAVO	14 - 16
	- senior general secondary education HAVO	14 - 17
	- pre-university education VWO	14 - 18
	Tertiary Eduaction	- secondary vocational education MBO
	- higher professional education HBO	17 - 21
	- university education WO	18 - 22
	- adult education VAVO	18 +
	- open higher distance education OU	18 +

1.4. Tertiary education

Students in tertiary education have in general graduated from a MAVO, HAVO or VWO programme.

The secondary vocational education (MBO) is divided into four levels of training. The training to assistant level takes 6 months - one year. The basic vocational training takes 2 -3 years. The professional training takes 2 - 4 years. The fourth level contains a middle – management training, which takes 3 - 4 years or a specialist training, which takes 1 – 2 years. The general adult education is called VAVO. Besides there are courses for adults providing a broad basic education, courses for Dutch as a second language and courses aimed at fostering self-reliance.

2. Teacher education system

2.1. Primary education

Teacher training in the Netherlands is in general a tertiary sector. However, there is much differentiation in the system itself.

Teacher training for primary education is organised in specific institutions. They are called 'Pabo's'. A Pabo is a pedagogical academy for teacher training. They train generalist teachers for the undivided period of primary education for children from 4 / 5 till 12.

Teachers in primary schools teach language, arithmetic/mathematics, environmental studies, including such subjects as geography, history, art education (music, handicrafts, dance, drama), etc. They must be all-rounders.

Some teachers in the primary education are subject specialists. They are trained at other institutes than the Pabo. They give for example music education, physical education or religious education. Sometimes primary schools appoint subject teachers for these kinds of educational activities. They teach their subject in the whole school instead of one specific group of children.

There used to be only three positions in a primary school: the director (head), the class teacher and the subject teacher. Nowadays we see more differentiation of functions and tasks. Teachers may have specific tasks and functions. Sometimes they are released for part of their time to devote themselves to the tasks and functions in which they have specialised.

One of these functions is a counsellor. The counsellor is concerned about the teaching of children with problems. They do this for the entire school. There are also ICT-specialists. They know about computer-assisted education.

2.2. Secondary education

For secondary education there are specific teacher training institutes. They are called 'Lerarenopleidingen'. A lerarenopleiding is an independent institute, a part of higher vocational institutes or a part of universities. They are all subject oriented. Students study for a degree in one or more subjects. The institutes do not only provide the initial teacher education of trainee teachers, but they also enable teachers to attend in-service training courses in areas that the schools find important. Additional to a university qualification in a certain discipline students can opt for a teacher qualification.

For lower and higher education there is a differentiation in teaching qualification:

	Teacher education		
Primary education	- Pabo	Third degree	generalist
Secondary Education	- Lerarenopleiding	Second degree	Subject specialist
	- University	First degree	Subject specialist
Tertiary Education	- University	First degree	Subject specialist

2.3. Tertiary education

The higher professional education (HBO) institutions and universities are since 1993 governed by the same legislation: the Higher Education and Research Act. This Act permits the institutions a large measure of freedom in the way they organise their teaching and other matters to meet changing demands.

The HBO institutions are responsible for the programming and quality of the courses they provide. Quality control is exercised by the institutions themselves and by external experts in so called 'review committees'. The quality of the review committees' work and the action taken on the basis of their conclusions and recommendations is controlled by the 'Higher Education Inspectorate'.

The statutory basis for funding is laid down in the Higher Education and Research Act and funding arrangements are set out in the Funding Decree and in the Higher Education Funding Scheme.

The overall budget for higher professional education is allocated to the individual institutions on the basis of a set formula. Since 1994 there has been a fixed budget, corrected to reflect wage and price rises. In addition to the central government grant, the HBO institutions receive income from a variety of sources, including tuition fees and income from services to third parties, like contract teaching.

The central government grant has included expenditure on statutory benefits and accommodation. Almost 90 % of it is paid directly to the institutions in the form of a block grant. The institutions themselves decide on the most effective distribution between staffing, non-staff costs and accommodation. The remaining 10 % consists of statutory benefits, like redundancy pay and funds earmarked for specific activities such as educational innovation, internationalisation, projects to improve the quality and practicability of courses, and information and communication technology.

2.4. Process management

In 1996 the then minister of education, Ritzen, installed a process management for teacher training (PML) with the specific task to bring more community in the programmes of primary teacher training and teacher training for secondary education. In 1998 the proposals for such plans have been delivered by PML. Proposals which are not prescriptive, but because of their interactive genesis documents with a broad support. At this moment a lot of institutes use the proposals as a foundation for their own curricula.

Every institute develops its own institute plan. In this plan they describe their specific goals, a justification of the organisation model, supervision and the study load. In fact the institutes are autonomously within limits. They are controlled by a strict external supervision on quality aspects from the national inspectorate.

There is a tension between the general perspectives of the main direction or guiding principles in teacher training. Some people advocate the importance of being excellent in subject matters and didactics focused at the transmission of subject content. Others see as a main goal for training the pedagogical skills and attitudes.

The proposal for a common curriculum for primary teacher training makes a clear choice: the training is in the first place a pedagogical training.

For a long time nothing was officially regulated with respect to the content of primary education. The teachers were expected in nursery school and in elementary school to develop

the pupils' sensory development, to teach arts and crafts, arithmetic, language, history, geography and a few other subjects.

What exactly had to be done was not laid down in the law. It was left to the individual schools. Developments in society, though, grew faster and faster and knowledge became something that was of use for an increasingly short period of time. At that time the need was felt to say more about the content of primary education than just give a list of subjects. Core objectives were formulated. These are descriptions of contents of education, of subject matter that must in any case be offered to the pupils at each primary school.

Core objectives for primary education were laid down by law for the first time in 1993. Besides a guideline for the primary curriculum they are also the perspective for teacher training.

In the past period of time those first core objectives have been critically assessed. On the basis of the experiences obtained by the schools, those initial core objectives have been revised. Since August 1998 the revised core objectives have applied. A new revision has been foreseen for 2003.

2.5. Content of the process management

The curriculum proposal for primary teacher training is based at a pedagogical concept with core principles like: relation and reflection. The teaching profession is the kernel of the concept. The proposal contains an orientation and a justification, the headlines, a kind of normative demands to be used as tools for the development of an own curriculum and subject specific demands.

For primary teacher training there is also a job profile available and also a set of initial standards of competence. The standards are giving a sketch how a teacher looks like after finishing the initial training. In this case for primary teacher.

A large part of the standards deals with demands focused at the core content in primary education, which is established in core objectives. Besides that there are standards focused at:

- knowledge and insight in the development of children
- the preparation of education by the teacher
- the design of learning environments
- the use of didactic models and the use of (new) media
- dealing with differences between children
- the pedagogical approach
- the evaluation of learning processes
- professional development
- relations with others

The aims for primary and secondary teacher education are formulated (but not formalised) in the curriculum proposals from the process management for teacher education. Based on these proposals institutions develop their own goals.

Besides that there are regulations for examination. Partly internal, partly external demands. Another steering instrument are the core objectives for primary education and secondary education. They are the perspectives for training because teachers have to become skilled to handle with these objectives in their future work places.

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PORTUGAL

Initial teacher education policy in Portugal

Bártolo Paiva Campos

As initial teacher education is provided by higher education institutions, there are two types of state policies in this domain: higher education policies for all types of institutions and programmes, including teacher education, and specific policies for teacher education programmes. The latter will be our focus.

Three reasons are usually called upon to legitimate the existence of a specific policy for teacher education. The first one relies on the fact that the state has a policy for basic and secondary education, both in state and private schools, namely concerning overall and specific objectives; teacher education policies are held to be a constitutive element of policies on the nature and the quality of basic and secondary education. Besides, regulation policies to license any professional activity usually have implications on professional qualifications; in Portugal, regulation policies licensing professional teaching activity are fully included in the teacher education policies. The third reason is related to the fact that the Ministry of Education is the major employer of teachers (at school level private schools only comprise about 10 to 15% of the students) without relying on selection of teaching candidates.

This case study is organized according to some main functions of state policies: establishing norms and guidelines; financing; quality promoting; quality assuring.

1. The education and training system

The education and training system teacher specific education exists for is organized as follows:

1. *pre-school education*: from 3 to 6 years of age;
2. compulsory *basic education*: lasting 9 years – covering the ages of six to fifteen – it is composed of three cycles lasting four, two and three years, respectively;
3. *secondary education*: lasting three years and covering the ages of fifteen to eighteen, allows a range of choices – general education and technological courses as well as vocational courses, some of which are alternance-based.

Teachers are qualified as:

- *class teacher*: pre-school teacher or primary school teacher (1st cycle of basic education)
- *subject-matter teacher*: 2nd cycle of basic education teacher; secondary school teacher (3rd cycle of basic education and secondary education); upper secondary school teacher (only for subject-matter belonging to this teaching level). A subject-matter teacher is qualified either to teach *one* single subject, or, as in the field of languages and exact and natural science, to teach *two* subjects. In this case the specification of subjects is defined by the government.

This definition of teaching qualifications has long been regarded as inadequate considering on-going changes in the basic and secondary education curriculum structure (the extension of compulsory education from 6 to 9 years, in 1986, stands out) and in school typologies according to the level of teaching they provide. Therefore, redefinition of teaching qualifications differentiation is underway, chiefly affecting the teaching levels it prepares for.

Higher education, where teacher education is provided, is organized according to the binary system – polytechnic and university; master and doctorate degrees are only available in universities. There is private and public higher education.

2. Teacher education institutions

Since the mid 80's, all initial teacher education, has been supplied by higher education institutions in the context of the international trend towards its "universitisation".

Up to this point, since the mid 70's, pre-school and primary school teacher education had been provided by Normal Schools, which already conferred post-secondary level qualifications, but not higher education qualifications.

The practical pedagogical education of secondary education teachers has long been provided by the educational administration. From the mid 70's to the late 80's, universities gradually took over this responsibility by falling back upon the collaboration of schools.

However, there are still teaching qualifications universities do not provide. In such cases teachers are hired from graduates who have only academic qualifications in the subject-matter to be taught, their theoretical and practical pedagogical education being guaranteed by the educational administration, with the support of higher education institutions, in most cases some years after having begun their teaching activity.

In accordance with the political definition of the Education Act (1986), *Universities* are entitled to provide professional teaching qualifications in all education levels and fields. *Teacher Education Colleges*, the successors to Normal Schools, are integrated in Polytechnic higher education and are only entitled to provide qualifications for pre-school and the 1st and 2nd cycles of basic education. Recently (1997), parliament offered these Colleges the possibility of preparing for the 3rd cycle of basic education as well, although there is a lack of political definition, which would make creation of the respective programmes practicable (*cf.* chart 1). Universities and Teacher Education Colleges also deliver inservice teacher education but this one is also delivered by school association centers and teacher association centers.

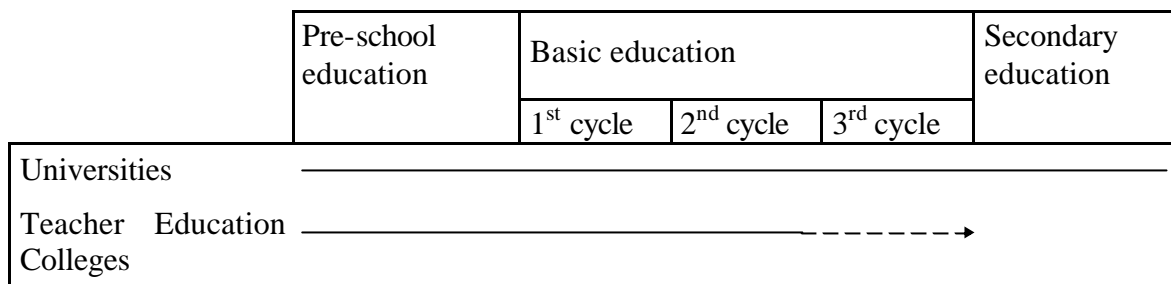


Chart 1 – Higher education institutions and teaching levels for which they can guarantee teacher education programmes

Whereas most Teacher Education Colleges are exclusively dedicated to teacher education and all teaching-staff departments exist for this purpose, in universities, departments for subjects to be taught are also directed to provide other types of training, although in many, teacher education makes up the highest percentage of their activity. The former *are* teacher education institutions; the latter *run* teacher education programmes. The internal organization of Teacher Education Colleges and of University Teacher Education Departments (subject matter-related departments and education matter-related departments) is the same of other polytechnics colleges or university departments. The programmes coordination (and so the teacher education programmes coordination) is an unsolved issue in most of them.

It should be noted that the State guarantees a public network of teaching institutions at all school levels, including higher education and, therefore, in the field of teacher education (*cf.* table 1).

Teaching levels \ Institutions	Public Universities N = 13	Public Education Colleges N = 14	Private Higher Education N = 20	Total
Pre-school	7	16	11	34
1 st cycle	7	15	8	30
1 st and 2 nd cycle	0	71	38	109
3 rd cycle and upper secondary	142	0	31	173
Total	156	102	88	346

Table 1. Initial teacher education programmes per type of institution and teaching level (1999-2000), Source: National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education

3. Teacher education programmes

In accordance with the changes introduced by the Education Act of 1997, pre-school, basic and secondary school teachers acquire their professional qualification through higher education programmes, graduating with a *Licenciatura* degree. Prior to this, the professional qualification for pre-school and primary school teachers was supposed to be acquired through

3-year programmes leading to a Baccalaureate higher education degree¹⁴. After the changes of 1997, the *unification of qualification levels* for all teachers was completed.

3.1. Professional teaching qualification awards and length of programmes

Since 1986 the same Act has stated that the diploma to be awarded by teacher education programmes should certify the specific professional qualification in which training has been given. The Government's political definition stresses that it is the teacher education programmes which award professional teaching qualifications, clarifying that it is this qualification which enables entry to a teaching career. These programmes simultaneously award academic degrees and professional diplomas and confer and certify professional qualifications. In all other programmes higher education institutions only confer academic degrees.

According to the Education Act, all *licenciatura* programmes last from 4 to 6 years. After the above-mentioned changes, pre-school and primary school teacher education programmes became 4-year programmes, all others generally last five years, or six in some cases.

3.2. Admission to initial teacher education programmes

Access to any higher education programme and therefore to any initial teacher education programme can be achieved through successful completion of any secondary education course. There is no specific policy for access to teacher education programmes. However, their specificity can be taken into account by higher education institutions through the establishment of admittance conditions, and by the Ministry when defining the number of students to be admitted yearly.

In the first case, the institutions set out the subjects for which national exams are required and the minimum mark to be achieved. As there is an overall mark of admittance to higher education, an allowed minimum mark has also been established. That is, political definition gives training institutions the responsibility of settling admittance requirements in relation to previous qualifications in terms of areas and rates attained with no disregard of the politically settled minimum.

The number of students to be admitted yearly in each higher education institution is settled each year by the Ministry of Education following the institutions' proposals. The Ministry can thus regulate the number of future teachers in-training by taking into account factors linked to the institution and to the overall number of teachers needed. However, the estimate of teachers needed has not been considered in the definition of the *numerus clausus* for teacher education programmes.

3.3. Curriculum structure of programmes

3.3.1. Curriculum goals

There is no detailed, clear political definition of the functions and tasks which professional teacher education programmes qualify one to perform, nor even of the competencies which

¹⁴ In Portuguese higher education system there are two academic degrees before Master: Baccalaureate (two to three years) and "Licenciatura" (four to six years).

should be held or learned in order to do so. Yet, there is a broad definition characterising teaching activity as *professional*. According to it, teacher education enables teachers:

- to assume a critical and active attitude in face of social realities;
- to undertake innovative approaches and research in relation to their educational activity;
- to undertake self-evaluation and self-study in an on-going and reflective manner.

These elements are enough to confirm that the overall characterisation of teaching performance present in this political definition is not that of a *civil servant* who can follow external rules, nor that of a *technician* using standard practices whilst unaware of the specific context s/he acts in. Rather, it is the characterisation of a *professional* capable of analysing each teaching situation and producing the teaching practices likely to lead the highest number of students through the learning process, and capable of evaluating and reflecting on their own practice in a way which increases their competence in this process.

However, there is a more detailed, specific, though implicit definition, of professional teaching performance. This definition is present in policies related to curriculum and student assessment, to school management and evaluation, and to teachers' duties.

To clarify this implicit definition there has been a recent decision to establish a political definition of a professional teaching performance profile in the fields and levels for which each teaching qualification provides preparation. A general teaching profile and some specific profiles (for pre-school and primary school teachers) will be approved next spring.

Sometimes professional teaching profiles also characterise the programme's content and process, that is, what should be taught and how, in a type of national teacher education curriculum. Given the ever-increasing autonomy of higher education institutions responsible for teacher education, such levels of specification for the political definition of professional profiles has not been considered adequate. With regard to the nature of the professional to be prepared, the effectiveness of such a measure would also be controversial. Definition of the programme's curricula – specific objectives, strategies, methods, activities and evaluation – is due to the higher education institutions, bearing in mind the outcomes implicitly or explicitly expressed in the performance profiles.

3.3.2. Curriculum components

Although this is the overall state of mind, there is, however, some political definition concerning the broad curriculum structure of teacher education programmes. The government defines both the global components for the programmes' curriculum structure and their weight within the whole.

The curriculum structure of the programmes and of each of their components should substantiate some of the politically defined principles, some of which are more outcome-based and others more process-based: (i) to promote learning of the different functions appropriate to the demands of a teaching career; (ii) to ensure integration both of the scientific and pedagogical features and of the theoretical and practical components; (iii) to be based on methodological practices similar to the ones teachers would use in their teaching activity; (iv) to enhance critical analysis practices, research and pedagogical innovation and the constructive involvement of the environment.

The previously mentioned Government political definition, following a broad statement on the components which the teacher education curriculum should comprise – (i) personal, social and cultural development, (ii) scientific knowledge of the subject-matter, and (iii) didactic and pedagogical training – subsequently organized the three components differently (the first two merge and the third is divided into theory and practice): (i) *personal, social, cultural, scientific, technological, technical or artistic training* for a specific teaching speciality; (ii) *educational sciences* (including specific didactics); (iii) *pedagogical practice*.

The political definition also considers the *weight* of the various components in the programmes. Two overall principles rule this consideration: (i) the cultural and scientific education component should be of increasing importance the higher the teaching level teachers are being prepared for, (ii) the pedagogical-didactic component should be emphasized when educating pre-school and primary school teachers. The political definition even sets out quantitative parameters to define the components' weight. Therefore: (i) the *pedagogical-didactic education* component and the *pedagogical practice* component should be kept in balance with the *cultural and scientific education* component, and both should not exceed 60% of the time allocated to all subjects in programmes for pre-school and primary school teachers; (ii) the *cultural and scientific* component should not exceed 70% of the time allocated to all subjects in programmes for teachers of the 2nd and 3rd cycles of basic education, and 80% in secondary teacher education programmes.

The presence of these three components has been assured in two ways: all components are either present throughout the programme, in *parallel*, or the theoretical and practical pedagogical and didactic components *follow* (generally after the 3^d year) the cultural and scientific component, this only being the case in teacher education programmes for subject-matter teachers. For both subject-matter teachers of a vocational and artistic nature, and secondary subject-matter teachers, professional teaching qualifications can also be acquired through a *licenciatura* graduate programme, which guarantees academic subject-matter preparation, complemented by a suitable pedagogical education programme.

Two types of situations comprise this reality, but these have rarely been taken: (i) The *licenciatura* programme covers, over four years, the cultural and scientific, and the educational sciences components, whereas the complementing programme covers, over one year, the specific didactic and pedagogical practice components; and (ii) the *licenciatura* programme only covers, over four years, the cultural and scientific component, whereas the complementing programme covers the remaining components over two years.

3.3.3. Practice component

The governmental political definition is more detailed concerning the *pedagogical practice* component. After stating the formative value of this component in the development of the skills and competencies teacher education integrates, it is also established that this component should be materialised through diversified activities to be supplied throughout the programme. There is then the possibility of it assuming the nature of an internship in its final part, the institutions therefore being connected to a network of schools. Co-operation mechanisms to be established with the school network, and the conditions under which pedagogical practice should be developed, are also the object of the Ministry of Education's specific political definition, these are, however, variable, depending on the programme. Several features distinguish the pedagogical practice supplied in teacher education programmes for pre-school teachers and teachers for the 1st and 2nd cycles of basic education from that supplied in those for the 3rd cycle of basic education and for secondary education.

In the first case, the logic of the *teacher education situation* prevails: (i) the school teacher who is supposed to supervise practice is entitled to a salary bonus provided by the higher education institution and (ii) does not benefit from any reduction in teaching activity to accomplish it; (iii) the student-teacher takes on the responsibility of teaching the classes assigned to his/her supervisory teacher and (iv) is not entitled to a work contract signed by the Ministry of Education, nor does s/he earn a salary for the supervised teaching activity s/he undertakes; (v) assessment of pedagogical practice is the higher education institution's exclusive responsibility.

Contrarily, in the second case, the participation of the Ministry of Education is significant, thus the logic of the *professional activity starting position* prevails: (i) the supervised teaching is called internship and the supervisor is entitled to a salary bonus and (ii) reduction in teaching activity, both provided by the Ministry of Education; (iii) the student-teacher is assigned her/his own classes to teach during this period; (iv) the Ministry of Education signs a work contract with her/him and pays the corresponding salary; (v) evaluation during this period is the shared responsibility of the higher education institution teacher and the school teacher where the internship takes place.

4. Teacher education programmes' funding

There is no specific policy for state funding of institutions and initial teacher education programmes as the general funding policy for higher education applies to them. Yet policy is different for public and private sectors, and in the public sector funding depends on the different programmes groupings, one of which are the teacher education programmes.

However, there is indirect funding for 3rd cycle and secondary teacher education programmes covered by universities. In question is funding for school internship. In fact (i) student-teachers are remunerated as full-time teachers although they undertake training and teaching on a part-time basis; (ii) supervising teachers get a small supplementary bonus directly from the Ministry of Education and (iii) are assigned reduced working hours, which incurs costs as schools must rely upon other teachers' work; (iv) finally, sometimes teachers cannot be assigned full-time teaching activities to allow for student-teachers training placements, which also incurs extra costs as they are paid as full-time workers.

4.1. Authorisation for running teacher education programmes

Authorisation for the creation and operation of an initial teacher education *institution* is not the object of any specific political definition, the overall policy being applied with regard to the creation and running of higher education institutions, which, as can be noticed, is different if it involves university or polytechnic, public or private education. Authorisation for running a *programme* and public *recognition of degrees* awarded by initial teacher education programmes also follow the overall policy regarding programmes in the higher education sector to which they belong.

Therefore, state university education programmes are created by the appropriate university bodies, although programme operating depends on its registration in the Higher Education Directorate. Polytechnic education programmes are created by the Minister of Education

following this Directorate's analyses of the institution's proposal. Private higher education courses are created by the respective institutions but programme operating authorisation is granted by the Minister of Education following analysis of the proposal by the Higher Education Directorate.

According to a recent Higher Education Law, the requirements and the procedures to follow for running a programme and obtaining public recognition of academic degrees have to be united.

Although teacher education programmes award not only academic degrees but also professional diplomas, programme running used until recently, to depend on a similar process to that followed by any higher education programme conferring academic degrees, mindful of a brief checking procedure on its conformity to teacher education legal rules. The similarity of the processes having been identified as inadequate, the running authorisation of programmes aimed at preparing teachers and certifying initial professional teaching qualifications recently became dependent on profession-enabling recognition through a specific procedure – that of *professional accreditation*.

5. Developing and assuring quality in teacher education

5.1. Quality development

Promoting the quality of teacher education programmes, as in the case of other higher education programmes, is the responsibility of autonomous higher education institutions, and is mainly conducted by their pedagogical and scientific co-ordination bodies, therefore relying upon financing resources and incentives available and acting according to the appropriate legal framework. One of the main instruments for the promotion of quality used for this purpose is institutional and programme *evaluation*. This evaluation is assured by associations of each sector's higher education institutions under the co-ordination of the National Council for the Evaluation of Higher Education. It is a self-evaluation procedure initially undertaken by the institutions' staff and then validated by an external committee. The evaluation procedure that started in public higher education in the mid 90's (the first evaluation procedure of all institutions and programmes completed in 2000) was extended to public and private polytechnic higher education only at the end of the decade.

One of the aims of the recently created National Institute for the Accreditation of Teacher Education is also to promote, at national level, debate and dissemination of ideas and practices on the quality of initial teacher education. This activity is about to start although no specific funding has yet been settled for initiatives to be carried out by the teacher education institutions.

5.2. Quality assurance

The certification of professional teacher education quality is done through a process of professional accreditation and by inspection.

5.2.1. Professional accreditation of initial teacher education.

Professional accreditation evaluates how appropriate the teacher education programme is to the quality demands of professional teaching performance. Recognition of a teacher education programme leading to a professional teaching qualification requires an *initial professional accreditation* certificate. This entitles the higher education institution itself to certify the professional teaching qualification of graduates. Accreditation is valid for a limited period, therefore, to keep programmes which lead to professional teaching certification running, they are required to obtain *professional accreditation renewal*. So, it is a question not only of *ex-ante* but also of *ex-post* accreditation. The framework for the professional accreditation procedure is composed of the legal norms for teacher education, overall and specific *professional teaching performance profiles* and *quality standards for initial teacher education programmes*. Definition of the former lies with the Ministry of Education, while the latter is the accreditation body's responsibility. Accreditation also takes into account the programmes' internal and external evaluation reports undertaken by the higher education evaluation system.

The accreditation body, the National Institute for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, is a public institution to which Government has delegated this responsibility. It is governed by a General Council, where there is representation of teacher education institutions, basic and secondary teachers, parents, teachers' employers, departments of the Ministry of Education, student teachers and business. General Council members are appointed by the institutions they represent, and its President is appointed by the Council of Ministers. Appointment of the Accreditation Committee members is made by the General Council.

As the system for initial teacher education professional accreditation was created in June 1999, the accreditation of programmes has not yet started. Its instruments and methodologies are being prepared with the participation of social partners. In addition to future new programmes, all existing teacher education programmes will have to apply for professional accreditation. The accreditation process will start next spring.

5.2.2. Inspection

All higher education institutions and programmes, and therefore those that prepare teachers, are submitted to inspection by the General-Inspection of Education. The legal framework for the running of higher education programmes has implicit quality requirements, so inspecting conformity is also a means of quality assurance. It should be stressed that inspection has only recently extended its sphere of action to higher education, its activities having, up to now, mainly focused on private higher education.

6. Some current issues for teacher education policies

6.1. Teacher education centred in professional teaching outcomes

The specific expected outcomes of teacher education are not clearly established and the definition of the curriculum components to achieve them is nearly generic, as higher education is, scientifically and pedagogically autonomous. Therefore it is small wonder there is great curriculum diversity in the more than three hundred programmes provided by nearly fifty institutions, even among programmes which prepare for the same teaching qualification. There is no evidence given this diversity, although desirable to a certain extent, that equivalence among the main outcomes is being achieved and that these are suitable to the

teaching subjects and levels they should qualify for. Doubts increase if we consider the weak tradition of higher education providers in teacher education curriculum development, implementation and evaluation centred in professional teaching outcomes. At the same time, several new challenges to the role of teachers have emerged or are emerging, and the teacher education culture of universities and colleges is changing slowly in response to them. It is expected that this situation will be improved by the recently created professional accreditation system of teacher education programmes and by the political definition of professional teaching profiles which constitutes the framework of that system. In particular, if its implementation is paralleled by the development of the accreditation body's other task, that is, the promotion of teacher education quality by means of promoting debates and disseminating ideas and practices within this field among the institutions and social actors engaged in it.

6.2. Conditions of schools and of professional teachers' participation in practice and internship

Supervised student-teaching practice is necessary for learning initial teaching competence. There is general agreement on the need for substantial improvement in this component of teacher education. Some of the problems stem from the difficulties of finding enough well qualified supervising teachers; of higher education institutions appropriately valuing practice as an unavoidable opportunity for qualifying teachers; and of establishing effective links with the schools where the internship takes place. The lack of well qualified supervisors and of other favourable conditions for internship increases when the number of student-teachers in the same teaching speciality is high and exceeds the number of the teachers needed, as is often the case.

6.3. Professionally qualified teachers in all teaching specialities and nation-wide

In some teaching specialities, namely in arts, technological and vocational areas, there is no possibility of obtaining professional qualifications before being employed as a teacher. Moreover, some schools do not attract enough qualified teachers. Thus, despite the great investment made in the last two decades, still about twenty percent of secondary school teachers do not hold a professional qualification, and some do not even hold an appropriate academic one.

6.4. Annexes

- Organic Law for the National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education
- Accreditation system for Initial Teacher Education
- The regulation of the accreditation process for initial pre-school, basic and secondary teacher education programmes
- Standards in initial teacher education

Anhang 1: Instruktion und Fragenliste für die VerfasserInnen der Länderstudien

Expert Opinion: Tendencies of teacher education policy and practice in your country

Please note:

This list of questions is supposed to inform you about the interests of the Austrian 'Commission for Planning and Evaluation of Teacher Education'.

- The list of questions need *not* determine the structure of your text: as *product* we do not aim for a list of answers to all our questions but for a structured and readable short text of 10 to 15 pages which organises the essential information about your system of teacher education in a manner you consider appropriate.
- We do not expect that you will undertake *new research* but ask you to write your contribution on the basis of your prior research and knowledge of the system.
- You need *not* answer all the questions. Please concentrate on those questions in your text which are meaningful for your system.
- We do not aim for a long list of references, however, we would appreciate if you mention a few central papers (which are available in German or in English), which exemplify the development of your system of teacher education, which critically discuss it or research its experiences.
- When answering some of these questions it might be necessary, to distinguish between the ideal concept and the average way of putting this concept into practice.
- Deadline is January 15th, 2001.
- Contact address:
Herbert Altrichter, Dpt. of Education and Psychology Johannes-Kepler-University Linz, Altenbergerstrasse 69, A-4040 Linz, Austria,
Phone +43-732-2468-8221 (or 8600), Fax +43-732-2468-9315; Mobile Phone +43-664-44 33 462.
Email herbert.altrichter@jk.uni-linz.ac.at
- To account for different systemic settings, we use the abstract term 'units of teacher education'. If teacher education is fully incorporated into traditional universities or in other institutions, than read the term "units of teacher education" as "faculty, department, unit" of teacher education in a university etc.
If teacher education is provided by separate institutions, please read "unit of teacher education" as "separate institutions of teacher education".

List of questions

The place of teacher education in the educational system

- Is teacher education a part of the tertiary education sector, is it part of traditional universities or is it located in special institutions? Since when?
- What *academic grades and professional licenses* are awarded by the units of teacher education? Are these grades and licenses different from those one awarded by the traditional universities?
- If units of teacher education have only recently become part of the tertiary sector: What was the *strategy of making teacher education a part of the tertiary sector?* What were the

experiences of these strategies? Was the transfer of teacher education to the tertiary sector connected with special programmes of qualification and investment in the areas of personnel, buildings and equipment?

- Do units of teacher education have *organisational autonomy* similar to the autonomy of universities? In what areas are they autonomous in their decisions, in what areas are they dependent on decisions by central administration or any other body?
- If units of teacher education are fairly autonomous: In what way are central interests of system regulation (for instance in times of school reform) satisfied by units of teacher pre-service and teacher in-service training?
- What *quality criteria* are formulated for units of teacher education? Are these criteria identical with those one formulated for other universities? In what way must units of teacher education demonstrate that they fulfil these quality criteria? Are there special demands with respect to quality assurance, accreditation, certification for units of teacher education, which are not relevant for traditional universities? What experiences has been made with quality assurance in teacher education?
- Are the conditions of *access of students* to units of teacher education identical with those valid for universities?
- Is there *co-operation between the various institutions* of teacher pre-service and in-service training and between teacher education units and traditional universities which might be considered as relevant for the quality of teacher education? What is the relationship between teacher pre-service and in-service education?

Aims

- Is there a *uniform set of aims and goals* relevant for all units of teacher education or are various institutions free to formulate their own aims? What image of the teaching profession is incorporated in the goals and practices of teacher education?
- What is the relationship between personal, educational and subject matter-related *competencies* in the programmes of teacher education?
- Are units of teacher education providing *offers other than pre-service education and research* (e.g. in-service training of teachers, adult education, counselling, research for the ministry etc.)?

Internal organisation

- Are units of teacher education free with respect to structuring their internal organisation or must they follow specific blue prints? What are the most usual *ways of internal organisation* of units of teacher education (e.g. faculties, departments, management responsibilities)? What are the most usual structures of management and decision making?
- What concepts of *internal quality assurance and quality development* are used?
- In what way may *students and external groups influence* programmes of study and the work of the teacher education unit in general?
- Do units of teacher education collaborate with *specific "practicum schools"* (professional development schools)? What are the demands on such professional development schools? What are their tasks?

Personnel

- What different *types of personnel* are employed by units of teacher education? What is the minimum qualification of these types of personnel? What is the average ratio between different types of personnel? What opportunities of carrier are open for the personnel?
- In what way and by whom is personnel *recruited*?
- Are there *special programmes* to develop research, teaching and other competencies of the personnel in teacher education units in order to assure that their qualification is equivalent to the qualification of traditional university personnel? What are the experiences with these programmes?

Teaching

- Are there special demands or *quality criteria for teaching and for study programmes* at units of teacher education which differ from the criteria for traditional universities? What are the main criteria for quality of study programmes at units of teacher education? In what way are these quality criteria monitored?
- What is the role of – guided and unguided – *practical school experiences* by students in the study programme?
- Do students have the opportunity to acquire *competencies for reflection* of practical work and/or *for research* within their course of studies?
- Which *new developments with respect to study programmes* are presently discussed and/or tried out? What is the role of part-time study programmes, of modularised study programmes and of distance education programmes in teacher education?
- Is the *system of examination* in units of teacher education different from the one in traditional universities?

Research and development

- What demands (*quality criteria*) with respect to *research and development* are put on units of teacher education? Are these demands different for basic research, applied research and research in/about the professional field? Are these demands different for educational research, subject matter-related research and research with respect to subject teaching? Are these demands different (with respect to quantity or quality) compared to those one asked from other tertiary institutions? In what way are these quality criteria monitored?
- Are units of teacher education *competing for research money* at prestigious research funds? Are they competing for research commissions?
- Are there *special programmes for developing research* at teacher training units? What are the experiences with such programmes?

Anhang 2: Das neue ungarische Fortbildungssystem

Ungarn besitzt gegenwärtig eines der dezentralisertesten, wettbewerbsbetonenden Bildungswesen in Europa. Auch das Lehrerfortbildungssystem wurde in den letzten Jahren nach diesen Gesichtspunkten reformiert (vgl. Setenyi 2000, 24 & 29ff).

Ziele dieser Reform waren:

- Marktähnliche Funktionsweise
- Staatliche Unterstützung direkt an die Schulen
- Stimulierung von Schulen, ihr Humanpotential zu entwickeln
- Kein Monopol im Programmangebot
- Erhöhung der Qualität (a.a.O., 29f)

Die Absicht war, einen "selbstregulierenden, quasi-Markt innerhalb des Bildungswesens" zu schaffen, der

- offen für das Aufnehmen von Regierungspolitiken war,
- ohne externe Administration und
- in reflektierender und lernbereiter Weise funktionieren sollte (a.a.O., 29).

Wesentliche *Elemente des neuen Systems* sind:

- LehrerInnen und die Lehrerkonferenz können akkreditierte Kurse vom Fortbildungsmarkt *wählen*, unter denen auch solche sind, die zu Graduierungen führen oder post graduate-Status haben.
- Auf Angebotsseite wurde strikt zwischen programme founder (entwickelt Programm und besitzt Copyright) und programme provider (führt dieses Programm durch) unterschieden. Dadurch sollten private Experten, Firmen und Schulen selbst in den Kreis der Anbieter aufgenommen werden.
- Tatsächlich sind die wichtigsten *Anbieter* derzeit Universitäten, Lehrerbildungsstätten und die regionalen pädagogischen Institute sowie private Firmen, Berufsorganisationen und Kirchen, allerdings ohne dass ein Monopol einer Seite besteht.
- Der Kern ist das *Akkreditierungsschema*: Die Akkreditierung wird durch ein halbautonomes ministerielles Zentrum (methodological and information centre for in-service teacher training) mit der Hilfe von derzeit 300-350 trainierten Akkreditierungsexperten durchgeführt (für die wiederum bestimmte Anforderungen bestehen). Die Idee ist dabei, dass durch Akkreditierung eine Eingangskontrolle auf dem Trainingsmarkt besteht, Schulen aber die angebotenen Programme selber testen. Angebote müssen nach bestimmten formalen und inhaltlichen Kriterien geschrieben werden. Unter denen z.B. sind:
 - Mindestdauer von 30 Stunden
 - Freie Preisbildung
 - Programmelemente, wie intensives Training, Teamwork und Praxis sind notwendig
 - Bewertung und Endevaluation durch die TeilnehmerInnen ist verpflichtend
 - Interne Qualitätssicherung ist verpflichtend (vgl. a.a.O., 31)
- Schulen managen ihr Humanpotential aktiv. Sie müssen *5-Jahrespläne für Fortbildung*, die mit ihren "pädagogischen Programmen" abgestimmt sind, und darauf basierende Jahrespläne für die Beteiligung der Lehrer entwickeln. Dies soll Schulen dazu bringen, ihre Humanressourcen zu erwägen, bewusst zu planen, sie als Wert und systemintegrierenden Faktor anzusehen.
- Die *Zentralverwaltung* ist dafür verantwortlich, die finanziellen Bedingungen (3 % des jährlichen Bildungsbudgets), die Akkreditierung, die Evaluierung und die Sicherstellung von Qualitätssicherung zu besorgen. Gegenwärtig werden 14.000 HUF pro Jahr und Lehrer an die Schulen gegeben. Der Betrag wird jährlich im Budgetgesetz definiert und geht gegenwärtig zurück¹⁵.

¹⁵ Pers. Mitteilung Gabor Halasz vom 1.7.2001

Die *Erfahrungen* mit diesem System wurden im Jahr 2000 in einer Evaluation dokumentiert, von der gegenwärtig eine englische Kurzfassung hergestellt wird.¹⁶

¹⁶ Pers. Mitteilung Setényi János vom 3.7.2001

Anhang 3: Ergänzende Materialien zur portugiesischen Studie

DECREE-LAW n°. 290/98

of 17th September

Organic Law for the National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education

Under the terms of sub-paragraphs *a)* and *c)* of paragraph 1 of Article 198 of the Constitution, to be enacted as a general law of the Republic, under the terms of paragraph 5 of Article 112 of the Constitution, the Government decrees as follows:

CHAPTER I

General Provisions

Article 1 ***Creation***

The Instituto Nacional de Acreditação da Formação de Professores (National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education) henceforth referred to by the abbreviation INAFOP, shall be created within the scope of the Ministry of Education.

Article 2 ***Nature***

INAFOP shall be an agency endowed with legal personality, having scientific, technical and administrative autonomy and its own assets.

Article 3 ***Range of activity***

INAFOP shall ensure, in accordance with the law:

- a) The accreditation process for initial education programmes for pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers;
- b) The external certification process for the professional qualification of individuals to perform the duties of pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers.

Article 4 ***Definition***

For the purposes of this decree-law, teachers shall be taken to mean pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers.

Article 5
Responsibilities

INAFOP shall have the following responsibilities:

- a) The accreditation process for initial education programmes of pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers;
 - b) The external certification process for the professional qualification of individuals to perform the duties of pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers;
 - c) To define, with social participation, quality standards for initial education of teachers, undertaking their periodic redefinition;
 - d) To inform and explain to initial teacher education institutions and interested parties all aspects of the accreditation and certification processes;
 - e) To register, attest and disclose the results of the accreditation and certification processes;
 - f) To prepare and communicate global analyses of the accreditation and certification processes undertaken;
 - g) To make recommendations to the initial teacher education institutions and the Government, in addition to undertaking studies, preparing proposals and delivering opinions on initial teacher education;
 - h) To promote, at national level, reflection, information and debate on the quality of initial teacher education;
 - i) To relate directly with public and private entities in pursuit of its action plan;
 - j) To establish relationships of exchange and co-operation with similar agencies from other countries and with other foreign, international or community institutions and organisations, relevant to the execution of its responsibilities.
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CHAPTER II

Organs and service

SECTION I

General structure

Article 6
Organs

1 – The following shall be INAFOP organs:

- a) The president;
- b) The general council;
- c) The steering committee;
- d) The standing commissions.

2 – The term of office for heads of INAFOP organs, with the exception of the general-secretary, shall be four years, renewable for equal periods.

Article 7
Service

The general-secretariat shall constitute the support service for INAFOP.

SECTION II

Organs

Subsection I

President

Article 8
Appointment and statute

- 1 - The president shall be appointed by resolution of the Council of Ministers.
- 2 - The president shall be assisted by a vice-president, appointed by order of the Minister of Education, on his proposal by the former.
- 3 - The president shall inherently be president of the general council and the steering committee.
- 4 - The president and the vice-president shall be recruited, by process of selection, from among persons of recognised standing within the scope of INAFOP activities.
- 5 - The president and the vice-president shall be equivalent, for all legal effects, with the exception of those expressly provided for in this decree-law, to director-general and deputy director-general.

Article 9
Jurisdiction of the president

The president shall have the authority to:

- a) Preside at the general council and the steering committee, convening and chairing their respective meetings;
- b) Represent INAFOP, whether in or out of court;
- c) Co-ordinate and monitor the activity of the various organs, administering the fulfilment of the respective resolutions and guaranteeing their articulation with the general secretary;
- d) Ratify the resolutions on accreditation and professional certification;
- e) Exercise other authority conferred on him by law, or delegated by the other INAFOP organs.

Article 10
Jurisdiction of the vice-president

The vice-president shall have the authority to:

- a) Substitute for the president in his absence and delay;
- b) Exercise the authority delegated to him by the president;
- c) Assist the president in exercising his authority.

Subsection II

General council

Article 11
Composition

1 – The general council shall be composed of 24 members, in addition to the president, which shall include:

- a) Six individuals representing the initial teacher education institutions sector;
- b) Six teachers, currently working in pre-school education and in primary and secondary education, representing the professionals;
- c) Six individuals representing the employment bodies;
- d) Six individuals representing the public interest.

2 – Six teachers, currently teaching in education institutions under the terms of sub-paragraph *a)* of the previous paragraph, shall be members of the general council, which shall include:

- a) Two from public university institutions for initial teacher education, appointed by the Council of Rectors of Portuguese Universities;
- b) Two from public polytechnic institutions for initial teacher education, appointed by the Co-ordinating Council of Polytechnic Higher Education Institutions;
- c) Two from private institutions for initial teacher education, appointed by the associations of private and co-operative higher education establishments.

3 – Members of the general council, under the terms of sub-paragraph *b)* paragraph 1 shall include:

- a) Two teachers appointed by the teachers' union federations;
- b) Four teachers appointed by the pedagogical and scientific associations within the subjects or subject areas or level of education and teaching, nationally, attempting to ensure diversity either of education and teaching levels or subject areas.

4 – Members of the general council, under the terms of sub-paragraph *c)* paragraph 1 shall include:

- a) One individual appointed by the Department of Educational Resource Management;

- b) One individual appointed by the associations of private and co-operative education establishments;
- c) Two individuals chosen from among the presidents or directors of the administrative and management organs of public schools of different levels of education and teaching by the Council of Regional Education Directors;
- d) One individual chosen from the presidents or directors of the administrative and management organisation of public schools of different levels of education and teaching from each of the Autonomous Regions of the Azores and Madeira, designated by the respective regional government.

5 – Members of the general council, under the terms of sub-paragraph *d)* of paragraph 1, shall include:

- a) One individual appointed by the Department of Higher Education;
- b) One individual appointed by the Department of Secondary Education;
- c) One individual appointed by the Department of Basic Education;
- d) One individual appointed by the business confederations;
- e) One individual appointed by the parent association confederations;
- f) One individual appointed by the student associations from the initial teacher education institutions.

6 – The Members of the general council appointed by the business confederations and by the confederations of associations of the country shall, by preference, not be teachers.

Article 12 ***Term of office***

1 – The members of the general council shall cease service before the end of the term of office in the following cases:

- a) Death or permanent physical disability;
- b) Resignation of seat;
- c) Loss of seat.

2 – Members of the general council shall lose their seat if:

- a) They have been the object of a legal judgement incompatible with performing the term of office, under the terms of the sentence received;
- b) They consistently miss meetings;
- c) They are no longer recognised by the entities they represent, these latter shall inform the president of this fact, in writing.

3 – Loss of seat, under sub-paragraph *b)* of the previous paragraph, shall be declared by the general council, by a two-thirds majority of the respective current members, with the safeguard of the corresponding defence guarantees.

4 – Vacancies which occur during the operation of the general council shall be filled by a process identical to that adopted for appointing the member being substituted, beginning a new term of office.

5 – If, the term of office of a general council member having ended, there has been no renewal or substitution, the departing member shall have the term of office extended for a maximum period of six months.

Article 13

Rights and guarantees

1 – In order to participate in general council activities, its members shall be released from professional activities, public or private, with the absences considered justified.

2 – Members of the general council shall not have the provisions of their social benefits or their permanent work prejudiced by virtue of performing their term of office.

3 – General council members shall not be punishable responsible for the votes and opinions which they produce whilst performing their duties, in the scope of this body's jurisdiction.

4 – Participation in council meetings shall give the right to receipt of attendance fees of a sum to be set by joint order of the Ministries of Finance and of Education and of the member of Government charged with the Public Administration.

5 – For general council members who, in its service, leave the area in which they live, transport expenses are provided, in addition to expenses, with these corresponding to the highest scale on the table set for public officials.

Article 14

Jurisdiction

The general council shall have the authority to:

- a) Define the general guidelines for INAFOP activities;
- b) Approve INAFOP rules of procedure;
- c) Approve INAFOP's action plan, budget and annual report and accounts;
- d) Define the criteria for composition of the standing commissions;
- e) Appoint the members of the standing commissions, on the proposal of the steering committee;
- f) Approve, on the proposal of the accreditation and certification commission, the accreditation and professional certification regulations;
- g) Establish, on the proposal of the steering committee, the amount to collect for services rendered, namely those of accreditation or certification;
- h) Promote the global evaluation of INAFOP's activities, appealing to external audit if necessary;
- i) Approve, on the proposal of the steering committee, the pay table for the opinions developed in the scope of the standing commissions and sub-commissions;
- j) Propose, to the Government, alterations to the structure of INAFOP and to the accreditation and certification systems for initial teacher education;

- l) Approve its operational rules
- m) Evaluate other matters submitted by the president.

Article 15
Meetings

1 – The general council shall ordinarily meet four times a year and extraordinarily when convened by the president, at his initiative or at the request of at least one third of the current members.

2 – The general council shall operate once the majority of its current members are present, among whom the president or whoever is substituting for him.

3 – Resolutions shall be taken by simple majority, with the president having the casting vote.

Subsection III

Steering committee

Article 16
Composition

The steering committee shall be constituted of the president, the vice-president, the general-secretary and by the standing commission co-ordinators.

Article 17
Jurisdiction

1 – The steering committee shall have jurisdiction over INAFOP administration in general, and in particular shall:

- a) Prepare and submit, for general council approval, INAFOP rules of procedure;
- b) Prepare, with the collaboration of the standing commissions, and propose, to the general council, the plan and annual report;
- c) Prepare the draft budget and the annual accounts report;
- d) Propose, to the general council, the appointment of the members of the standing commissions;
- e) Create accreditation and certification sub-commissions, on the proposal of the accreditation and certification commission;
- f) Request, from the competent standing commission, recommendations, studies, proposals and opinions;
- g) Administer and arrange INAFOP assets, and shall be responsible for deciding on the acquisition of services and on the acquisition, conveyance or onerousness of moveable and immovable goods in order to achieve its ends;
- h) Collect revenue and accept gifts, bequests or legacies, under the terms of the law;
- i) Define the structure of general-secretariat personnel and its respective categories;

- j) Establish salaries for personnel, subject to their individual employment contract;
- l) Propose, for approval by the Minister of Education, the personnel chart;
- m) Propose, to the general council, the pay table for the opinions developed in the scope of the standing commissions and sub-commissions;
- n) Contract and manage INAFOP personnel;
- o) Raise loans;
- p) Propose, for general council approval, the amount to collect for services rendered;
- q) Request, from public or private entities, those elements it considers vital to the accomplishment of its duties;
- r) Appraise, permanently, INAFOP's financial position;
- s) Undertake all necessary actions in pursuit of INAFOP duties which do not fall under the jurisdiction of other organs.

2 – The steering committee may delegate authority to any of its members.

Article 18 ***Meetings***

1 – The steering committee shall ordinarily meet once a month and extraordinarily when convened by the president, at his initiative or at the joint request of two of the other members.

2 – Steering committee decisions shall only be valid when taken in meetings where the majority of its current members are present.

3- Steering committee decisions shall be taken on the majority of the votes of those members present, with the president having, in the event of a tie, the president's vote shall be counted twice.

4 – The members of the steering committee shall be jointly responsible for the decisions taken, except if they were not present or, having been present, they requested their defeated vote be registered.

5 – The president shall be able to perform all actions which, due to their nature and urgency, cannot wait for the steering committee meeting.

6 – The actions of the president, performed according to the previous paragraph, shall be subject to ratification at the first subsequent meeting of the steering committee.

Subsection IV

Standing commissions

Article 19 ***Standing commissions***

The standing commissions are:

- a) The commission of accreditation and certification;
- b) The commission of studies and opinions.

Article 20
Members of the standing commissions

1 – The members of the general council shall not be part of either the standing commissions or the sub-commissions.

2 – The co-ordinators of the standing commissions are elected by the latter, from among their members.

3 – Article 13 shall apply to the members of the standing commissions.

4 – The members of the standing commissions are appointed by the general council, on the proposal of the steering committee, from among individuals of recognised standing in the scope of INAFOP activities.

Article 21
Accreditation and certification commission

1 – The accreditation and certification commission shall be constituted of seven to fifteen members.

2 – The composition of the accreditation and certification commission shall reflect the diversity of teaching qualification areas.

3 – The accreditation and certification commission shall have the authority to:

- a) Decide on the accreditation of initial teacher education programmes;
- b) Decide on the conferring of the external certification for the professional qualification of individuals;
- c) Prepare the regulation of the accreditation process, in addition to the certification process, for approval by the general council;
- d) Prepare and approve all the means necessary for realisation of the accreditation and certification processes;
- e) Propose, to the steering committee, the creation of the necessary sub-commissions and their respective members;
- f) Guide and co-ordinate the realisation of all accreditation processes, from candidature to final decision;
- g) Guide and co-ordinate the realisation of all phases of the certification processes;
- h) Promote the necessary training activities of its members and of the members of its sub-commissions;
- i) Prepare and approve its rules of procedure.

Article 22
Sub-commissions

1 – The technical sub-commissions shown to be necessary shall operate within the scope of the accreditation and certification commission, taking into consideration the education and qualifications which shall receive accreditation and certification.

2 – The members of the sub-commissions shall be appointed by the steering committee, on the proposal of the accreditation and certification commission, from among persons of recognised standing in the area of the education and qualifications which shall receive accreditation and certification.

3 – Each sub-commission shall be constituted of five to seven members, among which one shall be the co-ordinator.

4 – Article 13 shall apply to the members of the sub-commissions.

5 – Whenever, in a meeting of the standing commission, processes submitted by a sub-commission are under analysis, the respective co-ordinator shall be present, without the right to vote, except if a member of the commission.

Article 23

Studies and opinions commission

1 – The studies and opinions commission shall be constituted by five to seven members.

2 - The studies and opinions commission shall have the authority to:

- a) Promote and monitor the studies necessary to the performance of INAFOP;
- b) Promote and monitor the global analyses of the accreditation and certification processes;
- c) Develop the studies, opinions and recommendations requested of it;
- d) Encourage reflection, debate and communication of ideas and practices relative to the quality of initial teacher education, taking recourse to suitable means and opportunities for this purpose;
- e) Propose, to the steering committee, the acquisition of services necessary to the realisation of its activities;
- f) Promote the necessary training activities for its members;
- g) Prepare and approve its rules of procedure.

Article 24

Opinions

The rapporteurs of the opinions reached in the scope of the standing commissions and sub-commissions are paid in agreement with the table to be approved by the general council, on the proposal of the steering committee.

SECTION III

Service

Article 25

General-Secretariat

The general-secretariat shall have the authority to:

- a) Act as secretary to the general council, the steering committee, the standing commissions and the sub-commissions;
- b) Provide technical, information, documentation, secretarial and administrative support to INAFOP organs, for achievement of their respective activities;
- c) Ensure the general management of INAFOP assets, personnel and goods;
- d) Implement the INAFOP budget.

Article 26
General-secretary

1 – The general-secretariat is managed by a general-secretary, appointed by order of the Minister of Education, on the proposal of the president.

2 – The general-secretary is equivalent, for all legal effects, to the director of services.

CHAPTER III

Finance matters

Article 27
Assets

INAFOP assets shall be constituted by the universality of its goods, rights and duties.

Article 28
Revenue

INAFOP revenue shall be constituted of:

- a) Income collected in the scope of the accreditation and certification processes;
- b) Provisions bestowed upon it in the State budget;
- c) The product of sales of goods or services;
- d) Revenue originating from contracts entered into with the State;
- e) Income from separate property and that originating from its activity, or which by legal or lawful provision should belong to it;
- f) The outcome of conveyance of separate property and the establishment of rights on it;
- g) Subsidies, financial contributions or gifts bestowed by any public or private entity, national or foreign, as well as the possible provisions written into the State budget;
- h) The outcome from sale of publications and documentation of any form published by it;
- i) Copyright;
- j) Any other income which by law, contract or other title shall be bestowed upon it.

Article 29
Contracts

1 – In order to pursue objectives in the scope of verifying the quality of initial teacher education, the Government may enter into contracts with INAFOP.

2 – The contracts referred to in the preceding paragraph shall integrate the business plan for the period they respect.

Article 30
Expenses

INAFOP expenses shall be:

- a) Expenses for its operation and for accomplishment of the responsibilities and jurisdictions entrusted to it;
- b) The costs of acquisition, maintenance and preservation of goods, facilities or services which it must use.

Article 31
Tutelage

Plans and annual reports, in addition to the draft budget, are subject to approval by the Minister of Education.

Article 32
INAFOP Obligations

INAFOP shall be placed under obligation before third parties, by the signature of two members of the steering committee, one of them being the president or whoever has been delegated his powers.

CHAPTER IV

Personnel

Article 33
Personnel matters

INAFOP personnel are managed by the norms applicable to individual employment contracts, without prejudice to the provisions of the following Article.

Article 34
Mobility

1 – The officials of the Public Administration and of public institutions, in addition to employees in public companies, may be called upon to perform functions in INAFOP through

requisition or commission of services, with the original position and the privileges attained in it being guaranteed.

2 – The circumstances of requisition, referred to in the preceding paragraph, shall not be subject to a fixed term in general law.

Article 35
Personnel chart

INAFOP personnel, whether contracted or under the mobility system, as referred to in Articles 33 and 34, may not exceed the provisions established by the chart for approval by order of the Ministry of Education, on the proposal of the steering committee.

CHAPTER V

Final and transitional provisions

Article 36
Service period

1 – When the appointment of the president, vice-president and general-secretary falls to teachers of whatever level of education and teaching, the service period rendered in INAFOP shall be equivalent, for all legal effects, to actual performance of duties in the respective career.

2 – When the appointment for the president, vice-president and general-secretary falls to teachers from higher education, the counting of terms provided for in the respective career statutes shall be suspended on application by the interested parties.

Article 37
Compatibility

The recognition of salaries, in the scope of INAFOP, for members of the general council, standing commissions and sub-commissions shall be understood to be compatible with the performance of teaching or research functions only, exclusive of other activities.

Article 38
General council

1 – The president is responsible for initiating the necessary attention with which the first appointment of the general council members shall be undertaken.

2 – The general council may meet once half-plus-one of the expected members have been appointed.

3 – Whilst two thirds of the general council members have not been appointed, decisions taken, with votes in-favour by two thirds of the current members, are valid.

Article 39
Steering committee

The steering committee shall be constituted, for all effects, once the president, vice-president and general-secretary have been appointed.

Article 40
Premises

INAFOP shall have at its disposal premises made available by the General Directorate of Heritage.

Seen and approved in the Council of Ministers on 9th of July 1998. — *António Manuel de Oliveira Guterres* — *António Luciano Pacheco de Sousa Franco* — *Jorge Paulo Sacadura Almeida Coelho* — *Guilherme d'Oliveira Martins*

Promulgated on 3rd September 1998.

Let it be published.

The President of the Republic, JORGE SAMPAIO.

Countersigned on 8th September 1998.

The Prime Minister, António Manuel de Oliveira Guterres.

DECREE-LAW no. 194/99

of 7th June

Accreditation System for Initial Teacher Education

Under the terms of sub-paragraph *a*) of paragraph 1 of Article 198 of the Constitution, to be enacted as a general law of the Republic, the Government decrees as follows:

CHAPTER I

General provisions

Article 1

Object

This decree-law creates and regulates the accreditation system for initial education programmes for pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers.

Article 2

Accreditation

Accreditation of an initial education programme for pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers which aims to provide a professional teaching qualification recognises this programme's suitability to the demands for quality in professional performance in the educational or teaching level and area included in the same.

Article 3

Objectives of accreditation

The accreditation system shall aim for the following objectives:

- a) To certify and promote the quality of education leading to a teaching qualification;
- b) To guarantee the qualitative equality of the various programmes leading to the same specific teaching qualification;
- c) To inform interested parties on the quality of the initial education programmes for pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers;
- d) To contribute to the external regulation of initial education for pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers;
- e) To contribute to regulating admission to the teaching profession;
- f) To further the mobility of pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers within the European Union space.

Article 4
Professional qualification

The diploma from an initial education programme for pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers may only provide a professional teaching qualification if the programme has been subject to accreditation under the terms of this decree-law.

Article 5
Accreditation institution

Accreditation shall fall under the jurisdiction of the Instituto Nacional de Acreditação da Formação de Professores (National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education), henceforth referred to as INAFOP.

CHAPTER II

Accreditation of programmes

Article 6
Programmes

1 – The initial education programmes for pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers referred to in paragraph 1 of Article 31 of Law no. 46/86 of October, with the alterations introduced to it by Law no. 115/97, of 19th September, henceforth referred to as the Basic Law of the Educational System, shall be subject to accreditation.

2 – Equally, subject to accreditation, together with the higher education programmes they give access to, shall be the complementary pedagogical education programmes referred to in paragraph 7 of Article 31 of the Basic Law of the Educational System.

3 – Also subject to accreditation shall be the complementary pedagogical education programmes referred to in paragraph 6 of Article 31 of the Basic Law of the Educational System:

- a) Together with the higher education programmes they give access to, when provided by the same institution;
- b) Together with the admission requirements for the programme and the procedure for verifying these when supplied by a different institution.

Article 7
Fundamentals of accreditation

In order to confirm the suitability of the programmes to the demands for quality in professional performance, the accreditation process shall take into account:

- a) The teacher education project in all its components, in addition to, when applicable, the respective development and evaluation;
- b) The human resources and materials affected;

- c) The results achieved, namely in the professional performance of graduates when applicable and possible.

Article 8 ***Reference framework***

The accreditation system shall have as its reference framework:

- a) Legal jurisdiction over initial education of pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers as established in the Basic Law of the Educational System and in complementary legislation;
- b) The curricular orientation for pre-school education and curricula for primary and secondary education;
- c) The general performance profile of the pre-school teacher and teacher;
- d) The performance profiles specific to each teaching qualification;
- e) The quality standards of initial teacher education defined by the INAFOP accreditation and certification commission.

Article 9 ***Act of accreditation***

1 – Accreditation shall occur:

- a) For programmes held in public university institutions, before these same are submitted to the register legally provided for, and as a condition for this;
- b) For programmes held in public polytechnic institutions, before any development proposal is submitted to the decision of the Minister of Education, and as a condition for this;
- c) For programmes held in private or co-operative higher education institutions, before any request for an operational licence and degree recognition under the terms of the Private and Co-operative Higher Education Statute, and as a condition for this;
- d) For programmes held by the Portuguese Catholic University, before entry into operation, and as a condition for this.

2 – In the case provided for in sub-paragraph *d)* of the previous paragraph, the entry into operation of the programme, without this same having received accreditation, shall determine application for the provisions of paragraph 3 of Article 6 in Decree-Law no 15/96, of 6th March.

Article 10 ***Monitoring***

1 – INAFOP shall monitor the operation of accredited programmes, namely through periodic reports, using the form established by the respective regulations.

2 – During the first accreditation period of a programme the same is object to a specific monitoring process using the form established by the respective regulations.

3 – From the resultant appraisal of monitoring, programmes may be subject to:

- a) Recommendations as to their organisation and operation;
- b) A resolution to introduce changes within a defined time period, under penalty of suspension or cancellation of accreditation.

Article 11
Renewal of accreditation

1 – Accreditation of a programme shall be subject to periodic renewal under the terms established in the respective regulations.

2 – Non submission of the request for accreditation renewal shall determine withdrawal of the accreditation granted, with the consequences provided for in this decree-law.

Article 12
Alterations to accredited programmes

1 – Teacher education institutions shall be obliged to inform INAFOP of significant alterations to be introduced in the curriculum structure of accredited programmes.

2 – INAFOP shall assess this information and decided whether to start an accreditation alteration procedure.

3 – If, within 60 days following the information referred to in paragraph 1, INAFOP does not communicate the start of an accreditation alteration procedure, it may be assumed that this same shall not take place.

CHAPTER III

Accreditation Process

Article 13
Accreditation process

1 – The accreditation process and the monitoring of the operation of programmes shall occur under the terms of the accreditation regulations prepared by INAFOP, and shall use the information gathering means defined by it.

2 – The accreditation regulations shall be published in the *Diário da República*, 2^a série, until the date referred to in paragraph 2 of Article 31.

Article 14
Phases

1 – The accreditation process shall have the following phases:

- a) Candidature submitted by the teacher education institution, which shall consist of, when applicable, a considered analysis of the prior development of the teacher education project;

- b) Appraisal of candidature by the specific sub-commission of the INAFOP accreditation and certification commission, being based on the elements which direct the candidature process, in addition to visits undertaken to the teacher education institution, preparation of the report respective to the appraisal and its delivery to the teacher education institution;
- c) Reply from the teacher education institution to the report referred to in the previous sub-paragraph;
- d) Preparation of the sub-commission's final proposal and its submission to the accreditation and certification commission;
- e) Resolution of the accreditation and certification commission;
- f) Ratification of the resolution referred to in the previous sub-paragraph by the president of INAFOP.

2 – The visit referred to in sub-paragraph *b)* of the previous paragraph may be dispensed with in situations provided for in the accreditation regulations.

Article 15

Internal and external evaluation reports on programmes

The internal and external evaluation reports on the programmes referred to in Article 6 and on the respective teacher education institutions, prepared in the scope of the higher education evaluation system, shall be taken into consideration in the accreditation process, when they exist, needing for this purpose, to be sent to INAFOP by the respective institutions.

Article 16

Preliminary Rejection

Candidature concerning programmes not included in the framework of the provisions of Article 6 shall be preliminarily rejected, by order of the INAFOP president

Article 17

INAFOP Decisions

1 – INAFOP decisions shall be justly reasoned, and may assume the following forms:

- a) Accreditation;
- b) Refusal of accreditation;
- c) Suspension of accreditation;
- d) Cancellation of accreditation;
- e) Recommendation.

2 – Accreditation decisions for a programme may be conditional on the satisfaction of established objectives within a defined period, under penalty of suspension or cancellation of accreditation.

3 – Except for the provisions of the previous paragraph, the decision to refuse, suspend or cancel accreditation shall always be preceded by the demand for conditions to be met within an established period.

4 – INAFOP decisions referred to in paragraph 1 shall be published in the *Diário da República, 2^a série*.

Article 18
Amount to collect

The amount established in the accreditation regulations shall be payable for the accreditation process or its renewal.

CHAPTER IV

Refusal, suspension or cancellation of accreditation

Article 19
Validity

The suspension or cancellation of the accreditation of a programme shall result in the non-opening of new enrolment for said programme until the same be accredited.

Article 20
Students

1 – Students who, on the date of suspension or cancellation of accreditation for a programme, are enrolled on the same, have the right, on attaining the respective academic grade, to certification, by INAFOP, of the professional teaching qualification.

2 – The professional teaching qualification shall be awarded under the terms of suspended or cancelled accreditation.

3 – It shall be the duty of the teacher education institution to meet the charges for certification referred to in paragraph 1.

CHAPTER V

Recognition of academic qualifications

Article 21.
Recognition of an academic qualification

1 – Recognition of a higher education programme as an academic teaching qualification requested by the higher education institution that provides it shall be made by directive of the Minister of Education once INAFOP has pronounced its opinion.

2 – The directive referred to in the previous paragraph shall indicate:

- a) The name of the programme and of the establishment which provides it;
- b) The legal measure or measures which have approved the curricular structure and the study plan which serve as the basis for its recognition;

- c) The teaching areas for which the programme is recognised as an academic qualification;
- d) The date from which the qualification is recognised.

Article 22
Scrutiny of the request for recognition

1 – Institutions seeking recognition of a programme as an academic teaching qualification shall communicate the request through a report, of a standard model, approved by the INAFOP accreditation and certification commission.

2 – The request shall be forwarded to INAFOP, which has authority for scrutinising the case.

Article 23
INAFOP opinion

In issuing its opinion, INAFOP shall adopt identical methodologies and criteria to those used for the appraisal of the scientific, technological, technical or artistic education components of programmes referred to in Article 6.

Article 24
Validity

Recognition of a programme as an academic teaching qualification shall only become valid after publication of the directive referred to in Article 21.

Article 25
Alterations

1 – The higher education institutions shall be obliged to communicate to INAFOP any alterations they plan to introduce to curricula of programmes recognised as an academic qualification.

2 – INAFOP shall proceed to the preliminary appraisal of the alterations, aiming to verify if they significantly affect the presuppositions for recognition of the programme, and shall notify the higher education institution of its opinion.

3 – Whenever the alterations significantly affect the presuppositions for recognition of the programme, scrutiny of a new request for recognition shall be initiated.

4 – In the case provided for in the previous paragraph, any alterations may only be implemented following favourable conclusion of the process of recognition of the programme and publication of the respective directive, under penalty of cancellation of this.

Article 26
Publishing of Regulations

By directive of the Minister of Education, the following shall be approved:

- a) Regulations for the process of recognition of a programme as an academic qualification;

b) Transition from the existing list of academic qualifications to the new list established under the terms of this chapter.

Article 27
Amount to collect

For scrutiny of the case, in addition to for the opinion concerning recognition of a higher education programme as an academic teaching qualification, amounts established by the INAFOP general council shall be payable.

CHAPTER VI

Special Situations

Article 28
Acquisition of 'licenciatura' degree by teachers holding professional qualifications

1 – Recognition of a *licenciatura* degree course for the effects of the provisions of paragraph 1 of Article 55 of the Statute for the Careers of Pre-school, Primary and Secondary School Teachers, approved by Decree-Law n° 139-A/90, of 28th April, and modified by Decree-Laws n° 105/97, of 29th April and n° 1/98, of 2nd January, following INAFOP opinion.

2 – Publishing the regulation of the recognition process referred to in the previous paragraph is made by directive of the Minister of Education.

Article 29
In-service acquisition of professional teaching qualification

The accreditation of in-service professionalisation referred to in paragraph 2 of Article 62 of the Basic Law of the Educational System shall be regulated by separate legal measure.

Article 30
Moral and Religious Education

The professional qualification for teaching Moral and Religious Education shall be regulated by separate legal measure.

CHAPTER VII

Transitional decisions

Article 31
Transition

1 – Programmes included in Article 6 and in operation at the date this decree-law comes into force shall be subject to the accreditation process.

2 – The provisions of the previous paragraph shall apply equally to programmes created between the date this decree-law comes into force and the date INAFOP begins to invite candidature.

3 – INAFOP shall publish, in the *Diário da República*, 2^a série, within a maximum time limit of six months, the candidature submission schedule for programmes referred to in the previous paragraphs, which may be performed in phases.

4 – Programmes which accreditation has been applied for shall continue to certify professional teaching qualifications under the terms in use up to the date this decree-law comes into force until the INAFOP decision.

5 – Refusal of accreditation for a programme shall have the following consequences:

- a) The non-opening of new enrolments for said programme;
- b) The suspension of providing professional teaching qualifications on the part of said programme from the start of the immediate academic year.

6 – Students enrolled on a programme included in the previous paragraph shall apply, with due adaptations, to the provisions of Article 20.

7 – Programmes for which no accreditation shall be required in the time established the terms of paragraph 3:

- a) Shall no longer provide professional teaching qualifications from the start of the immediate academic year;
- b) Shall not accept new enrolments.

8 – Students enrolled, at the end of the time established under the terms of paragraph 3, on a programme included in the application of the previous paragraph may, as an alternative, opt to:

- a) Complete the programme in the same institution and apply to INAFOP for external certification of the professional teaching qualification, with the respective costs falling to the teacher education institution;
- b) Request transfer to another teacher education institution.

Article 32 ***Transitional regimes***

1 – Programmes currently recognised as an academic teaching qualification shall continue to be so until the end of the time limit established by the directive referred to in sub-paragraph b) of Article 26.

2 – Programmes currently recognised for effects of the provisions of paragraph 1 of Article 55 of the Statute for Careers of Pre-school, Primary and Secondary School Teachers shall continue to be so until the time limit being set by the directive referred to in paragraph 2 of Article 28.

Seen and approved in the Council of Ministers on 6th April 1999. — *António Manuel de Oliveira Guterres* — *Eduardo Carrega Marçal Grilo*.

Promulgated on 14th May 1999.

Let it be published.

The President of the Republic, JORGE SAMPAIO.

Countersigned on 20th May 1999.

The Prime Minister, *Antonio Manuel de Oliver Gutteres*.

STANDARDS IN INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION¹⁷

INTRODUCTION

Standards in Initial Teacher Education, in accordance with Article 8 of decree-law no. 194/99, of 7th June, establish reference to the accreditation process of programmes which give access to professional qualifications for teaching in basic education (including pre-school education) and secondary education.

These standards constitute a set of criteria for assessing the degree to which the programmes meet the demands of teaching performance. It is a question of generic statements, applicable to all programmes, and involves principles, objectives and conditions which should be taken into account and linked with the general profile and the specific profiles of pre-school and school teacher performance, the regulation of the accreditation process and the accreditation candidature guidelines. They focus on the following areas: 1. Programme's professional objectives, co-ordination and regulation; 2. Collaborative and partnership efforts for developing the programme; 3. Programme curriculum; 4. Selection and evaluation of trainees and professional qualification certification; 5. Teaching and non-teaching personnel and materials.

The standards indicate the principles, which must be safeguarded, and the objectives which should be reached, but they leave a wide margin of freedom for institutions to decide on how to effect them. For example, they do not prescribe in detail how professional practice periods, field trips and mechanisms for regulating the programme should be run, nor how to effect partnerships with schools and the educational administration.

The set of criteria presented for appraising initial teacher education programmes may involve changes in relation to certain aspects, causing some teacher education institutions to have problems in meeting certain standards immediately. Naturally, in the near future, they may be met only gradually, namely with regards to teaching staff qualifications for programmes in operation or resulting from changes to these. Moreover, the rapid and constant change of information, and of access to it, creates new demands on the schools and teachers, which require initial education programmes be subject to continuous re-evaluation and, consequently, that standards be open to revision.

1 PROGRAMME'S PROFESSIONAL OBJECTIVES, COORDINATION AND REGULATION

1.1 The programme develops in the trainees the qualifications and skills necessary for professional teaching performance and lifelong learning, based on a teacher education project which expressly takes into account:

- i)* legally defined, general and specific, professional profiles;
- ii)* curricular guidance and plans for basic and secondary education;
- iii)* scientific and technological development;
- iv)* relevant conclusions from the education research;
- v)* changes in society, schools and teacher profiles;
- vi)* direction of national educational policy.

1.2 Programme co-ordination structures and mechanisms exist to develop, manage, regulate and evaluate the programme of initial teacher education and to carry through the changes necessary, with the involvement of management organs, teaching and student bodies from the teacher education institution and other interested parties, such as management organs of co-operating schools, teacher associations, scientific societies, programme graduates and members of the community, representing a variety of perspectives and cultures.

¹⁷ Approved unanimously on 15th June 2000, by the Accreditation and Certification Commission of the National Institute for Accreditation of Teacher Education (INAFOP), and unanimously ratified, on 13th November 2000, by the INAFOP General Council.

- 1.3 The teacher education institution ensures work undertaken may be assessed by making the information relevant to understanding its pedagogical project, curriculum, activities, *modus operandi*, resources, general policies and trainee results available, both at the end of the programme and during subsequent professional performance.

2 COLLABORATIVE AND PARTNERSHIP EFFORTS FOR DEVELOPING THE PROGRAMME

- 2.1 The teacher education institution has forms of collaboration and/or partnership agreements with:
- i) other institutions – for research, development and teaching activities – promoting the active involvement of teaching and student bodies in projects of an inter-institutional, national and international nature;
 - ii) schools from the various educational and teaching cycles in association with the educational administration structures, when necessary, and with the teachers' organisations, so as to link various education dimensions, specifically collaborative research, professional development of teachers, post-graduate teaching and initiation of professional practice activities.
- 2.2 The partnerships effected with schools and other institutions, for the purposes of initiation of professional practice, are formalised through collaborative protocols, clearly indicating the roles, responsibilities and skills of all participants, including the trainees.
- 2.3 The teacher education institution:
- i) ensures that the schools and other institutions with which it establishes collaborative partnerships have the necessary human resources, materials and interest for quality education;
 - ii) ensures that the professional practice period mentors, and other teachers from the schools and the other institutions co-operating on the programme, have suitable skills to perform their roles, in particular for adult education, and are chosen by clear and appropriate selection mechanisms and supported in their professional development.

3 PROGRAMME CURRICULUM

- 3.1 The programme is organised so as:
- i) to be coherent between the programme's conceptual structure, the kind of discipline and trainee evaluation system;
 - ii) there is articulation between theory and practice, integrating initiation of professional practice activities throughout the programme;
 - iii) to have careful articulation between the different programme units and activities undertaken in the initiation of professional practice, so as to sustain a fruitful relationship between specific knowledge and general perspectives, as well as develop a critical capacity in relation to different knowledge areas;
 - iv) to develop cross-curricular objectives adequately;
 - v) to enable trainees to undertake activities with trainees from related programmes, aiming to increase the crossover of knowledge and the evaluation of different skill areas, useful in subsequent professional work.
- 3.2 Teaching and learning methodologies:
- i) are diversified and consistent with the principles which shape adult education within a higher education context and include specific education in the areas in which trainees need to gain skills;
 - ii) promote collaborative work practices, essential to the functioning of academic organisations;
 - iii) offer understanding of the complexity of schools and educational situations, based on multiple practical experiences;
 - iv) encourage trainees to have an active and responsible role in their learning and professional development, not only during the initial education programme, but also when they begin to teach and, subsequently, during their professional career;

- v) include the necessary work experience in laboratories, offices, artistic workshops, language learning, etc, in line with the programme type;
 - vi) recognise, value and take advantage of the different cultures and experiences of trainees, as well as of teaching personnel;
 - vii) offer all trainees opportunities to deepen study of problematics, undertake research and be involved in projects in their educational field;
 - viii) encourage high levels of performance from trainees.
- 3.3 The programme offers access to the new information and communication technologies and to other resources in order to meet specific needs with regard to:
- i) teaching methodologies used;
 - ii) access to information and communication between trainees, teachers, schools and other participants in the teacher education process;
 - iii) learning judicious use of information and communications technologies, with their different focal points;
 - iv) the use of these resources as an integral part of the preparation and professional experience of trainees.
- 3.4 The programme curriculum includes the following education components, appropriately inter-linked:
- i) *cultural, social and ethical education* which includes, complementing the contribution other components must give for this purpose, sensitivity to the big issues of the contemporary world, expanding to areas of knowledge and culture different from a particular teaching speciality, reflecting on ethical problems attached to teaching, as well as dimensions instrumental to the search, organisation and communication of information, including use of information and communications technologies and knowledge of foreign languages;
 - ii) *education in speciality teaching area(s)* which includes curricular units of a diversity and depth appropriate to gaining basic education in the programme area and in knowledge areas connected to professional performance in the teaching levels for which the programme is aimed;
 - iii) *education studies* which covers specific didactics in the teaching area the programme gives access to and other educational learning areas, relevant to understanding the educational act, including attention to diversity;
 - iv) *initiation of professional practice*, which includes observation, collaboration, intervention, analysis and reflection on educational situations.
- 3.5 The credit units of the education components, calculated by the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), meet the suggested minimum values, bearing in mind each subject can contribute to education in more than one component:
- i) in the programmes which prepare for teaching in pre-school education or the 1st cycle of basic education:
 - a) cultural, social and ethical education – 15 ECTS;
 - b) education in areas of specific teaching and didactics – 105 ECTS;
 - c) general education studies – 35 ECTS;
 - d) initiation of professional practice – 50 ECTS;
 - ii) in the remaining programmes:
 - a) cultural, social and ethical education – 15 ECTS;
 - b) education in teaching areas – 125 ECTS if they prepare for teaching one subject and 150 ECTS if they prepare for teaching more than one subject or for secondary education;
 - c) general education studies and specific didactics – 50 ECTS;
 - d) initiation of professional practice – 50 ECTS.
- 3.6 The pedagogical education programmes provided for in Article 31 of the Basic Law of the Educational System, by themselves or in conjunction with the earlier *licenciaturas*, ensure the minimum education expected for the cultural, social and ethical, education studies, initiation of professional practice for the respective professional teaching

qualification education components, with said *licenciaturas* needing to satisfy the minimums established for education in the speciality teaching area(s).

- 3.7 Programmes have academic years of a minimum of 30 weeks, with the weekly lecture attendance load not exceeding 25 hours.
- 3.8 Initiation of professional practice activities:
- i) are conceived of from the perspective of professional development of trainees as future teachers, so they may come to adopt a critical and reflective approach to daily professional challenges, processes and performance, and should include a research component;
 - ii) fuse coherently, throughout the programme, with its objectives, through different activities of increasing length and progressive responsibility, concluding with the supervised professional practice period;
 - iii) take place in groups or classes at different levels of development in all the cycles which the programme gives access to, in compliance with the curriculum areas to which education is aimed;
 - iv) offer varied experience, namely with students of different sexes, ages, levels of development, social environment and culture;
 - v) facilitate trainee contact with schools and other institutions in different fields and offer planning, teaching and evaluation experience, as well as involvement in the wide spectrum of responsibilities expected of the teacher, including teamwork in and outside the classroom;
 - vi) forestall trainee behaviour and attitudes which could harm pre-school, basic and secondary school pupils;
 - vii) include, as well as the professional practice period, activities of a minimum length of 2 hours which take place for at least 15 days, spread over one or more academic years.
- 3.9 The professional practice period:
- i) is undertaken by giving lessons to one or more classes in a system of shared responsibility between trainees and the school mentor, and supervision by the teacher education institution, safeguarding the specificity of each educational and teaching level;
 - ii) takes place over an academic year or equivalent;
 - iii) involves holding seminars combining science and pedagogy, theory and practice, as well as analysis work and discussion with the mentors and the professional practice period group.
- 3.10 Research and discussion of research work form a regular part of the teacher education institution's activity:
- i) teachers undertake research projects, publish work of a scientific nature and participate regularly in the activities of the respective scientific communities;
 - ii) results from research carried out in the institution, from own experience, and in other institutions, are used to support the development and improvement of the programme;
 - iii) trainees learn the essential aspects of the methodologies used in research undertaken in their teaching area and educational field, and have the opportunity to participate in projects or initial research activities undertaken by the institution's teachers.
- 3.11 In the teacher education institution, a variety of activities and programmes exists, namely:
- i) programmes of continuous education – linked to initial education, which may or may not lead to degrees or formal certification – for teachers and other professionals and activities for members of the educational community, such as parents, local authorities, etc.;
 - ii) publication of studies and pedagogical materials concerning the various teacher education components;
 - iii) support and consultation services for educational institutions and for the community in general.

4 SELECTION AND EVALUATION OF TRAINEES AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION CERTIFICATION

- 4.1 The criteria and procedures for selecting candidates for entry to the programme or a stage of the programme that leads to the teaching qualification:
- i)* reflect the principles and objectives of the programme, selecting candidates whose field of study corresponds to the speciality they aim to study and who hold the appropriate minimum requirements for entrance subjects;
 - ii)* consider the probable suitability of candidates to a career in the profession;
 - iii)* recognise informal qualifications, obtained whilst performing professional or other activities, whenever relevant to the respective programme.
- 4.2 The evaluation criteria used on the programme cover a set of characteristics associated with the probable suitability of trainees to professional teaching, offering them experience of self and external evaluation.
- 4.3 The evaluation procedures are suited:
- i)* to the type of subject and the different stages of the programme;
 - ii)* to the nature of the characteristics evaluated and the purpose of the evaluation, whether it be formative or summative;
 - iii)* to the specificity of its different components.
- 4.4 Evaluation of trainee performance in initiation of professional practice activities involving teaching experience is effected in co-operation with the teaching personnel of the teacher education institution and the schools' mentors, with clear procedures for the resolution of potential conflicts.
- 4.5 The evaluation is appropriate for certifying professional qualification to start teaching.

5 TEACHING AND NON-TEACHING PERSONNEL AND MATERIALS

- 5.1 The teacher education institution assures, with respect to the teaching staff of each programme and the teachers of the schools and institutions which co-operate in education:
- i)* the existence of effective scientific and pedagogical co-ordination;
 - ii)* participation in the development and evaluation of the programme;
 - iii)* opportunities for professional development in various spheres.
- 5.2 The programme's teaching staff:
- i)* guarantees the teaching in programme areas it is qualified for by its academic, scientific and professional curriculum;
 - ii)* is highly qualified, consisting mainly of PhDs, working exclusively or fulltime both in the teaching speciality areas as well as in education studies;
 - iii)* also includes teachers, allocated to this programme, with actual experience of the education and teaching levels to which the programme gives access;
 - iv)* performs a variety of activities, including research and collaboration with teachers and the educational administration;
 - v)* is continually updating its knowledge, skills, teaching and evaluation methodologies;
 - vi)* knows how to make appropriate use of the new information and communications technologies, in particular for instruction in its teaching area and activity.
- 5.3 The teacher education institution has qualified technical and administrative personnel to support the programme and takes measures for its continual up-to-dateness.

5.4 The teacher education institution has:

- i)* equipment and facilities suited to the programme type, namely buildings, laboratories, libraries, media libraries, resource centres and computer and study rooms, with the necessary conditions for access by the physically handicapped;
- ii)* teaching media that allow trainees to familiarise themselves with the materials used in schools.

REGULATION OF THE ACCREDITATION PROCESS

FOR INITIAL PRE-SCHOOL, BASIC AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES¹⁸

CHAPTER I

General Provisions

Article 1

Object and scope

1. This regulation, in accordance with the provisions of Article 13 in decree-law no. 194/99, of 7th June, establishes the organisation of the accreditation process and monitoring of the operation of accredited programmes for initial education of pre-school, basic and secondary education teachers, henceforth referred to by 'programmes' and by 'teachers', whose professional teaching qualification the diploma aims to certify.
2. This regulation shall be applicable to the accreditation of all programmes defined in Article 6 of the aforementioned decree-law, whether they be administered by polytechnic or university higher education institutions, in the public sector or the private and co-operative sector, or also the Portuguese Catholic University.

Article 2

Framework

1. Accreditation of an initial teacher education programme constitutes recognition of the programme's suitability to the demands of professional performance at the level and educational or teaching area it comprises.
2. The accreditation process takes into consideration:
 - a) The teacher education project, with all its components, as well as, when applicable, its respective development and evaluation;
 - b) The human resources and materials for the programme;
 - c) The results attained by graduates, namely in their professional performance, when applicable and possible.
3. The accreditation system takes as reference:
 - a) The legal system for initial education of pre-school teachers and basic and secondary education teachers established in the Basic Law of the Educational System and complementary legislation;
 - b) The curricular guidance for pre-school education and the curricular plans for basic and secondary education;
 - c) The general performance profile of the pre-school, basic and secondary education teacher and the specific performance profiles for each teaching qualification, defined by the Ministry of Education;
 - d) The quality standards of initial teacher education defined by the accreditation and certification commission and ratified by the INAFOP general council.
4. The methodology for submission, appraisal and decision on the accreditation candidature process shall be established in the "accreditation candidature guidelines" and in the "accreditation candidature appraisal guidelines", defined by the accreditation and certification commission and ratified by the INAFOP general council.

Article 3

Types

1. The accreditation process is organised according to the following types:

¹⁸ Approved by the INAFOP general council, on 28th September 2000, with 18 votes in favour and 3 abstentions.

- a) Initial accreditation;
 - b) Renewal of accreditation.
2. The initial accreditation process shall apply to the programmes teacher education institutions intend to offer for the first time for a specific teaching qualification, henceforth referred to as 'new programmes', and to those in operation at the starting date of the period referred to in paragraph 2 of the following Article.
 3. The renewal of accreditation process shall apply to accredited programmes in operation and shall proceed whenever institutions seek to renew the validity of the initial accreditation of said programmes.

Article 4
General timeframes

1. The starting date for submitting candidature for initial accreditation of new programmes, for each teaching qualification, shall be published by INAFOP in the *Diário da República*, 2ª série.
2. The period for submitting candidature for initial accreditation of programmes in operation, for each teaching qualification, shall be published by INAFOP in the *Diário da República*, 2ª série.
- ~~3.~~ The accreditation process, excluding the month of August, shall observe the following timeframes:
 - a) 6 months for initial accreditation of new programmes;
 - b) 12 months for initial accreditation of programmes in operation or for renewal of accreditation.
4. When, for unforeseen reasons, an unusual quantity of candidatures for initial accreditation for new programmes are received simultaneously, the timeframes referred to in the previous paragraph may be exceeded.
- ~~5.~~ Calculating the accreditation process timeframes follows the provisions of Article 72 of the Administrative Procedure Code.

CHAPTER II
Accreditation processes

Section I
Candidature

Article 5
Submission

1. The accreditation process, for whatever type, begins with the submission of candidature, in which the institution and the programme are identified and profiled and the latter is proven to meet the demands of professional teaching performance at the level and in the education or teaching area it comprises.
2. In the processes for initial accreditation of a programme in operation and for renewal of accreditation, the proof referred to in the previous paragraph must, further, include critical consideration of the prior progress of the programme's teacher education project, which may result in submission of proposals to reformulate the teacher education project in operation.
3. Candidature is formalised with the dispatch of the following documents:
 - a) Application to submit candidature to the INAFOP president, signed by the responsible member of the teacher education institution, accompanied by proof that it is legally competent to provide *licenciatura* programmes;
 - b) Identification and profile records for the institution and the education programme, the computerised model of which shall be made available by INAFOP on its internet site, with digital support compatible with the INAFOP computer system, or on paper;
 - ~~c)~~ Accreditation *dossier*, prepared according to the "Candidature and Accreditation Guidelines", in digital form compatible with the INAFOP computer system, or on paper, in this case requiring eight copies;
 - d) The most recent internal and external evaluation reports for the programme and the respective teacher education institution, drawn up within the scope of the evaluation system for higher education, which may be accompanied by any additions the institution considers suitable;
 - e) Payment method for the obligatory financial contribution with the teacher education institution, under the terms of the following Article.

Article 6
Financial contribution

1. The financial contribution referred to in Article 18 of decree-law no. 194/99, of 7th June, shall be defined by the general council on the proposal of the Steering Committee, taking into account the parameters established in the contracts to be entered into with the Government and the accreditation process types.
2. The actual sums to collect shall be decided on and published annually and, to all effects, shall be considered as annex to this regulation.

Article 7

Admission and preliminary rejection

1. The INAFOP General-Secretariat shall act to receive and verify the regulatory and legal requirements of the candidature processes received, and prepare a report on each one for the president, proposing:
 - a) Admission of candidature, or
 - b) Invitation to the applicant to overcome existing shortcomings, or
 - c) Preliminary rejection of candidature if it be decided the programme fails to conform to the framework in the provisions of Article 6 of decree-law no. 194/99, of 7^h June, and taking into account the scope of the specific teaching qualification profiles defined by the Ministry of Education in terms of the level or levels of education or teaching and the subject or subjects included.
- ~~2.~~ Should the president decide to accept candidature, the general secretary shall notify the teacher education institution and the accreditation and certification commission.
3. Should the president decide to preliminarily reject candidature, the general secretary shall notify the proposing entity and return 75% of the sum received as financial contribution to the accreditation process.

Section II

Specific technical sub-commissions

Article 8

Organisation criteria

1. The organisation of each specific technical sub-commission shall include:
 - a) Individuals of recognised standing, preferably at doctorate level, who perform or have performed teaching duties in higher education on initial teacher education programmes
 - (i) in the speciality areas of future teaching;
 - (ii) in the area of education studies;
 - b) Individuals of recognised standing who perform or have performed duties as teachers holding professional qualifications, in basic or secondary education, preferably with experience in monitoring initiation of professional practice activities on initial teacher education programmes.
2. The organisation of the specific technical sub-commissions may include national or foreign individuals of recognised standing in the programme area or in teacher education.
3. The organisation of the specific technical sub-commissions may also include a student from an initial teacher education programme.

Section III

Appraisal

Article 9

Appraisal Phases

1. Appraisal of candidature, to be realised by the specific technical sub-commission, shall be effected in the following phases:
 - a) Appraisal of the constant elements of the candidature process;
 - b) Visit to the teacher education institution;
 - c) Preparation of an appraisal report;
 - d) Dispatch of the appraisal report to the teacher education institution for analysis over 30 days;
 - e) Appraisal of the any response from the teacher education institution to the report;
 - f) Preparation of the proposed decisions, to be submitted to the accreditation and certification commission.

2. In the case of new programmes, the gathering of information normally done by visiting the institution shall simply be effected by a meeting with those responsible for the programme.
3. Once the candidature appraisal is concluded, the co-ordinator of the specific technical sub-commission shall submit, to the co-ordinator of the accreditation and certification commission, a *dossier* containing the candidature appraisal report, any response from the teacher education institution to this and the justified proposed decisions prepared by the specific technical sub-commission.

Section IV Decisions

Article 10 Decision on the processes

1. Decisions concerning the accreditation processes shall be approved by the majority of the accreditation and certification commission's active and disinterested members.
2. accreditation and certification commission decisions shall clearly state their reasons which may consist of a simple declaration of agreement with the reasons in the specific technical sub-commission's proposal, which shall, in this case form an integral part of the decision.
3. The minutes of the meetings in which decisions are made concerning the processes, shall be approved at the end of the respective meeting.

Article 11 Types of decision

1. INAFOP decisions concerning the accreditation processes take the form presented in paragraph 1 of Article 17 of decree-law no. 194/99, of 7th June.
2. Accreditation may or may not be accompanied by recommendations, or conditional on the satisfaction of established objectives, under the terms of paragraphs 1 and 2 of Article 17 of decree-law no. 194/99, of 7th June.
- ~~3.~~ Should the specific technical sub-commission move to submit a proposal to refuse, suspend or cancel accreditation with the agreement of the accreditation and certification commission, the latter, before reaching a decision, shall stipulate, in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 3 of Article 17 in the aforementioned decree-law, the conditions to be met by the teacher education institution.
4. In the case provided for in the preceding paragraph, the accreditation and certification commission shall establish a timeframe, not exceeding 45 days in the case of new programmes, and not exceeding 1 year in the case of programmes in operation, at the end of which the specific technical sub-commission shall verify if the conditions were met and resubmit the process to the accreditation and certification commission for decision including the information concerning the points observed.
5. Student representative bodies for the respective programmes shall be notified on the decisions referred to in paragraphs 3 and 4.

Article 12 Ratification

1. Following its approval, the decision on the process shall be submitted by the accreditation and certification commission co-ordinator, up to 30 days before the end of the global timeframe for the process, to the INAFOP president, for ratification, accompanied by the *dossier* submitted by the specific technical sub-commission and the information received from the teacher education institution during the previous hearing.
2. In the case of ratification, the INAFOP general secretary shall notify the teacher education institution of the approved decision and of the respective reasons, sending, in this case, the proof of accreditation certificate countersigned by the president and filing the candidature analysis *dossier* and the respective decision.
3. In the case of non-ratification, the president shall justify his decision and return the process to the co-ordinator of the accreditation and certification commission for reappraisal.

Section V Publicising and validity

Article 13 Publicising decisions

1. INAFOP decisions concerning programme accreditation shall be published in the *Diário da República, 2ª Série*.
2. On the Institute's web page and by other means considered suitable by its Steering Committee, information shall be made available on the results of the completed accreditation processes.

Article 14
Validity of accreditation

1. Initial accreditation of new programmes shall be valid for four years, counted from when they start operating.
2. In the remaining cases, accreditation shall normally be valid, in any of its types, with or without recommendations, for six years, although this period may be amended in order to articulate scheduling between higher education evaluation processes and accreditation of teacher education programmes.
3. Accreditation, subject to the satisfaction of established objectives, for whichever type, shall be valid for four years.
4. If attempting to retain the status of an accredited programme beyond these periods, 12 months before accreditation validity ends, the candidature process for renewal of accreditation should be started.
5. If INAFOP, for its own reasons, namely due to the application of paragraph 3 of Article 12, and if, in the cases provided for in paragraph 3 of Article 11, a decision on candidature referred to in the previous paragraph should not be pronounced within the timeframe of existing accreditation validity, this shall automatically be extended to the date of the decision.

CHAPTER III
Monitoring and alterations to accredited programmes

Article 15
Nature of monitoring

1. Monitoring the operation of an accredited programme shall aim to assess if any alterations, which have since occurred, involve changes to the presumptions on which accreditation was granted and justify its revision.
2. With a view to monitoring the operation of an accredited programme, the teacher education institution shall send the INAFOP president, as soon as available, the internal and external evaluation reports on the programme and the respective teacher education institution, prepared in the scope of the higher education evaluation system, which may be accompanied by any additions the institution considers suitable.
3. With a view to monitoring the operation of a new programme holding initial accreditation, the teacher education institution shall send the INAFOP president, up to 18 months following the start of the programme, a report on the development of the teacher education project subjected to the accreditation process, referring to and justifying any alterations introduced.
4. With a view to monitoring the operation of any other programme, the teacher education institution shall send the INAFOP president, up to the end of the 3rd year of accreditation validity, a report referring to and justifying the alterations subsequently introduced to the *dossier* submitted for the accreditation process.
5. The process of monitoring the operation of a programme can also be initiated if the series of events arising out of the accreditation process so advise.

Article 16
Appraisal and decision on monitoring

1. Based on the information gathered, a report shall be compiled for appraisal by the accreditation and certification commission.
2. Compilation of the report referred to in the previous paragraph may be entrusted by the accreditation and certification commission to one of its members or to one of the members of the specific technical sub-commission, having previously heard its co-ordinator or the specific technical sub-commission itself.
3. If justified by circumstances, when compiling the report, use may be made not only of documental analysis, but also of additional information requested or information gathered in meetings with those responsible for the programme, teachers or trainees.
4. The accreditation and certification commission shall decide on the report in one of the following ways:
 - a) Filing, in the case of a favourable report;
 - b) Recommendations with regard to its organisation and operation;
 - c) Decision to introduce alterations within a specified timeframe, under penalty of suspension or cancellation of accreditation.
5. Should the accreditation and certification commission decide as per sub-paragraph c) of the previous paragraph, it shall establish a timeframe not exceeding 1 year, at the end of which the specific technical sub-commission shall verify if the demands have been met and resubmit the process to the accreditation and certification commission for decision, with the information related to the points observed.

Article 17

Alteration to accredited programmes

1. For the effects of the provisions of Article 12 of decree-law no. 194/99, of 7th June, significant alterations to be introduced in the curricular structure of accredited programmes shall be understood as those requiring intervention by the Ministry of Education.
2. The accreditation and certification commission shall appraise the information based on an opinion prepared by one of its members in collaboration with the specific technical sub-commission, and shall resolve on the need, or not, to open a process of alteration to accreditation, of which it shall notify the teacher education institution within 45 days, commencing on the date of receipt of the information referred to in the previous paragraph.
3. Should the accreditation and certification commission resolve on the need to open a process of alteration to accreditation, the teacher education institution may forego introducing the proposed changes, or may request the opening of a process of alteration to accreditation, which shall take place in the terms provided for in the renewal of accreditation process, with the necessary adaptations.

CHAPTER IV
Final provisions

Article 18

Revision

4. This regulation may be reviewed:
 - a) Ordinarily, during the first year following the start of submitting candidature for accreditation and, subsequently, at the end of each three year period;
 - b) Extraordinarily, whenever resultant circumstances demand and a qualified majority of three-quarters of the general council so decides.
2. Preparation of proposals to revise this regulation, to be submitted to the general council, are the responsibility of the accreditation and certification commission which, as such, must take into account its experience and the suggestions made to it by the other INAFOP organs and by the teacher education institutions.
3. Reviews to this regulation are not valid for the accreditation processes, in any of their types, in progress at the time it comes into force, except if this should result in more favourable treatment of the interested parties.

Article 19

Doubts and cases of omission

The general council shall resolve, at the initiative of the president or request of the accreditation and certification commission, on the interpretation or integration of omissions concerning the mandate of this regulation.

Article 20

Publication and entry into force

This regulation, and any alterations to it, shall be published in the *Diário da República, 2ª Série*, and come into force on the day following publication.