

# FIRST RESULTS OF THE COMPARATIVE STUDY

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## **The structures of teacher education for history teachers in Europe General aspects and trends**

The international databases on education have become more aware of the importance of teacher education since we started to work for the pilot-study on initial training for history teachers in 1997/98<sup>11</sup>. Nine years later, we are in the comfortable situation to relate, what we have found about the specific situation of teacher training for history teachers to the general information about teacher education in Europe: This will be the task of the following chapter which will give an overview on structures of teacher training for history teachers, the number of students and the institutions involved in teacher education, the models of training and the job prospects for history teachers.

## **The history teacher in the context of the development of the teaching profession in Europe**

### **1. Statistics**

Over 16 million students were enrolled in tertiary education in the European Union in 2002<sup>12</sup>. From the data we have collected in our study we may add: In the year 2002/03

- More than 1 million or approx. 6,25 % of all students in tertiary education were teacher trainees. This means that a million of students in one of the 25 European countries followed studies on a tertiary level to become a teacher either in primary or in secondary education.
- More than half a million of these students (3,13%) were enrolled in subject history studies (including geography and/or social studies), and finally:
- Over 120 000 students (~ 0,75%) wanted to become history teachers.

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<sup>11</sup> Ecker, Alois (Ed.) (2003a) Initial Training for History Teachers: Structures and Standards in 13 Member States of the Council of Europe, Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing

<sup>12</sup> Eurydice / European Commission (2005) Key Data on Education in Europe 2005, Brussels, Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Union, p. 140; see also <http://www.eurydice.org>

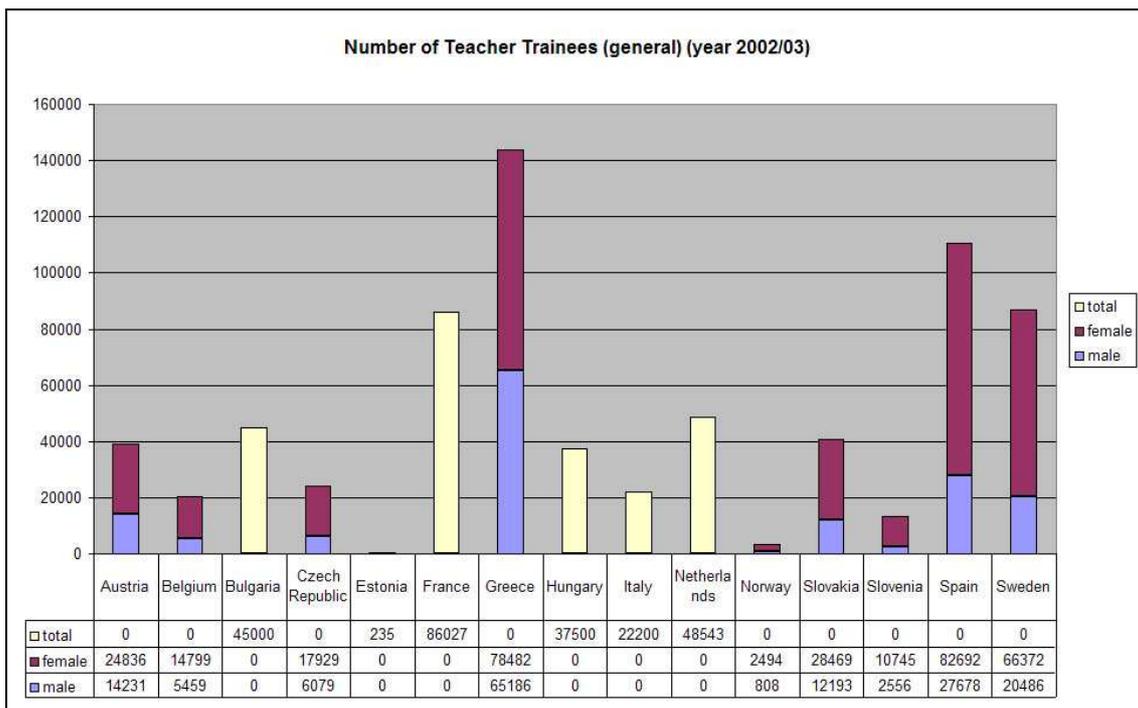


Table 1: Number of Teacher Trainees (general) in selected European countries (year 2002/03)

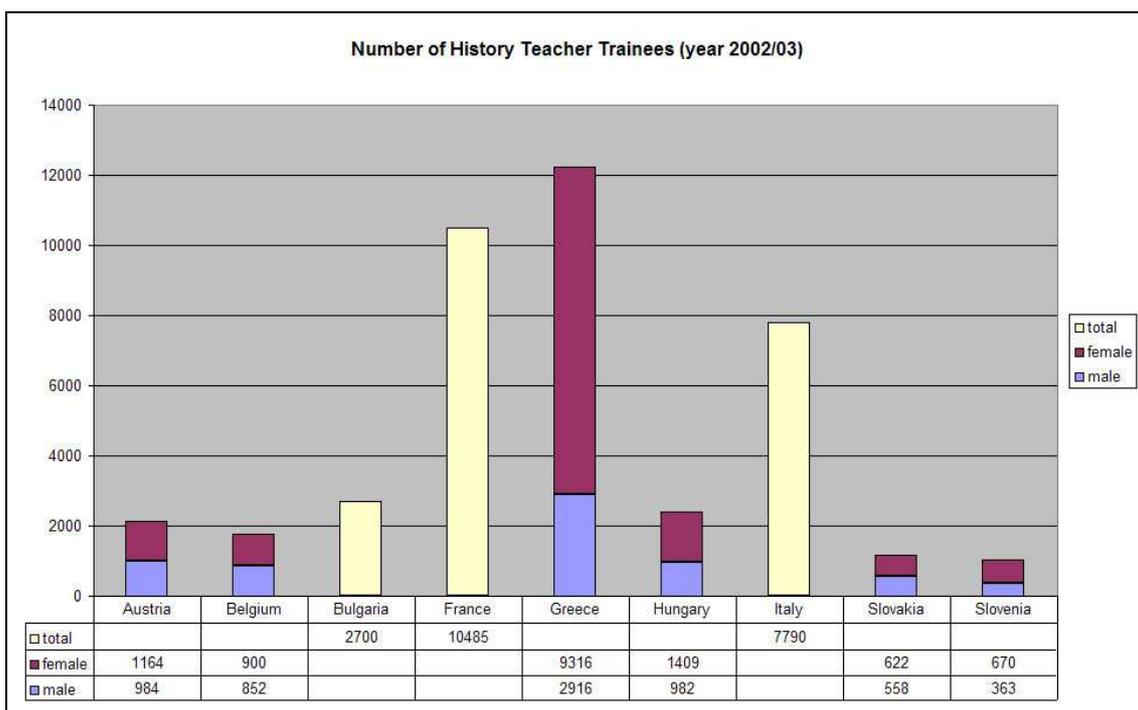


Table 2: Number of History Teacher Trainees in selected European countries (year 2002/03)

Compared to the overall number of students in tertiary education in Europe our study focuses on a small segment of tertiary education. On the other hand it tackles an important subject: The learning and teaching about history, which means: the study on information, knowledge, methodology and reflection about political, social, economic and cultural development of European societies.

As concerns the strategy of research we were astonished that it seemed to be rather difficult for some countries to get exact data about the number of teacher trainers and especially the number of history teacher trainers. This difficulty can be taken as a general remark on the daily routine of organising teacher education: it seems not yet very common in European countries to relate discussion and planning about teacher education to empirical data, especially to the so called “exact data”, like statistics.

## 2. Organisational structures of ITT – general information

### *Institutions of teacher education – entitlement for teaching history*

For more than a century all prospective teachers for upper secondary education have received their teacher education at universities.

During the last two decades university-level teacher education has become the norm also for lower secondary education – and the trend goes beyond that level:

“In Europe, the great majority of prospective teachers, regardless of the level at which they are intending to work, undergo their initial teacher education at tertiary level, either in university or in non-university tertiary education programmes.”<sup>13</sup>

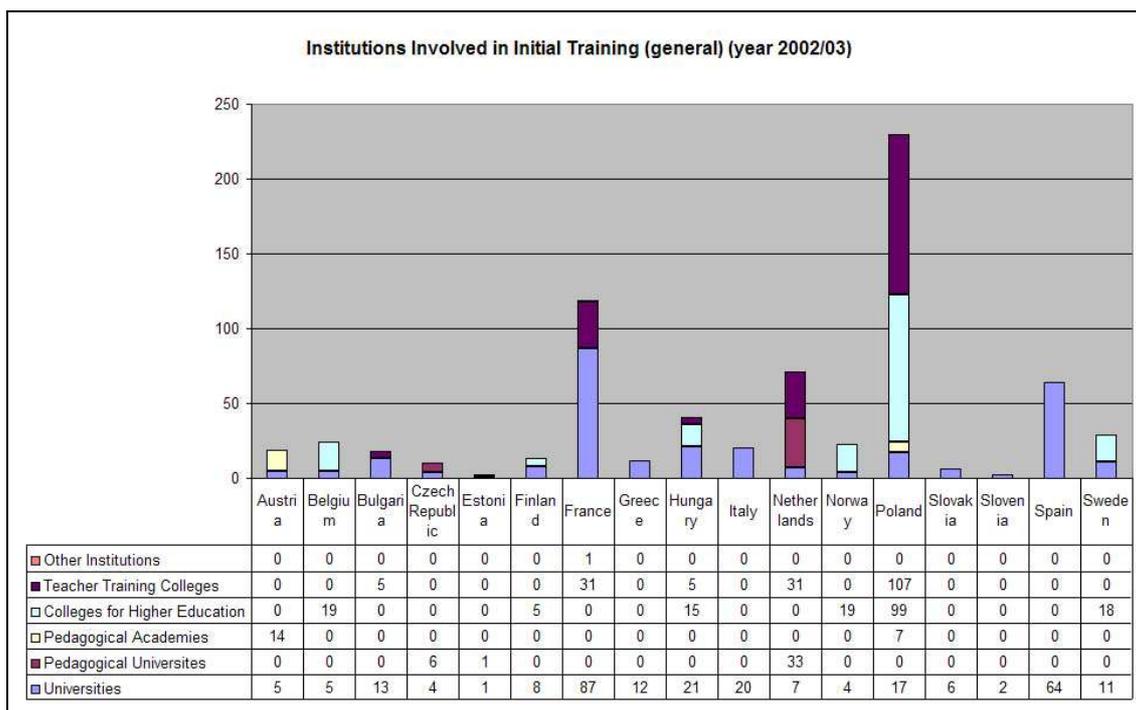


Table 3: Institutions involved in initial teacher training (all subjects) (year 2002/03)

As concerns initial training for history teachers of lower and upper secondary education, the picture is mostly the same: Studies at universities, universities of applied sciences or pedagogical universities prevail to a large extent. This is the case in almost all the countries: For the entitlement of a history teacher of upper secondary general or vocational education (ISCED 3) students follow studies at universities. (see table 4 below)

<sup>13</sup> Eurydice/ EC (2005) Key data, p. 185.

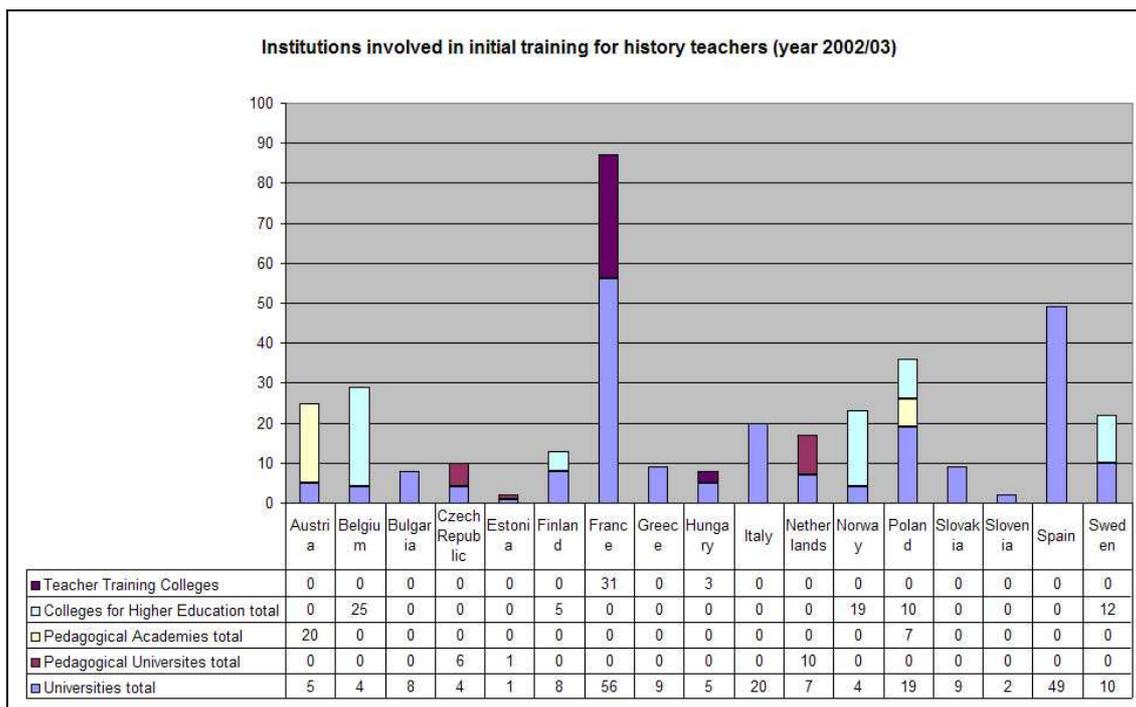
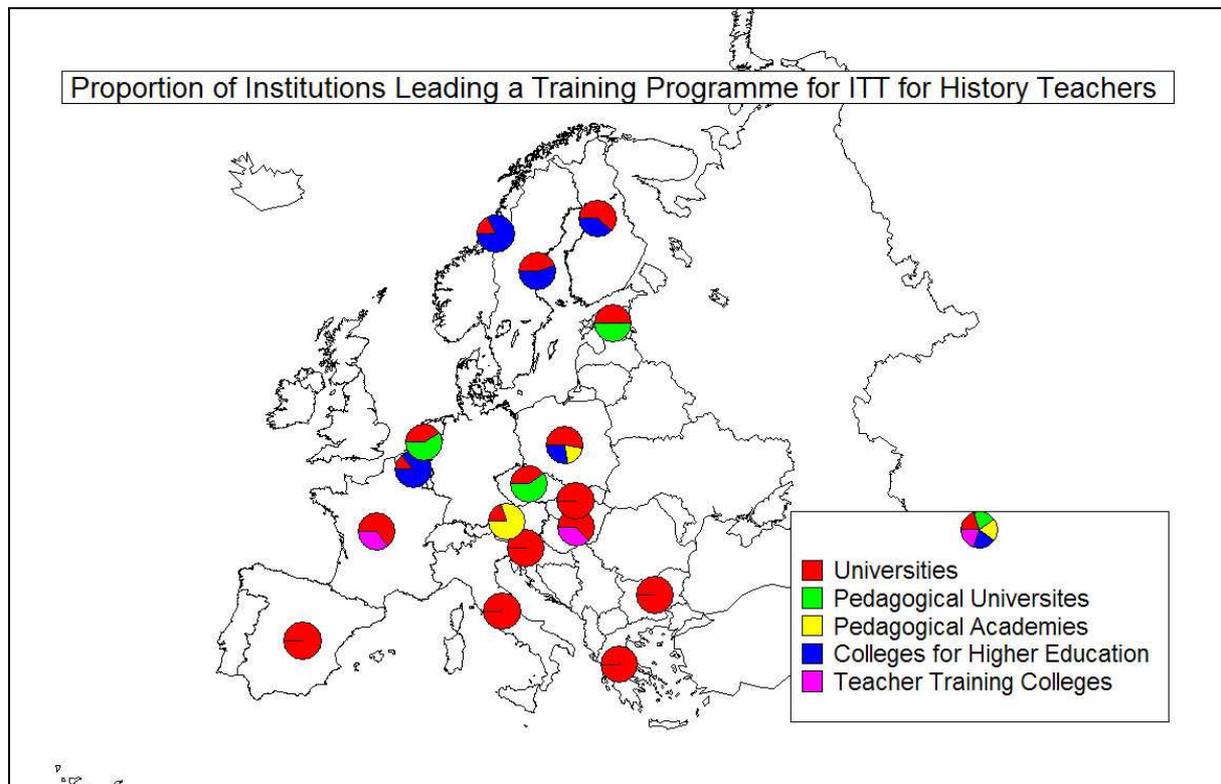


Table 4: Institutions involved in initial training for history teachers (year 2002/03)

As concerns the entitlement of a history teacher of lower secondary general education (ISCED 2), the overall picture is the same, although there are some countries reporting, that initial training for history teachers takes place also in institutions different from universities, universities of applied sciences or pedagogical universities: This is the case with

- Austria: – history teachers for parts of lower secondary education (Hauptschule) are still trained at ‘pedagogical academies’; although these academies will be transformed into pedagogical universities by the year 2007/08.
- Belgium/NL: most of the history teachers for lower as well as upper secondary education (general and vocational) are trained at ‘Colleges for Higher Education’. Only some of the teachers for upper secondary vocational schools are trained at universities.
- France: history teachers for lower and upper secondary education may follow their studies at ‘Teacher Training Colleges’, although most of these colleges are attached to universities.
- Hungary: parts of the history teachers for lower secondary education are trained at ‘Teacher Training Colleges’.
- Italy: the professional training for history teachers takes place in teacher training colleges (SSIS).
- Norway: history teachers for lower secondary education may follow their studies at ‘Colleges for Higher Education’.
- Poland: history teachers for lower secondary education may follow their studies at ‘Pedagogical Academies’ (all levels), ‘Colleges for Higher Education’ (lower sec.) or ‘Teacher Training Colleges’ (upper secondary vocational).
- Romania: history teachers for lower secondary education may follow their studies at ‘Colleges for Higher Education’.
- Sweden: history teachers for lower and upper secondary education may follow their studies at ‘Colleges for Higher Education’.

Furthermore, we must not forget the (secondary) schools which provide practical training in many countries.



Map A: Proportion of institutions leading programmes of initial training for history teachers (year 2002/03)

However, with the initiative for a standardised educational system in tertiary education in Europe (Bologna-process) reforms are under discussion as well as regards initial training for history teachers for lower secondary education. These reforms will cover most of the above-mentioned types of training institutions and will presumably establish teacher education structures equivalent to university studies. Thus, most teacher trainees who want to become “full history teachers” (that is qualified to teach both at lower and upper secondary school) are trained at university or pedagogical university today.

As concerns teacher training for primary education (ISCED 1), the picture is more heterogeneous, but the trend towards university studies holds also for this level of education. The subject ‘history’ is rarely taught as a single subject in primary education. We will therefore focus our comparison on the level of lower and upper secondary (general and vocational) education.

Over the past ten years we have seen a tendency to establish ITT at the tertiary level. Therefore, what we have just said does not necessarily mean that most history teachers who work at school today actually hold a university degree or diploma. Only those who are under 30 years are (almost) certain to have a university degree (see age distribution).

#### *State and Non-State, Church and Non-Church Institutions*

In the questionnaire we also asked whether training institutions are run by the state or by a non-state organisation. In addition we asked for both categories to specify whether these institutions are church institutions or not.

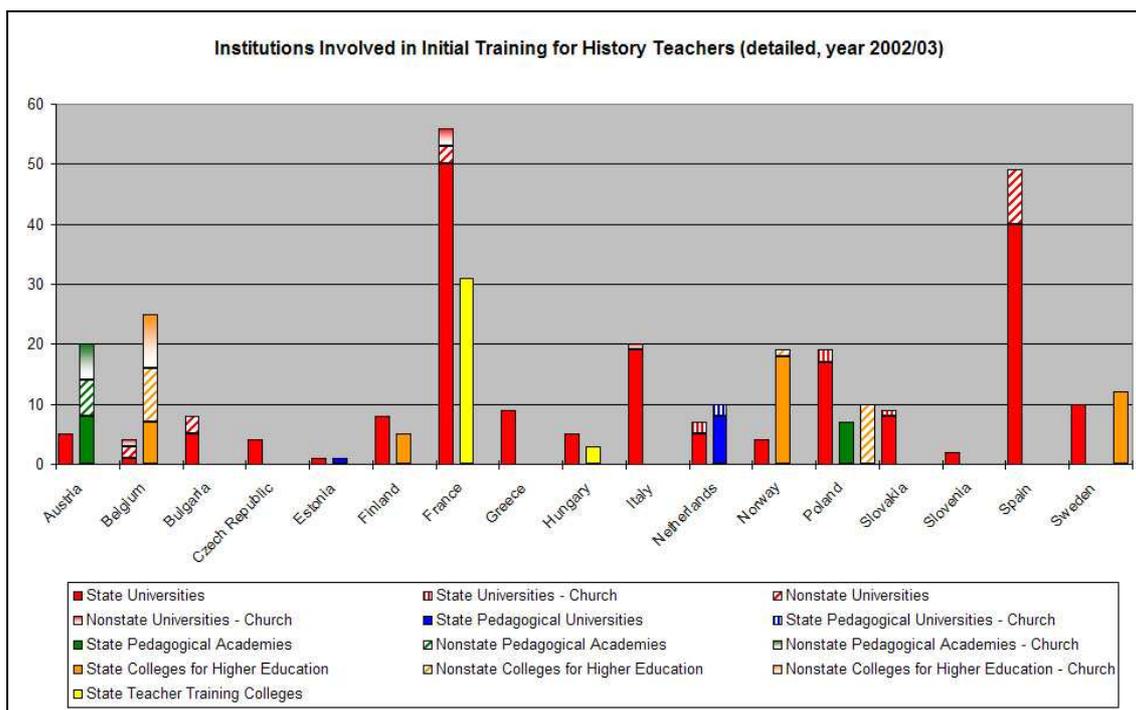


Table 5: State or Non-State, Church or Non-Church Institutions leading programmes of initial training for history teachers (year 2002/03)

As can be seen in table 5, there are countries where initial training for history teachers is offered exclusively by state institutions, none of them being a church-institution: This is the case with the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Norway, Slovenia and Sweden.

On the other hand we see countries where one or several churches have (traditionally) a bigger influence on teacher training, especially as concerns primary and lower secondary education: this is the case with Austria (6 of 8 pedagogical academies are run by the roman-catholic church) or Belgium/NL (1 of 3 universities and 9 of 16 Colleges for Higher Education are run by the roman-catholic church). Church institutions offer ITT programmes beside the state institutions also in France, Hungary, The Netherlands, Poland and Spain.

In some countries non-state/ private institutions offer ITT beside the state institutions: This is the case with Belgium/NL, Bulgaria, The Netherlands, Norway, Poland and Spain.

Apart from history teacher trainees, almost all history students – those who want primordially become researchers and not teachers - study at universities. There is only Norway reporting that besides students at universities about a fifth of all history students study at "Colleges for Higher Education". Together with students of PhD studies in Hungary who may also finish their studies outside university not more than 1% of all history students runs subject history studies outside the university.

#### *Legal bindings; faculties in charge*

Requirements regarding the organisation of ITT are laid down both by the state and the training institutions themselves. This is the case in all countries. The ministries of education develop or approve the legal framework for the organisation of ITT, but the

institutions are – more or less – autonomous in developing their specific organisational structures as well as their curricula. Owing to this autonomy, ITT structures at universities usually differ much more from each other – even within a single country – than those at teacher training colleges, where decision-taking tends to be more centralised. In Poland and Spain regional authorities may also have influence on the organisation and structure of ITT. In the Czech Republic and Estonia, associations of history teachers also exert a certain influence on ITT requirements. Working groups for process management have a similar function in The Netherlands.

At university, ITT is usually provided either by a faculty of teacher education (Sweden) by a faculty of history (Austria, Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary), by a faculty of history and philology (Bulgaria), by a faculty of psychology and educational sciences (Belgium/NL), by a pedagogical faculty (Spain) or by one or several institutes or departments of history that form part of a larger faculty of philosophy (Slovakia), of education (Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland) or of the arts (Czech Republic), of Social Sciences (Slovenia) or of a faculty of human sciences (France, Italy). Different faculties/institutes are in charge of the organisation of teacher training and/or provide special courses of ITT, for example a faculty/institute of pedagogy (Austria, Bulgaria) and/or a faculty/institute of psychology (Austria, Bulgaria, Norway).

These data already show that the organisational structure of ITT is rather heterogeneous – or, as one of our contributors said, “there is no centralised system”, neither in a single country nor on a bi-national or multinational level.

### *Models of training*

The Eurydice indicators distinguish between two main models of initial teacher training:

“The theoretical and practical professional training may be given either at the same time as their general courses (the concurrent model) or after them (the consecutive model). ... In virtually all European countries, teachers at the pre-primary and primary levels of education are trained in accordance with the concurrent model. ... For general lower secondary education, the concurrent model is still the most widespread ... the consecutive model is more often adopted for teacher education for general upper secondary education.<sup>14</sup>

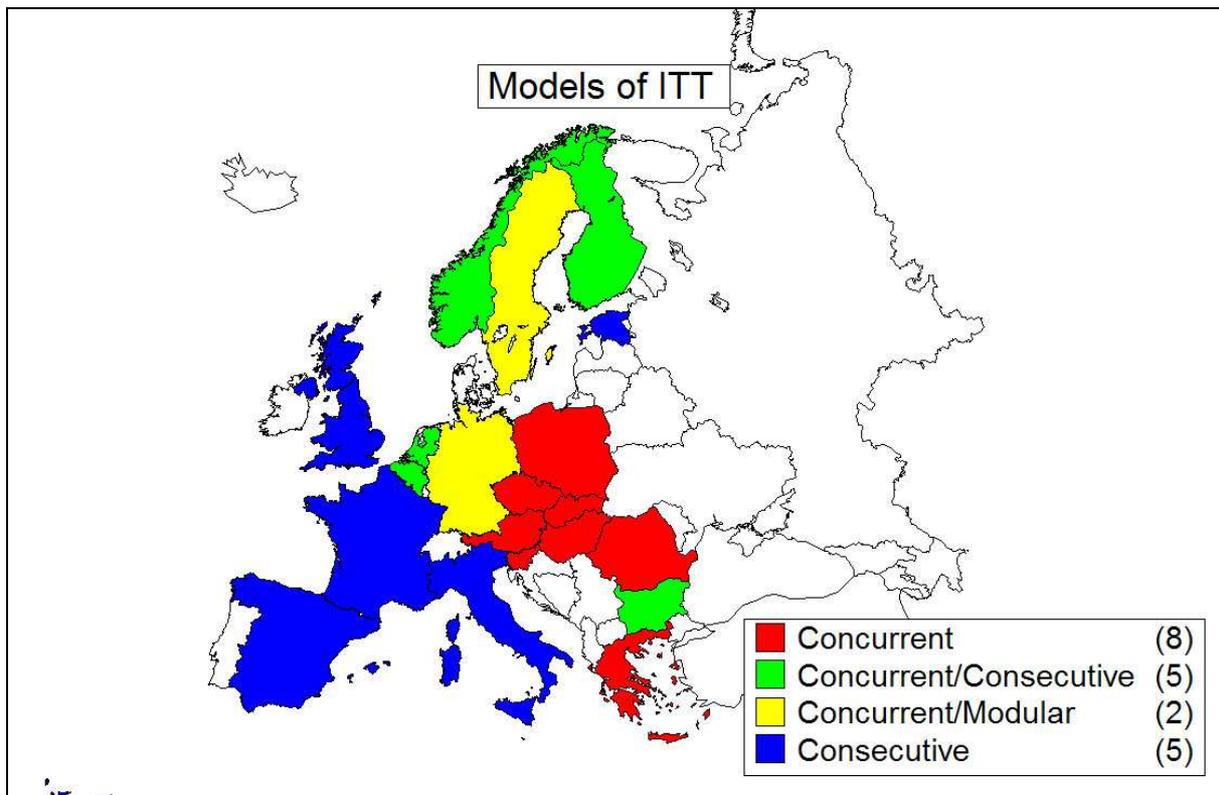
Regarding ITT for history teachers at all three levels of education (ISCED 1, 2, 3), the distribution in our sample of 20 European countries was as follows:

- concurrent: eight countries (almost half of our sample) follow only concurrent models (Austria, Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia);
- concurrent and consecutive: five countries have both forms (Belgium/NL, Bulgaria, Finland, The Netherlands, Norway);
- concurrent and modular: another two countries have developed concurrent forms with a modular approach (Germany/NRW, Sweden);

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<sup>14</sup> Eurydice/EC (2005) Key data, p.185.

- consecutive: the remaining five countries have consecutive models (Estonia, France, Italy, Spain, United Kingdom/EW).



Map B: Models of ITT (year 2002/03)

The concurrent model normally prevails in institutions which prepare trainees for teaching at lower secondary school, while the consecutive model is dominant in institutions which prepare trainees for teaching at lower and upper secondary level. A brief look at the regional distribution of the two types of training shows a predominance of consecutive models in western and southern European countries, while the concurrent model is more common in central and eastern European countries. On the surface, thus, our findings correspond to the data in Eurydice. However, in fine-tuning these data, our overview showed that there is a dominant trend towards concurrent models. For example our experts from France and England report about newly established curricula with a touch of concurrent structure both at university and at teacher training colleges (IUFM). Also in other countries where ITT takes place mostly at university, the concurrent model has gained more attention during the last ten to fifteen years. This implies that academic training and professional and/or practical training get the tendency to be trained in a more or less integrated form.

On the other hand, when we analysed the curricula, we noticed that some of the concurrent forms are still based on consecutive models. There is still little professional or practical training during the general course. This is the case in almost all university models. Contrary to these, curricula at pedagogical universities, colleges for Higher education and teacher training colleges are normally closer to the concurrent model.

With the curricula reforms leading to the Bologna-architecture, there is a certain backlash to the consecutive model. In some countries (Italy, Germany) the discussions partly favour a Bachelor-programme consisting only of general courses for the mastery of the subject(s) that trainees will teach when qualified. This form of a

subject-oriented) Bachelor is followed by a Master-programme, providing trainees almost only with professional and practical training.

As shown below we regard this conception of a new consecutive structure (BA – MA) as a backlash in the professionalisation of teachers' education. Our arguments are the following:

- Academic (subject history) courses will be less developed for the future training of *teachers* but for the training of researcher in history and/ or of a “general” education of a “historian”, which means in reality, that students get specialised very early in some areas of historical research without being trained to teach the subject history in schools, e.g. being trained to select historical information, to critically analyse historical texts for the purposes of school education, to develop by themselves an overview about general/global trends in the (political, social, economic, cultural) history of European countries, societies or of World History etc..
- It reduces the time for teacher education in fact from 4-5 years in the concurrent form to 2 years in the consecutive form.
- The proposed new consecutive model (BA – MA) nourishes the academic (and pedagogic) fiction that teacher education is primordially a task of didactic and practical training and has nothing to do with the didactics of the subject (and the content of the subject courses).
- As a consequence the proposed new consecutive model (BA – MA) separates academic (subject oriented) training from professional training which means, for the education of a history teacher, that there is no place for integration of both dimensions, respectively no place for interdisciplinary cooperation between historians, didacticians and practitioners.

We have discussed the advantages and disadvantages of the proposed new consecutive model (BA – MA) with the project group at the second expert meeting in Turku (April 2005). The conclusion is that most of the experts of training for history teachers are in favour of the concurrent model. The concurrent model gives the opportunity to work on the academic and (!) didactic professionalisation of history teacher trainees for a longer period and it gives the opportunity to develop interdisciplinary cooperation between the four pillars of teacher education: the academic (subject-oriented), the subject didactic, the general didactic and the practical component of the teaching profession.

### *Length of studies*

The average length of study to become a full history teacher, qualified to teach at lower and upper secondary school, is four to five years, including academic and professional/practical training.

The minimum length of studies is three years. Minimum-length studies entitle graduates to teach only at lower secondary school. This is the case with pedagogical academies in Austria, the Colleges of Higher Education in Belgium/NL, history studies at a faculty of arts or faculty of education in the Czech Republic, teacher training institutes in Poland and Bachelor studies in France, England, Italy and Spain. The maximum length is six and one-half years (Germany/NRW) to six years (France, Spain, UK – 3rd grade) and five and one-half years (Austria), all examples including at least one year<sup>15</sup> of practical training after graduation from university.

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<sup>15</sup> In Spain, students have to take a teacher training course (CAP; CDQ or TED, minimum length: 300 hours, maximum one year) after graduating from university. In France, students who succeed in the

As for history teachers who are entitled to work in an extended form of compulsory school,<sup>16</sup>(Austria: *Gymnasium*; Bulgaria: *gymnasia*; Czech Republic: *gymnázium*; France: *college/lycée*; Netherlands: pre-university education) or in upper secondary school, the length of studies for teacher trainees has not changed much over the last decades because these studies had been organised at university level, or in close connection with university studies, even before. Studies for admission to teach at lower secondary level, on the other hand, have become longer.

The extension of tertiary-level training to include history teachers who will teach at lower secondary schools is still rather new. The respective organisational reforms date back to the late 1960s (Austria), the 1970s (UK, Spain), the late 1980s (France) or the 1990s (Spain, Estonia, Netherlands).<sup>17</sup> Further research in the field might explore the reasons of this development.

Naturally, there are several factors which have been involved here. The prolongation of the period of teacher education may be interpreted as a sign that the challenges in teaching generally have increased over the last decades and that one solution chosen by policy-makers in education was to extend the respective courses of study. Another question to ask is why universities and/or pedagogical universities were deemed adequate structures of teacher training? Was it because the university training model was more attractive? Or because university representatives were more successful in lobbying than the representatives of pedagogical colleges? Or was it because universities still have the status of being institutions of 'higher education' and, thus, enjoy more prestige so that choosing them seemed to be the adequate answer to new problems in teacher training? Each of these aspects played a certain role, but another factor of general importance in teacher education is also worth mentioning.

Focusing, above all, on subject-based studies, the university model of education was considered an interesting option for teacher education in the growing discussion on the professionalisation of teacher training. It was considered important that teachers of younger pupils (between 10 and 14) also receive their training at a certain distance from the classroom experience at secondary level. With its systematic theoretical orientation, tertiary education at university seemed well-suited to foster the systematic, analytic and reflective competencies of teacher trainees and to introduce them to complex theoretical models to help them analyse and explain their social experience in general and their school experience in particular. The argument is convincing – yet future empirical research still has to prove whether teacher training at university actually fulfils these expectations. This leads us to the next category.

### *The relation between academic and professional/practical training*

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open competition for the Certificat d'aptitude au professorat de l'enseignement secondaire (CAPES) are admitted to one year of professional training at an Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres (IUFM).

<sup>16</sup> The ISCED classification distinguishes between lower (ISCED 2) and upper secondary education (ISCED 3), the former starting around the age of 10, the latter starting at the age of 14 or 15 and ending at 18 or 19. In reality, secondary school structures differ quite substantially, especially in the organisation of education between the ages of 10 (Austria, Hungary), 11 (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, France, UK) or 12 (Netherlands) and the ages of 14 (Austria, UK) 15 (Austria, France) or 16 (Hungary, Netherlands). Some countries have a system of basic/comprehensive education which starts at the age of 6 or 7 and ends at 15 (Spain, Estonia) or 16 (Netherlands). Compulsory full-time education lasts until either 15 (Austria, Czech Republic, Spain, Estonia, France) or 16 (Bulgaria, Hungary, Netherlands, Norway, UK). For more information please see Eurydice/EC (2005) Key data, pp.49.

<sup>17</sup> Anweiler, Oskar et al. (1996) Bildungssysteme, pp.75.

We also looked at the relation between academic courses, courses of general pedagogy/ didactics, courses of subject didactics and of practical training during the period of university studies.<sup>18</sup>

There are slight differences between the individual countries, but in most cases academic (subject history) courses make up between 70% and 80% of all courses in this period. The highest share of *academic courses* in all courses is 80% (Spain: universities),<sup>19</sup> the lowest share is approximately 60% (France: IUFM).

In most countries, 0% to 20% are devoted to *courses of general didactics*; the average share is approximately 10% (0% in Spain: universities; 20% in Hungary: universities).

Between 5% and 20% of all courses are dedicated to *subject didactics* of history (*Fachdidaktik*) (5% in Spain: universities; 20% in France: IUFM).

From 0% to 10% are devoted to *practical training* (0% in Spain: universities,<sup>20</sup> 10% in Austria: universities, and France: IUFM).

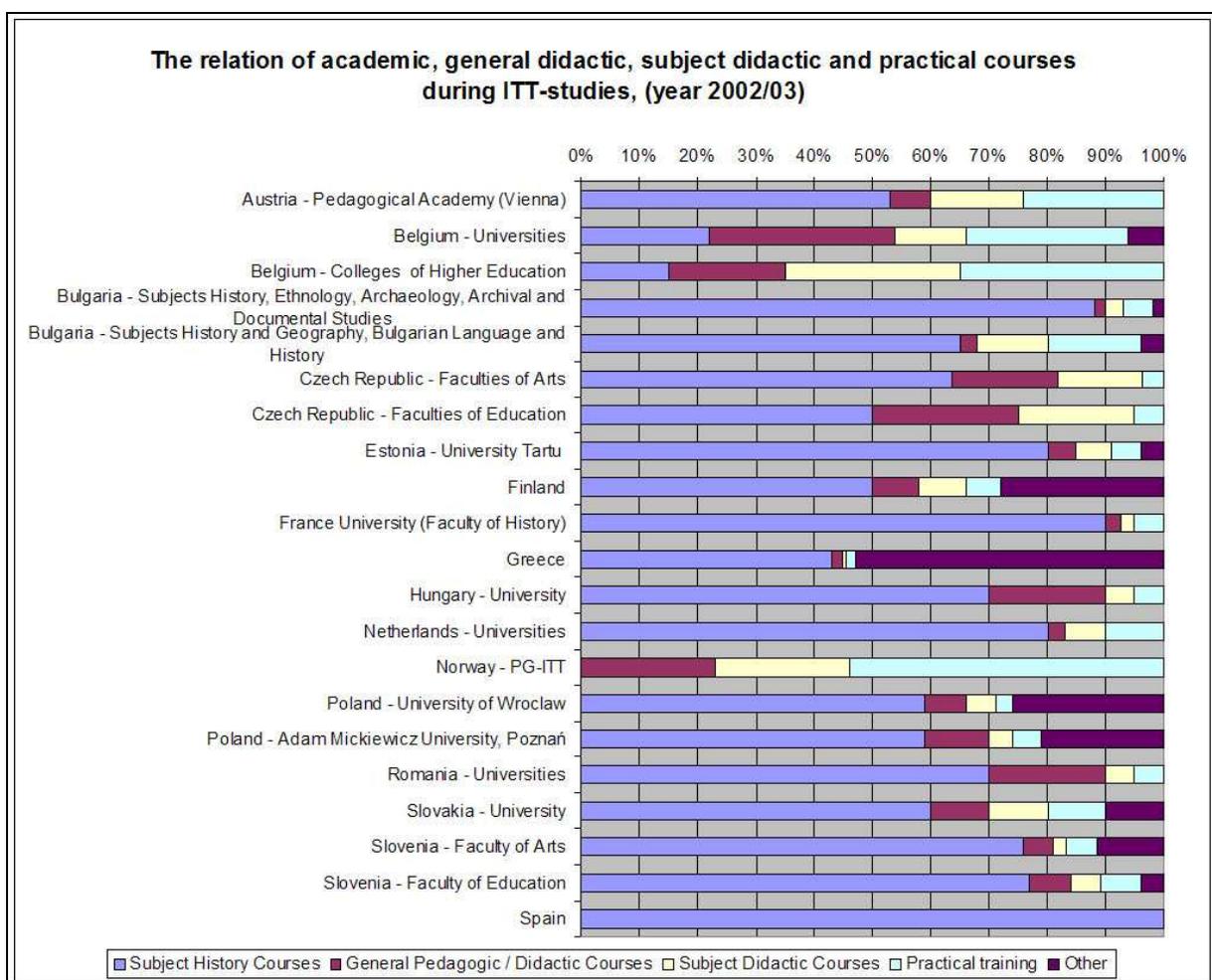


Table 7: The relation of academic, general didactic, subject didactic and practical courses during ITT-studies, (year 2002/03)

<sup>18</sup> Including induction/post-graduate practical training.

<sup>19</sup> Followed by various forms of induction with practical training at school.

<sup>20</sup> For universities in Spain see footnote above.

University studies are followed by a longer period of post-graduate training in some countries (Austria, Estonia, France, Netherlands, Spain, UK), especially in those countries where consecutive models prevail. Post-graduate forms of training are usually organised in close co-operation with teacher training institutes and schools (France, Netherlands, UK) or they take place at school (Austria, Spain, Estonia).<sup>21</sup> With the exception of the French model, these forms of training are not – or not closely – linked with preceding training courses at university.

Generally, we might say that the *consecutive structure* is still quite often the dominant structure behind the concurrent model. However, there have been recent initiatives in some countries (Austria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Norway) to increase the share of practical and/or professional training already in university studies and to establish the concurrent model at university, too.

Comparing what has been said about the consecutive structure at university with the structure of ITT at pedagogical academies, teacher training colleges and Colleges for Higher Education, we get a different picture:

The concurrent model prevails:

- academic courses make up a much smaller share of studies, between 25% (Spain) and 60% (Hungary) of all courses;
- courses of general pedagogy make up between 20% (Austria, Hungary) and 30% (Spain);
- subject didactics makes up between 10% (Hungary) and 25% (Austria);
- practical training makes up between 10% (Hungary) and 25% (Austria, Spain).

However, the quantitative factors discussed above can be misleading, since the relation between two, three or four factors in education does not necessarily prove the *quality of training*. To get a better insight into the qualitative aspects of ITT we have to look at the concrete conditions of teaching as well as at teachers' competencies and at possible ways of establishing complex training structures (for example the potential to integrate different levels of a learning process – the cognitive as well as the affective level), and we have to explore forms of co-ordination and co-operation within and among training courses.

#### *Institutional co-operation, institutional links, partnership models*

As we have outlined above, the training structures in ITT are rather heterogeneous both on the national level and, sometimes, also on the level of the training institutions themselves. Academic courses and courses of subject didactics and general pedagogics often do not seem to be very well co-ordinated. Still, the question of institutional co-operation concerns a number of different levels.

It would also be interesting to explore the structures of co-ordination between political, strategic and administrative units in ITT on a regional or national level: for example the forms of co-operation between representatives of the political and the administrative system, or the co-operation between ministries of education and universities/faculties or the forms of co-operation between various faculties and institutes involved in a concrete training programme.

As far as we know, all these questions have never been systematically investigated with respect to ITT even in a single country, so it would have required a tremendous effort to initiate a serious comparative study on this topic on an international level. Nevertheless, we are convinced that these questions will have to be tackled very

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<sup>21</sup> In most countries these history teacher trainees receive a lower salary (approx. half of the salary a full-time teacher usually earns) during this period of practical training at school.

soon to realise effective and professional structures in teacher education. At the moment we can merely assume – considering our own experience with training institutions and the information we obtained in the discussions at the two seminars – that there are many “missing links” in the co-ordination between the political, strategic and administrative units which play a role in ITT. Educational policy makers, heads of administrative units as well as heads of teacher training institutions very often cannot rely on sufficient and/or effective structures for institutional co-operation, nor do they always find themselves encouraged to develop such structures. All these missing links put those involved under a lot of stress in their day-to-day work. Misinformation, misunderstanding and, consequently, mistrust or resignation drain them of their energy, making it hard for them to remain productive and creative in organisational management.

Our study, therefore, focuses on a particular sector of organisational co-operation – the links between institutions which are responsible for general courses and those which are responsible for practical training. What we found is that there is very little co-operation between different institutions involved in ITT training programmes. Generally, there is very little co-operation between universities as bodies of academic and pedagogical/didactical training and schools as bodies of practical training. We received information only about a few models where institutional co-operation is established by contracts between institutions. This is the case with partnership models in England, with the organisation of practical training at IUFMs in France and with the co-operation between universities and secondary schools concerning practical training in Bulgaria.

The second form of partnership model which we found is contracts between a training institution and an individual expert, for example an advisory teacher in a secondary school who also trains students in their practical stage. These forms of contracts exist with partnership models in the Netherlands, Norway and the process-oriented model in Austria.

It will probably not come as a surprise to most readers that even within individual institutions there is a lack of effective co-operation and co-ordination between the institutes or departments involved in ITT. Regarding themselves primarily as places of research, university units pay little attention to what is happening in training courses. Besides, there is still little awareness of the fact that inter-institutional co-operation is a key factor in improving the quality of learning and teaching at universities.

#### *Interdisciplinary co-operation, team teaching and teamwork among trainers*

What has been said for the quality of inter-institutional co-operation also applies to inter-personal co-operation. The quality of training courses will improve if there is effective co-ordination at different levels of the trainers’ work. As long as there is no explicit co-ordination and planning on the trainer level, it will be hard to achieve a co-ordinated learning process on the students’ side. This factor is important with respect to both the contents to be taught and the social competencies to be acquired. Contents which are not explicitly related to each other by the trainers will also remain isolated and not reflected in the work of the students. As long as they are not reflected upon and productively dealt with in the learning process, conflicts in the group – conflicts between teachers and students as well as conflicts among students, as insignificant as they might be – will impede learners in developing the necessary social competencies.

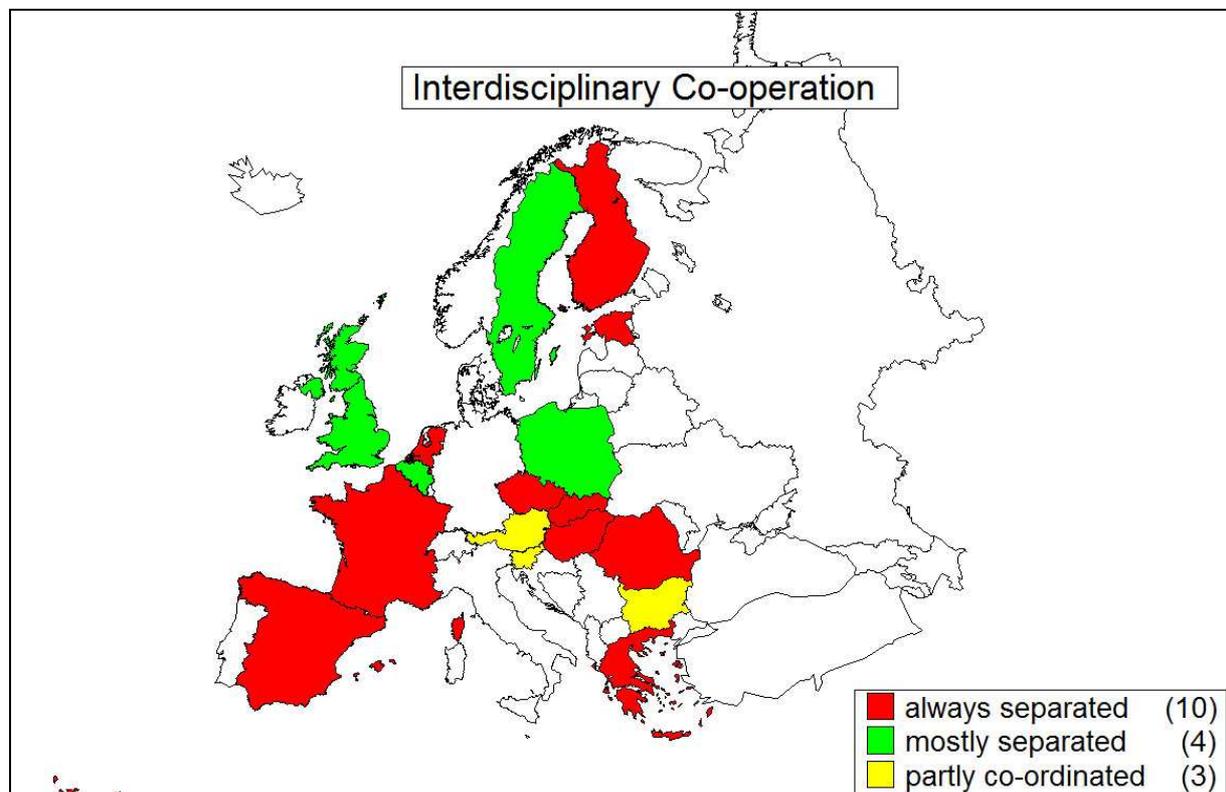
Even today, co-ordination between trainers remains rather abstract. This co-ordination is formally based on the structure of curricula and syllabuses. But which

trainer is really interested in what is going on in other courses – as long as there is no institutionalised need to take an interest? Who really knows what her or his colleague teaches in another history seminar? Which historian knows the contents of the psychologist's course, and which didactician knows those of the archaeologist's course?

In fact, one finding of both the questionnaires and the discussions at the two seminars was that there is still little interdisciplinary co-operation between different subjects and their representatives.

One question with respect to universities was whether academic courses are co-ordinated with courses of general didactics and subject didactics and/or with practical courses. The result was that

- courses are always separated in six countries (Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Russia Federation, UK);
- courses are mostly separated in Bulgaria;
- courses are partly co-ordinated in the other countries (Austria, Spain, France, Norway, Netherlands), but this co-ordination rarely covers more than a fifth of all courses.



Map C: Interdisciplinary Co-operation

It comes as no surprise that there is very little co-ordination of training courses between academic and professional training in institutions where the consecutive model prevails. Interdisciplinary co-operation on a broader basis hardly exists at universities. The main argument against it is that it costs more money so that options for its practical realisation are limited. While this is certainly true, it must also be taken into account that there is a lot of pressure on university teachers to engage in productive, successful research activities, while there is considerably less support for their teaching activities. In our opinion, this seems to be the most dominant cause of the lack of interdisciplinary co-operation in ITT. A second factor – which may sound paradoxical, but which is linked to the first point – is that until recently, universities

(especially in the human sciences like history, languages, etc.) have attached more importance to the individual specialisation of their members than to teamwork and co-operation.

Generally, we may say that interdisciplinary co-operation is still underdeveloped in teacher training at universities. University teachers set a bad example with respect to teamwork and team teaching. If we relate these facts to the recommendations of educational institutions which describe the needs for teacher education in the 21st century,<sup>22</sup> and in particular the importance of teamwork as one of the future key competencies, the question arises where students are trained to acquire and use these key competencies.

Teacher trainees do not get a lot of opportunities for group work, either. We asked for the share of individual studies, group work, project work and other forms of learning in the entire period of university studies, and we found that in most countries, individual studies take up between 80% and 90% of the entire time, in others 5% to 10% of studies are organised as group work, and the remaining 5% to 10% are organised as project work.

This might suggest that the concurrent model offers more support for interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork. While we agree with this assumption in principle, we also found that there is no guarantee for a realisation of interdisciplinary co-operation within the concurrent model in concrete situations. We rarely heard about courses where experts from different disciplines work together as a team, for example historians, psychologists and didacticians working together in a course of subject didactics. Judging from the information obtained in the expert discussions, there is still much room for improvement in the co-ordination between academic, didactic and practical training at both pedagogical universities and teacher training colleges.

We would like to conclude this chapter by quoting from the OECD study on “teachers for tomorrow’s schools”<sup>23</sup> which expresses the opinion that innovation for tomorrow’s schools will largely depend:

on what teachers do collectively and how they are permitted to develop their schools, separately and across systems. It also depends on whether they can define a new type of professionalism ... which ... most importantly ... will require: ... “Organisational competence and collaboration” – among other competencies as “Expertise”, “Pedagogical know-how”, “Understanding of technology”, “Flexibility”, “Mobility” and “Openness”.

As regards organisational competence, the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation maintains that teacher professionalism can no longer be seen simply as an individualised competence, but rather must incorporate the ability to function as part of a “learning organisation” and that the ability to learn from and to teach other teachers is perhaps the most important aspect of this attribute.

Future history teachers also need to be prepared to develop adequate organisational competencies. Therefore, we need to ask which opportunities existing ITT curricula offer in this respect.

### ***3. Initial training as a starting point in history teachers’ careers***

The second part of this overview of the results of our comparative study was devoted to the organisational structures of ITT and their possible implications on the standards regarding the competencies and skills of future history teachers. The third

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<sup>22</sup> See also the Recommendations in this report.

<sup>23</sup> “Teachers for tomorrow’s schools”, op.cit. p.38

part provides basic demographic data about the clients of teacher training, the reputation of the job and about graduates' current and future job-opportunities, and then discusses the main standards in training curricula.

### *Who are the students?*

We did not always receive exact data on the proportion of male to female history students/graduates trained to work as teachers. However, we did find it a clear trend that even today, more than half of all history teachers in lower and upper secondary schools are women, and the number of female history teachers will continue to rise. In general, the last century was marked by an increasing feminisation in the profession of teaching,<sup>24</sup> and this trend has not stopped yet. History teaching is no exception to this trend. The last five years have seen an increasing feminisation regarding history teacher trainees and graduates.<sup>25</sup>

This trend towards feminisation continues in most of the countries, for example in Austria, Czech Republic, United Kingdom, France, Hungary, Netherlands, Norway and Spain. A deviating tendency was observed only in Bulgaria and Estonia, where the percentage of female teachers in lower and upper secondary schools is already rather high by comparison (over 70% in Bulgaria, approximately 80% in Estonia.<sup>26</sup>) In general, the percentage of female history teachers is higher at lower secondary school. In terms of regional distribution, the percentage of female history teachers is higher in eastern and south-east European countries than in central and western European countries.

What are the implications of this trend on the teaching of history? This is an important question. The changing paradigms in historiography have clearly shown that, for centuries, history has predominantly been the history of men, neglecting the role and the place of women in history. As we will show below, political history still prevails in school curricula, and this means that the history of men continues to dominate textbooks and, presumably, lessons.

What are female history teachers going to do with men's history? How will they present it? Can female children identify with a history of men? Will there be enough information provided for the classroom to go beyond men's history and also address women's history and gender history? Are teacher trainers sufficiently aware of the fact that the majority of the students they are training to become history teachers are women? Is gender even a relevant issue in ITT, or should teacher trainers ignore it? These are just a few potential questions to be discussed at future trainers' seminars.

### *The reputation of history teaching as a profession*

It has been argued by a number of authors that the feminisation of a profession is accompanied by a decreasing reputation of the job in society – and, quite often, also by a relative decrease in salary. Our data are not entirely clear in this respect so we cannot substantiate this assumption as such, but we did note one general trend. The reputation of studying “history teaching” at university is lower, in general, than the reputation of studying “history” (research). The reputation of history (research) is higher in former communist countries than in western European countries.

We also learned that neither history nor history teaching are studies with a particularly impressive reputation at the moment. Studies currently considered highly

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<sup>24</sup> Bölling, Rainer (1983) *Lehrer*, pp.10; Ecker, Alois (1995) *Frauenarbeit*, pp.162.

<sup>25</sup> More than 65% of Austrian history graduates trained to work as teachers were women.

<sup>26</sup> See the country reports.

prestigious are, for example, computer sciences, genetics, mathematics (France), law, economics, finance (Hungary), or mathematics, medicine and science-related subjects (Netherlands), while teacher training in general and classical philology (ancient Greek and Latin) belong to those studies with the lowest reputation in all three countries.

### *What do history teachers earn?*

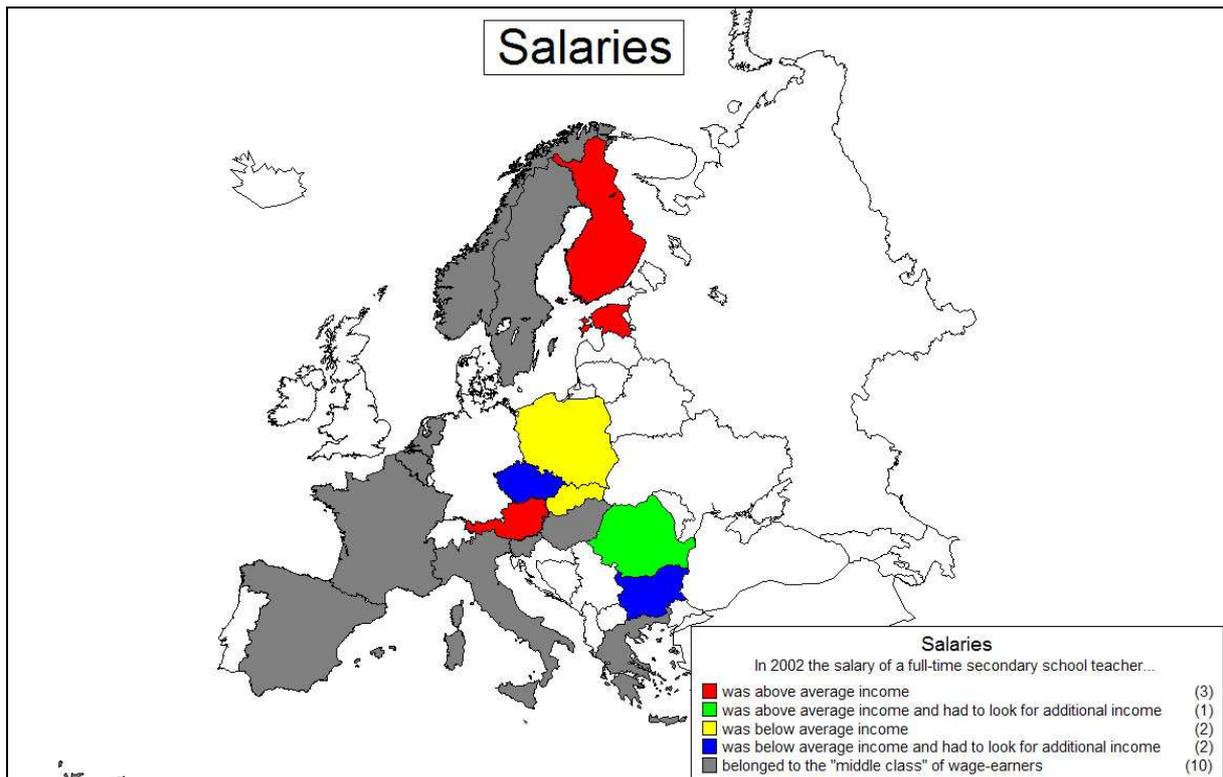
In view of what has just been said, it is no great surprise that history teaching is not among the best-paid jobs in Europe. History teachers' salaries – at both lower and upper secondary school – are “above the average” income (in relation to the per capita GDP)<sup>27</sup> in three of our survey countries (Austria, Estonia, Finland). In ten countries (Belgium/NL, France, Hungary, Italy, The Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, UK), the salaries of history teachers fall into the “middle class”<sup>28</sup> range. Teachers' salaries in Poland and Slovakia are below average. However, the situation of history teachers in eastern and south-east Europe is rather different. Generally, history teachers are regarded as middle-class wage-earners there, too, but this is primarily a social category which is not necessarily related to their actual income – in most countries (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Romania) the financial situation of young teachers forces them to take on a second or third job to earn an additional income<sup>29</sup> and maintain even a minimum standard of living; in Bulgaria and Romania this problem still affects also older teachers.

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<sup>27</sup> See Eurydice (2005), pp.136. The GDP is an indicator of the general standard of living in a country. For this survey we have used the Eurydice indicators which illustrate the financial position of teachers in relation to the average standard of living in their countries. The respective figures were obtained by “dividing the gross annual salary (minimum and maximum) in national currency by the per capita GDP (at current prices in national currency) of the country concerned ... Gross annual salary is defined as the amount paid by the employer in the year – including all bonuses, increases and allowances such as those for cost of living, end of year (if applicable), holiday pay, etc. – less the employer's social security and pension contributions. This salary does not include any other financial benefits in respect of additional functions, further qualifications or specific responsibilities.”

<sup>28</sup> Salaries were classified as “above average” when teachers' “minimum salaries” were above 100% and “maximum salaries” above 150% in relation to the per capita GDP. The “middle class” category applied to those countries where teachers' “minimum salaries” were higher than 50% and “maximum salaries” between 100% and 150% in relation to the per capita GDP. Salaries were classified as “below average” when teachers' “minimum salaries” and “maximum salaries” were below 100% in relation to the per capita GDP. – “Minimum salary is the salary received by teachers ... [either in lower or in upper secondary schools, AE] ... who are starting teaching, having completed their education, initial training and trial period. Maximum salary is the salary received by teachers ... who are at the end of their career, that is, during the last year prior to retirement.” See Eurydice (2005), p.137.

<sup>29</sup> We introduced this fourth category to give a more accurate description of the financial situation of history teachers. Even though teachers may be considered to be “middle class” wage earners, they still often depend on additional incomes.



Map D: Salaries (year 2002/03)

In Western Europe there is quite a big difference in salary between teachers who are at the beginning of their career and those who are already at the end of theirs. In some countries (Austria, Spain) the maximum salary is twice as high (or even higher) than the minimum salary. Seniority is also a major determinant of teachers' salaries in Eastern Europe, especially in Estonia and Hungary. In many countries there are also marked differences in salary between teachers at lower secondary school and those at upper secondary school. These differences are not necessarily related to different qualifications, but rather to the status of the respective type of school (for example in Austria: *Hauptschule* or *Gymnasium*).

#### *When do graduates start to teach history?*

The expected income might be a significant factor for young people's decision to become teachers, but it is certainly not the only reason. We have already identified reputation as another important factor. Future job opportunities are a further key factor. However, the job situation differs considerably from one country to another. Six countries (Austria, Belgium/NL, Italy, Hungary, Poland and Sweden) report that graduates have to wait to get a job as history teacher. A shortage of jobs was also observed in Bulgaria, Finland, Greece, Norway, Romania and Slovenia. Only in seven countries (Czech Republic, Estonia, France, The Netherlands, Spain, Slovakia, UK) there were enough places for graduates of ITT.

If look at the picture of job opportunities for graduates in history teaching today, we may conclude that there is a shortage of places in two third of the European countries – and thus we should not recommend young students to study 'history teaching'.



Map E: Job opportunities for history teachers (year 2002/03)

But will the situation remain like this within the next five, ten or fifteen years?

This kind of information would certainly be useful for teacher trainers, since it not only affects their own job opportunities, but would also make it easier for them to define the objectives and contents of their courses and curricula. In our opinion, for example, it should certainly make a difference for teacher trainers whether their students will start to teach history only in ten years' time and not already in five years' time.

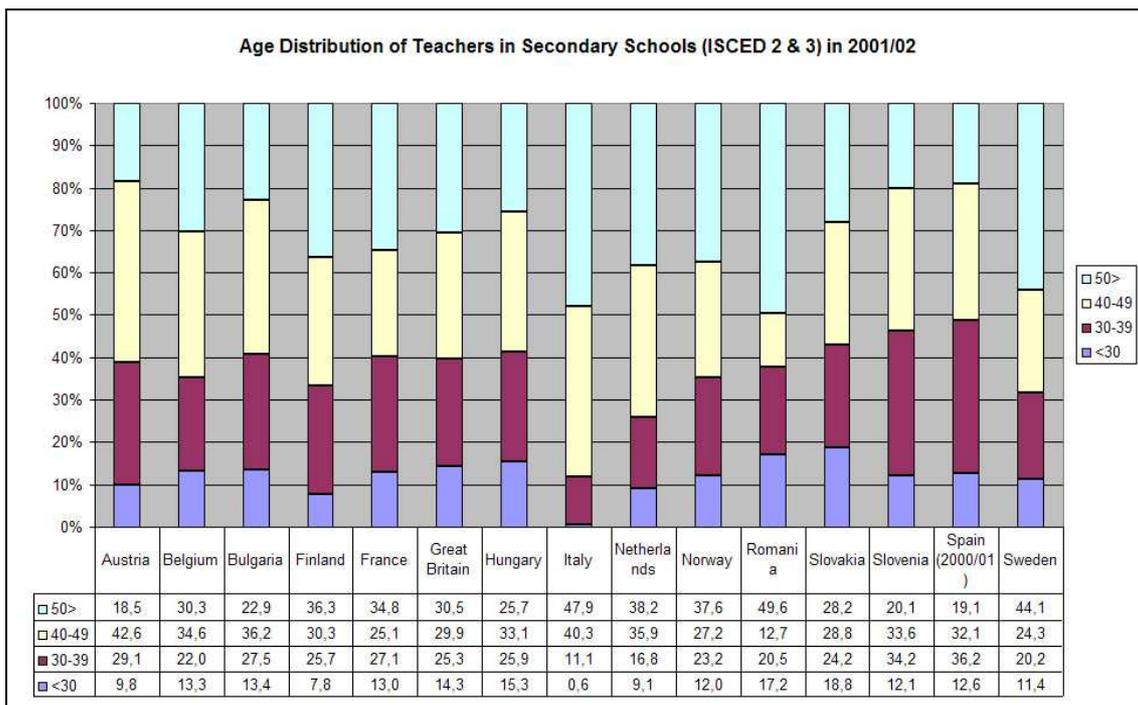


Table 8: Age Distribution of teachers in Secondary Schools (ISCED 2 & 3) (year 2001/02)

Looking at the table on age distribution above we can generally say that the percentage of teachers over the age of 40 is rather high. According to the Eurydice study, almost half of Europe's 6 million (primary and secondary) teachers are over 40 years old. Teaching staff are generally older at secondary school than at primary school, and staff tend to be older in western Europe than in eastern Europe. The charts above show that between 18,5% (Austria) and 49,6% (Romania) of (history) teachers are over 50 years old in all the surveyed countries. This means that a considerable number of teachers will retire within the next ten years. Assuming that the job conditions of history teachers – with respect to retirement age as well as contract of employment/working hours, class size, number of history lessons per week, and the form of classroom teaching by single teachers – will remain more or less the same, history teachers' prospects of finding a job are likely to improve considerably at the end of this decade.

This rather simple prognosis also applies to the second decade of the 21st century.<sup>30</sup> The chart shows that the number of teachers over 40 years is on average 60%, starting with 51,2% (Spain) and going up to 88,2% (!) (Italy). Thus, demand for secondary-school history teachers may be expected to increase even more in that decade. This fact is of crucial importance for the following question: Which period of the 21st century are we training young history teachers for?

There is no room here for an extensive discussion of the other factors we have mentioned. The maximum retirement age of teachers is 65 years in most countries. Considering the current debate in western Europe, the minimum retirement age – which is currently between 55 and 60 years<sup>31</sup> – may be expected to increase.

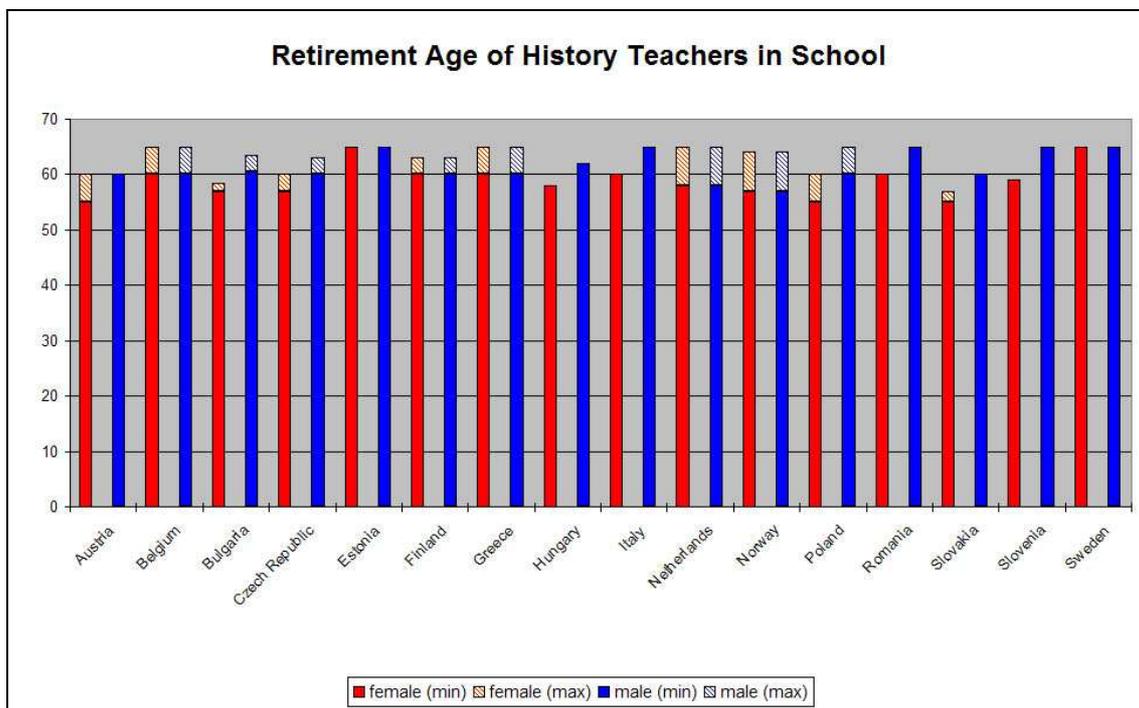


Table 9: Retirement Age of Teachers in Secondary schools (year 2001/02)

<sup>30</sup>. This is true assuming that teaching conditions and the structures of school organisation will largely remain the same (which cannot generally be expected, of course) for example the working hours of history teachers, the size of classes, the number of history lessons per week, the traditional form of classroom-teaching by single teachers, and the same age retirement age for teachers.

<sup>31</sup>. One of the lowest retirement ages is that of Bulgaria, with 58 years for male and 56 years for female teachers.

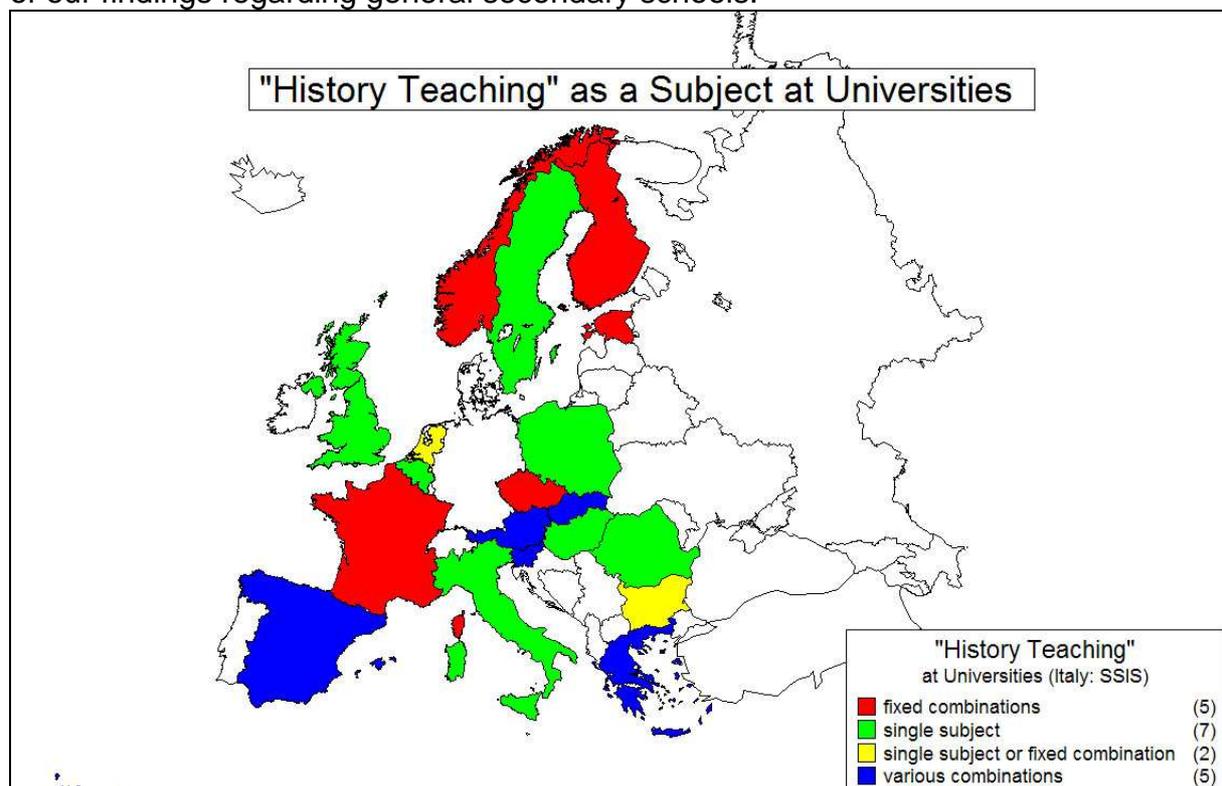
Even though it does not directly concern the focus of this study, we would like to point out that the two charts may also be used as an indicator of in-service training of history teachers. They show that more than 60% of history teachers in Austria, Estonia, France, Netherlands, Norway, UK underwent their initial training between the late 1960s and the early 1980s. This implies, among other things, that in most countries these teachers were trained to teach history through a narrative structure and were never exposed to pupil-centred forms of learning (for example group work) or process-oriented methods of learning and teaching (for example project work). Only those history teachers over 40 years of age who have taken courses in group pedagogy or similar courses dealing with pupil-centred methodology may be expected by educational planners to possess up-to-date knowledge and skills in these fields.

### *History as a school subject, the number of history lessons*

The number of lessons per week is another important factor regarding job opportunities and also indicates the importance of history in the interplay with other school subjects.

Since our study focuses on history teaching in secondary education we do not have detailed information about history teaching at *primary school*. We know that in some countries like Austria, Bulgaria, Estonia, the Netherlands, and UK history is gradually introduced in the third or fourth year of primary education together with general information on the social structures of the pupils' local area. Teachers in primary education are usually not specially trained to teach history.

There are *different types of history lessons* at secondary school in the 21 countries of our survey. History is taught either as a single subject, or in combination with geography (France), as an integrated subject (Austria, Netherlands) or as a comprehensive subject, such as under the umbrella of the subject "social sciences" (Hungary, Norway). Thus, what we can offer here is an overview and some examples of our findings regarding general secondary schools.



Map F: "History Teaching" as a Subject at universities (year 2002/03)

History is a compulsory subject in *lower secondary education* in most countries; it starts at the age of 10 or 11 years and is taught two hours per week on average. In Spain and France history is traditionally taught in combination with geography: three hours at lower secondary school and three to four hours at upper secondary school for both subjects, or approximately one and a half or two hours for history.

Owing to the increasing autonomy of schools in lower secondary general education, schools may choose to offer either one, two or three lessons per week. This is the case in Austria (1-3), Estonia (1-2) and the Netherlands (1-2). Pupils in the UK also study history as a subject in Key Stage 3 (grades 5 to 8), but there it remains up to the school to fix the number of history lessons. To our regret we noticed that flexibility in the timetable in general leads to fewer hours for the subject history in school.

Pupils in *upper secondary general education* usually have 2 (Austria, Spain, France) or two and a half hours (Hungary) of history per week. In some countries it is either two or three hours, depending on the respective grade (Bulgaria, Estonia, Netherlands). History is not a compulsory subject in upper secondary education everywhere. In the Netherlands and the UK it is optional, and in Norway it is taught in the wider context of social studies, where pupils are partly free to define their own focus of interest.

An alarming decrease is reported in the number of history lessons at upper secondary vocational school. Depending on the type of vocational school, history is limited to one, two, or three years, with a maximum of two hours per week.

We heard from several countries that the time allocated to history at secondary school is decreasing also in general education.

If the number of history lessons per week continues to fall, as is currently the case in some western European countries (Austria, Norway), job opportunities for graduates in history teaching will not improve despite the fact that many older teachers are going to retire soon. This issue is closely related to another question: Is history a compulsory subject, or is it an optional subject within a wider framework of “social studies” or “humanities”, for example?

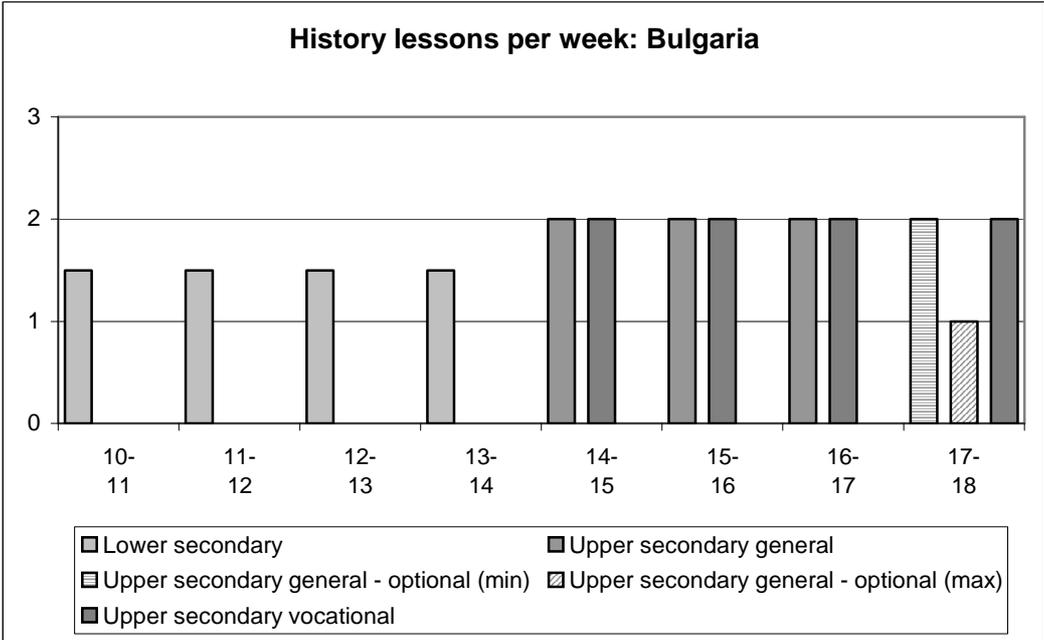


Table 10a: History lessons per week: Bulgaria

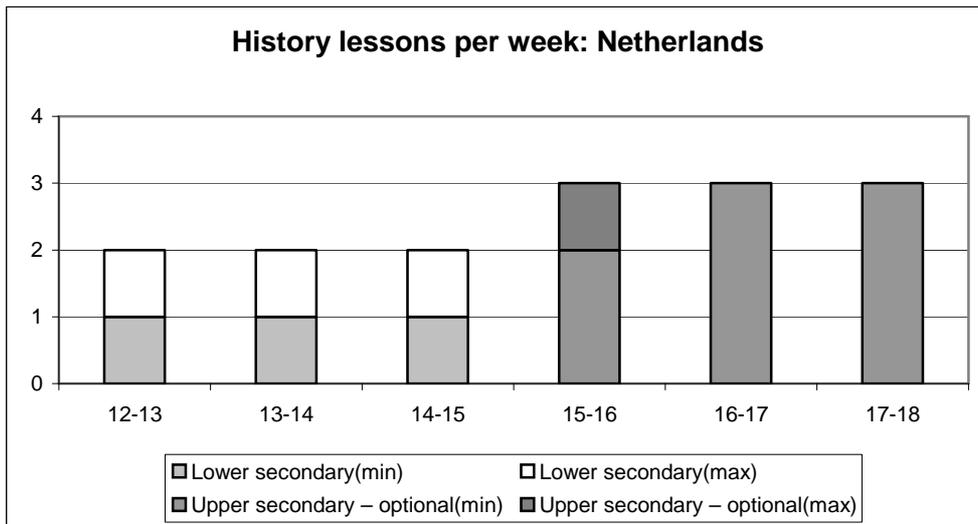


Table 10b: History lessons per week: Netherlands

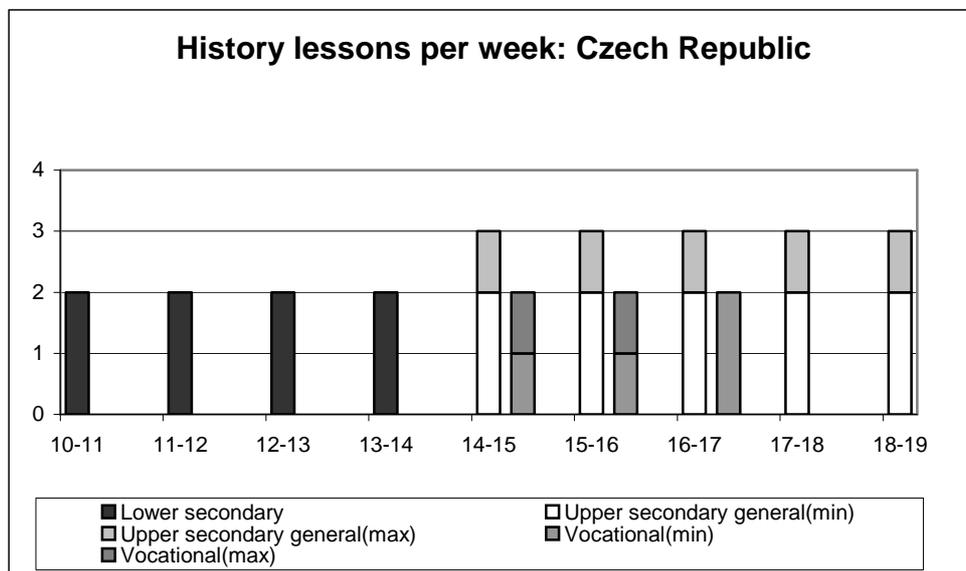


Table 10c: History lessons per week: Czech Republic

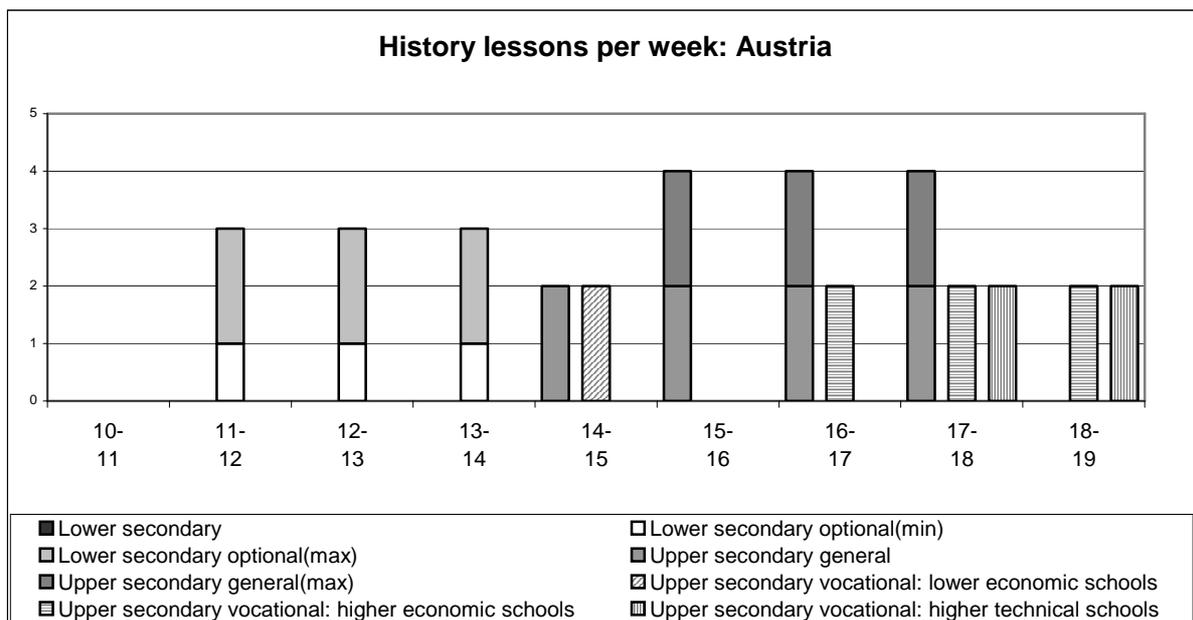


Table 10d: History lessons per week: Austria

*Bulgaria* is a typical example of a system with a fixed number of history lessons throughout school curricula. Curricula are prescribed by the Ministry of Education. Schools have no autonomy regarding curricula and no influence on the number of lessons per week. Thus, history teachers find themselves in a stable situation and do not have the need to adapt to any special focus of interest of a particular school. Spain, France and Hungary do not give individual schools a free choice of lessons, either. To a certain extent this also reflects the degree of centralisation in the respective school system.

In the *Czech Republic*, the number of history lessons in the curricula of upper secondary schools is becoming increasingly flexible. Schools may allocate two or three hours per week to history. This country also offers a rather small number of history lessons in vocational schools, where only 1 hour of history is taught in grades 10 and 11.

As regards history teaching in upper secondary vocational schools, the same shortage of history lessons is reported by *Austria*. Higher economic schools have a flexible framework of five to eight hours covering grades 10, 11, and 12, but most schools allocate a total of 3x2 hours to history. Higher technical schools only allocate 2x2 hours to history teaching.

School autonomy also offers flexibility for lower secondary general education in the country. Theoretically, schools might devote up to 3 hours per week to history, but they usually choose to allocate fewer hours to history and more hours to foreign languages or to information and communication technologies.

In the Netherlands and in Estonia, the number of history lessons in lower secondary education also varies between one and two hours. While in Estonia history is a compulsory subject in its own right, in *the Netherlands* it is only compulsory in grades 5-8 (ages 9 to 14/15) and is always combined with civics. In upper secondary school, history is optional and is currently chosen by less than 50% of pupils. The percentage is higher only in pre-university education (VWO), where about 50% of pupils opt for history.<sup>32</sup> The trend in the Netherlands is towards integrating history with subjects like geography or social sciences at lower secondary level, too. This is also the case in Norway, where history forms part of the subject “social studies” which includes history, geography, sociology, and similar issues such as human rights education.

Above we gave some principal socio-economic information on history teachers and related it to factors of school organisation such as the timetable for history, changes in school curricula, or the relevance of school autonomy. This allowed us to show whether and to what extent it is, or will be, an attractive option to become a history teacher in one of these countries. These indicators offer a first overview of the social situation of history teachers and their reputation and provide information on future job opportunities for trainees in the field.

Summing up, we may say that, generally, the reputation of history teaching is not the best compared to that of other jobs for graduates from tertiary education. No significant improvement is to be expected, either. However, within the next two decades demand for history teachers is certain to grow in many European countries, which may well have a positive effect on the job's reputation. In any case, this is an important factor for those concerned with organising initial training for history teachers. It would certainly be necessary to obtain more detailed data for each individual country to allow more exact forecasts, but in general we may say that job

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<sup>32</sup>. See the country report for the Netherlands in the present study.

prospects for history teachers will gradually improve. This should be given adequate consideration in the planning and organisation of ITT in the near future.

### ***Standards in initial training for history teachers***

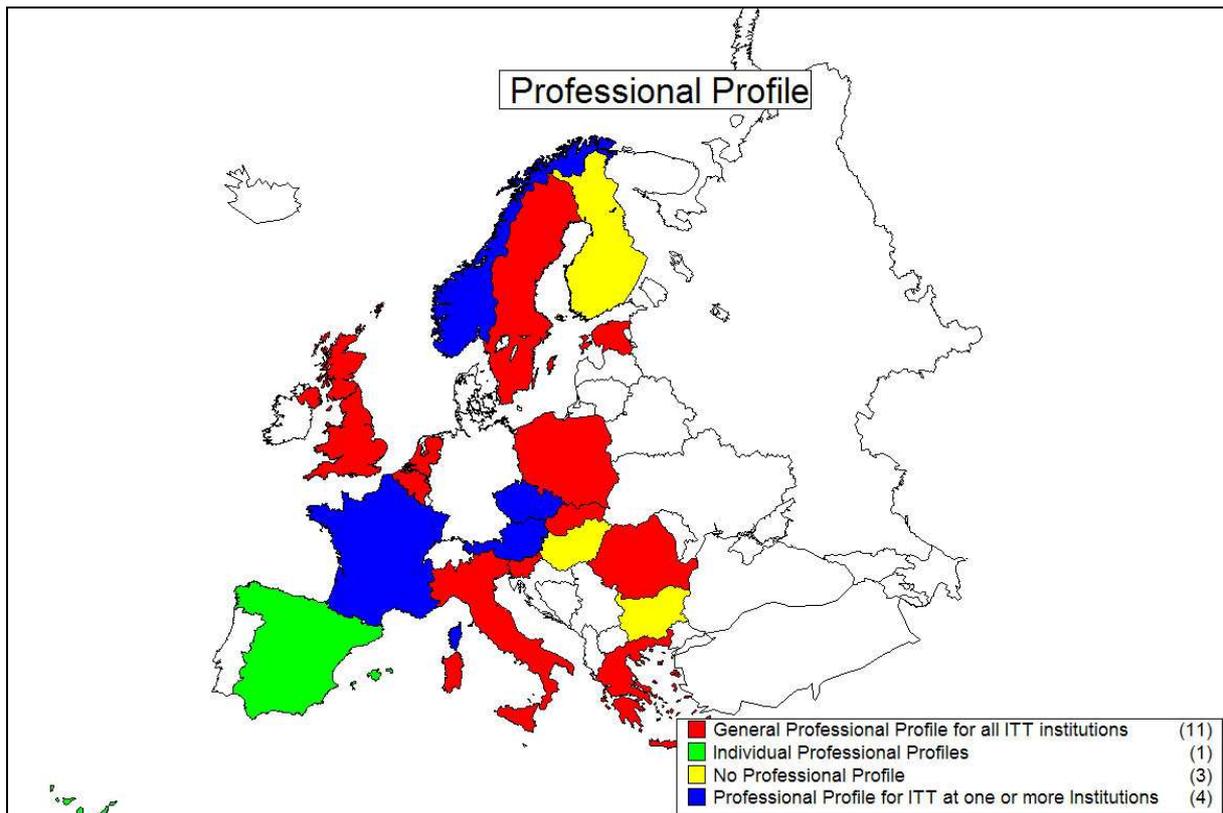
#### *The professional profile of history teachers and the qualified teacher status*

If we relate our findings about ITT structures to the planning of training, we are taken back to a key question namely that of systematic reflection upon the training situation. Therefore, we first wanted to know whether there is any systematic planning of and approach to initial training for history teachers in the countries concerned. As one of the indicators we will take the professional profile of history teachers as an indicator of such reflective planning in ITT institutions.

In contrast to what we had found in our pilot-study we got the information now that most of the ITT-curricula in the 20 countries under discussion rely on general professionals for initial teacher training and/or a specific profile for the training of history teachers. Even if there is no general professional profile for all institutions in the concerned country – as it is the case in Austria, the Czech Republic, France, Norway, and Spain, such profiles exist on the level of the main teacher training institutions (universities, pedagogical universities, IUFM). Bulgaria, Finland and Hungary report that there is no profile for all training institutions but individual universities have started to develop a professional profile within the framework of university autonomy..

Thus, 8 years after we have started the discussion about the importance of professional profiles and 5 years after the first publication about this issue we may conclude, that the planning of curricula and the practical work in teacher education for history teachers has got a standardised framework, describing the general aims, attitudes and especially the general competencies expected from future history teachers.

Most of the countries have also defined conditions of a “qualified teacher status” (QTS). This may also be regarded as an important measure towards establishing standards for a job profile. Qualified teacher status entitles a person to teach in state-funded schools.



Map G: Professional profile

As shown above, universities are relatively autonomous in defining the curricula for ITT. In most countries this also gives them the right to develop individual professional profiles. However, most universities and other training institutions would not have developed such profiles if there had not been any central requirements to do so from their ministries of education. Even though ministries usually do not determine explicitly what history teachers should be able to do, they define what should be done in curriculum development by creating the corresponding legal framework. Together with the exchange of information between training institutions on a national level this leads to similarities in the definition of professional profiles in individual countries. In the following we can offer examples of and illustrate general trends in the approach to professional profiles for history teacher.

A professional profile requires competencies on both levels: the level of content/knowledge and the level of skills. Both academic and didactic competencies are necessary. The profiles of France, the UK, and Austria show the different kinds of approach to these profiles.

*France* has a dual system of standards. These are either prescribed and supervised by the Ministry of Education and/or the general inspectorate, or developed and executed by the IUFM, that is, the training institution itself. According to the recommendations of the Ministry of Education, the profile for young teachers of history and geography<sup>33</sup> comprises the following five sections.<sup>34</sup>

<sup>33</sup> In France students study both subjects together.

<sup>34</sup> Source: Ministère de l'Éducation nationale. Inspection générale de l'Éducation nationale. Groupe Histoire et Géographie, *Compétences attendues des professeurs d'histoire et géographie nouvellement formés*. Paris, Octobre 1994, pp.1.

## **Competencies of newly trained history teachers (France) as recommended by the French Ministry of Education**

### **1. Academic competencies:**

Teachers should have a comprehensive general knowledge of the subject and a profound knowledge of central aspects and key issues of history and should be able to use this knowledge to link it with less important aspects of the subject. They should be familiar with the methodology of information and documentation: knowledge of the methods, concepts and central notions of history; the history of the subject; epistemology and theory; knowledge and skills in handling historical tools.

### **2. Planning and organising lessons:**

Teachers should: have a precise knowledge of the curricula and schedules of training classes as well as a general knowledge of the curricula of all types of schools; develop a well-balanced syllabus for the school year that takes into account all the requirements of the curriculum; maintain a balance in increasing pupils' knowledge and developing their skills; be able to reflect upon the aims and objectives of history, and to precisely define the aims and central problems of each lesson.

### **3. Directing classes and monitoring pupils' work:**

Teachers should: have sufficient authority to direct pupils' behaviour and work in class; construct each lesson on the basis of specified objectives and clearly defined problems; be able to recognise the needs and expectations of the class; use material, methods, and media in a simple, but effective way; conduct lessons, regardless of the chosen method, in a clear style and finish them with simple, synthesising summaries; monitor the compilation of exercise books and the quality of their language; be able to evaluate their own teaching; and practise different forms of evaluating pupils' work in class.

### **4. Teaching at school:**

Teachers should: be actively involved in the subject group of colleagues (vertical coherence), contribute to the group and ask for its assistance, if necessary; be actively involved in the group of classroom colleagues (transversal coherence); have a good knowledge of the rules in class and in the school building.

### **5. Further training and self-evaluation:**

Teachers should: be able to evaluate and critically analyse their professional experience; have a subject-oriented interest in a continuing evaluation and improvement of their academic competencies through in-service training; be able, as regards didactic competencies, to look for support through the joint reflection with colleagues or other partners at school (supervision).

As is obvious from this overview, the French standards for history teachers form a challenging profile that includes academic and didactic competencies, that is, high subject knowledge combined with knowledge of methods and concepts of history as a science. In addition the profile puts even more emphasis on professional competencies: competencies in directing and monitoring pupils' behaviour and learning progress as well as pupil-centred forms of directing, analysing, and evaluating the learning process in class. History teachers have to precisely follow curricula, that is, a centrally prescribed subject plan, but they also have to take into

account the concrete conditions of a specific class. This may cause a certain conflict with central guidelines which sometimes oblige or force history teachers to adapt their courses to a general national plan that does not necessarily meet the actual learning needs of a specific group of pupils. On the other hand, this is a problem that history teachers are probably faced with in all countries of our survey.

The French concept of classroom teaching seems to be based on a rather systemic approach to history teaching, since the professional profile clearly differentiates between the competencies necessary to deal with the class as a social body and those needed to manage the process of individual learning. The systemic perception of the class as a social body in its own right is still not very common in the didactic theory and practice of the surveyed countries. More than the others, the French model also stresses the need and the ability of history teachers to co-operate with their colleagues and superiors and to ensure support from this group in terms of additional information and reflection. Thus, the French concept of history teaching is not just a matter of classroom organisation, but also of co-ordination and co-operation between colleagues within the school.

Professional training in *the United Kingdom* starts at post-graduate level: All intending secondary history teachers have to hold a history degree before embarking on training in partnerships<sup>35</sup>. This training is entirely concerned with pedagogical issues and not with history “content” as such. Intending teachers’ studies in history as an academic discipline may be very diverse: from broad-based courses that include ancient, medieval and modern history, to courses that are quite specialised in a particular period or region, or both.

As regards the standards of one-year (postgraduate) ITT,<sup>36</sup> the United Kingdom represents a rather centralised system. All ITT courses have to comply with the criteria laid down by the national government through the Teacher Training Agency. Every course has to fulfil fixed requirements, and every trainee teacher has to achieve certain “standards” before acquiring the “qualified teacher status”. Besides these centrally prescribed standards, individual partnerships may impose additional requirements and award their own qualifications such as the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) which is held by the vast majority of newly-qualified history teachers. Partnerships, in other words, may define their own approach to training, so that there is no uniform ITT curriculum in the United Kingdom.

ITT aims to equip history teachers with the knowledge, skills and understanding to teach their subject confidently and accurately within the age range 11 to 18, and at the same time to nurture their personal attributes and develop intellectual and managerial skills to enable them to operate as effective professionals. The training is almost entirely pedagogic and practical. All trainees have to work towards the achievement of the nationally prescribed standards in

- knowledge and understanding;
- planning, teaching and classroom management;
- monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability;
- other professional requirements.

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<sup>35</sup> ITT in the UK is based on partnerships, usually between a higher education institution and a number of schools. In most cases, the institution plays the leading role in the partnership. At universities ITT is usually the responsibility of a department of education or a school of teacher education/teaching studies.

<sup>36</sup> For university graduates with a degree in history.

**The professional profile of history teachers (UK)  
as recommended by MMU/ Didsbury School of Education<sup>37</sup>**

**A. Teaching Competencies**

*Planning and Preparing*

- a) Setting appropriate aims, objectives, statements of learning outcomes.
- b) Ability to plan coherent, progressive sequences of work.

*Assessment*

- a) Ability to monitor and assess pupils' progress and achievement.
- b) Ability to record and report achievement.
- c) Ability to respond to assessment data in planning future teaching.

*Classroom Management and Organisation*

- a) Ability to maintain an orderly learning environment.
- b) Ability to organise provision for learning.

*Providing for Individual Differences*

- a) Ability to match methods and materials to the ability of the pupils.
- b) Ability to demonstrate concern for equal opportunities.
- c) Ability to take account of pupils with special needs including the able and gifted.

*Classroom Interaction*

- a) Use of a variety of teaching styles, techniques, equipment.
- b) Appropriate and varied questioning techniques.
- c) Use of appropriate language, communication skills.
- d) Ability to motivate pupils and maintain pace.

*Subject Competence*

- a) Suitability of objectives (see above)
- b) Knowledge and skills.
- c) Ability to assess (see above).

*Context and Awareness*

- a) Awareness of ethos of school or college.
- b) Ability to relate to staff and pupils.
- c) Perception in evaluation.
- d) Flexibility.

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<sup>37</sup> MMU, Didsbury School of Education: Description of the PGCE programme 1997/98, pp.21.

## **B. Subject competencies for history:**

Understanding of the aims of the teaching and learning of history and the subject's place in the secondary curriculum.

Demonstrate familiarity with the history content of the prescribed study units for KS3.<sup>38</sup>

Knowledge and understanding of the significance of the study of key concepts in history, i.e.: chronology, causation, change and continuity, similarity and difference (Key Elements 1 and 2) and an awareness of pupils' most common misconceptions of these concepts.

Ability to understand the significance of interpretations in history (Key Element 3).

Knowledge and understanding of the range of sources and skills in the use of evidence including the use of sources for enquiry.

Understanding the principles and problems of assessment at Key Stage 3 and 4 and at 'A' Level, including the monitoring, assessment, recording and reporting of pupils' progress and attainment in history.

Knowledge and understanding of the aims of the GCSE history syllabuses, the assessment objectives; the usual examination format and history in humanities examinations.

Ability to understand the implementation of the GCSE in terms of schemes of work and coursework.

Knowledge and understanding of the range of teaching methods best suited to the abilities and interests of secondary pupils, including the use of IT as appropriate.

Ability to identify the possible learning difficulties presented by the study of history and to adopt appropriate strategies to help to overcome such difficulties. This will include identifying the needs of pupils with specific learning difficulties and the needs of pupils not yet fluent in English.

Ability to understand how pupils who are able in history may be identified and the reasons for choosing work which is appropriate for the able pupil.

Understanding of the role which local history and fieldwork can play in developing pupils' understanding of and interest in history.

Ability to understand the varied role of language in the teaching and learning of history, including the organisation and communication of history (Key Element 5) and the role of extended writing.

Ability to understand how the teaching of history can contribute to the promotion of equal opportunities across the curriculum.

Knowledge and understanding of the contribution to the cross-curricular elements of the National Curriculum and of the opportunities to contribute to pupils' personal, spiritual, moral, social and cultural development. [...]

Knowledge and understanding of the sources of information and recurrent developments in history and history teaching.

Ability to reflect on one's developing competence as a teacher of history.

A systemic approach to teaching, classroom management, classroom interaction and co-operation with colleagues is also requested in the English example. As far as subject competencies are concerned, the approach is similar to that of the French profile and is based on the central requirements defined by curricula and on a strict assessment of teachers' performance in the classroom.

As concerns didactic and practical competencies, we also notice a differentiated profile: Regarding the understanding of the aims of the teaching and learning of history, other "key concepts of history" refer to a multiperspective approach of history teaching: the "understanding and explaining differing interpretations; developing a range of skills using a variety of evidence; developing enquiry and communication skills involving historical evidence; ... history's contribution to a pupil's language development".<sup>39</sup> It might be interesting to ask history didacticians from other countries whether they also intend to contribute to the pupil's language development

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<sup>38</sup>. Key Stage 3 is equivalent to grades 5 to 8 / age 11 to 14.

<sup>39</sup>.MMU, op cit. p.19.

by training and teaching history teachers. Language problems play an important role in multicultural societies: a fact that is underlined also by one of the next aims in the profile.

This example shows that the *understanding* of history is considered a crucial factor in ITT in England. Trainees should be able not only to present historical information, but to teach pupils to acquire historical knowledge. History teachers are also encouraged to contribute to pupils' personal, spiritual, moral, social, and cultural development: History is defined much more as a subject that forms pupils' personality rather than a subject that is merely designed to impart specialised knowledge. History seems to be regarded very much as a medium to foster pupils' sense of identity and their social and cultural role.

The teaching competence which should be acquired by trainees during this one year of training is regarded as "an holistic set of criteria which will require continual upgrading and development through the course."<sup>40</sup> According to the MMU programme "it is only at the time that the examination board decision is taken that it can be said that you [the trainee, AE] have achieved competence."<sup>41</sup> As we will see below this approach to "assessing" teaching competence differs from the Austrian model, where students themselves are encouraged to reflect upon the progress in their teaching competence and to discuss this progress with advisory teachers and didacticians. Although we agree to the concept of continual upgrading of teaching competence we would advocate a more active involvement of students in the process of developing self-reflection upon their teaching competence.

Compared with the two countries discussed above, *Austria* has a relatively decentralised system of teacher training. The Ministry of Education defines the legal framework, but teacher training institutions (at least those at university level) are invited to develop job profiles and curricula in accordance with their specific local and institutional conditions. A professional profile has recently been established together with the new ITT curricula at Austrian universities.<sup>42</sup> As in France and the United Kingdom, this profile includes both academic and didactic competencies.

### **The professional profile of history teachers (Austria) as recommended by the University of Vienna<sup>43</sup>**

#### *Principles*

History teachers should: be highly flexible and self-organised and have a high level of personal responsibility; be able to critically select information, to co-operate, and to handle conflicts constructively; be aware of the necessity of continual further training and improvement of their competencies ...

ITT aims at developing academic and didactic competencies together with the development of self-reflecting, social, communicative, and organisational competencies ...

#### *General didactic qualifications*

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<sup>40</sup>. MMU, op.cit., p.11.

<sup>41</sup>.Ibid.

<sup>42</sup>. The current reform of curricula is still in progress and will be completed in 2002.

<sup>43</sup> University of Vienna (2000) Lehramtsstudienkommission, Qualifikationsprofil für Absolventinnen und Absolventen des Lehramtsstudiums 'Geschichte und Sozialkunde' (Sekundarstufe I und II), Vienna, October 2000, pp. 2.

As far as the organisation of classroom teaching is concerned, history teachers should be able to create a variety of dynamic learning structures which foster pupils' self-determination and self-organisation. Besides, they should be able to:

- present information in an easily comprehensible way, making use of the relevant media available;
- create a stimulating learning environment that is rich in content and will produce a lasting effect;
- monitor, foster, direct, analyse, and evaluate processes of learning, communication, and work;
- identify and assess pupils' learning capacity and development potential;
- try to create a good balance between pupils' self-reflection and their self-esteem;
- critically evaluate and assess all (teaching) concepts that are suggested to them;
- take a constructive position regarding the circumstances of their actions;
- reflect upon their own actions on a theoretical basis.

As regards co-operation with their colleagues, history teachers should be able to: work in an interdisciplinary setting; offer professional support and advice to their colleagues; direct working processes in the teaching team; develop school profiles; examine and assess their own development ...

*Subject competencies include:*

- thinking in historical categories;
- a wide general knowledge as well as a profound specialised knowledge of history, taking into account all cultural, political, social, economic, and other aspects which foster the understanding of different cultures, both past and present;
- the ability to encourage critical and communicative learning processes that raise pupils' political awareness and take into account various theories and findings of political, social, and cultural studies;
- abilities and skills in applying methods and techniques of historical theory that correspond to the latest findings of historical research;
- a readiness to engage in the permanent development of subject didactic competencies with regard to current debates on history didactics;
- flexibility in applying the acquired knowledge, methods, and competencies of the subject;
- an analytical, systematic, and reflective application of relevant subject knowledge and skills, and a critical approach to historical sources, the findings of historical studies, and current information;
- the ability to synthesise and present the findings of historical research;
- the competence to develop and foster a multi-perspective perception of historical situations and processes: raising pupils' awareness of the manifold causes of historical events and the broad range of potential interpretations; and the systematic practice of synchronic and diachronic ways of perception;
- interdisciplinary thinking and work styles; the ability to facilitate an understanding of the interrelation between cultural, political, economic, social, and ecological developments;
- a choice of contents that is oriented towards the present and takes into account pupils' situation and everyday experience: the ability to link knowledge of local history with overall historical developments;
- choosing and handling topics in a critical, problem-oriented way designed to foster pupils' sense of identity;

- intercultural thinking and acting: e.g., developing a differentiated perception of the past by discussing the ‘other’ that is different in both space and time; an understanding of the historical development of foreign cultures;
- self-reflection: acting out, and maintaining a certain distance towards, one’s role in the teaching situation; handling (institutional) power in a transparent way; dealing with conflicts constructively; recognising pupils’ emotions in a differentiated way, separating them from one’s own emotional reactions, and handling the emotional dimension of teaching in a sensitive and creative way;
- social and communicative competence: process-oriented thinking and work styles; developing and implementing experience-based learning processes; the ability to initiate, foster, direct, monitor, analyse, and reflect upon learning processes;
- planning and preparation: a basic knowledge of the theories of learning and developmental psychology and of the didactic appropriateness of specific media, especially regarding the critical application of information technologies; wide-ranging experience in the use of all currently relevant techniques and media; the knowledge and creative realisation of curricular provisions;
- organisational analysis: the necessary analytical competence to adequately assess opportunities of co-operation within the organisation with colleagues, superiors, and parents; the ability to plan and implement interdisciplinary or international forms co-operation, projects, and partnerships.

Compared with the two other profiles, the Austrian example puts more emphasis on the personnel development of the trainees. Students are encouraged to develop their individual plan of studies within a variety of possibilities in both, general and professional courses. As regards the development of history teachers’ *academic competencies* and its underlying philosophy and rationale, the Austrian profile is very similar to those of France and the UK. It is considered crucial for students of history to acquire a profound knowledge not only of political history, but also of social, economic, and cultural history, enabling them to link the political, economic, social, and cultural developments in the historical period under discussion. They should be able to handle factual and methodological knowledge in a flexible way, and they should be willing to cross borders between academic disciplines. They should be able to relate historical topics to the present situation of pupils and to choose and discuss historical subjects in a critical, problem-oriented way that fosters pupils’ sense of identity. They should also be able to introduce a multi-perspective approach in the teaching of history and to deal with historical developments in a multicultural dimension.

With regard to *didactic qualifications* the situation of history teaching at Austrian universities is understood, following the theories of social dynamics and social systems, not only as a problem of how to select the right historical content or how to choose the right teaching methods and media, but as a special social and communicative event. When history teachers interact with their pupils in the classroom, they – together with the pupils – form the special social system of “history teaching”. Therefore, history teachers also need to be qualified to lead, manage, and reflect upon social processes in the learning group.

This is why history teachers also have to develop competencies of self-reflection. They should be able to act out social roles in a differentiated way and to maintain a certain distance towards their own role in the teaching situation. They should handle

(institutional) power in a transparent way and deal with conflicts in class constructively. Since pupils also learn through identification and imitation, teachers should be able to recognise transference from pupils, to separate it from their own reaction of counter-transference and, if possible, to arrive at a functional interpretation of that reaction in the context of the historical topic taught in the classroom.

Similarly, students should be given the chance to develop *social and communicative competencies*: process-oriented thinking and work styles; competencies in developing and implementing experience-oriented learning processes; and the ability to direct, analyse, and reflect upon processes going on within the learning group in relation to the historical topic under discussion.<sup>44</sup> In order to manage these processes history students should acquire adequate *planning and preparation skills*: a basic knowledge of the theories of learning and developmental psychology and of the appropriateness and application of different media; a profound procedural knowledge in applying different teaching methods (such as lectures, group work, role play, project work) and media. Finally, trainees need *skills in organisational analysis* in order to deal with colleagues, superiors, and parents. They need analytic skills enabling them to remain realistic about the possibilities of co-operation within their organisation, and they should be able to plan and implement interdisciplinary co-operation and project work.

ITT at Austrian universities aims at training history teachers who do not simply present facts about a particular historical topic, but who are able to communicate its relevance to the social dynamics of the learning environment. They should be able to choose from a range of teaching methods, taking into account pedagogical considerations, and to respond to the social, cognitive, and age-related situation of the learning group as well as to the realities of school life in a flexible manner. In conclusion we may say that all three profiles tend to attach equal weight to promoting academic as well as didactic competencies while occasionally there seems to be more emphasis on didactic qualifications rather than on academic ones. Future history teachers will be regarded as managers of learning processes rather than as mere presenters of historical information. It is considered their task to teach pupils to obtain and to critically select historical information themselves and to guide them in their historical research work. We also noticed that professional profiles are based on the idea of history teachers with a high competency of self-reflection that enables them to examine the learning process in a very differentiated way. Finally, the profiles stress the need for continual further training during the entire teaching career, already taking into account the necessity of lifelong learning. However, looking at the data shown above about the imbalance between academic and professional training in current ITT we have to say that there seems to be quite a wide gap between the ideal professional profile for history teachers and its realisation in the concrete training situation. Therefore, we consider it one of the central objectives of ITT in the next decade to reduce this gap and to encourage the

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<sup>44</sup> Teaching history, in this sense, does not mean primarily that the teacher tells the pupils about a certain historical event or process, but that the pupils themselves are encouraged to reconstruct historical situations and to apply critical historical methods to historical events. It also means that they learn to identify their own, personal (local, regional, social) place in history. In such a process of learning, the teacher's primary task is not in presenting historical information and judgement, but in preparing, managing, and co-ordinating the learning process.

realisation of the well-planned objectives laid down in the new profiles for history teachers.