The structures and standards of initial training for history teachers in thirteen member states of the Council of Europe

A Comparative Study

Edited by Alois Ecker

Project "Learning and teaching the history of Europe in the 20th century"

Contents

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Vienna, December 2000 Alois Ecker

Foreword

History teaching at secondary schools depends on three main elements which must be taken into account and constantly adjusted to societal developments and the cultural needs of coming generations: curriculum development, textbooks and teaching materials, and teacher training. Our pilot study on a crucial aspect of the third element – the initial training of history teachers – is the first comparative study on the structures of initial training for history teachers in several European countries. To our knowledge it is also the first study of this kind to compare the structures of teacher training in a concrete subject on a European level.

The study describes the structures and standards that apply to the initial training of history teachers (ITT) in Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain, and the United Kingdom (E/W). It includes data-base and background information on ITT which will help those in charge of history teacher training – ministries of education and teacher training institutions: universities, pedagogical universities and teacher training colleges – to discuss concepts for the ITT of history teachers. The aim of the study is to provide information that will raise the level of professionalism not only of history teaching, but also of teacher training.

Highly industrialised countries are currently undergoing a process of rapid cultural change. This rapid change will also affect teachers at secondary schools. History teachers have to deal with political, social, economic, and cultural change every day: Indeed, this is the very subject of their profession. Unfortunately, they are not always well prepared for this job. Therefore, we explored current forms of their initial training, as this will provide a basis for future planning and for developing ITT reforms on the levels of institutional co-operation, institutional reforms, and the personal development of both teachers and teacher trainers.

Thanks to the organisational support and longstanding experience of the Council of Europe with issues of history teaching and thanks to the generous support provided by the Austrian Ministry of Education, Science and Culture and the Czech Ministry of Education we were able to organise two expert seminars in Vienna and Prague, where those ITT questions initially investigated with the help of country reports and two comprehensive questionnaires were discussed in greater detail.

In more concrete terms the study aims at providing information about the structures of ITT: ITT models; length of studies; conditions of assessment and graduation; curricula; relations and differences between school curricula and ITT curricula; relations between academic and practical training in ITT; the institutions involved in training: universities, pedagogical universities, colleges, pedagogical academies, and other teacher training institutes; and the (theoretical) concepts which form the background of training. We also looked at the forms of co-operation between training institutions, especially as regards opportunities of practical training, but also at teamwork and project-oriented training during studies.

Furthermore, we wanted to get an insight into the social context history teachers currently work in or will be working in in the future. Therefore, we also looked at general demographic data referring to history teachers, their social background, the trend towards feminisation of the profession, teachers' salaries, and students' chances of actually working as history teachers after graduating from university or teacher training college.

We are indebted to many people for providing us with the necessary information about the countries involved in this study. Our thanks go to all of them:

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Introduction

> "The Council of Europe's Project No. 8, *Innovation in the Primary School* (DECS/EGT (87) 23) made a number of recommendations, one of which was that the Council should devote more attention to the issues concerning the training of teachers. There were several reasons for this recommendation but the principal one derived from what project members saw as a major barrier to the successful innovation in schools."[1]

More than ten years after this recommendation was published in a Council of Europe project on innovation in primary school, it is still as relevant as in 1987 – and not only for primary school teachers. Without adequate organisational and personnel development, innovations in educational institutions – be it on the primary, secondary or tertiary level – will not be successful in the long term. Organisational development in today's schools primarily depends on effective structures of communication and co-operation between those who work in organisational management and those who teach. Personnel development, first and foremost, depends on the actual qualifications of teachers themselves.

Taking into account that "teaching" is not just a gift of nature, talent, character or divine grace, we have to look at the various ways in which teachers acquire the necessary teaching competencies on the job. The best-known ways of acquiring teaching competencies are initial and in-service training courses and seminars. Therefore, we decided to carry out a comprehensive survey on the professional training of history teachers for tomorrow's secondary schools.

By exploring the initial training of history teachers we hoped to find out more about the structures and standards which are established at the very beginning of a history teacher's teaching career. During the three to four years at teacher training college or the four to five years at university, history teacher trainees are expected to acquire a basic orientation on their future teaching profession. This orientation often remains the predominant structure of a teacher's professional role and identity throughout his/her entire teaching career. We thought it might be interesting to look at the explicit and the hidden aims that characterise the initial years of future history teachers in Europe, and at how they are filled with content, in a more systematic way.

This is the first comparative study on the training of subject teachers on a European level. The training of teachers in general and of history teachers in particular has not much been reflected upon on an international or a general European level. It still remains a field of national interest, and there is not much comparison with training structures in neighbouring countries, for example. Even within a certain country, one teacher training institution may know very little about the objectives and forms of training applied by another institution in the neighbouring city. We noticed a general lack of information and communication about the structures of training, both in individual countries and in Europe as a whole. The structures of teacher training are rather heterogeneous, so that we thought it might be useful first to highlight the

[1] Galton, Maurice and Moon, Bob (1994) Handbook, p. 181.

structures that are common to the initial training of history teachers in thirteen member states of the Council of Europe and then to describe the differences between the main concepts in this field.

These thirteen countries – Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain, and the United Kingdom – were selected, on the one hand, for geopolitical reasons and, on the other hand, because they enabled us to address characteristic differences in training concepts. Drafting the first questionnaires on the initial training of history teachers in 1998, we were not very sure about the relevant issues and topics to enquire about. In the first few months of this survey we knew little more than what was going on at our own training institution and at those institutions with which we already had long-standing contacts. Over the last two years we not only learned to ask the more relevant questions, but we also acquired a profound knowledge of the relevant structures behind the initial answers. Discussions with colleagues from other countries at the seminars in Vienna (April 1998)[2] and Prague (June 1999)[3] helped us to put our own views and ideas about the topic in perspective – and various colleagues told us that their experience had been similar.

During our investigations we came to appreciate the particular form of research we had chosen – the combination of standardised questionnaires followed by expert discussions in two seminars and by corresponding working groups – as a particular form of intervention into the educational systems concerned. Our questions provoked further investigation on a national and institutional level. In-depth discussions at two seminars and additional research on special topics in five working groups between April 1998 (Vienna) and June 1999 (Prague) revealed a number of crucial problems which we had not been aware of at first. At the start of this survey we did not know that there was so little co-ordination with regard to the initial training of history teachers among the countries of Europe. Therefore, we would like to express our hope that this study will help to realise one of the original aims of this project: to establish an international platform for the systematic discussion and investigation of important issues and problems concerning the initial training of history teachers and, thus, to develop a new quality of reflection upon the relevant needs in teacher training.

History teaching in Europe has had to face challenging new developments during the last decade: In the countries of East and Southeast Europe the process of political reforms has greatly changed the role of history teachers as well as the significance of history teaching at school and university. But the changes regarding history and the teaching of history were not limited to the countries in transition: History in Western and Central Europe has also had to cope with the growing complexity of political, social and economic systems. Despite the particular differences between Eastern and Western European countries, special attention must be paid to one tendency which may well be considered the biggest challenge for history at the beginning of this century: The new nationalist and right-wing tendencies also affect young people so that history teachers are confronted with these problems in the classroom, too.

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[2] Savova, Julieta (1998b) Seminar report. Vienna, Austria, 19 to 22 April 1998. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

[3] De Bivar Black, Luisa (1999). Seminar report, Prague, Czech Republic, 6 to 9 June 1999. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

On the other hand, new approaches to history both on the content level and on the methodological level - especially the use of new technologies[4] - need to be implemented in classroom teaching, and teachers need to be prepared for these forms of dealing with the past.

In the 20th century, national history remained the dominant focus of history teaching all over Europe – even though this was, as we know, not always to the benefit of the people living in Europe. At the beginning of the 21st century we have to ask ourselves whether historiographers and history teachers should continue to promote the construction of national histories and, thus, remain dependent on the political powers that be; or whether history and history teaching should encourage a more systematic and reflective approach to the past, with comparative and multi-perspective methods, which could contribute to overcoming the nationalist heritage in history: for example by topics of social, economic and cultural history as well as a political history with a thematic focus, a broader view and differentiated categories, including European and global perspectives, and promoting a history based on democratic values and human rights.

We have to ask ourselves whether future education through history teaching will be able – with the consent of the new young generation – to foster social and communicative competencies, critical thinking, open-mindedness, mutual understanding, tolerance and solidarity between the people of Europe and other parts of the world.

Educators work with a long-term perspective, not knowing whether their efforts will ever bear fruit. Therefore, they can only hope that their work will be successful in bringing about more objective forms of history and history teaching. Nevertheless, we have to ask again and again which ways of dealing with the past are best-suited to foster peaceful development and co-operation in Europe. As teachers and educators we have to look for ways of using history to encourage self-consciousness and cultural identity in the next generation without excluding “the other” – irrespective of whether s/he is “the other” on grounds of gender, social status, religion, race, language, ethnicity, or nationality.

Teacher training plays an important role in this effort to promote democratic forms of history, as it determines the fundamental structures of how history will be taught to future generations. While it is true that learning and training today requires the permanent, lifelong improvement of qualifications, prospective teachers still get their first orientation in the initial teacher training at university or other teacher training institutions. This is why we thought it important to explore – across national borders and comparing different European countries – what happens in these first years of training and induction.

[4] Compare: Tardif, Jacques (1999) The challenges of the information and communication technologies facing history teaching, Symposium 25 to 27 March 1999, Andorra, Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

Alois Ecker

Key questions on structures of initial training for history teachers

We would like to introduce the subject with some general remarks on the current development of educational systems in Europe and its consequences for the training of history teachers:

1. Teacher training in an era of accelerated cultural change: complex societies and complex learning processes

The highly industrialised regions of the world are currently undergoing a process of rapid social, political and economic change. This restructuring has a strong impact on the cultural sphere: seemingly stable conventions are undermined, well-established norms and forms of behaviour change rapidly. This process has been termed "accelerated cultural change".

Accelerated cultural change also affects the educational sector: Established educational institutions are coming under increasing social pressure. New suppliers in the information sector – new technologies, TV, print media, adult education, private institutions – compete with schools and universities as providers of education. The kind of education offered at school and university is increasingly being questioned.

Consequently, history teaching is confronted with various new challenges. Demands on school teachers have grown rapidly over the last years in terms of both content and pedagogy. Relationships between teachers and pupils are changing. Successful teaching methods and contents are no longer accepted unquestioningly by today's young generation. What we need in the classroom is complex, integrative and dynamic methods of teaching and learning. Methods which enable the learner not only to acquire declarative knowledge about certain historical facts (e.g. the social dynamics of industrial societies, the restructuring of the family, the changing relationship of the sexes), but also to develop procedural knowledge which can be acted upon in concrete, everyday social situations – methods which allow the learner to experience the complexity of social change and which help him/her to develop social competencies.

The accelerated cultural change described above affects the teacher's role in general as well as co-operation among colleagues: Interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork have not formed part of teacher training so far. The teacher is still seen as an individual, isolated worker in the classroom – and this outside perception corresponds with the prevailing self-image of the teachers themselves: As soon as they have closed the classroom door, they feel themselves alone with a group of pupils or students – often without taking sufficient account of the fact that they do teach these pupils together with a number of other colleagues. Even today, there is very little co-ordination between subject teachers who teach the same class. On the other hand, such forms of co-ordination rarely get any official or institutional support such as a concrete financial compensation for the time spent on such co-ordination.

In the light of what has been said so far, accelerated cultural change represents a new challenge for teacher education. Future teachers need to be trained to apply

complex methods and to co-operate with colleagues, and they need to be able to react flexibly to any other problems which may arise in their professional life. Therefore, the education and training of teachers also needs to be remoulded into a rich learning environment where student teachers can acquire and improve the necessary academic, didactic and organisational competencies.

This leads us to the first question regarding the initial training of history teachers:

What can be done to promote reflection upon the initial training of history teachers not only with respect to what is happening in the classroom, but also with respect to current social and cultural developments outside the classroom, in the school as a special social system and in the school's environment, and with respect to the macro-social development of our societies, the economic and social changes in Europe and in other parts of the world?

2. Reflection upon the training situation requires a system of meta-reflection upon the structures of learning how to teach history

In this approach, history didactics[5] is regarded as an *applied social science*.[6] Its central concerns with regard to the teaching of history at school are as follows:

1. In the face of current social developments, which ways of dealing with the past seem particularly necessary and useful to encourage reflection in the group of people concerned (e.g., students)?
2. Which (historical) methods are appropriate for reconstructing past cultural, social, economic and political situations and their development in a critical and multi-perspective dimension?
3. What knowledge is necessary in order to foster a historical understanding that relates to current changes in society?

These are the central questions which history didactics needs to resolve within its concrete social environment.

Consequently, we also need to deal with these questions in the initial training of history teachers. However, we should not focus on the current situation of history teaching at school, but on the demands which history teachers are likely to meet in the future. We need to ask what kind of future these teachers are being educated for.

One crucial theoretical point concerning the observation of and reflection upon our subject came up repeatedly in many discussions with teacher trainers. When we talk about "history teaching", we should clearly distinguish three levels of observation and reflection:

a) history teaching in the classroom;
b) teacher education (= the training of students and/or teachers through initial or in-service training);
c) the training of trainers.

Each level is a proper social system in its own right – and what is good on one level need not necessarily be good on another one, too. „Level switching" is a common problem in the current debate on history didactics. It means that even theoreticians of

[5] In Anglophone countries the term "methodology" still prevails. We decided to give the preference to the term "didactics" as this notion is becoming more and more common in Europe, and especially because it is more precise and comprehensive in describing the "art of learning and teaching" as well as the reflection upon the learning and teaching structures.
[6] Ecker, Alois (1994b) Process-oriented didactics of history.

history teaching do not draw a clear distinction between the levels they are talking about. Owing to this mix-up, they might seem to suggest that there is no difference in discussing, e.g., curriculum development for secondary schools and curriculum development for initial teacher training. When it comes to teacher training, in particular, many experts do not have the training situation in mind, but the classroom. They seem to be talking about teacher training but, in fact, they are only interested in what goes on at school. Of course, there are certain links between these two levels, but – to stick to our example – the history curriculum for school pupils is not necessarily the same as that for teacher trainees at university. Thus, what we need in discussing teacher training is more awareness of the level of observation and reflection we are talking about.

Academic reflection upon the training of history teachers is still relatively new. At university, at least, the traditional way of teacher training used to consist in the cognitive learning of "historical events" (or "facts") and in the adoption of methods of historical research – but up to now, there has been very little reflection upon what is happening in the learning and teaching situation, and almost none upon ways of integrating the processes of cognitive learning and "social learning".

In the understanding of university members, "teaching" very often remained an imitation of the behaviour of experienced elder teachers. If there was any theoretical reflection at all, it mostly consisted in normative concepts, or "instructions", of what trainees *should* do in the classroom rather than in any empirical observation, description and analysis of or feedback on what could be described as the *actual* interaction between teacher trainees and pupils. Most of the time, the training of future teachers remained limited to instructions as to what the *students* should do or learn in history courses instead of describing how the *trainers* should perform their task.

This leads us to the second question regarding the initial training of history teachers:

What can be done to improve the perspective of observation and reflection in the initial training of history teachers – What should trainers focus on in reflecting upon the training situation? Who is at the centre of interest: Is it really the student who wants to become a history teacher – or is it still the idealistic concept of a teacher which the trainer dreamed about during his own schooldays?

3. Institutional co-operation: on the relationship between theory and practice in university-based teacher education

Teacher training is not only a question of trainers and students. It takes place in institutions – and usually there is not only one institution involved in the initial training of history teachers, but several. The initial training of history teachers (ITT[7]) takes place at universities, pedagogical universities or teacher training colleges, but also at schools, where teacher trainees get their first practical experience. Therefore, we also have to look at the forms and quality of co-operation between those institutions which are involved in concrete ITT models.

The historical development of the relationship between school and university, for example, has opened up certain channels of co-operation, but it has obstructed others. The relationship between university teachers and schoolteachers is widely experienced as hierarchical, so that horizontal co-operation is seriously under-

[7] In the following we use ITT as an abbreviation for "initial training for history teachers".

developed or is made difficult by mutual allegations of deficits and conflicts. Universities still see themselves as institutions which produce “theory”, while schools are expected to provide practical learning environments.

If there is co-operation between these two institutions, it still depends very much on individual initiative and contracts, but not on contracts between the institutions themselves. Practical teacher training in these cases has to rely on small and unstable channels. Consequently, there is very little practical training during university studies, and students who want to become history teachers often do not even get any opportunity during their first four years at university to find out in classroom practice whether they are actually able to handle a class of pupils or not.

This leads us to the third question regarding the initial training of history teachers:

What can be done to improve co-operation between the institutions involved in teacher education, i.e., universities, pedagogical universities, teacher training colleges and schools as well as the administrative bodies governing these institutions (ministries of education, ministries of science and research, central or regional school administrations)? What are the main obstacles that hamper the productive co-operation of these institutions?

4. The professional profile of history teachers

If we accept accelerated cultural change as a reality in the current historical process, we have to develop the concepts of teacher training in a way that allows teachers to perform their tasks in a more professional way. For history teachers, this includes a thorough and continuous reflection upon the aims, contents and methods of history teaching.

In recent years, many professions have reacted to the structural changes in society by adjusting their understanding of their own roles and, thus, altering their job descriptions. Looking for a systematic job description for history teachers in training institutions, it often turns out that there is no explicit professional profile for teachers in secondary school. Professional training, then, runs the risk of working like a company without a business plan, the members of which (teachers/lecturers and students) act without clear objectives and remain dependent on diffuse assumptions and traditions as well as on external influences and orders. Teacher education at university or other training institutions, therefore, is in dire need of clearly formulated aims which may serve as guidelines for the development of concrete syllabi.[8]

Such a professional profile will also have to include academic and didactic qualifications:
The *academic competencies* required in the profile might be: a good knowledge of political as well as social, economic and cultural history; the ability to establish links between political, economic, social and cultural developments in the historical period under discussion; flexibility in handling factual and methodological knowledge; a readiness to cross borders between academic disciplines; the ability to relate historical contents to the present; the ability to develop a critical and problem-oriented choice and treatment of historical subjects; and the ability to select and to deal with the historical information available through new technologies and the Internet in a critical and problem-oriented way.

[8] Compare also: Buchberger, Friedrich (1994) “Teacher education in Europe - diversity versus uniformity”, in: Galton, Maurice and Moon, Bob (eds.) Handbook, p. 34.

As far as *didactic qualifications* are concerned, the profile might include: process-oriented competencies; the ability of self-reflection; social and communicative competencies; planning and design skills; skills in the analysis of organisations; the ability to handle (institutional) power transparently and to deal with conflicts in class constructively; the ability to direct, analyse and reflect on processes within the learning group with respect to the historical subject under discussion; the ability to prepare, manage and co-ordinate the learning process in a way that enables pupils to reconstruct a certain historical situation and to deal with a certain historical event by applying critical historical methods; the ability to analyse possible ways of co-operation with colleagues, superiors and parents within the respective organisation; the ability to plan and implement interdisciplinary co-operation and project work.

This leads us to the fourth question regarding the initial training of history teachers:

What is the professional profile of a history teacher who is to teach history to the new generation of pupils? Which academic and didactic competencies do future history teachers need?

5. Developing interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork

We said above that teaching is still largely seen and performed as an individual and "lonely" profession. Considering the teamwork and co-operation skills required in business enterprises all around the world, we have to ask ourselves whether this model of teaching still corresponds to today's needs. International educational organisations have repeatedly stressed the importance of fostering teamwork and interdisciplinary co-operation through teacher training. The 45th session of the International Conference on Education in Geneva for example proposed in recommendation No. 2: "to develop basic skills among teachers for the performance of their indispensable role, which consists on the one hand in arranging information in such a way that it may become knowledge, in making choices and in developing critical faculties, and on the other hand in transmitting culture, forming personal and social relationships, being outgoing, favouring life together and promoting awareness of both differences and common values. In particular, these skills involve: … Teamwork: inculcating attitudes encouraging co-operation and dialogue with colleagues and all levels of educational staff, the essential conditions for collective professionalism guiding teaching activities; ...".[9]

The future development of modern democratic societies depends on people who are able to communicate flexibly in different codes and to co-operate even in situations they are not familiar with. Teacher trainers, therefore, are called upon to develop new forms of directing the learning process in a way that foster trainees' co-operation skills.

If we look at teacher training courses at university or college from this perspective, we find that most academic courses – and even pedagogical and didactic courses – do not encourage teamwork and co-operation between students *in an active way*. Teacher trainees work on their own most of the time, having to rely on their individual work and expertise. Therefore, it should be one of the major objectives of future initial training to foster students' teamwork skills. – Can we imagine that students also work together in teams in the same courses? Can we imagine that they prepare their practical lessons at school together in a team, that they also work together closely

[9] UNESCO (1996) International Conference on Education. Draft declaration of the forty-fifth session of the International Conference on Education. Geneva, 30 September – 5 October 1996, Geneva, pp. 4.

when teaching in the classroom and that, finally, all members of the group get the same marks at the end of this process?

These demands are in line with another requirement for the teaching profession: Considering that our societies have become more complex, we need training situations which help us to simulate this complexity. Complex subjects – and training people to teach about historical processes is a very complex subject – also require a highly complex learning process.

Therefore, teacher training institutions are called upon to develop and implement more complex forms of organising teaching in the training situation on different levels of the learning process:

a) on the level of students: e.g., through project-oriented structures in training courses; group work and project work; team teaching; and opportunities of systematic reflection upon teacher trainees' classroom experience in these teams.
b) on the level of trainers: e.g., by encouraging teamwork between trainers; interdisciplinary co-operation between different experts who work together in a training course, such as historians, ethnologists and psychologists in courses on the history of everyday life, or historians, didacticians and advisory teachers in seminars on subject didactics.[10]
c) on the level of training institutions: e.g., by developing curricula which offer opportunities of interdisciplinary co-operation in training courses.

This leads us to the fifth question regarding the initial training of history teachers:

What can be done to improve students' teamwork skills? What kind of support is necessary for trainers and teacher training institutions to develop training models which provide opportunities of interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork?

6. The (im)balance of academic and professional training

A point that is often made in the context of teacher training is that students should first acquire a profound historical knowledge and academic competencies before they start to teach history. Standing in front of a class for the very first time, they will feel more confident if they have a thorough knowledge of their subject. This argument is put forward mostly by academic historians who defend the traditional form of teacher education at universities.

It is indeed a valid argument – but only to a certain extent. The question remains whether academic training is oriented towards history teaching, or whether it is limited to the "mere" academic training of students intending to become historians, researchers or archivists. Archaeological excursions, specialist courses on analysing medieval sources, statistical calculations in demography or quantitative SPSS analysis about the economic growth of the Rothschild bank between 1866 and 1873 may certainly be of interest and serve as good examples for teacher trainees, too, as long as they are related and prepared to the needs of history teaching at school. Yet this is rarely the case in academic training at university.

Academic training should be linked more closely to professional training. Historians at university are not always aware that they are holding courses for future history teachers. History teachers need to systemise historical developments and to

[10] The German term "Fachdidaktik" is either translated as "subject didactics" or "subject-based didactics". We prefer the first version.

introduce pupils to the basic assumptions and tools of history. Academic training has to enable them to fulfil these tasks.

This leads us to the sixth question regarding the initial training of history teachers:

What can be done in ITT to create and maintain a fruitful balance between academic and professional training?

7. The relationship between didactic theory and teaching practice

As mentioned above, the relationship between theory and practice is traditionally experienced as a hierarchical one, so that there is very little direct horizontal co-operation between theoreticians and practising teachers in teacher training. Moreover, looking at current models of initial teacher training, we are confronted with a significant imbalance between theoretical and practical courses: an imbalance that is also obvious in the relation between theoretical instruction and opportunities of practical training. Students tend to think that most theoretical aspects of history teaching – as far as they exist at all – are too far removed from practical classroom reality. Consequently, most theories of learning and teaching are not as useful as they could be for practical work in the classroom.

This implies that a problem which affects all social sciences today has been neglected in the training of history teachers: the problem of creating and maintaining an equilibrium and a stable link between theory and practice. Our criticism of the lack of practical concerns in the education of history teachers does not refer only to the insufficient opportunities for students to gather practical classroom experience. It is more fundamental than that and is also directed at the imbalance between theory and practice in academic, general educational and sometimes even subject didactics.

This leads us to the seventh question regarding ITT:

What can be done to improve the balance between theoretical and practical experience in the initial training of history teachers? What can be done to develop training courses into a 'reflective practice' of history teaching?

These questions apply to various aspects of ITT: curriculum development; the theoretical conception of training courses; encouraging interdisciplinary teamwork among teachers and trainers; creating more opportunities of supervised practical training in schools. All in all, we need to find ways of integrating theory and reflection more closely with students' personal experience of classroom practice.

8. Reflection upon the training situation

The different fields of training for history teacher trainees have been described above. Trainees should acquire the best qualifications to be well-prepared for their future work as teachers. But what about the trainers? The growing complexity of the learning process holds a number of challenges for teacher trainers, too:

Trainers are expected to evaluate the learning process in training courses on a permanent basis. They are also supposed to possess the necessary qualifications to provide students with extensive academic and didactic competencies. But where do they acquire their own qualifications? – Besides, many historians and even didacticians are not used to co-operating in their courses. *Team teaching* as an alternative structure of teaching is not an integral part of academic courses.

Can we imagine, for example – and can we also implement (!) – training models where historians from university, didacticians/pedagogues *and* school-teachers work together closely in *teams?*

If, at the beginning of the 21st century, we aim at building societies where people are much more able and willing to co-operate than today, we need to educate coming generations to try and realise this aim. Therefore, teaching and especially teacher training is among the most important professions to prepare the ground for social and cultural change.

It is also quite obvious that a professional profile for history teachers, as outlined under point 4, requires extensive competencies on the part of teacher trainers especially in the areas which were defined as the professional profile there. It is important to stress that a model of „permanent learning" also entails the need for the *trainers* themselves to continue their own training on a permanent basis, e.g., by acquiring additional didactic skills outside university through courses in group dynamics or group pedagogy, organisational consulting and similar training programmes.

This leads us to the eighth question regarding ITT:

What can be done to assist teacher trainers in reflecting upon their work? What can be done to create more opportunities for university teachers and trainers themselves to develop and improve their own didactic qualifications? And what we can be done to institutionalise these training programmes at universities or other teacher training institutions?

These eight questions indicate the path we might take in the initial training of future history teachers.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we might say that a modern model of initial teacher training for history teachers has to provide solutions for the following challenges:

I. to relate the objectives as well as the model of training to the macro-social development of societies,
II. to establish an adequate system of meta-reflection with respect both to the training of history teachers and to history teaching in the classroom,
III. to improve the structures of co-operation between all institutions involved in teacher training,
IV. to clearly formulate a professional profile for future history teachers which may serve as a guideline for training programmes,
V. to create a learning environment which offers opportunities for interdisciplinary co-operation and teamwork,
VI. to maintain a fruitful balance between academic and professional competencies in the training process,
VII. to develop didactic theory in close connection with practical experience, and
VIII. to foster reflection among, and to create training opportunities for, the trainers themselves.

Most of the training models which served as the basis for these key questions require extensive content-oriented and organisational co-ordination on the part of the trainers. The value of such efforts of co-ordination is still widely underestimated by the training institutions. Nevertheless, we firmly believe that an up-to-date curriculum for the education and training of teachers will certainly benefit from such forms of

(interdisciplinary) co-operation. Every step into this direction would definitely improve the quality of teacher training: It would contribute to the conveyance of specialised contents as well as to the social integration of individual courses, so that both the academic and the job-related aspects of the courses would profit.

Ultimately, this would mean that we have reached a new quality in the initial training of history teachers – and it would also serve as a small contribution towards developing a more democratic understanding of education.

Alois Ecker

Structures and standards of initial training for history teachers in 13 European countries – a comparative approach

1. Organisation and methodology of the study

The idea for this comparative study emerged as a result of CDCC activities on the reform of history teaching in countries in democratic transition.[11] Living in the centre of Europe and looking at the rapid process of reform in history and history teaching in Eastern and South-eastern Europe from a Western European perspective, I became interested in a systematic comparison of the structures of teacher training which apply to those students who will be the history teachers of Europe's next generation of pupils. The field of teacher training is rather broad and heterogeneous, so it appeared logical to concentrate on one specific area first. The obvious choice was the initial training of history teachers: an area of teacher training which is also one of my main fields of activity.

The idea became more concrete at the first expert meeting for the CDCC project on "Learning and Teaching about the History of Europe in the 20th Century in Secondary Schools"[12], and I started to get into contact with the contributors to the study. The Austrian authorities agreed to grant substantial support to the study, and the project group of the Council of Europe's history project adopted the study into its project.[13] In early 1998 a research group was constituted at the Institute of Economic and Social History at the University of Vienna.

As described in the introduction we had chosen a particular form of research for our investigations which is still rather new in the field of educational research[14]: the combination of standardised questionnaires followed by expert discussions in two seminars and by corresponding working groups. We came to appreciate this form of organisational research as it can also be regarded as a particular form of intervention into the educational systems concerned. Our questions provoked further investigation on a national and institutional level. In-depth discussions at two seminars and additional research on special topics in five working groups between April 1998 (Vienna) and June 1999 (Prague) revealed a number of crucial problems which we had not been aware of at first. With these two seminars we started to realise one of the original aims of this project: to establish an international platform for the

[11] Low-Beer, Anne (1995). The Reform of History Teaching in Schools in European Countries in Democratic Transition, Seminar Report. Graz (Austria), 27 November – 1 December 1994. Strasbourg, Council of Europe.

[12] Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC) (1996) Expert Meeting for the implementation of the Education Committee's new project on "Teaching the history of Europe in the 20th century in secondary schools", 24 – 26 June 1996, Report to the Education Committee, Strasbourg

[13] Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC) (1997) The CDCC's Project on "Learning and Teaching about the History of Europe in the 20th Century in Secondary Schools", 2nd meeting of the project group, 24 – 26 February 1997, Report to the Education Committee, Strasbourg

[14] See also: Schratz, Michael and Walker, Rob (1995) Research as social change. New opportunities for qualitative research, London: Routledge; Schratz, Michael, Iby, Manfred and Radnitzky, Edwin (2000) Qualitätsentwicklung. Verfahren, Methoden, Instrumente, Weinheim u. Basel: Beltz

systematic discussion and investigation of important issues and problems concerning the initial training of history teachers and, thus, to develop a new quality of reflection upon the relevant needs in teacher training.

Research was based on a twofold approach:

1. Evaluation of all available data on the initial training of history teachers (ITT). These data were collected systematically in each country by the respective contributors with the help of two questionnaires (see below) and by using the databases of the national ministries of education; then they were forwarded to and compiled by the Vienna research group, which also compared the collected data with data from the European education database 'Eurydice', the UNESCO 'World database on education' and the OECD studies 'Education at a glance'.

2. In-depth expert discussions on qualitative aspects of the subject at two seminars; five group networks which worked on relevant problems of the field for more than one year; the permanent exchange of information; and a final expert meeting.

First, the contributors to the study were asked to write a country report on the relevant structures of ITT: They were asked to describe – by answering a number of open questions – the structures of ITT as seen from the perspective of the educational system in their country. These reports as well as additional presentations[15] were discussed at the first seminar in Vienna on 19 – 22 April 1998.[16]

The Vienna seminar had several organisational objectives:

1. To get an overview of the relevant structures and standards in the ITT of history teachers through a systematic discussion of the country reports and the presentations given at the seminar.
2. To get a differentiated picture on relevant issues in the field which might then be investigated more closely in all participating countries with the help of a detailed questionnaire.
3. To identify crucial problems in the field of ITT and to establish smaller working groups to deal with these topics in networks over the next months.

Two fields of research emerged at the Vienna seminar:

The first field was that of collecting structural data on ITT. This work was co-ordinated by the Vienna research group and had the following objectives:

- to draft the new questionnaire on the basis of the information gathered from the country reports and in the discussions at the seminar,
- to send out the questionnaire to all contributors and to assist with its completion,
- to collect and evaluate data;
- to collect additional information on various questions from European education databases, and to compare this information with that obtained from the questionnaire,
- to systemise the collected data, and

[15] Council for Cultural Co-operation (CDCC) (1998) Seminar: Initial training for history teachers in thirteen member states of the Council of Europe. Vienna (Austria), 19 – 22 April 1998. Contributions to the seminar.

[16] Savova, Julieta (1998b). Project: Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the 20th century. Seminar: Initial training for history teachers in thirteen member states of the Council of Europe. A comparative study. Seminar report. Vienna (Austria), 19 – 22 April 1998. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

- to prepare a report for the second seminar in Prague.

The second field concerned the qualitative approach to crucial problems of ITT. This was the field of the working groups, which had the following tasks:

- to collect information and examples on the topic they had chosen for further discussion and investigation by networking among the group members, and
- to prepare a report for the next expert seminar in Prague.

Each working group had one or two co-ordinators who were responsible for stimulating the discussion of the topic chosen by the group. Five groups were established at the Vienna seminar:[17]

a) ITT models, entrance requirements, selection and evaluation of students
b) Institutional links, partnership models
c) Fostering academic and practical competencies
d) Initial training in multicultural societies
e) Training the trainers.

Originally, the group co-ordinators were supposed to meet in the autumn of 1998 to fine-tune research activities and to prepare a draft programme for the second seminar. Owing to financial restrictions this meeting had to be cancelled, which led to considerable problems of co-ordination; however, thanks to e-mail and additional personal commitment at all levels, we managed to overcome these difficulties.

The second seminar in Prague on 6 – 9 June 1999[18] was generously organised by the Czech Ministry of Education. Its main functions were:

1. to present the first results of the Vienna research group which had systemised and evaluated the data from the questionnaires and compared them with additional information obtained from European education databases,
2. to discuss the results with all participants and to identify additional issues to be further investigated with the help of a new questionnaire,
3. to present and discuss the reports of the group networks and to prepare the final reports on that work to be included in the study,
4. to develop recommendations and guidelines concerning the initial training of history teachers for teacher trainers, teacher training institutions, ministries of education and the Council of Europe, and
5. to take the final measures for publication of the study.

The Prague seminar offered the opportunity to get an overview of the collected data and to fine-tune the results. Further investigations were planned, and a group of colleagues agreed to help with the editorial work of the study.

After the Prague seminar, the Vienna group drafted a second questionnaire for more in-depth information on some areas and then prepared the preliminary versions of the country overviews.[19] These were sent out to both the contributors of the study and the ministries of education, or the representatives of the Council of Europe' education committee, respectively, asking for additional comments, corrections and/or additional information and updating of data. The comparison of the data collected

[17] Savova, Julieta (1998b). Vienna seminar report, p.20.
[18] De Bivar Black, Maria Luisa (1999). Project: Learning and teaching about the history of Europe in the 20th century. Follow-up Seminar: Initial training for history teachers in thirteen member states of the Council of Europe, A comparative study. Seminar report. Prague (Czech Republic), 6 – 9 June 1999. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
[19] For the final versions of the country overviews see the appendix of this volume.

from these reports formed the basis of the comparative approach in part I of this volume.

After Prague, the group co-ordinators started to work on the articles which now form part II of the study. All texts were discussed at an editorial meeting in Vienna on 18 – 20 November 1999, and the fine-tuning and editorial work finally began in spring 2000.

For a general classification of data on education we refer to the OECD's revised International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97)[20], which was adopted by the UNESCO General Conference in 1997 as well as by Eurydice, the European database on education.

2. Aims and central questions of this comparative study

This is a pilot study. It is the first comparative study on the structures of the initial training of history teachers (ITT) in thirteen member states of the Council of Europe: The states are: Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain, and the United Kingdom (E/W).

A. The general aims of this comparative study are:

- to provide information and foster networking to put the initial training of history teachers on a more professional level,
- to offer information on the relevant structures and standards of the initial training of history teachers (ITT) in thirteen member states of the Council of Europe,
- to provide database and background information on ITT to encourage an empirically based discussion of and reflection on the relevant problems in the Council of Europe, intergovernmental educational institutions, non-governmental organisations and ministries of education,
- to provide training institutions and teacher trainers with systematic information about curricula and standards in ITT,
- to provide trainers and the trainers of trainers with information about professional profiles and/or other national and international standards of their job,
- to offer information about current trends and problems in ITT, and
- to put forward recommendations and guidelines regarding ITT to the Council of Europe, ministries of education and teacher training institutions.

B. The central fields of investigation:

As described above, we developed two questionnaires to collect relevant data on ITT in the participating countries. The fields concerned were:

- ITT structures:
  - – ITT models: concurrent, consecutive, modular
  - – length of studies

[20] OECD (1999). Classifying Educational Programmes. Manual for ISCED-97 Implementation in OECD Countries. 1999 Edition, Paris.

– conditions of assessment and graduation
– the content of curricula
– the relation between academic and professional training
– the relation between theoretical and practical training

- The concepts and/or theoretical background of training structures:
  – the professional profile of history teachers
  – qualified teacher status
  – the relation between general and professional training
  – teamwork and project-oriented training
  – the content of subject didactics for history
- Institutions:
  – universities, pedagogical universities
  – colleges, pedagogical academies
  – other teacher training institutes
  – addresses and contacts
- Trainers:
  – types of teacher trainers
  – qualifications
  – training opportunities
  – in-service training for trainers
- The relation between ITT and history teaching in secondary schools:
  – institutional links, partnership models
  – forms of practical training
  – the contents of ITT curricula compared with school curricula: similarities and differences
- Structures of history teaching in secondary schools:
  – lessons per week
  – relation between political, social, economic and cultural history
  – relation between local, national, European and World history
  – expected changes in history teaching
- The job situation of history teachers:
  – feminisation
  – pupils-per-teacher ratio
  – age distribution
  – salaries
  – job opportunities for young teachers
  – necessity of taking on a second or third job to earn enough money

C. The focus of interest

As this study mainly deals with history teachers, it might be expected to describe the situation of history teachers in secondary school classrooms or the experience of

pupils who are taught history at school. However, this is not the case – and we are very much aware of that. We think that studies which are concerned with this first level of observation and reflection – i.e., history teaching in the classroom – are, indeed, highly important (especially if they are based on the systematic empirical observation and collection of data). Still, we decided to focus on the second level of observation and reflection – i.e., teacher training: History teaching in the classroom has been investigated comprehensively before[21], while this has not been the case with teacher training.

Our study, therefore, focuses on the second level of history teaching, i.e., on the level of teacher training. This includes the structures and standards that apply to the initial training of students who want to become history teachers as well as to the trainers who train them and the institutions where they are trained. – We also take an in-depth look at the third level of observation and reflection, i.e., the training of the trainers.

As concerns the initial training of history teachers, the study focuses on two social fields of investigation:

1. the organisational dimension of ITT as a relevant factor in training: training institutions and the structures of training,
2. the personnel dimension of ITT: fostering the historical and didactic competencies, knowledge and skills of future history teachers; and the training and qualification of the trainers.

We may relate these two fields to the general dimension of innovation in school: On the one hand, we were interested in issues of organisational development, i.e., the development of structures of communication and co-ordination in ITT. On the other hand, we looked at concepts of personnel development, i.e., the development of qualifications, knowledge and skills in the 'social subjects', and at the actors involved in this social system: the trainers and the students.

As regards the *organisational dimension*, we were interested in the following questions:

1. What are the organisational standards in ITT: What are the standards of communication and co-operation in and among training institutions? What are the standards of communication and teamwork within training structures and training models?

On a more normative level and in the context of current efforts to put history teaching on a more professional basis, the question we sought to answer was: Do training structures and learning environments provide opportunities to acquire and improve the key competencies which student teachers need to develop in order to be successful as (future) history teachers?

These questions are also connected to the institutional dimension of teacher training. We think that this dimension actually exerts the biggest influence on future forms of teacher behaviour. Therefore, we might even claim that institutional rules form the 'hidden standards' of initial teacher training.

As regards the *people* involved in ITT, we were interested in the following questions:

[21] Cf. Angvik, Magne and von Borries, Bodo (eds) (1997). Youth and History. Comparative European survey on historical consciousness and political attitudes among adolescents (two volumes). Hamburg: Körber-Stiftung; Van der Leeuw-Roord, Joke (ed.) (1998a). The State of History Education in Europe. Challenges and Implications of the "Youth and History" Survey. Hamburg: Körber-Stiftung.

2. What are the standards of personal training during initial teacher training? Is there a professional profile for history teachers which may serve as a basis for planning and designing training courses? – Which academic and didactic competencies do trainees have to acquire during their studies?

   Which opportunities are provided in training to foster complex analytic and reflective learning processes? Are structures of learning organised in a way that allows trainees to relate theoretical concepts to their individual practical experience?

   Which assumptions of historical consciousness and historical thinking form the basis of training concepts? Which methods of dealing with the past should future history teachers be able to apply when teaching history in the classroom?

Which standards exist for the trainers themselves? Is there a professional profile for trainers?

3. Another field of interest concerned the job opportunities for those who are trained to become history teachers. Where will they work? What will they have to teach? How much will they earn? What prestige does their job hold? Which demands will they have to face in the future?

We know that this pilot study can only give preliminary answers. Future research, hopefully, will provide additional data on and deeper insights into the field. For the time being, we hope that the categories offered by us will be of interest also to those working in the field. We will now describe some of the central findings of our study:

3. Results

3. 1. Organisational structures of ITT – general information

The first point we would like to address are the principles and standards on the organisational level:

A. Institutions

Here, we refer to the European database on education, Eurydice. The Eurydice database gives information on 11 of the 13 countries covered by our study. In addition to current[22] Eurydice data, we also included data from Albania and the Russian Federation in our comparison. – The introduction of a chapter on teachers and their training in the latest Eurydice edition states that "In the European Union and EFTA/EEA countries today, training for teachers working in primary and secondary schools is provided at tertiary education level, either in universities or in non-university tertiary education institutions. University-level training is becoming the norm at higher levels of education. … In the pre-accession countries, the initial training of primary and secondary school teachers is also mainly organized within tertiary education, with the possibility of university-level training."[23]

[22] The editorial deadline of this study was October 2000.

[23] Eurydice /European Commission (2000). Key data on education in Europe 99/2000, Brussels, Luxemburg, p. 123; also see http://eurydice.org

In our study we concentrated on the training of history teachers in lower and upper secondary schools of both types of education (general and vocational), and we found that:

a) As concerns teaching at lower secondary school, ITT takes place at *university* or *pedagogical university* in most countries, with the exception of a few countries where ITT also takes place at other training institutions. This is the case in

Austria: Pedagogical Academies

Hungary: Teacher Training Colleges

Norway: Colleges of Higher Education

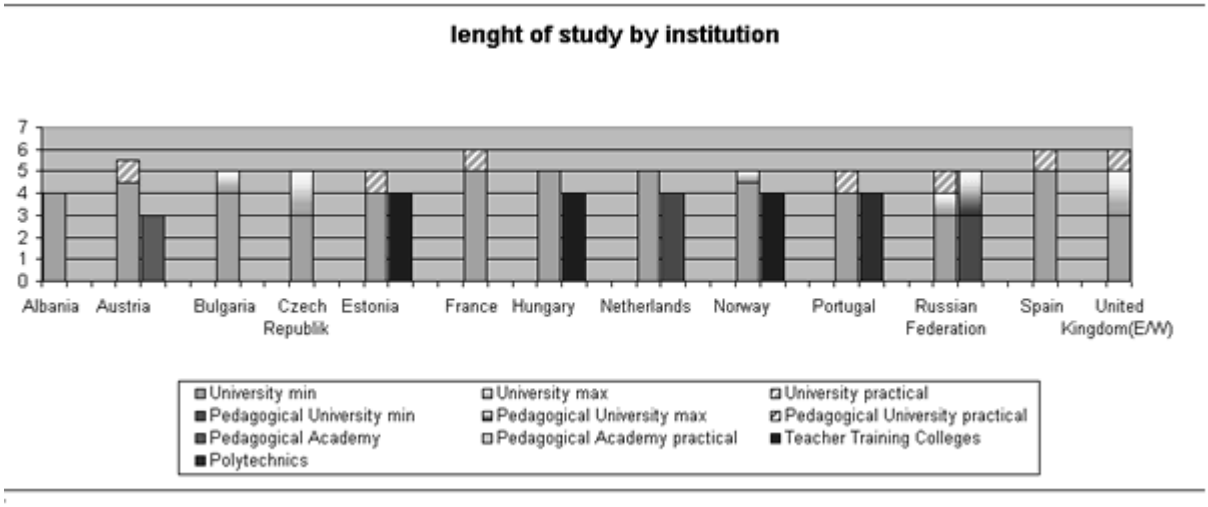
Portugal: Polytechnics.

The degrees students obtain at these last four institutions entitle them to teach history only in (some[24]) lower secondary general or lower secondary vocational[25] schools. However, reforms are being discussed to establish an overall educational structure which is equivalent and comparable to university studies[26] and which will also cover the above-mentioned types of training institutions.

b) As concerns teaching at upper secondary school, ITT is provided at *university* or *pedagogical university* in all countries.

Thus, most teacher trainees who want to become 'full' history teachers (i.e., qualified to teach both at lower *and* upper secondary school) are trained at university or pedagogical university today.

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 younger than 30 years are (almost) certain to have a university degree (see age distribution).



[24] Austria: With the certificate from a *Pädagogische Akademie* (Pedagogical Academy), history teachers are entitled to teach only at "Hauptschule" (lower secondary school).

[25] Hungary

[26] Austria: Reforms aim at reorganising *Pädagogische Akademien* into pedagogical universities within the next seven years.

We noticed that *universities* provide ITT in all countries. Besides, *pedagogical universities* (BG, NL, RF[27]), *teacher training colleges* (E, H, N, UK) or *pedagogical academies* (A), *teacher seminars* (EE), university institutes for teacher training (= IUFM) (F) or *Polytechnic Institutes* (P) are involved in the initial training of history teachers. Furthermore, we must not forget the (secondary) *schools* which provide opportunities of practical training in almost all countries.

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 CZ, EE and the RF, associations of history teachers also exert a certain influence on ITT requirements. Working groups for process management have a similar function in the NL.

At university, ITT is usually provided either by a Faculty of History (BG, EE, RF), by a Faculty of History and Philology (AL), or by one or several Institute/s or Department/s of History (A, CZ) that form part of a larger Faculty of Philosophy, of Education (CZ) or of the Arts (CZ) or of a Faculty of Human Sciences (A, F). Different faculties/institutes are in charge of the organisation of teacher training and/or provide special courses of ITT, e.g., a Faculty/Institute of Pedagogy (A, BG) and/or a Faculty/Institute of Psychology (A, BG).

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.

B. Length of studies

The average length of study to become a ‘full’ history teacher, qualified to teach at lower and upper secondary school, is 4 to 5 years, including academic and professional/practical training.

The minimum length of studies is 3 years. Minimum-length studies entitle graduates to teach only at lower secondary school: This is the case with Pedagogical Academies in Austria, history studies at a Faculty of Art or Faculty of Education in the Czech Republic, and studies at a Faculty of Education in the Russian Federation, with studies in the last two countries ending at BA level.

The maximum length is 5 ½ years (A) to 6 years (F, E, UK – 3rd grade), all examples including at least one year[28] of practical training after graduation from university.

As for history teachers who are entitled to work in an extended form of compulsory school[29] (A: Gymnasium; BG: gymnasia; CZ: gymnázium; F: college /lycée; NL:

[27] Like in Eurydice, the international country codes are used where several countries are compared.

[28] In Spain, students have to take a teacher training course (minimum length: 300 hours) after graduating from university. In France, students who succeeded in the 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).

[29] The ISCED classification distinguishes between lower (ISCED 2) and upper secondary education (ISCED 3), the former starting around the age of ten, 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

VWO; RF: complete secondary school) 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 1960ies (A), the 1970ies (UK), the late 1980ies (F) or the 1990ies (E, EE, NL, RF).[30] 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 ten and fourteen) 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:

C. Models of training

The Eurydice indicators distinguish between two main models of initial teacher training: "The professional and practical training of teachers is provided either at the same time as their general course (the concurrent model) or following the general course, for instance at post-graduate level (the consecutive model). … In most EU and EFTA/EEA countries, the concurrent model is adopted for training primary level teachers. Conversely, the consecutive model characterises the training of secondary

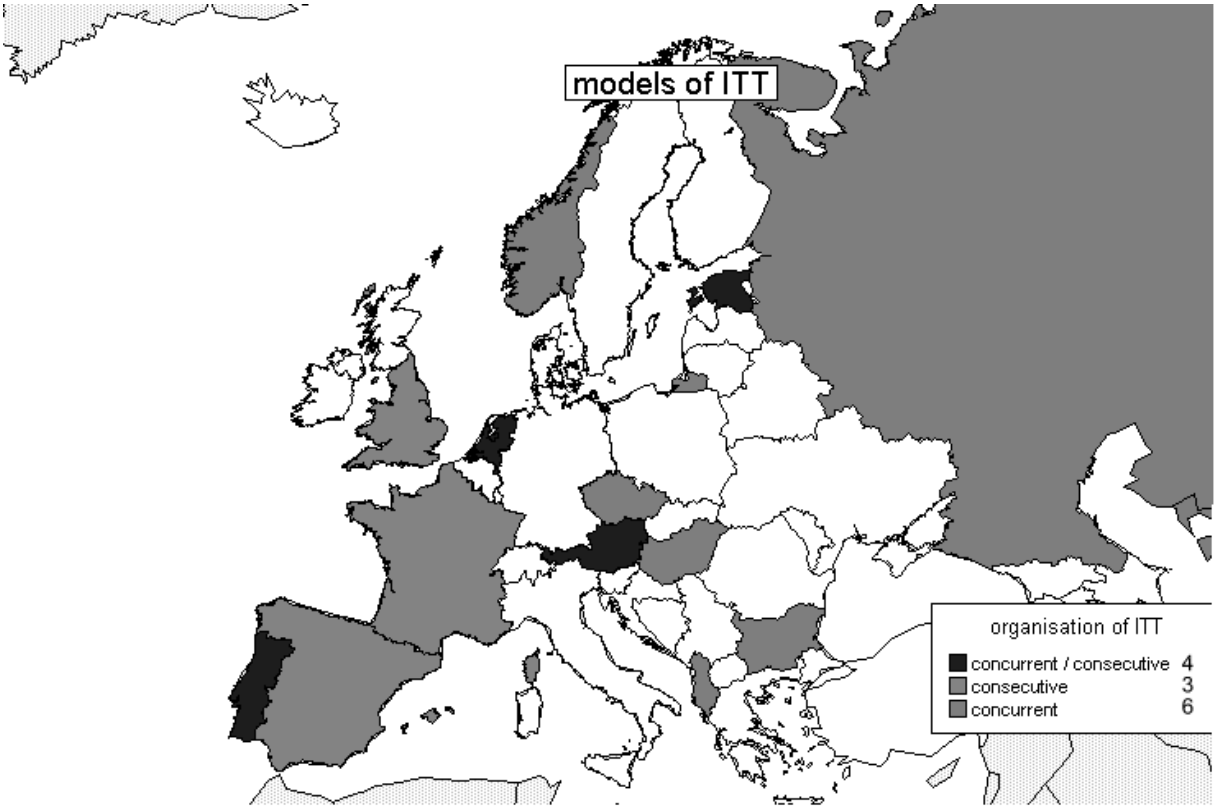
organisation of education between the ages of 10 (A, H), 11 (BG, CZ, F, UK) or 12 (NL) and the ages of 14 (A, AL, UK) 15 (A, F, RF) or 16 (H, NL). Some countries have a system of basic/comprehensive education which starts at the age of 6 or 7 and ends at 15 (E, EE, P, RF) or 16 (N). – Compulsory full-time education lasts until either 14 (AL) 15 (A, CZ, E, EE, F, P, RF) or 16 (BG, H, NL, N, UK). For more information please see Eurydice (2000), Key data, pp.17.

[30] Anweiler, Oskar et al. (1996). Bildungssysteme, pp.75.

level teachers. In the pre-accession countries, the concurrent model is the most common whatever the level of education."[31]

Regarding ITT for history teachers, the distribution in our sample was as follows:

a) concurrent: six countries (almost half of our sample) have only concurrent models (AL, BG, CZ, H, N, RF),
b) concurrent and consecutive: another four countries have both forms (A, EE, NL, P),
c) consecutive: the remaining three countries have only consecutive models (E, F, UK).



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 Central European Countries, while the concurrent model is more common in Eastern European countries. On the surface, thus, our findings correspond to the data in Eurydice.

However, in contrast to Eurydice, our numerical overview gives the impression that there is a dominant trend towards concurrent models also in those countries where ITT mostly takes place at university. This would imply that academic training and professional and/or practical training take place in a more or less integrated form. Yet when we analysed the curricula, we noticed that some of the concurrent forms are still based on consecutive models: There is very 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 or teacher training colleges are normally closer to the concurrent model:

[31] Eurydice (2000). Key data, p.123.

D. The relation between academic and professional /practical training

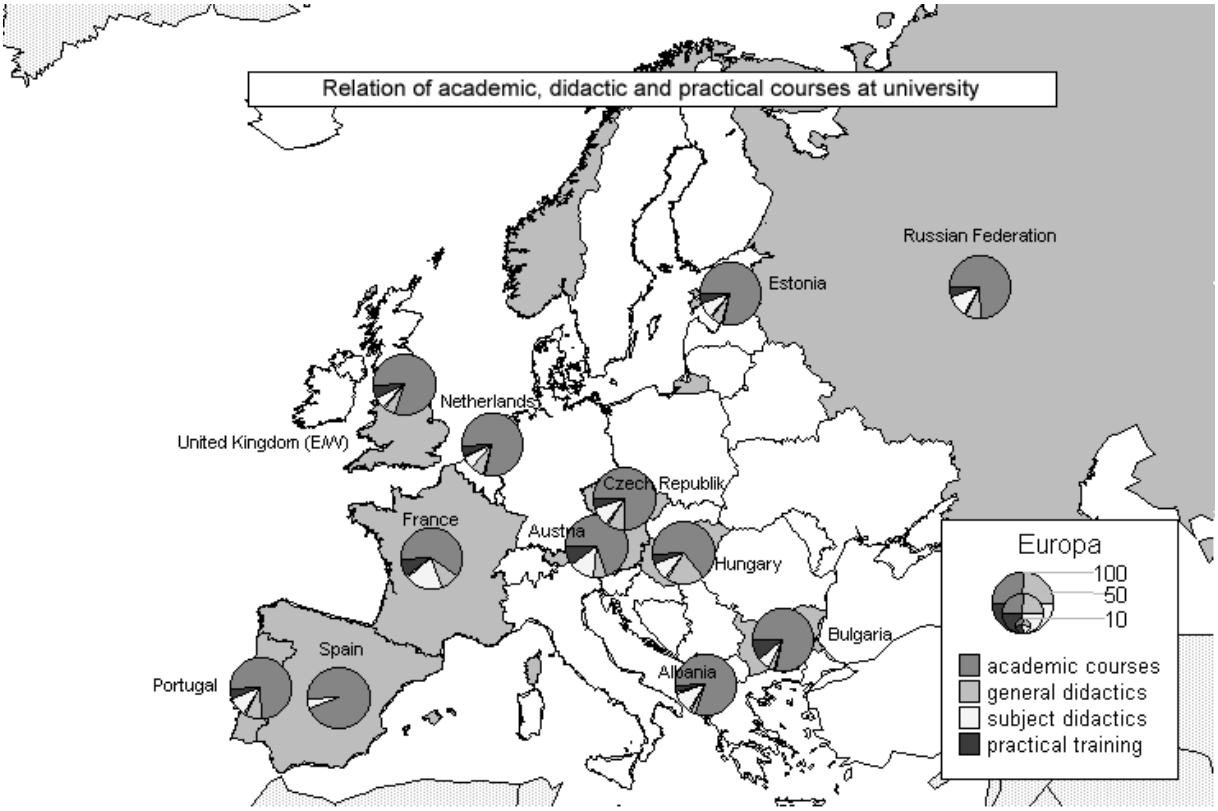
We also looked at the relation between academic courses, courses of general pedagogy, courses of special didactics and practical training during the period of *university studies.*[32]

There are slight differences between the individual countries, but in most cases *academic courses* make up between 70% and 80% of all courses in this period. The highest share of academic courses in all courses is 95% (E: universities[33]); the lowest share is approx. 60% (F: IUFM).[34]

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

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

0% to 10% are devoted to *practical training* (0% in E: universities[35]; 10% in A: universities, and F: IUFM).



University studies are followed by a longer period of *post-graduate training* in some countries (A, E, EE, F, NL, P, UK), especially in those countries where consecutive models prevail. Post-graduate forms of training are usually organised in close co-operation of teacher training institutes and schools (F, NL, P, UK) or they take place

[32] Not including post-graduate practical training.
[33] Followed by one year of practical training at school.
[34] In Portugal, a reform that became effective in 1998 allows universities to establish closer co-operation with secondary schools, so that students may be supervised in university seminars during their fifth year (= practical training at school).
[35] For universities in Spain see footnote above.

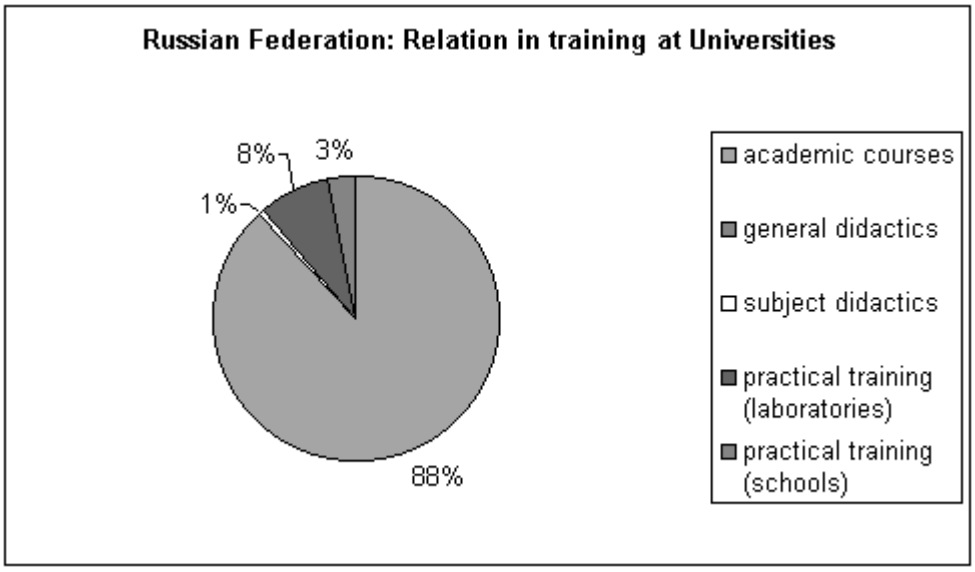
at school (A, E, EE).[36] With the exception of the French model, these forms of training are not – or not closely – linked with preceding training courses at university.

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 (AL, A, CZ, EE, H, N, RF) to increase the share of practical and/or professional training already in university studies and to establish the concurrent model at university, too.

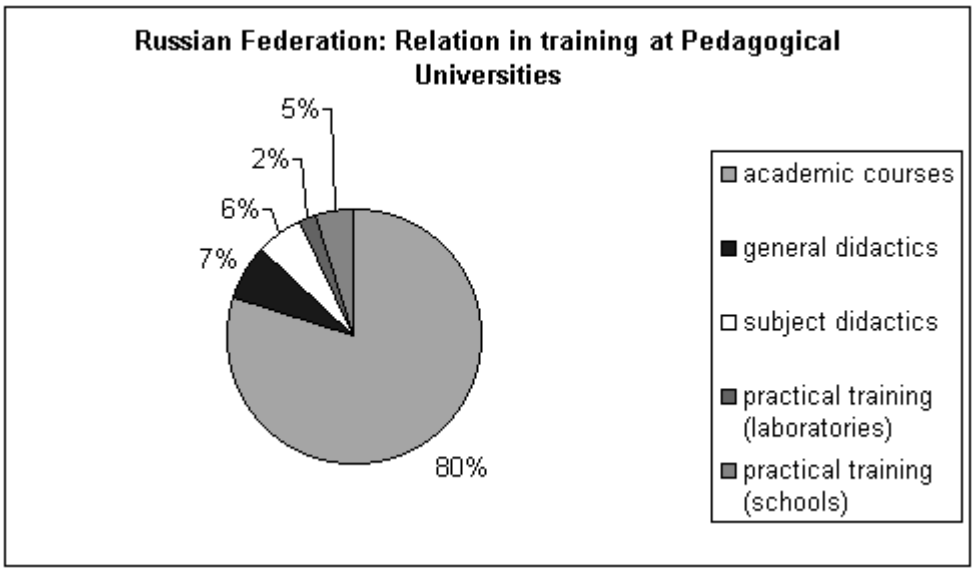
As concerns the training concept of the consecutive model, it is based – as far as we know – on the assumption that students first need to be trained in academic history courses, to learn historical facts by heart and/or to familiarise themselves with historians' tools before they should start to think about or deal with problems of teaching history. This study is not the right place for a detailed discussion of this attitude, but didacticians and psychologists of all theoretical orientations have long proved that the logic of learning is not as simple as that (also see the articles by Drosneva and Strotzka in part II of this volume).

Case study: Russian Federation – The relation of academic, didactic and practical courses at universities and pedagogical universities

As shown in the diagrams, pedagogical universities do not necessarily provide more practical training. In the Russian Federation, the percentage of academic courses is higher at universities than at pedagogical universities. On the other hand, pedagogical universities in the Russian Federation place more emphasis on general didactics and subject didactics, while universities offer more opportunities of practical training in laboratories (3%) and schools (8%).



[36] 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.



Comparing what has been said about the consecutive structure at university with the structure of ITT at *teacher training colleges*, we get a different picture:

The concurrent model prevails,
academic courses make up a much smaller share of studies, between 25% (E) and 60% (H) of all courses,
courses of general pedagogy make up between 20% (A, H) and 30% (E),
subject didactics makes up between 10% (H) and 25% (A), and
practical training makes up between 10% (H) and 25% (A, E).

However, the quantitative factors discussed above can be misleading, since the relation between two, three or four factors in education does not necessarily give proof about 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 (e.g., 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.

E. 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: e.g., 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 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 IUFM 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*, e.g., 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, Portugal, and the process-oriented model in Austria (for more information, see the contribution by Christa Donnermair).

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.

F. 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 unreflected by 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

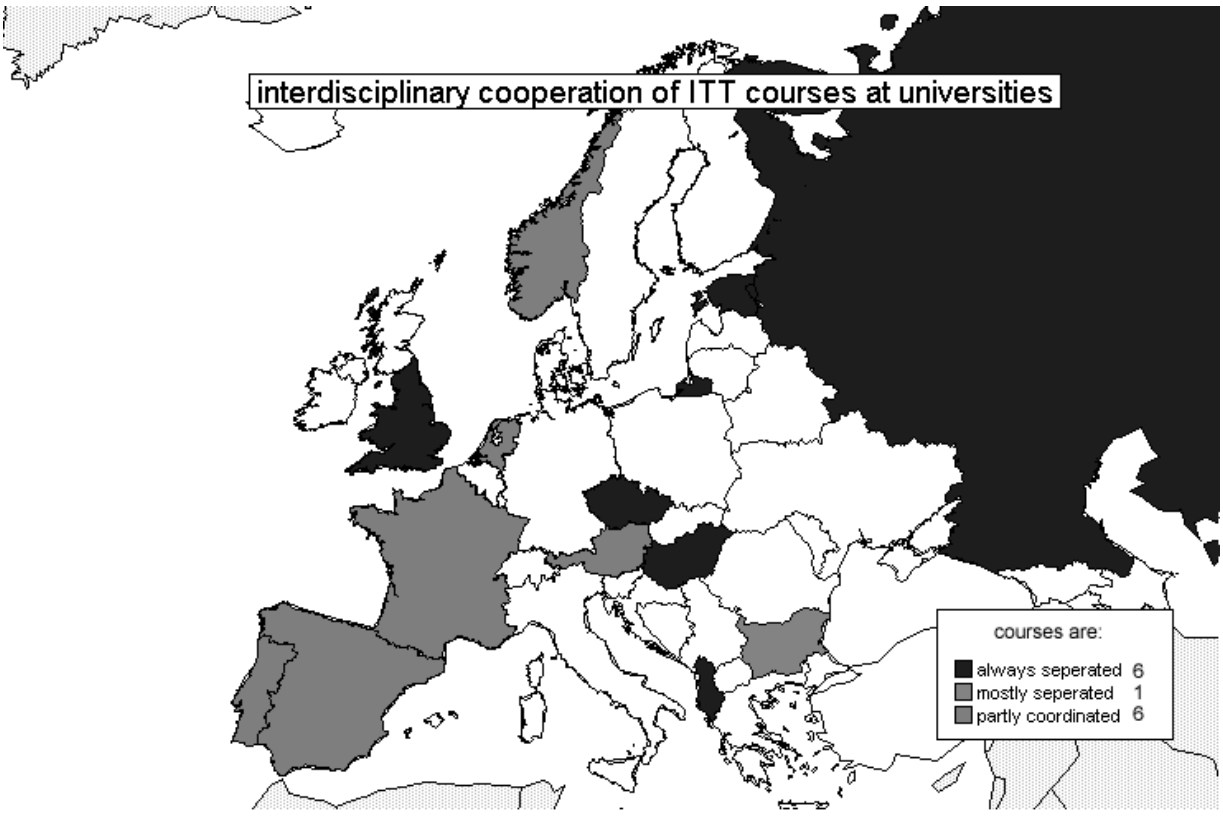
as they might be – will impede learners in developing the necessary social competencies.

Even today, co-ordination between trainers remains rather abstract. This co-ordination is formally based on the structure of curricula and syllabi. 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 his/her 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

a) courses are always separated in six countries (AL, CZ, EE, H, RF, UK),
b) courses are mostly separated in BG, and
c) courses are partly co-ordinated in the other six countries (A, E, F, N, NL, P), but this co-ordination rarely covers more than a fifth of all courses.



It comes as no surprise that there is very little co-ordination of training courses between academic and professional training in countries 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,[37] 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,
- another 5% to 10% of studies are organised as *group work*, and
- the remaining 5% to 10% are organised as *project work*.[38]

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-ooperation within the concurrent model in concrete situations. We rarely heard about courses where experts from different disciplines work together as a team, e.g. 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"[39] 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 says: "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'. 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.

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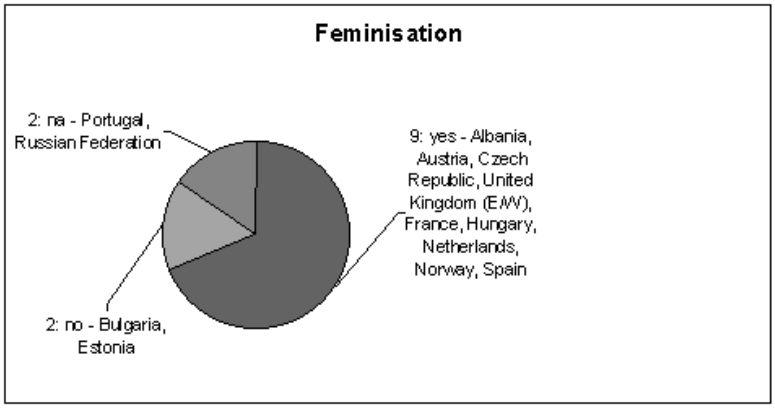
[37] See e.g.: Teachers for tomorrow's schools, in: Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1998). *Educational policy analysis* 1998, Paris: OECD, pp.25-39.
[38] Less time is devoted to individual studies In two countries (AL, N).
[39] Teachers for tomorrow's schools, (1998) OECD, p.38

3.2. Initial training as a starting point of the professional career of history teachers

The first 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 second 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.

A. Who are the students?

We did not always get exact data on the relation between male and female history students/graduates designed to work as teachers. However, we did find a clear trend: 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,[40] 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.[41]



This trend continues in nine countries. A deviating tendency was observed only BG and EE, where the percentage of female teachers in lower and upper secondary schools is already rather high by comparison (over 70% in BG, approx. 80% in EE[42]). We did not receive any data from P and RF, but we were told that the percentage of female teachers in Russian secondary general schools was 84% in 1994,[43] and all our collaborators agreed that it was still on the rise. 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-eastern European countries than in 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

[40] Bölling, Rainer (1983) *Lehrer*, pp.10; Ecker, Alois (1995) *Frauenarbeit*, pp.162.
[41] In 1998, more than 65% of Austrian history graduates designed to work as teachers were women. In Albania, from the total number of graduates in history teaching, only a forth of all were male students: there were 60 male and 191 female students.
[42] Eurydice 2000, p.135; we got the same percentage of 80% women as histsory teachers from AL (in: Fatmiroshe Xhemali, Petrit Nathanaili: country report on ITT in Albania, Tirana 1997, p.
[43] Anweiler, Oskar et al. (1996) *Bildungssysteme*, p. 186.

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? Do female children get enough opportunities of identification through 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.

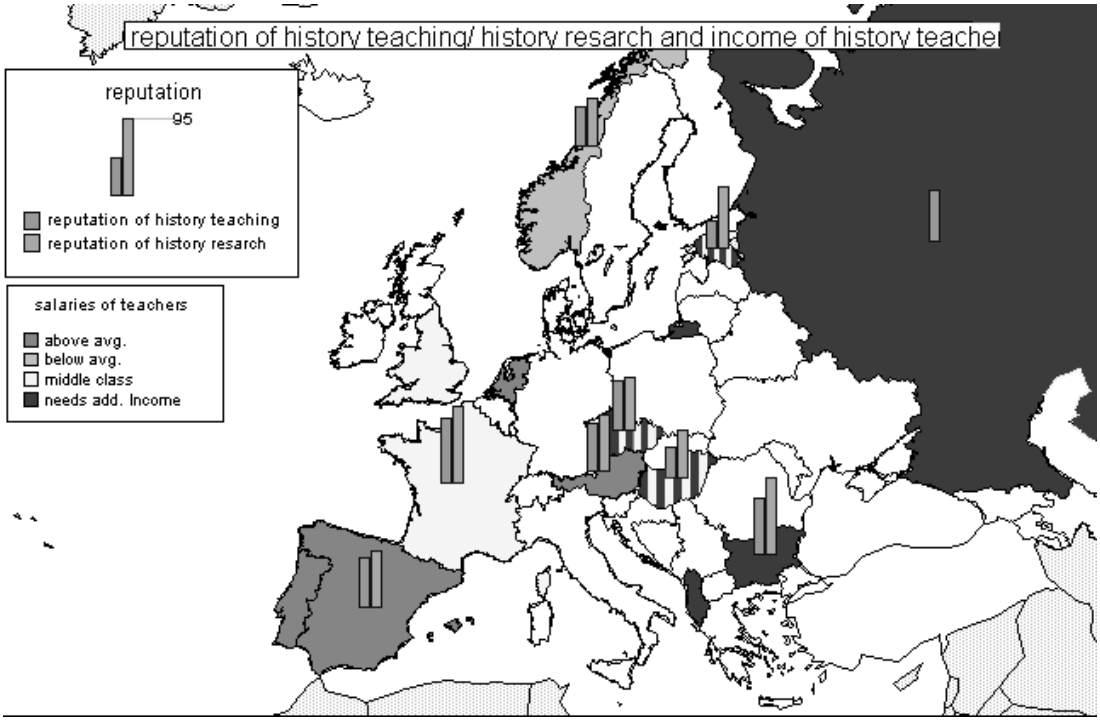
B. The reputation of history teaching as a profession

It has been argued by a number of authors[44] 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.[45]

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

- computer sciences, genetics, mathematics (France),
- law, economics, finance (Hungary), or
- mathematics, medicine and science-related subjects (Netherlands),

while classical philology (ancient Greek and Latin) and teacher training in general belong to those studies with the *lowest reputation* in all three countries.



[44] See footnotes above.
[45] With the exception of France.

C. 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[46]) in four of our survey countries (A, E, NL, P). In two countries (F, UK), the salaries of history teachers fall into the "middle class"[47] range. Teachers' salaries in Norway are below average. However, the situation of history teachers in Eastern and South-eastern 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 three countries (CZ, EE, H) the financial situation of young teachers forces them to take on a second or third job to earn an additional income[48] and maintain even a minimum standard of living; in the remaining three countries (AL, BG, RF) this problem also affects older teachers.

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 (P, A, E) 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 EE and H. – 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 (e.g. in Austria: *Hauptschule or Gymnasium*).

D. 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:

In Portugal, where we were told that teachers are very well paid, graduates have to wait for 6 to 10 years to get a job. A shortage of jobs was also observed in A, E, and H, where graduates have to wait for 2 to 4 years to get employed as teachers.

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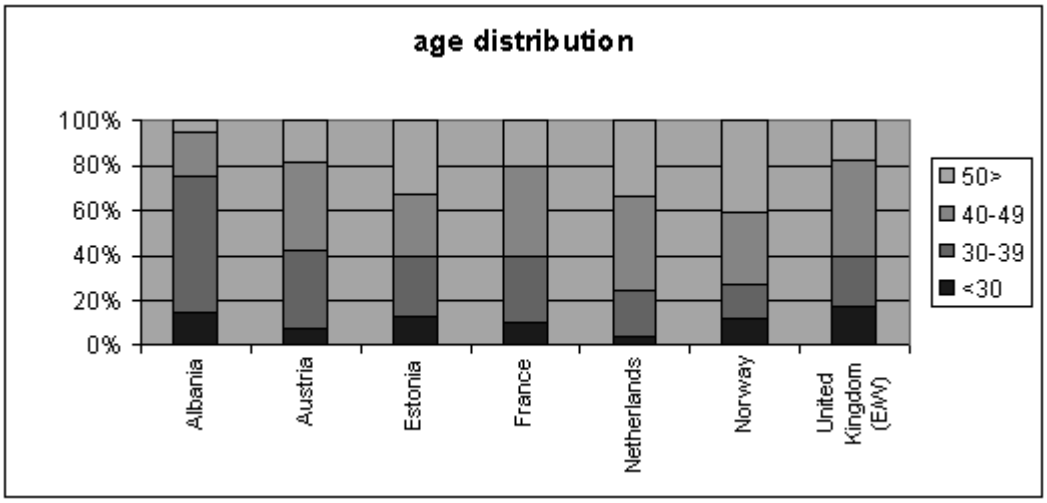
[46] See Eurydice (2000), pp.136. The GPD (gross domestic product) is an indicator of the general standard of living in a country. For the purpose of this survey we have used the Eurydice indicators which illustrate the financial position of teachers in relation to the average standard of living in their 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."

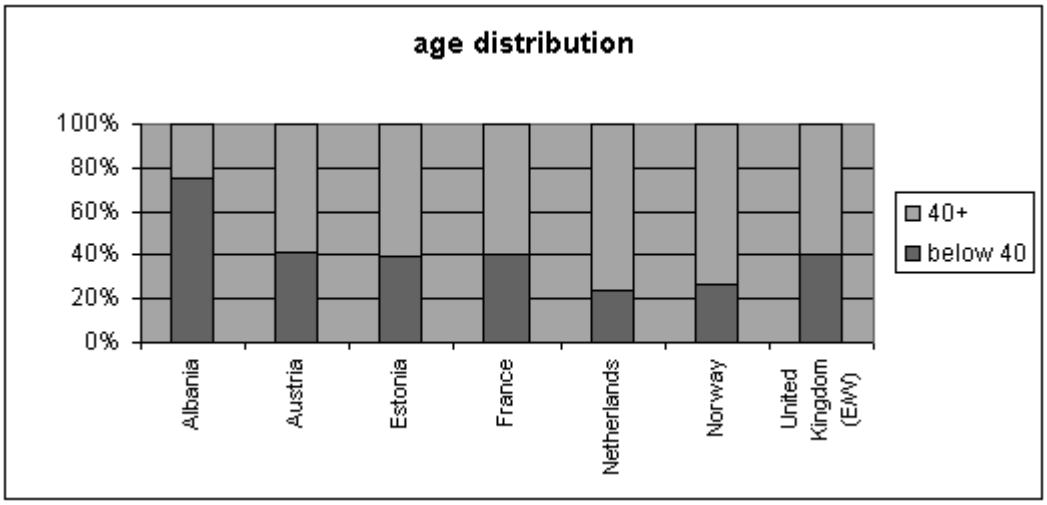
[47] Salaries were classified as "above average" when teachers' "minimum salaries" were above 100% and "maximum salaries" above 150% in relation to the per capita GDP. The "middle class" category applied to those countries where teachers' "minimum salaries" were higher than 50% and "maximum salaries" 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, i.e., during the last year prior to retirement." See Eurydice (2000), p.137.

[48] 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.

Bulgaria reported that jobs were currently rather scarce, while the other countries said there were enough vacancies for young teachers. 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.





We received precise data only from seven countries, but we can generally say that the percentage of teachers over forty is rather high. According to the Eurydice study, almost half of Europe's six million (primary and secondary) teachers are over 40 years old. Teaching staff are generally[49] older at secondary school than at primary school, and staff tend to be older in Western Europe than in Eastern Europe.

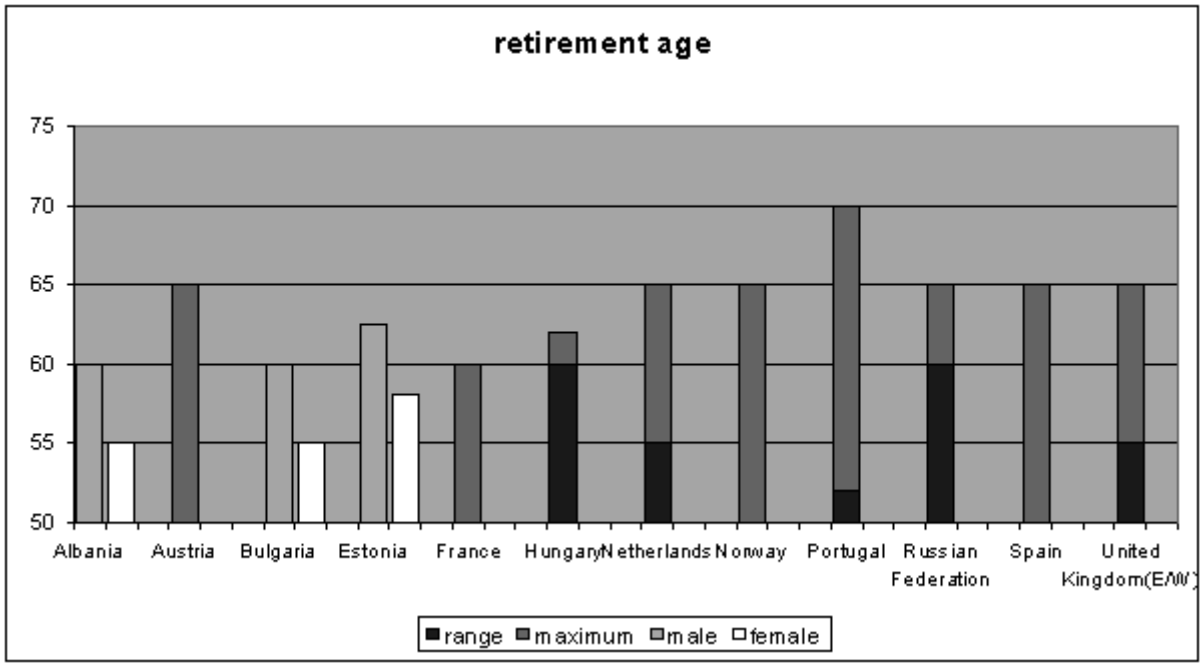
The charts above show that between 15% (UK) and 40% (N) of history teachers are over 50 years old in all the surveyed countries except one (AL). This means that a considerable number of teachers will retire within the next ten years. Assuming that the job conditions of history teachers – with respect 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

[49] Except for Ireland and the United Kingdom.

less the same, history teachers' prospects of finding a job are likely to improve considerably at the end of this decade.

This rather simple[50] prognosis also applies to the second decade of the 21st century: The second chart shows that the number of teachers over 40 years is between 60% (A, EE, F, UK) and 75% (N, NL), the only exception again being Albania. 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 (70 years in E, N and P). Considering the current debate in Western Europe, the minimum retirement age – which is currently between 55 and 60 years[51] – may be expected to increase.



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 the in-service training of history teachers. They show that more than 60% of history teachers in A, EE, F, NL, N, UK underwent their initial training between the late 1960s and the early 1980s. This implies, among others, 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 (e.g. group work) or process-oriented methods of learning and teaching (e.g. 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.

[50] Assuming that teaching conditions and the structures of school organisation will largely remain the same (which cannot generally be expected, of course): 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.

[51] One of the lowest retirement ages is effected in Albania with 55 years for male and 60 yeas for female teachers.

E. The number of history lessons at school

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 A, BG, EE, the NL, and the 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 thirteen countries of our survey: History is taught either as a single subject, or in combination with geography (E, F, P), as an integrated subject (A, NL) or as a comprehensive subject, i.e. under the umbrella of the subject "social sciences" (H, N). Thus, what we can offer here is an overview and some examples of our findings regarding general secondary schools:

History is a compulsory subject of lower secondary education in most countries; it starts at the age of 10 or 11 years and is taught 2 hours peer week on average. In E and F history is traditionally taught in combination with geography: 3 hours at lower secondary school and 3-4 hours at upper secondary school for both subjects, i.e., approximately 1.5-2 hours for history. Portugal has the same combination with geography in grades 5 and 6, while history is taught as a single subject (3 hours per week) in grades 7 to 9.[52] In grades 10 to 12, those pupils who choose humanistic studies may even take 4 history lessons per week.

Owing to the increasing autonomy of schools in lower secondary general education, schools may choose to offer either 1, 2, or 3 lessons per week. This is the case in A (1-3), EE (1-2) and the NL (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 time-table in general leads to fewer hours for the subject history in school.

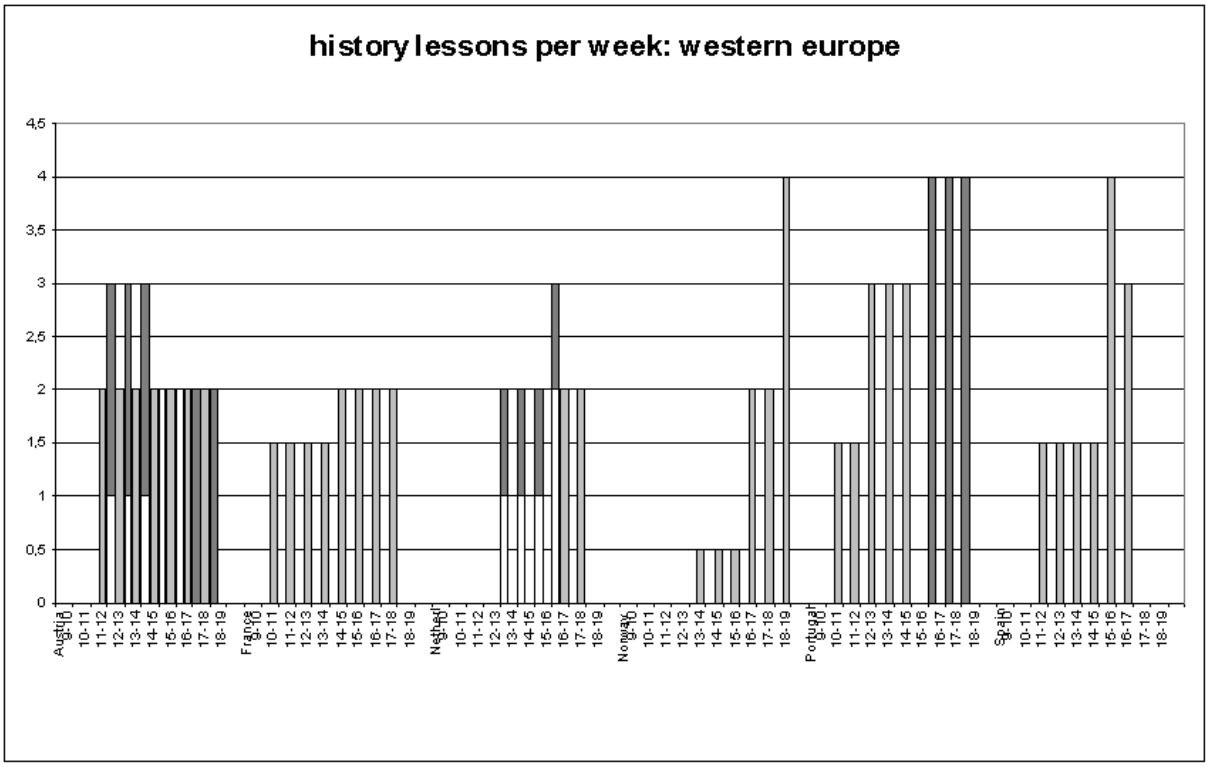
Pupils in upper secondary general education usually have 2 (A, E, F) or 2.5 hours (H) of history per week.[53] In some countries it is either 2 or 3 hours, depending on the respective grade (AL, BG, EE, NL, RF). History is not a compulsory subject in upper secondary education everywhere: In the NL and the UK it is optional, and in N it is taught in the wider context of social studies, where pupils are partly free to define their own focus of interest.

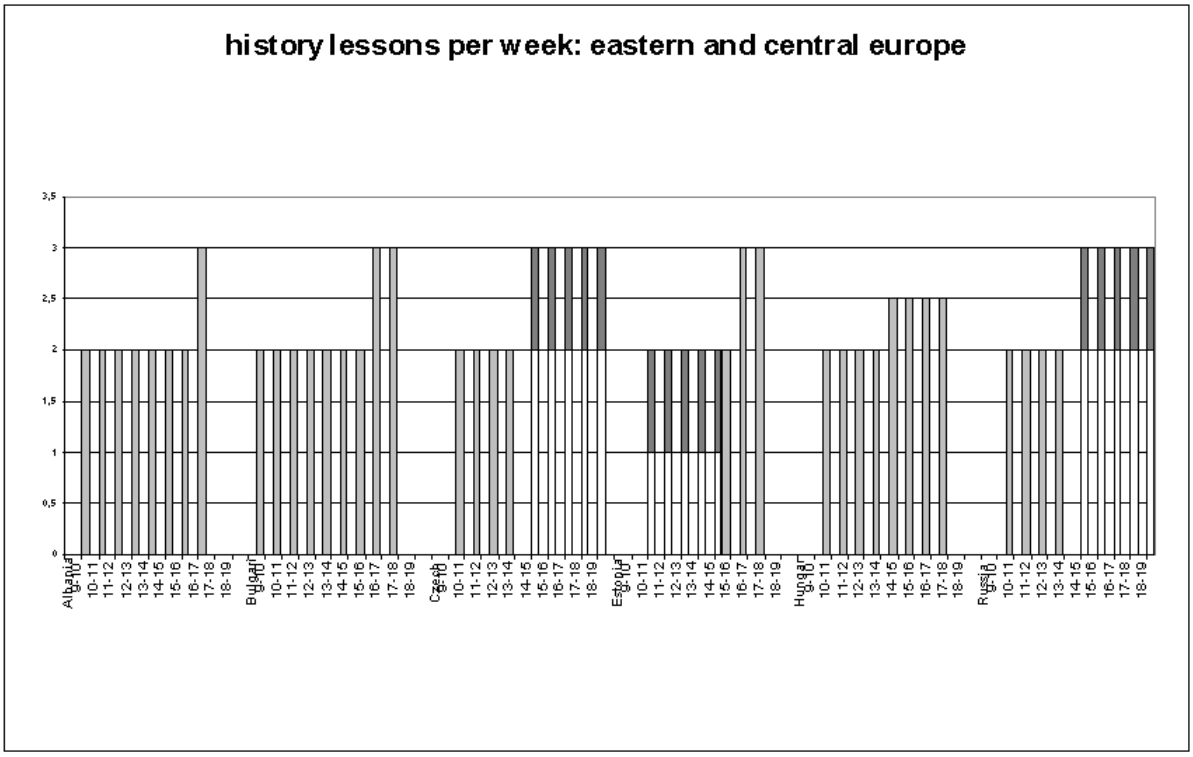
An alarming decrease is reported in the number of history lessons at upper secondary vocational school. Depending on the type of vocational school, history is limited to one, two, or three years, with a maximum of 2 hours per week.

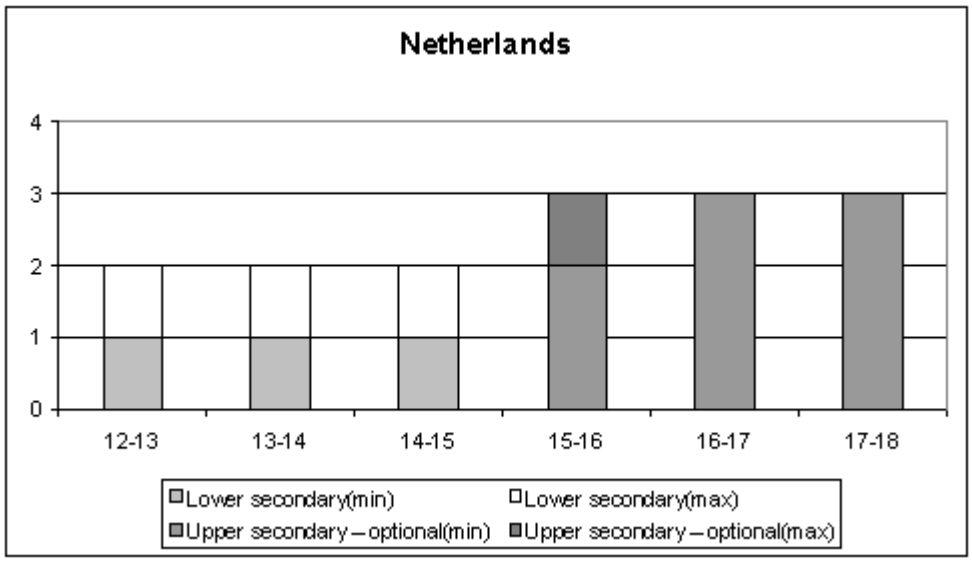
We heard from several countries that the time allocated to history at secondary school is decreasing also in general education[54]. If the number of history lessons per week continues to fall, as is currently the case in some Western European countries (A, N, P), job opportunities for graduates in history teaching will not improve despite

[52] The number will decrease with the start of the new curriculum in 2000-01.
[53] See exception of P above.
[54] With the exception of the RF where a reform for lower secondary schools plans to add 2 hours per week for history.

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?






Netherlands
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3
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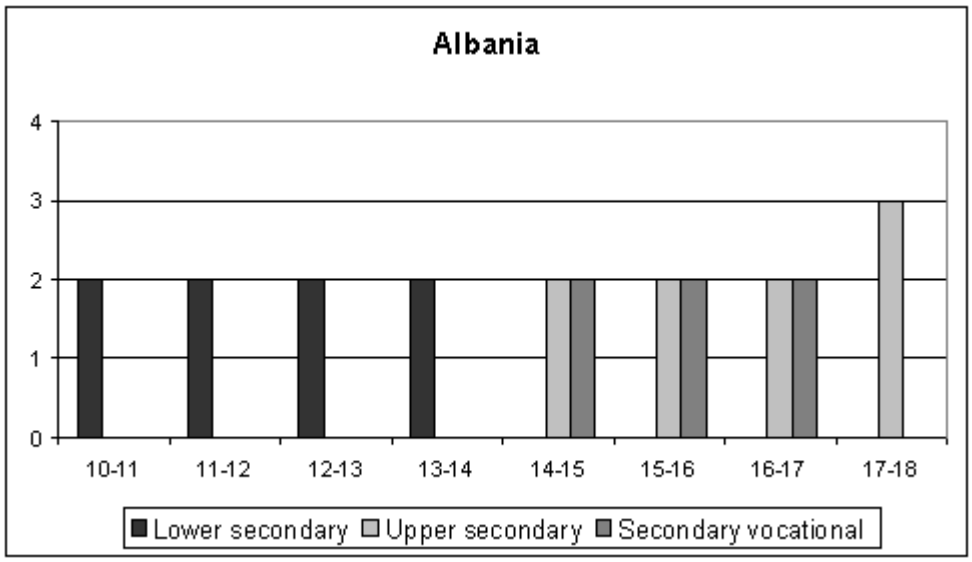
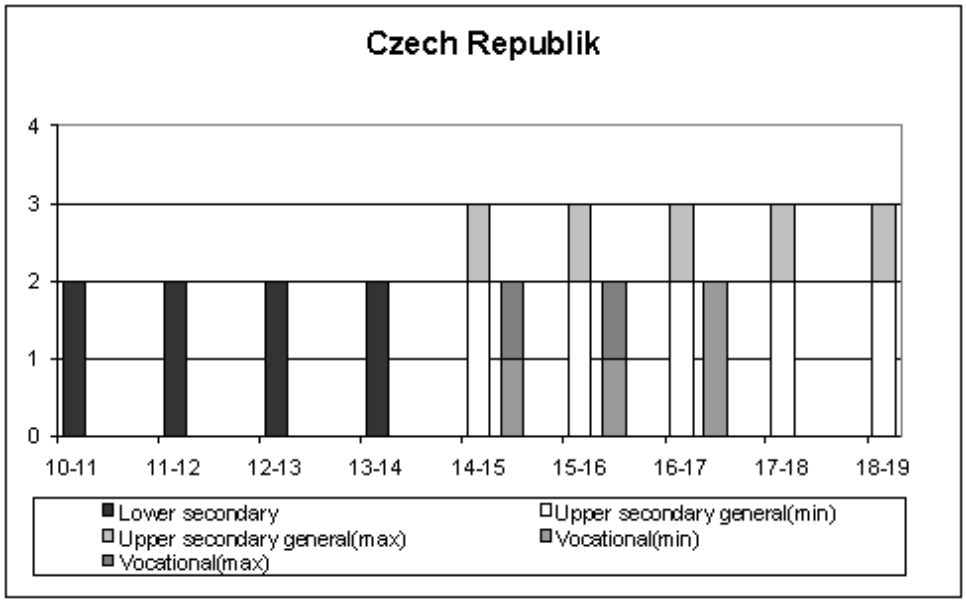
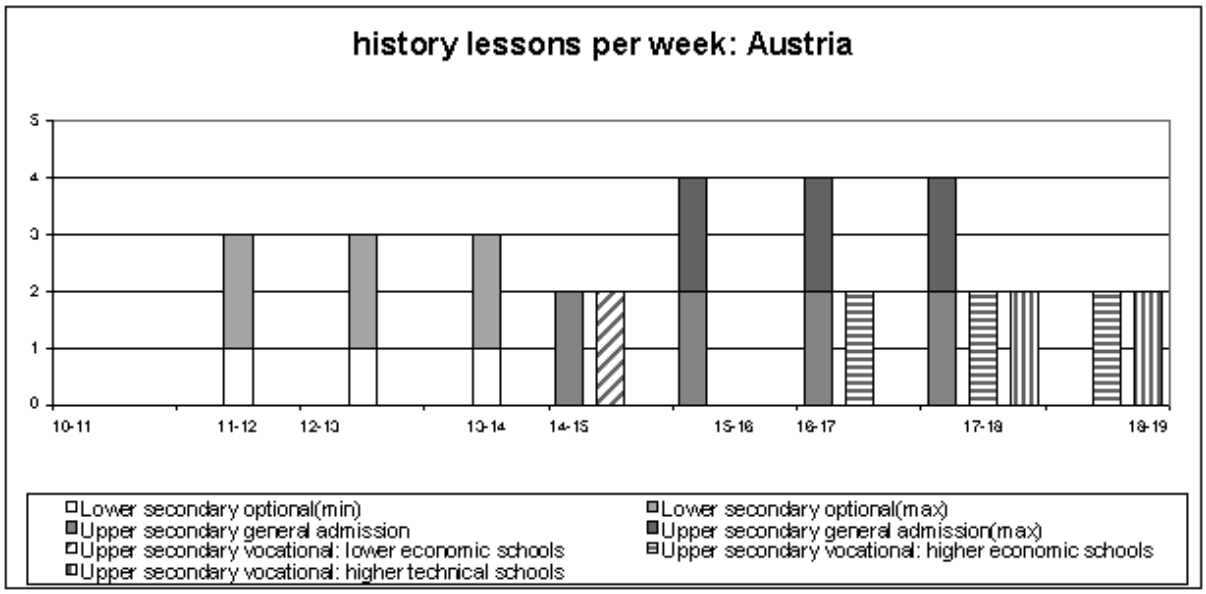
12-13
13-14
14-15
15-16
16-17
17-18
Lower secondary(min)
Lower secondary(max)
Upper secondary – optional(min)
Upper secondary – optional(max)


Albania
4
3
2
1
0
10-11
11-12
12-13
13-14
14-15
15-16
16-17
17-18
Lower secondary
Upper secondary
Secondary vocational


Czech Republik
4
3
2
1
0
10-11
11-12
12-13
13-14
14-15
15-16
16-17
17-18
18-19
Lower secondary
Upper secondary general(max)
Vocational(max)
Upper secondary general(min)
Vocational(min)



Albania 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. BG, E, F, H, and P 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 2 or 3 hours per week to history. The same applies to secondary schools in the Russian Federation. Both countries also offer 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 5-8 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.

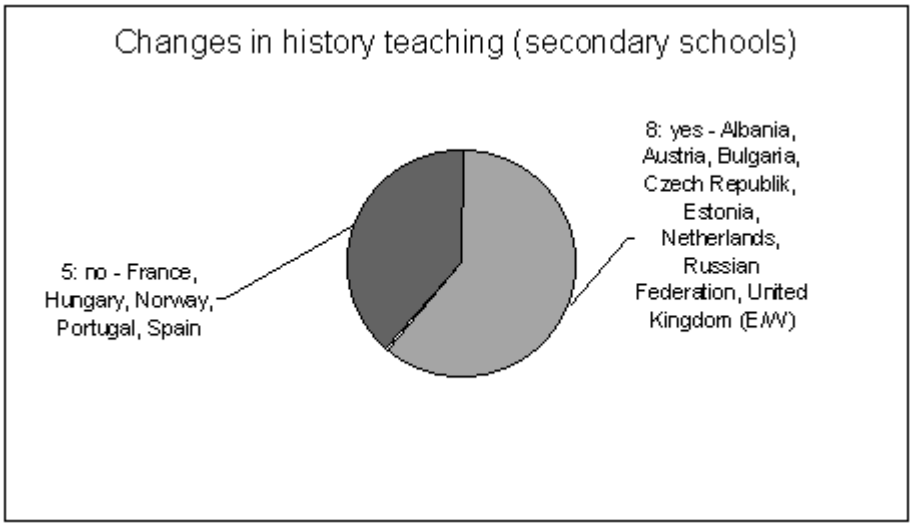
In the Netherlands and in Estonia, the number of history lessons in lower secondary education also varies between 1 and 2 hours. While in EE history is a compulsory subject in its own right, in the NL it is only compulsory in grades 5-8 (ages 9 to 14/15) and is always combined with civics. In upper secondary school history is optional and is currently chosen by less than 50% of pupils. The percentage is only higher in pre-university education (VWO), where about 50% of pupils opt for history.[55] The trend in the NL 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

[55] Van der Leeuw-Roord, Joke, Veldhuis-Meester, Ineke. Country report on ITT in the Netherlands, p.3.

part of the subject “social studies” which includes history, geography, sociology, and similar issues such as human rights education.

F. Expected changes in history

We also asked whether any changes were to be expected for history as a school subject in secondary education within the next four or five years. Six countries (E, EE, F, H, N, P) reported that no changes were expected. This normally indicates that curricula were already reformed in the second half of the 1990s. Most of the other seven countries (A, AL, BG, CZ, NL, RF, UK) plan to reform the history curricula of lower, upper general and upper vocational schools. Russia intends to reform curricula in lower secondary education: as a single phenomena, this reform is expected to add two hours per week to the history curriculum. The Czech Republic plans a reform designed to combine history with social subjects, which is in line with the above-mentioned tendency. Estonia intends to implement another reform in three years’ time.



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, demand for history teachers is certain to grow in some 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 prospects for history teachers will gradually improve. This should be given adequate consideration in the planning and organisation of ITT in the near future.

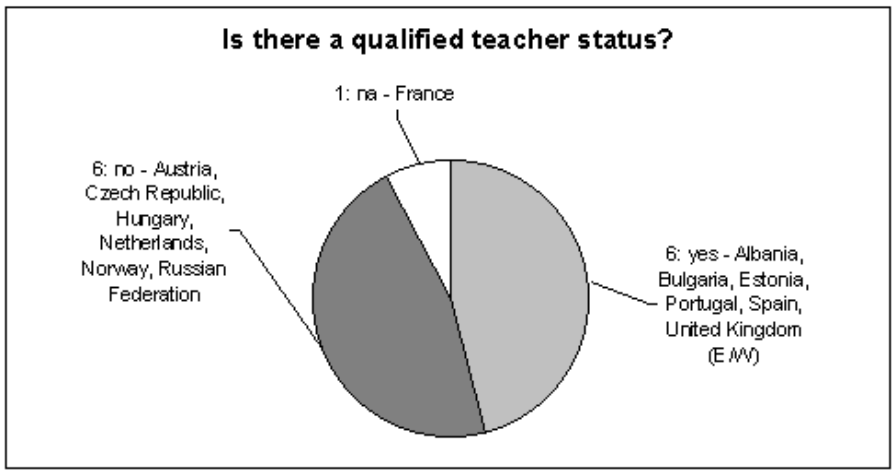
3.3. Standards in the Initial Training of History Teachers

A. 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 of the introductory part: namely that of a systematic reflection upon the training situation. Therefore, we first wanted to know whether there is any systematic planning of and approach to the initial training of history teachers in the countries concerned. As stated in the introductory part we will take the professional profile of history teachers as an indicator of such reflective planning in ITT institutions.

We asked about such profiles in our questionnaire and found that five of the thirteen countries (A, AL, F, N, UK) do have professional profiles and eight do not. However, two countries (H, NL) are currently discussing the issue, and several institutions in the RF have developed professional profiles within the framework of university autonomy. In Spain, universities do not have any professional profiles for history teachers, but teacher training colleges do.

Four countries (BG, E, EE, P) which do not have any concrete professional profiles for history teachers have 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. Thus, there is definitely a trend towards establishing standards for the job of teaching history at secondary school, but these standards are still very much under discussion.



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. Thus, we can offer examples of and illustrate general trends in the approach to professional profiles for history teachers:

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 F, the UK, and A 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 'inspection générale', or developed and executed by the IUFM, i.e., the training institution itself. According to the recommendations of the Ministry of Education, the profile for young teachers of history and geography[56] comprises the following five sections[57]:

Competencies of young history teachers (France)
as recommended by the 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

[56] In France students always have to study both subjects together.
[57] Taken from: Ministère de l'Education nationale. Inspection générale de l'Education nationale. Groupe Histoire et Géographie, Compétences attendues des professeurs d'histoire et géographie nouvellement formés. Paris, Octobre 1994, pp.1.

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, i.e., high subject knowledge combined with knowledge of methods and concepts of history as a science; on the other hand: competencies in directing and monitoring pupils' behaviour and learning progress as well as pupil-centred forms of directing, analysing, and reflecting upon the learning process in class. History teachers have to precisely follow curricula, i.e., 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 may 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 thirteen 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, in the French concept, just like in the concepts of the UK and A, history teaching is not just a matter of classroom organisation, but also of co-ordination and co-operation within the school.

As regards the standards of one-year (postgraduate) ITT[58], 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[59] 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 UK.

All intending secondary history teachers have to hold a history degree before embarking on training in partnerships. This training is entirely concerned with

[58] For university graduates with a degree in history.

[59] ITT in the UK is based on 'partnerships', usually between a Higher Education Institution (HEI) and a number of schools. In most cases, the HEI 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.

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.

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

a) knowledge and understanding;
b) planning, teaching and classroom management,
c) monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability,
d) other professional requirements.

The professional profile of history teachers (UK)
as recommended by MMU/ Didsbury School of Education[60]

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 1a above)
b Knowledge and skills.
c Ability to assess (see 2 above).

[60] MMU, Didsbury School of Education: Description of the P.G.C. E. programme 1997/98, pp.21.

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.

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[61].

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.

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."[62] 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."[63] As we will see

[61] Key Stage 3 is equivalent to grades 5 to 8 / age 11 to 14.
[62] MMU, Didsbury School of Education: Description of the P.G.C. E. programme 1997/98, p.11.
[63] As above.

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. A systemic approach to teaching, classroom management, and classroom interaction 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 the understanding of the aims of the teaching and learning of history, other "key concepts of history" refer to "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".[64] It might be interesting to ask history didacticians from other countries whether they also intend to contribute to the pupil's language development 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. 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.

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.[65] Just like in F and the UK, this profile includes both academic and didactic competencies:

The professional profile of history teachers (Austria)
as recommended by the University of Vienna[66]

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

[64] As above, p.19
[65] The current reform of curricula is still in progress and will be completed in 2002.
[66] 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;

and 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 specialised didactic competencies with regard to current debates on history didactics;
- flexibility in applying the acquired knowledge, methods, and competencies of the subject or field;
- 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 bigger 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 F 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.[67] 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 (e.g. lectures, group work, role play, project work) and media. – Finally, students 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 reflect on 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 life-long learning.

However, looking at the data shown above about the imbalance of academic and professional training in current ITT (see chapter 3.1.A) 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 realisation of the well-planned objectives laid down in the new profiles for history teachers.

B. Which important historical topics are students expected to know? Secondary school curricula in comparison with ITT curricula

When prospective history teachers come to university or teacher training college they already have a broader knowledge of history and a certain conception of history that influences the implicit structure of their perception and selection of information about the past. As teacher trainers we should know about these conceptions because they form the hidden structure of our students' historical consciousness. There is not enough room here to discuss the problems of historical consciousness in its various

[67] 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.

forms[68]. What we can do here is describe some general characteristics of school curricula and compare them with the curricula in ITT. As most of our students have finished secondary school in the late 1990s we may assume that the history lessons they had at school will be structured in much the same way as we have analysed here.

Analysing the history curricula of secondary schools in the countries concerned will certainly require even more detailed information than we can offer in this first overview. Some more information has been included in the country reports. In this summary we will first present some structural characteristics of secondary-school curricula and then compare them with curricula in ITT.

Is history taught as a single subject?

As pointed out above (see chapter 3.2.A: lessons per week) there are actually four forms of 'history' in secondary-school curricula:

1. History is taught as a single subject: This is the case in BG[69], CZ, EE, P[70], RF, and the UK[71].
2. History is taught in a fixed combination with geography: This has been a long tradition in the Romance-speaking countries E, F, P (grades 5 and 6), but is also the case in AL and, to some extent, in BG[72].
3. History is taught as an integrated subject, i.e., "history and social studies" (A), or "history and civics" (NL).
4. History is taught under the umbrella of a broader subject, i.e. "man and society" (H)[73] or "social studies" (N), or together with "civics" (at some schools in the UK at Key Stage 3).

General structures and concepts of history teaching

This brief overview already shows that there are different forms of dealing with historical information and knowledge at secondary school. Let us take a look at the *concepts of history* which are behind the curricula taught in secondary schools: To a certain degree, the four structures correspond to different concepts of dealing with the past (though this is not necessarily so in all cases). While the tendencies analysed are found in all curricula, the main emphasis in the presentation and construction of history differs considerably from country to country:

i. The first concept places more emphasis on political and cultural history, whereas the latter takes a more traditional approach, focusing on the history of architecture and the arts. The positivist concept of historicism that concentrates especially on the development and changes of political power, including the construction of the respective "nation" in its relation to "the world"

[68] See the study of Angvik, Magne, and von Borries, Bodo (eds.) (1997) *Youth and History. A comparative European survey on historical consciousness and political attitudes among adolescents.* (two volumes) Hamburg: Körber-Stiftung.
[69] See exception in point 2.
[70] In P, to some extent also grade 7 grade and higher.
[71] In the UK: Key Stages 1 and 2 (grades 1-8).
[72] BG: At grade 4 history is taught in combination with geography (one hour per week for each subject).
[73] BG also discusses a new curriculum which will probably be named "History and Civilisations".

and its “cultural contributions to the eternal heritage of mankind,” still seems to be the dominant idea behind this curricular structure. This approach has come to the fore again in Eastern and South-eastern European countries since the downfall of communist regimes, but also continues to play an important role in Western Europe.

ii. The second concept has its origins in the idea of a national history that shaped the national state: Its central message concerns the heroic development of the nation’s political power in time and space. This idea can be found in every curriculum, but the emphasis that is placed on it differs considerably. Colonialist and imperialist traditions seem to have played a bigger role in the development of this concept in some countries; the combination with geography is evidence of the imperialistic concept that stood behind this structure of history teaching which also dates back to the late 19th century. Today, more attention is usually given to encouraging pupils’ analytic and critical skills through teaching combined forms of history and geography, aiming at enabling them “to make informed judgements about the economic, political, social and environmental issues of everyday life.”[74]

iii. Man and society, the central question of every sociological theory of the 20th century, forms the background of the third concept of history, where aspects of social and economic history are added to, included in, or integrated into traditional political history. This approach favours problem-oriented and thematic ways of dealing with the past; these would also require a new methodological approach to history teaching which is not yet sufficiently developed and supported. The question also arises why this concept prevails in countries such as A or the NL, which have lost much of their political influence in the 20th century.

iv. The fourth concept is based on the idea of forming citizens through integrating history into the wider context of the organisational development of societies, covering aspects of civics, the history of law and institutions, the development and organisation of political structures, institutions of the state and civil society. This form, too, may be applied either to legitimise the political powers of the day or, on the contrary, to critically analyse and discuss the evolution and changes of political and societal structures. The idea of developing communicative, critical skills through civics education prevails in the normative texts of curricula. However, the examples mentioned in the curricula much rather suggest that forming “good citizens”[75] and “true patriots” is still the most important objective of this concept.

[74] Shennan, Margret (1991) Teaching about Europe, p.58.

[75] “L’histoire et la géographie aident à la construction du citoyen”, which refers to being a citizen who is able to, “agir dans le monde en personne libre et responsable”. In: L’histoire et la géographie au collège, programmes de 6e (1996) Centre national de documentation pédagogique, Février 1996, Paris, p.41.

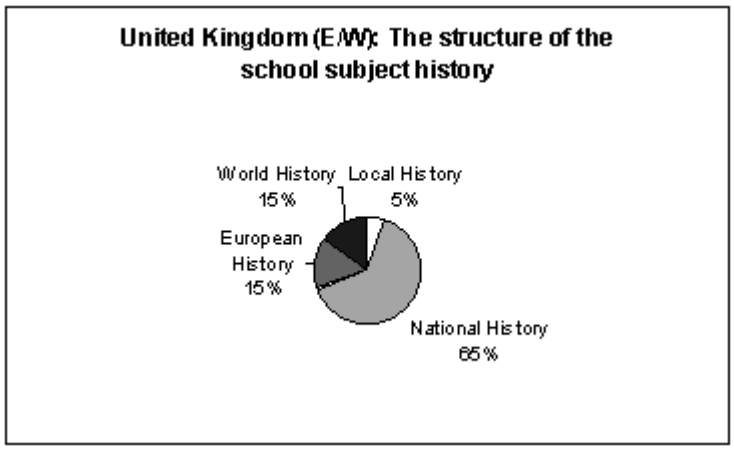
National history

National history and the construction of national identity through history remain the predominant issues in all concepts, regardless of all differences and variations. The development of the academic discipline of 'history' in the 2nd half of the 20th century has certainly had its reverberations in school curricula, but in most of the countries these new tendencies are only an appendix to the national approach to the subject. In spite of the scientific debates and alternative conceptions and aspects (e.g. economic, social, or new cultural history or the history of everyday life; problem-centred and theme-centred approaches) it is considered the predominant task of history as a school subject to familiarise the next generation with the history of the national state and to devote a large part of history lessons to legitimising it:[76]

We also looked at the relation between local, national, European, and world history in school curricula as well as in ITT curricula. The data we received are approximate data, but they do show a distinct tendency: Only few countries reported that national history takes up less than 20% of all lessons; generally, between 40% (AL, F) and 50% (CZ, H, RF) of lessons are devoted to national history. The percentage is even higher (65% in BG and the UK) at lower secondary school, where national history generally forms an important part of school curricula. In the majority of countries school curricula attach more weight to national history than ITT curricula.

Examples:

Lower secondary pupils in England (Key Stage 3, i.e., age 11–14) mostly study the history of (Great) Britain, as stipulated by the National Curriculum. They are taught about the changes in the economy, society, culture, and political structure of Britain from the early Middle Ages to the twentieth century.[77] Four study units are designed to be taught in sequence: 1. Medieval Realm: Britain 1066–1500; 2. The Making of the United Kingdom: Crowns, Parliaments and Peoples 1500–1750; 3. Britain 1750–ca. 1900: "An overview of some of the main events, personalities and developments in the period and, in particular, how world-wide expansion, industrialisation and political developments combined to shape modern Britain."[78] 4. The World in the Twentieth Century.

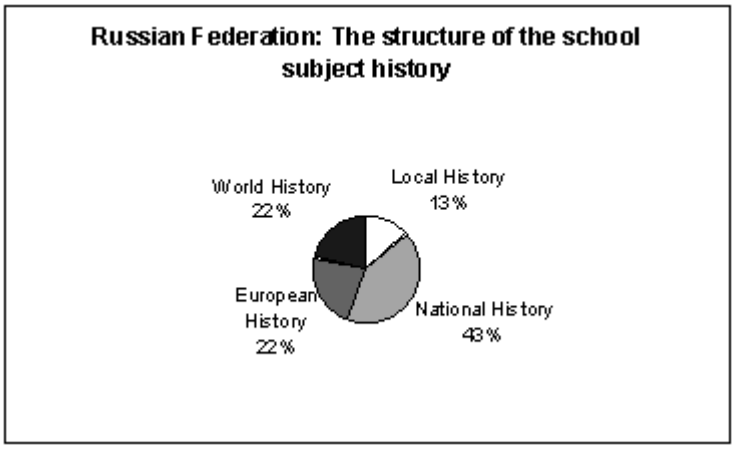


[76] "History, as knowledge of the past, is one of the most important bases of national and European identity, being the collective memory of society." In: Ministry of Education (1998) The National Core Curriculum, Budapest, p.96.
[77] Yvonne Sinclair, Marc McLaughlin, answers to questionnaire 1, pp.2.
[78] Key Stage 3 Programme of Study.

The other three study units are: 5. An era or turning point in European history/society before 1914, 6. A past non-European society, 7. Across the Key Stage: opportunities to study aspects of the past in outline, in depth and through local context; aspects of the histories of England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales; history from a variety of perspectives: political, economic, technological/scientific, social, religious, cultural and aesthetic.

The "Key Elements" which should be closely related to and developed through the study units also recommend "to develop overviews of the main events and changes both within and across periods, by making links between the content in different study units and between local, British, European and world history."[79] As these key elements are recommendations for methods of dealing with historical information they will certainly encourage different forms of historical thinking; but the impression remains that historical information, analysis, and interpretation focuses on British (national) history.

As mentioned above the UK is not the only country to stress the importance of national history. While secondary history curricula in the RF show a different relation between local/regional, national, European and world history, the major share of lessons is also devoted to national history. It is also characteristic of both countries that "world history" is regarded predominantly from the national or (in the case of the RF) the "international" perspective, which suggests that, to a certain extent, world history is regarded as part of the "extended" history of a powerful nation state.



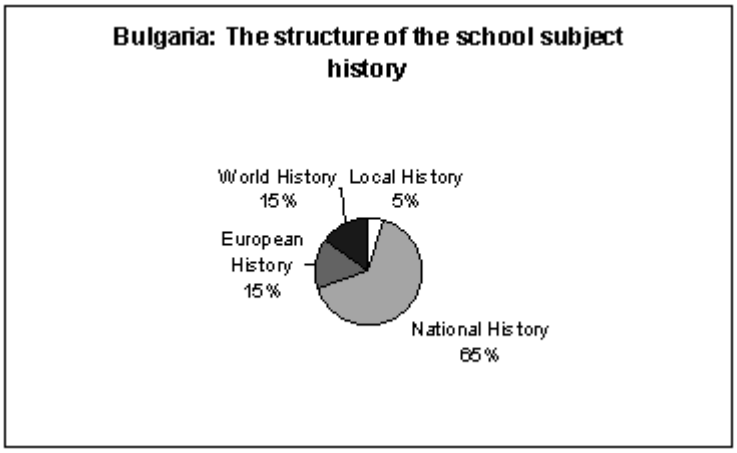
The last curriculum reform in the 1990s introduced two chronological cycles instead of the former 'linear' chronological structure into Russia's secondary history curriculum[80]: a basic cycle at lower secondary school (grades 5 to 9) and an extended cycle at upper secondary school (grades 10 and 11). The curricula of both cycles contain clear recommendations regarding the number of lessons devoted to national and to world history; these are taught more or less separately, usually with two different textbooks: one for national and one for world history. In addition to the primary topics curricula, especially in the second cycle, also recommend topics such as: the history of civilisations, states, and nations; natural and social conditions of life; the foundations and values of historical societies; society – power – individuality. The proportions indicated in the above chart are not strictly prescribed, but recommended.[81]

[79] Sinclair, McLaughlin, pp.4.
[80] Ludmila Alexashkina, (2000) The Development of History Curricula for Secondary Schools in the Russian Federation, in: Beiträge zur historischen Sozialkunde, Transitional Russia, p.46.
[81] Ludmila Alexashkina, answers to questionnaire 1, pp.2.

As concerns Russia we also have to take into account that the notion of “local” and/or “regional” history refers to the history of one of the national/ethnic groups within the Russian Federation. The national curriculum, which was approved and published by the Ministry of Education in 1999, is a basic curriculum. Educational authorities in the various regions or republics may prescribe additional topics and provide additional materials concerning regional and local aspects of history (up to a maximum extent of 15% of the overall time allocated to history). Thus, the above-indicated share of 13% for local/regional history represents the average of this optional part and gives an idea of what is taught at secondary school in different regions of the RF.

A systematic description of history teaching in the RF still faces the problem that there are at least two aspects of “national” history: Russian history as centrally recommended by the Ministry of Education, and the so-called “regional” history, which is, in fact, also written (and, presumably, taught) as a “national” history (of Tatarstan, Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan etc.) in most cases. However, if we look at the proportion of local/regional, national, European, and world history in ITT studies, we notice that regional history does not play a big role there and that more attention is given to European and world history. This tendency can be observed in most of the countries and may be regarded as indicative of the attitude that developing a national identity is a crucial task of (primary and) secondary education, whereas ITT students are expected to already have developed a national consciousness so that more emphasis can be placed on international, European, and global perspectives on history. Furthermore, we may assume that in some regions of the RF European and world history form a counterweight to what is regarded as Russian centralism, so that Russian national history is not recommended as strongly as in the (centrally decreed) school curriculum.

In Bulgaria, our third example, the relation between local/regional, national, European and world history in the school curriculum is the same as in the UK, but the structure of teaching is different. Bulgarian history prevails as a topic in grades 5, 6 and 11: from the 15th century to the liberation in 1878 (grade 5), from the liberation to the present (grade 6), and from the very beginnings until today (grade 11). In grades 7 to 10 pupils follow a chronological cycle that begins with prehistory and ends with contemporary history. This cycle also includes Bulgarian history, but places more emphasis on a) the Mediterranean civilisation, b) the history of the Balkans, c) European and American history, and d) European and world history.



The proportion of national history is also quite high in Czech school curricula (50%) and in Albania (40% plus 10% local). Here, we also note another phenomenon of national history: More emphasis is placed on national history in the context of contemporary history. Developments in the last decades are very often described in relation to national events or world history. What is missing, for example, is a history of the relations with neighbouring countries as well as a more systematic description of the European dimension in history.

In all these cases the proportion of national history is higher in secondary school curricula than in ITT curricula. – This is not the case in France and Hungary, for example, where the share allocated to national history is the same in secondary school curricula and in ITT curricula.

This first overview is designed to provide an incentive for a further, more profound analysis of national history in the context of history curricula. Comparing the contents of school curricula and exploring the objectives behind the special focus on national history will be an important area for further research.

Returning to the question raised at the beginning of this chapter we may say that students starting their university studies already learned to accept that national history plays a predominant role in dealing with the past when they still were pupils themselves. If history teacher trainers want to arrive at a more critical, analytic, and reflective way of dealing with the past in ITT training courses, they need to counteract students' experience and make them reflect on it, e.g. by means of experience-oriented forms of training (role-play), analysing the contents of textbooks or curricula, and presenting new concepts in history teaching.

Other aspects and principles involved in the organisation of history curricula, apart from the predominant role of national history, are also worth mentioning:

Chronology

As stated above, chronological cycles form a principle of organisation in the secondary school curricula of the UK (Key Stage 3), the RF and BG. But these are not the only countries to organise historical information along chronological lines: AL has two chronological cycles from grades 5 to 7 and grades 9 to 11, each of them followed by a year devoted to national history (grades 8 and 12). A and CZ have two cycles, first from grades 5/6 to 8 and then from grades 9 to 12, each of them covering local, national, European, and world history. This first cycle from grades 5 to 9 is also found in E and EE. Upper secondary school in E also starts with a second cycle in

the first two years, followed by one year of art history in grade 11 and one year of contemporary history in grade 12. N has a longer first cycle (grades 5 to 10) followed by a two-year cycle (grades 11 and 12). P even has three cycles, the first one in grades 5 and 6, the second one in grades 7 to 9, and the last one in grades 10 to 12: However, in the third cycle (starting with medieval history in grade 10) more emphasis is placed on social and economic history, e.g. the dynamics of world economy, and on material civilisation and changes of mentality and culture.

The French curriculum also prescribes a chronological cycle ("cycle central") from grades 6 to 9 that starts with antiquity, discusses European history from the Middle Ages to the end of the 19th century and finally devotes one year to the 20th century. Before and after this cycle the curriculum leaves more room for national history, but also for theme-centred forms and problem-oriented learning in history. What is new about the French curriculum is that – despite the cliché that France puts more emphasis on national history – the curriculum recommends dedicating this central cycle "to provide insight into the gradual development of the European cultural heritage without neglecting other cultures as well."[82]

H and the NL seem to be the only two countries which do not recommend a strict chronological cycle: A core curriculum prescribes a certain number of 'fields of study' or attainment targets which have to be reached at the end of the school year or of the period when history is taught (e.g. in H after grade 8 and grade 10). Yet the two curricula differ considerably as regards their contents:
In the NL attainment targets are divided into five areas which have to be addressed in every attainment target: approaches and skills, economic and social history and society, governments and politics, culture and thinking; civics/ politics.
In H attainment targets fall into three categories: minimum competency, knowledge, skills. The examples provided in the core curriculum follow a chronological scheme, starting with prehistoric societies and ending with contemporary history (Hungary after World War II; the Kádár Regime). Minimum competencies are formulated in a very similar manner to the minimum facts pupils should know (e.g. the main events of the revolution on 23 October 1956).

(To be continued with topics on Space: "The European dimension in the curricula", "World History";, "Gender" as a category in the history curricula, Social and Economic History, (Multi-) Cultural History in the Curricula.Problem- and Process-oriented forms of training.)

[82] "… on peut tenter une première approche de l'histoire de l'humanité, qui, sans négliger les autres cultures, est essentiellement organisée autour de la lente constitution du patrimoine culturel européen." In: L'histoire et la géographie au collège, programmes de 6e (1996) Centre national de documentation pédagogique, Février 1996, Paris, p.42.

Julieta Savova

Models of initial training for history teachers

Summary

This article is devoted to models of initial training for history teachers and to selection procedures, addressing questions such as: What are the main models of initial training for history teachers? Where does it take place? What are the most common selection procedures for history teachers? Besides, the article analyses the structures of teacher training and discusses emerging new trends.[83]

Selection procedures and realities are another issue: selection strategies that are developed and/or adopted, their significance and value in the context of existing national systems of teacher training, and their relevance to these training systems and future job requirements. Selection procedures are discussed in the context of existing selection policies and their institutional or national framework, where both centralisation and decentralisation patterns can be observed.

The article outlines the main structures of ITT programmes for history teachers and how they are linked with the length of the programmes. It describes the "two sides" of initial training for history teachers and discusses important new trends and issues. Interesting examples of ITT for history teachers from various countries are presented and their strengths and weaknesses analysed.

Our comparative study on ITT for history teachers shows that there is a variety of common trends and similarities even though the traditions and specific conditions of the countries concerned are quite different. The study also offers insights into these differences, enabling readers to compare the situations in various countries and form their own opinions about teacher training and its perspectives in a European context.

1 Models of initial training: Where does ITT take place?

All thirteen European countries involved in this comparative study have an extensive and quite diversified system of institutions with responsibilities related to teacher training, including the training of history teachers for secondary schools. Both long-standing traditions and new educational needs have a significant influence on institutional developments.

University remains the main institutional structure responsible for ITT for history teachers. All countries rely on this basic structure in teacher education. However, there are differences regarding

- the involvement of faculties/departments – which faculties and departments are involved in teacher training for history teachers;
- the degree of autonomy – what extent of autonomy do these structures, be it internal or external university structures (departments, institutes, colleges, and other teacher training institutions), have;

[83] My special thanks go to the members of the working group on “Models of ITT – Entrance requirements” who contributed to this article: Petrit Nathanaili (AL) and Gisèle Dessieux (F),

- the status of universities - State (public) or private;
- organisational issues – when and where is teacher training/professional training introduced; and
- the respective ITT models – consecutive, concurrent, or modular.

Despite the differences between the countries concerned in terms of organisation or content, stability of teacher training and the relevant institutions has generally been preserved, especially at university level.

Bulgaria is among those countries where ITT (for lower and upper secondary level) only takes place at public universities. History is also taught at some private universities, but these do not necessarily train history teachers. Faculties of history and faculties of pedagogy are usually responsible for ITT. Following new amendments to the law on higher education and subsequent changes in the requirements regarding professional staff, some universities such as Southwest University have restructured individual faculties. An integrated Faculty of Law and History has now been established at SWU, for instance, but the major responsibility for the training of history teachers still lies with the Department of History and the Department of Pedagogy. History teachers for secondary school are trained at various universities all over the country.

Portugal enjoys the same structural stability. Universities, both State and private ones, are the only institutions where history teachers for secondary school are trained. Five State and three private universities are concerned with the training of history teachers, all of them situated in Lisbon.

Recently introduced legislative changes in Portugal stipulate that teacher training for teachers in compulsory education (until grade nine) is to be offered in all 22 administrative districts, with polytechnic institutes being mainly responsible for training the targeted group of teachers. These changes do not affect the training of history teachers for secondary school (after grade 9), which remains university-based.

Universities are also the main institutions of teacher training in the Czech Republic. Teacher training for history teachers takes place at the country's nine pedagogical faculties and five faculties of philosophy; the faculties of philosophy are also responsible for the training of professional historians. Prospective history teachers and professional historians receive the same kind of basic training until the last two years, when professional training for history teachers is introduced. It is interesting to note the specific regional distribution of the faculties where history teachers are trained: Nine faculties of education correspond to the nine regions in the country.

In Albania ITT takes place only at university. The Ministry of Education holds a wide range of responsibilities with regard to teacher training and monitors and controls teacher training programmes. The training of history teachers used to be the responsibility of higher pedagogical institutes until all of them were restructured into universities in 1991.

The country's four universities concerned with history teacher training are public. The faculties mainly involved in teacher training for history teachers are faculties of history and philology which provide different teacher qualifications, depending on the respective university. In contrast to the other surveyed countries, professional training for history teachers is provided by the same faculties, but many similarities with the other countries may be found on the department level. Teacher training for history

teachers, like that for all other teachers, is university-based, even though it is governed by central guidelines and close monitoring.

In Norway, responsibility for the training of history teachers is shared by universities and colleges of higher education. The Royal Ministry of Education and Church Affairs plays a significant role in ITT. The University of Trondheim is a good example of the Norwegian situation: Both departments – the Department of History and the Department of Teacher Training – are involved in teacher training for history teachers. Recent innovations (1992) were based on the implementation of a model of co-operation between several departments, including the two departments mentioned above. Contents of teacher training courses were updated to meet the needs of future teachers, and organisational patterns of teacher training courses were reviewed and adapted to new demands, but on a structural level the relationship between the university and the departments concerned remained relatively unchanged.

Hungary also falls into the pattern described above. It also has a "dual system" of teacher training which may be compared, to a certain extent, with the Austrian system. History teachers for upper secondary school are trained at university, while teachers for primary school (grades 1 to 6) or middle school (lower secondary: grades 5 to 8) are trained at teacher training colleges or other colleges.

Systematic educational reforms were undertaken in all countries undergoing democratic transition in the last decade. These reforms include the restructuring of educational systems and teacher training institutions. The restructuring of systems of teacher training and the creation of new training environments are proof of the clear professional and political will to improve the quality of training. As a result, a separate structure called pedagogical university was established in some countries, while in others so-called institutes of semi-higher education were reformed and restructured into university faculties or teacher training colleges.

Pedagogical universities are mainly concerned with the training of teachers, including history teachers, for different educational levels. Some of these pedagogical universities are relatively new institutions.

A typical example is Russia, where former teacher training institutes were reformed, and so-called pedagogical universities were established. This was due, among other reasons, to the fact that teacher training institutes had a reputation of being highly ideologised and of using out-dated methods. However, not all pedagogical universities are newly-established institutions.

In the Netherlands history teacher training is offered both by pedagogical universities and “classical” universities. The introduction of pedagogical universities was not related to the reasons mentioned above: It is merely the result of new educational developments and the ensuing transformation of colleges of higher education into pedagogical universities that began in 1999. The basic internal structures concerned with teacher training are teacher training departments and faculties of arts.

Prospective history teachers at pedagogical university study four years for a “second grade” qualification that entitles them to teach the 12-15 age group. "First grade" qualification is granted to students or graduates of "classical" universities who express the intention to become teachers and are entitled to take an additional year in order to become qualified history teachers. – Teacher training colleges at university level offer students training in one subject (discipline). This is a distinctive feature of the Dutch model.

In Estonia both “classical” universities and pedagogical universities are involved in teacher training: Tartu University, the Tartu Teacher Seminary and Tallinn Pedagogical University (which started history teacher training in 1998).

One of the strengths of pedagogical universities is that they attribute greater attention to teacher training issues. Thanks to their closer links and affiliations with schools they can also offer practical teacher training in a school environment. This is because their basic mission is to meet teacher training requirements, while classical universities sometimes seem to consider matters of teacher training, especially the professional training of future teachers, as a minor issue. However, the lower reputation of pedagogical universities as compared to that of classical universities is certainly one of their weaknesses.

In Austria history teachers for lower and upper secondary school are trained at university. All of the five universities are public and cover the country's needs. Nevertheless, Austria represents a very specific case, as teachers for one type of lower secondary school (*Hauptschule*) are trained at pedagogical academies. These are independent structures representing both the public sector (eight public academies) and the private sector (five private academies). Teacher training at pedagogical academies is shorter (three years) and more practice-oriented than at university and is marked by an explicit emphasis on pedagogical aspects. Austria is also one of the countries (like N, NL, RF, EE) with a "dual system" of teacher training. The basic weakness of this dual system is the institutional separation and alienation between different forms of training which affects the quality of teacher training and the status attributed to teaching as a profession.

In France teacher training is university-based and takes place at the so-called IUFMs (*Instituts universitaires de formation des maîtres*). There are 28 IUFMs across the country. They are autonomous structures within the universities and provide teacher training for those university students who have already opted for a teaching career. IUFMs offer professional training during the last two years of studies, when academic, pedagogical and practical components are introduced. Although universities and IUFMs enjoy a certain autonomy, the French model of teacher training is still largely based on a centralised approach.

Spain is another example of university-based training for history teachers. Professional training is introduced by the ISE (Institute for Educational Science), a structure within the university, and usually takes place during the last year of study. Universities are largely autonomous, decisions on teacher training matters are university-based, and the whole system is marked by a high level of decentralisation. But teacher training also depends, to a certain extent, on the situation in the labour market: The Ministry of Labour announces teaching vacancies, and each region then decides on the number of teachers needed.

In England university remains the main institution responsible for teacher training, since a university degree is a prerequisite for all teachers at secondary school. However, professional teacher training is provided in a separate one-year programme, of which only a small part is university-based. Most teacher training takes place at secondary school level under the partnership model between institutions of higher education (universities, colleges of higher education) and secondary schools. In view of the strong ties between universities and schools, this model of teacher training for history teachers may be classified as an explicitly school-centred one, even though both sides – universities and schools – are involved in training.

Major Trends

New trends were observed in the restructuring of teacher training institutions. Owing to different reasons, pedagogical universities were established as teacher training institutions in some countries (NL, R) or are currently being established (A). This creates new opportunities for harmonising teacher training institutions across Europe and for laying the foundation for common European teacher training standards to ensure a high quality of training and to encourage the mobility of teachers.

Some countries have a dual system of ITT for history teachers, where teacher training for history teachers is provided at both levels: university and pedagogical academy (A), university and training college (N, H), university and polytechnic (currently starting in Portugal). Typically, history teachers for upper secondary school are trained at university, while the training of history teachers for lower secondary school as well as for primary and basic school takes place at college.

The network of institutions offering ITT for history teachers on both national and European level is becoming increasingly diversified. On the one hand, this may be seen as a trend towards democratising systems of ITT for history teachers and adapting them to the current needs of teacher training. On the other hand, it shows that a competitive environment for history teacher training is emerging which will, hopefully, contribute to raising the overall quality of training. This is underlined by the fact that teacher training for history teachers is provided not only by public, but also by private institutions (universities and colleges).

A growing autonomy of educational institutions concerned with teacher training for history teachers was observed in all countries. However, the evaluation of institutional autonomy is ambivalent.

Key issues and problems

The coherence of ITT system for history teachers:

There still seem to be some problems regarding the coherence among institutions within ITT networks. Austria, for example, reported a certain degree of separation and isolation between institutions in the "dual system" (universities/pedagogical academies).

Other countries (CZ, P) noted great differences in the status of faculties and departments involved in ITT for history teachers, which affects both the public and the professional perception of the quality of ITT provided by these training structures. This clearly shows that the prestige of training institutions has an impact on expectations regarding the reliability of teacher training.

As concerns academic training, in particular, expectations are higher towards, and greater prestige is attributed to, university education as compared to other training structures. However, this does not apply to all countries or to the entire field of teacher training. A number of countries (CZ, P, NL, etc.) report that university priorities are not necessarily related to teacher training. In fact, the aims and objectives of "classical" universities and pedagogical universities and those of other training institutions are not the same. This also refers to the priorities of the individual institutions. In the given circumstances, these priorities may lead to teacher training issues being neglected, or they may depend on financial considerations.

The autonomy of teacher training institutions:

The study shows that autonomy, especially at university level, is seen ambivalently. Some countries (H, CZ, etc.) report that autonomy does not always lead to positive results. Institutional self-isolation, the adoption of different criteria by different institutions, and failure to reach the relevant teacher training standards are the most frequent negative effects of existing practices of autonomy.

2. Selection procedures in ITT

The majority of participating countries apply selection procedures at different stages of ITT for history teachers. A general requirement in all training systems is that candidates must be secondary school graduates, regardless of the respective graduation practice (compulsory or non-compulsory examinations).

Few countries (A, EE, P) do not apply specified selection procedures for candidates for history teacher training.

In most countries (AL, BG, H, RF, CZ, etc.) future history teachers undergo selection procedures at the start of their university studies, while other countries apply these procedures either at the beginning or at the end of professional training. In France, selection is applied at the beginning of teacher training, and in Spain it happens twice: first upon entrance into university and then at the end of professional training.

Our comparative study clearly shows that all countries have general policies of applicant selection, but these take a variety of forms. Even those countries which do not have any special selection procedures (A, EE, P) pursue a general policy regarding the admission of history students.

To give a better understanding of the distinctive features of the selection systems currently applied in the various countries, I shall list a number of examples describing the main specifics of these systems.

Examples

The most typical form of selection procedure is selection upon entrance into university. Bulgaria uses such a model of general selection. All applicants for history, regardless of their career objectives, have to take a uniform written examination on history. They may apply for many different specialities, not only for history. The entrance exam is taken on a competitive basis. Although its content is based on the history curriculum of secondary school, with special consideration of Bulgarian history, universities are autonomous in deciding on the specific questions and areas included. All questions and areas covered by the exam are announced and published in advance. Candidates have five hours to write the test; results are publicly announced about 7-10 days afterwards. Universities have their own rules to determine which applicants are successful, but usually cumulative scores are formed by adding the doubled scores from the history exam to the candidates' secondary school marks in history and Bulgarian (at least this is the practice at Sofia University, Bulgaria's oldest and largest university).

Based on their cumulative scores, candidates are ranked according to the number of places announced to be open at a particular university in a particular year. This latter decision is not taken by the universities themselves, but by the Ministry of Education and Science, and is determined primarily by the available financial means and by policies of higher education rather than by the universities' requests for places.

History students may also be admitted on a merit basis under special agreements between universities and the secondary schools affiliated to them. Students who come from such schools and achieve the best results in the national history competition are entitled to enrol at university without taking an entrance examination in history.

General selection at the level of university entrance takes place in countries such as the Czech Republic, Hungary, Albania, etc. However, despite their similar selection approach these countries also differ from each other in a variety of ways.

In Albania, the general entrance examination consists of two parts which require knowledge of different contents and fields. The first part of the written exam is based on the secondary school curricula of science and mathematics, while the second part requires candidates to demonstrate their knowledge of history (Albanian history and world history). Although universities are considered autonomous institutions, the Ministry of Education tightly monitors selection procedures and controls the process of candidate selection.

In Hungary, both forms for selection – written and oral examinations – are applied, but more importance is attached to the written examination. The weighting between the written and the oral form is 70%:30%, but the test only covers historical knowledge, not analytical skills. That is why the selection procedure includes an essay as well. It forms the basis for assessing applicants' analytical skills in the field of history.

Applicants for history (the practice is similar in other subjects) are ranked according to the results of both their university/college entrance examinations and their secondary school graduation exams. One graduation exam must be taken in a prescribed subject (literature, history, foreign language, mother tongue), while the other one may be chosen freely. Candidates are ranked on the basis of cumulative results.

However, experts in history teacher training in Albania as well as in Hungary claim that there is no sufficient link between school examinations and university examinations. General selection is still applied to all candidates, not only history candidates.

Spain has adopted a "mixed selection policy". Owing to decentralisation, all universities determine their own selection requirements and procedures, but there is clear link between entrance examinations and training. Spanish practice tends to recognise the results from baccalaureate examinations at secondary school level and allows scores from university entrance examinations to be added to baccalaureate scores. The selection of history teachers takes place at the end of teacher training, which lasts one year and is related to the so-called Institute for Educational Science, which forms part of the university. Selection is based on candidates' academic knowledge of history (at entrance level) and on their didactical knowledge and competencies (at the end of teacher training).

This may imply the conclusion that selection practices in countries where the target group of applicants for history teacher training is clearly identified, are quite different from those practices where general selection takes place at university entrance level. However, we also have to take into account that the second stage of selection (French and Spanish models) is also determined by professional requirements.

France is a country where centralisation and decentralisation regarding university admission and teacher training are integrated in a unique way. Selection takes place

first upon entrance into university (general selection) and then at the beginning of professional training for history teachers. There is also a final stage of selection when graduates from teacher training programme are awarded the title "qualified teacher".

Generally, there are two ways of university entrance: after the "baccalauréat" examinations at secondary school, which are recognised by universities, or by taking university entrance examinations. During the first stage of their studies, all history students receive the same kind of training. Those who want to become history teachers and successfully pass the relevant recruitment exams then enter the professional stage of training. Here, academic knowledge of history is combined with pedagogical, didactical, methodological, and practical competencies. This two-year training takes place at an IUFM and is specially designed to prepare future history teachers for their chosen profession. To join a programme of history teacher training, applicants have to take recruitment examinations. The number of teaching vacancies in the country is publicly announced each year, and students have to pass highly competitive exams to obtain a teaching post. Although IUFMs enjoy a considerable degree of autonomy, the contents of recruitment examinations are determined centrally in order to grant equal opportunities to all candidates and to ensure standard requirements on a national level. At the beginning of professional training, applicants' knowledge of history and geography and their skills in working with historical sources are tested. Candidates also have to take an oral exam on cultural history. At the end of professional training, they have to defend their thesis, and their views on pedagogical issues are examined. Finally, they are awarded the title "qualified teacher". However, this stage of selection predominantly serves the requirements of the teaching profession.

Major Trends

A significant number of countries pursue a general selection policy, but do not have any specific selection process for candidates for history teacher training (AL, BG, CZ, H, RF). Responsibility for selection procedures and decisions mostly lies with the universities themselves. This applies to countries with stable selection procedures as well as to those with changing selection patterns as a result of structural transition.

Selection policies generally tend to focus on an academic knowledge of history, attaching relatively little importance to other skills and competencies. In those countries where selection is entirely based on university entrance examinations, the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession are not reflected in the selection procedures at all.

In the majority of countries (with the exception of Austria and France) universities do not recognise the results of graduation examinations at secondary school, even in those cases where these examinations are uniform national tests. Universities adopt their own selection procedures which, again, are not linked in any way to the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession.

Selection takes a variety of forms, with written examinations being by far the most frequent one. Different weight is attached to different forms of selection. In those countries where selection procedures exist, the admission of applicants is entirely, or partially, based on examination results.

Selection procedures vary according to the individual countries' traditions with regard to issues such as: institutional/State selection policies, the stage of ITT, etc. Only few countries (France and, to some extent, Spain) have adopted a two-stage approach

where the second stage of selection takes into account both the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession.

The study also showed that some countries (A, EE, NL, P) do not apply any special selection procedures.

Key issues and problems

The relevance of selection policies and procedures to the requirements of teacher training and the needs of the teaching profession:

This is one of the key issues of our study. In the majority of countries, selection takes place at the level of university entrance. It is linked neither to the requirements of teacher training nor to the needs of the teaching profession. General selection policies do not offer the chance to identify the best-suited candidates and to admit them to teacher training programmes for history teachers. This is a major disadvantage of this type of selection policy.

The content of selection procedures:

Selection procedures mostly focus on an academic knowledge of history, which may even raise doubts about selection results. A proper balance in the contents of selection procedures has yet to be found.

Quality/inequality in teacher training for history teachers:

This problem still seems unresolved in the majority of countries. Institutional autonomy (at whatever level) may lead to unequal opportunities for history teacher candidates or may cause selection quality to decrease. This need not necessarily be the case, but some countries have already pointed out this risk (H). Finding a favourable balance between centralisation and decentralisation policies continues to be a vital issue.

3. Frequent models of ITT

All countries participating in this study have adopted either the concurrent, the consecutive, or both models (see part I). – The modular model is only found in very few countries: the United Kingdom (Open University) and the Netherlands (now starting on an experimental level), but interest in this model is rising.

Before describing the countries' various practices and models of history teacher training, I should like to comment on some important orientations in the ITT curriculum which depend on the status of history in the school curriculum.

In some cases, the curriculum of history teacher training is structured in such a way as to provide future history teachers with knowledge and competencies from the “pure" field of history, preparing them to teach only this subject. In other cases, the curriculum is designed to prepare trainees for teaching integrated subjects which also include history (e.g. "social studies"). Social studies cover a wide area comprising history, geography, civics, the humanities, sociology, etc. This is a specific characteristic of Norway and the Netherlands, but it does not apply to the curricula of all training institutions. Even these two countries differ in their approach to curriculum structure. The Dutch experience tends to integrate history, geography, civics and social sciences into one subject: humanities, or social studies. Integrated subject history and civics is introduced in the curriculum for lower secondary school.

However, in the Dutch case teachers are trained in only one subject. This is quite different from the orientation of training in the other countries.

Norway, which has the same comprehensive subject of "social studies", puts more emphasis on history, geography and sociology. Additional considerations are concerned with areas such as human rights, education, ethics. and sociology.

Combinations of subjects that future history teachers are trained in vary considerably. In most countries, the predominant combination in the curriculum for history teachers is history and geography, so that graduates are qualified to teach both subjects. This also applies to Bulgaria, but the country has now also introduced integrated training in combinations such as history/literature and history/foreign languages.

The present study clearly shows that most countries aim at offering history training in combination with training in another subject or area.

Examples

France has a very distinctive model of initial training for history teachers. In fact, it is a uniform training model for teachers for all types of schools. It is a predominantly consecutive model, with some variations.

Since 1991, all teachers receive their professional training at an IUMF (Institut universitaire de formation des maîtres). An IUFM is a state-run educational institution within a university and enjoys legal and financial autonomy. The network of IUFMs covers the country’s 28 regions, and their number corresponds with the number of universities and academies. Training for history teachers takes at least four years. Initial training for history teachers is based on three years of university studies leading to a Bachelor's degree. Equivalent qualifications or diplomas are also accepted.

Holders of a so-called “agrégation" (four years of university study/maîtrise) form another group of future history teachers.

A third option is open to students who have already completed at least two years of university training. In their third year of academic training they start their first year of teacher training, which is mainly devoted to pre-professional training and the preparation for competitive examinations and is dominated by practice and supervision of trainees.

All applicants for teacher training programmes in France are, in fact, applicants for teaching vacancies, the number of which is announced nationally. To qualify for these programmes applicants have to pass a recruitment competition.

An essential part of the initial training for history teachers is introduced in the second year which is devoted to theoretical and practical training. Compulsory modules like pedagogy, psychology, didactics of history (methodology of history teaching), etc., are offered together with elective modules such as teaching skills, foreign language history teaching, adolescent psychology, etc. This second year also includes 4-6 hours of teaching per week. All teaching activities are supervised by teacher trainers (IUMF members), inspectors, and advisory teachers. Students become qualified teachers upon successful completion of theoretical training (module training), practical training, and a thesis.

England and Wales share a common approach to teacher training for history teachers at secondary school level and have also adopted the consecutive model. Its framework (structures, contents, requirements) is increasingly determined by

central authorities (government and the State Teacher Training Agency) and becomes the framework of prescribed standards for teacher training. The most distinctive feature here is the partnership between universities, other institutions of higher education, and schools. In contrast to France, there is no special selection. The history teacher training programme lasts one year (PGCE programme). The proportion between university-based and school-based training should be 40%:60% on average.

Manchester Metropolitan University (MMU), for example, offers the following training programme for history teachers:

Subject and teaching competencies: The programme profile comprises twenty subject-based competencies to be acquired by future history teachers. These fall into five main groups: subject application in the classroom (planning, monitoring, assessing); pupils' learning needs and expectations of history as a subject; internalising the aims and objectives of history teaching; teaching concepts and skills; history curricula at secondary school level.

The organisation of history teacher training depends on the structure of the school year. Students spend twenty-four weeks at secondary school where they teach history under the supervision of a school mentor. The school mentor works together with the university tutor who is also responsible for the quality of training.

Student teachers perform all duties of "real" history teachers (observation, monitoring, writing, planning, teaching, assessment), learning how to be an efficient secondary school teacher of history.

The university-based part of training mainly focuses on students' reflections on subject and teaching competencies and also aims at making them efficient history teachers. There is close co-operation and teamwork among university representatives, school teachers, and student teachers.

Student teachers have to accomplish three special assignments devoted to: effective teaching and learning of history in the classroom; language in the classroom; and planning, teaching, monitoring and assessing pupils' progress and performance against attainment targets. All three assignments should take into account the relevant literature in the field as well as reflections on school-based training.

The evaluation of student teachers takes place on a formal level as well as on an informal one, both at university and at school, and involves university tutors, school supervisors, and the students themselves. After completion of the teacher training programme, graduates serve a probation year at school.

England is gathering experience also in module-based teacher training (Open University, Milton Keynes) where university-based sessions and consultations with teacher trainers are combined with a distance learning approach. Special distance-learning programmes and training packages are developed and offered to fulfil training requirements.

Modular models are being introduced in the Netherlands, too. Two of the country's seven universities (the Universities of Utrecht and Leiden) are currently testing a distance education approach. The experiment is funded by the Ministry of Education.

These models are targeted at students enrolled in post-graduate teacher training courses which last two years. They are considered part-time students because they are already employed. This employment does not necessarily have to be in (history) teaching.

These training models rely on new information technologies and the use of Internet services. Students are organised in teams of six to eight and receive their assignments by email. Their reflections on their own experience within the working teams are an essential element in this model of teacher training.

Students are expected to complete their tasks and assignments within a specified period of time and to send back reports and materials to their trainers in written form. Teacher trainers comment on the results and evaluate the students' performance against specific criteria.

At the moment it is still too early to assess the results of these experiments.

A further analysis of teacher training practice in the Netherlands shows that all three models of initial training for history teachers are used. The choice of model depends on a number of factors, one of them being the type of training institution.

The concurrent model is applied at most pedagogical universities.

The consecutive model is typically found at universities, which provide teacher training both for university students who choose a teaching career and for university graduates. The former are offered a two-month introductory course within the post-graduate teacher training programme, while graduates take a one-year post-doctoral (PGCE) course. These courses take place at local universities: IVLOS in Utrecht and UCLO in Croningen.

The organisation of initial training for history teachers depends on the specifics of the respective institution. Pedagogical universities have four-year training programmes where theoretical training in history (a four-year history course) is combined with professional training in general pedagogy, psychology, and the methodology of teaching and learning history. In a contrast to "classical" universities, primary importance is attached to practical training at school level. The professional reflection of future teachers on their practical experience is considered a crucial factor in teacher training. Practical training takes up 50% of the time allocated to a teacher training programme.

"Classical" university students also follow a four-year programme in their chosen area, but they have to take an additional year of teacher training to acquire the status of a "first-grade" teacher. Post-graduate teacher training programmes are based on a consecutive approach. Training contents focus on history as a school subject, not as an academic discipline.

An analysis of the training of history teachers for upper secondary school also has to take into consideration a distinctive feature of the Dutch model: History and civics is a part of 50% elective programme for pupils and can be chosen as an option. The only compulsory element concerns pupils aged 15 to 16 years and deals with 20th century history and politics.

Other elements of teacher training programmes are: pedagogics, the methodology of teaching and learning history, and practical training. The proportion between theoretical and practical training differs from that at pedagogical universities. Less time is allocated to practical training than to the theoretical part of professional training (about 33% compared to 50% at pedagogical universities).

Another important feature of the Dutch system is the fact that the Ministry of Education establishes general guidelines which regulate the contents and the time allocated to teacher training programmes. The Ministry also funds the programmes,

guaranteeing a certain level of quality. Thus, there is no common curriculum for teacher training, merely guidelines.

Together with the Central Organisation of the Institutes of Higher Education (VSNU and HBO-Raad), the Ministry of Education is also in charge of controlling and evaluating teacher training programmes, including those at teacher training colleges. The Working Group for Process Management in Teacher Education is a newly-established body affiliated to the Ministry of Education. It has drafted Final Terms of Achievement for teacher training colleges, where teachers for lower secondary school (12-15 age group) are trained.

Using their institutional autonomy, training institutions also develop their own criteria for teacher training.

The models of initial training for history teachers described above are also applied in the other surveyed countries. However, it is difficult to generalise since different models are often adopted within a particular country and even by teacher training institutions within a particular town. The Netherlands is a case where all three models are adopted, but universities take their autonomous decisions.

In the consecutive model, ITT usually starts one or two years after subject-based training (F, E, P, UK). England has introduced a one-year post-graduate ITT programme for history teachers at secondary school, while ITT in France lasts two years. Spain has introduced a separate form of ITT, independent of a university qualification, with a minimum duration of 300 hours. Portugal has a two-year post-graduate ITT programme: The first year is devoted to theoretical training and the second year to the practical components of ITT for history teachers. In Norway ITT does not require a university or college degree, either (applications are filed one semester before graduation), and one year is allocated both to the theoretical and practical components of ITT. Estonia has chosen almost the same path and offers one year of ITT for holders of a Bachelor's degree or a Master programme combined with an ITT programme.

Austria, Hungary, and the Netherlands offer different types of training for history teachers at primary and secondary school. Austria has two types of institutionalised ITT (at pedagogical academy and at university), depending on whether future teachers will teach pupils up to the age of 14 or pupils at upper secondary school. Dutch teachers who teach pupils aged 5 to 11 receive general rather than specialised training. Hungary also differentiates between the training of history teachers for primary and for secondary school.

Both Bulgaria and Spain reserve 15% to 20% of training for teacher training, but in their concrete decisions they differ considerably from each other. While Spain has adopted the consecutive model in ITT for history teachers, concentrating all teacher training courses in the final stage of the programmes, Bulgaria is used to the concurrent model and has no uniform pattern for the allocation of teacher training courses. Some universities have introduced academic ITT courses even at the very beginning of general training (in the first year), others spread ITT courses over a number of years, and in a few cases the last one or two years of training are partially dedicated to ITT.

Tangible and non-tangible results regarding strategies of centralisation and decentralisation in the field of teacher training:

This comparative study on the training of history teachers has provided us with new insights into the conflict between centralisation and decentralisation in education.

Some countries report significant decentralisation steps in ITT (A, CZ, EE, H, E, etc.), while others are taking steps towards an obvious centralisation or maintain existing traditions of central decision-taking (AL, F, UK). England represents an interesting example of the explicit shift from a high degree of decentralisation in education towards more centralisation, assigning more responsibilities to central institutions, especially as concerns matters of teacher training.

In the majority of countries standards are developed mainly by the training institutions themselves. Only in few countries (BG, F, UK) are standards developed on a national level: Both Bulgaria and England have introduced standards for qualified teachers.

In a third group of countries, implementation of ITT models takes place in a strongly decentralised environment (CZ, H, E).

Major trends

The concurrent and consecutive models are the most frequent models in the initial training of history teachers for secondary school, but implementation patterns may vary considerably from one country to another. The majority of countries in transition (AL, BG, CZ, H, RF) tend to mainly use the concurrent model, while the other countries apply the consecutive model or a combination of models (EE, NL, N, E, P, UK).

The duration of ITT for history teachers depends on a number of factors, which are also influenced by national traditions and local conditions. The usual duration of the consecutive model is one to two years.

ITT for history teachers is organised and structured in different ways. Diverse patterns are applied even within individual countries and within educational structures themselves.

Various countries reported a lack of academic standards concerning ITT for history teachers, while others have national ITT standards. In most cases, standards do exist, but not necessarily on a national level.

ITT curricula for history teachers are also highly diversified. The overall extent of professional training varies from 15% (BG, E) to 30–40% (F). There is often an uneven relation between academic and professional training for history teachers.

Teacher training curricula for history teachers in most countries focus on training based on subject combinations. Thus, history teachers obtain more than one qualification (history/geography, history/literature; history/foreign languages) or a qualification in integrated fields (social studies, social sciences, or humanities).

Inter-institutional links with regard to teacher training have strengthened in some countries, while in others they are still rather loose or depend on financial and other factors. The last point applies especially to the relations and the co-operation between ITT institutions and schools in the countries in transition, whose economies still struggle with financial shortages and obstacles.

Major issues to be addressed

1. The degree of centralisation/decentralisation in admission policies.

This depends on the countries' traditions and on the changes they have already introduced. A trend towards decentralisation may be observed in most countries; a shift from a relatively centralised approach to a comparatively decentralised approach in admission policies is to be noted especially in the countries in transition. Newly-

introduced, or newly-amended, laws on higher education ensure the autonomy of universities and other institutions of higher education.

A crucial issue in this context is whether the purposes, aims, and contents of selection procedures are really relevant to the requirements of ITT and the needs of the profession, and how selection policies and procedures that meet these demands may be achieved. A significant number of countries pursue a policy of general, academically-oriented selection which is not, or hardly, linked to the specific functions and the professional profile of teaching.

Further discussions on existing selection systems are needed to improve selection procedures and contents.

2. Standards of ITT for history teachers, taking into account national traditions and European dimensions and their close interrelation.

3. The degree of interrelation between ITT curricula and curricula of history as a school subject.

Our comparative study found a number of weaknesses caused by the predominantly academic orientation of ITT for history teachers. National studies as well as expert opinions emphasise the need to re-evaluate ITT for history teachers from this point of view.

4. A further professionalisation of ITT for history teachers.

The experience of various countries and a number of positive examples in ITT (especially Vienna University's model of ITT for history teachers based on the "professional profile of history teachers") suggest that no satisfactory professionalisation of ITT can be achieved without strengthening the professional and practical components of teacher training. Although the majority of countries are still not entirely happy with the professional and practical training of history teachers, they recognise that significant steps have been taken in this respect. New professional and specialised courses have been introduced, a variety of forms of practical training is being employed, and new co-operation agreements between ITT institutions and schools have been established. What is still lacking is a consistent concept of professionalisation as well as effective measures to implement it.

5. Institutional networking in ITT for history teachers.

Inter-institutional relations among the partners involved (especially universities, schools, and local education administrations) are gradually expanding, but they still need to be improved before a true "partnership model" may be realised. The stability of inter-institutional relations is among the major concerns of the professionals involved in this comparative study.

6. The interrelation between ITT and INSET for history teachers based on the concept of life-long learning.

This issue should be further elaborated in the context of the challenges facing history teachers at the dawn of the 21st century.

In place of a conclusion

It is important to note that none of the national practices described here offers exclusive advantages or disadvantages, and that there are no universally effective decisions that may be applied to all national situations. However, European integration and intensive steps toward enlarging the European Union may require a

considerable re-thinking and re-conceptualisation of teacher training by creating wider frames of reference and reflection for those involved in ITT. Selecting appropriate candidates, harmonising basic requirements, improving the efficiency of training institutions, raising training quality, adopting the best-suited training models, and encouraging mobility among teachers – these will be major items on our future agenda.

Christa Donnermair

Institutional links between schools and ITT institutions

Introduction

After the Vienna-seminar a working group on institutional links and partnership models was established. Six countries – Albania, Austria, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom (E/W) – were represented in the group. In addition to the discussions we had during the seminars in Vienna and Prague, we got additional information to our topic from France, Estonia and Norway, which have also been integrated into this report.[84]

1. The importance of practical training

Over the last few years, new official guidelines concerning ITT were adopted in many of the countries under review. One common element of these guidelines is the growing importance that is attached to practical, mostly school-based training. However, classroom experience needs to be integrated into the training process as a whole. Without adequate preparation and proper subsequent reflection it might turn into a rather fruitless and even discouraging experience for teacher trainees. The necessary interplay between theory and practice requires co-operation between different institutions and specialists. The countries surveyed differ both in the roles and tasks assigned to staff members and in the forms of co-operation that have evolved. In some countries, personal relations and the initiative of university and school teachers are more important than institutional links. In other countries, the institutional links between schools and ITT institutes or universities reflect the idea of a partnership based on clearly defined mutual obligations.

2. The "partnership agreements" developed in England and Wales

Today's strong institutional links between schools and teacher training institutions in England and Wales are the result of reforms introduced in the 1990s. Requirements for ITT are laid down by the national government. A national body, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA), oversees and ensures the implementation of these requirements. Training is the shared responsibility of Higher Education Institutions (HEI) and schools. Higher Education Institutions are required by statute to co-operate with schools. The principles of co-operation between different HEI and schools are laid down in "partnership agreements". Different partnerships organise and approach their courses differently, and the national requirements may be met in a variety of ways.

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[84] I would like to thank the members of the working group: Ms Marie Homerova, Mr Svein Lorentzen, Mr Mark McLaughlin, Ms Ineke Veldhuis-Meester and Ms Fatmiroshe Xhemali. Participants' comments from the seminars on initial teacher training in Vienna (1998) and Prague (1999) have also been taken into account.
The article was finished in July 2000.

One example is the partnership agreement between the Manchester Metropolitan University Institute of Education (Didsbury) and Schools and Colleges, which covers the Secondary Programme of School-Based Initial Teacher Training. The training year is divided into various consecutive phases: Induction, Formative, Consolidation, Development, Assessment and Enrichment phases. Each phase indicates student/trainee progress and development throughout the training year. During each phase, trainees spend time both at university and at school; thus, there is a strong link between university-based and school-based programmes. Together, universities and schools have to provide opportunities for trainees to obtain the professional qualifications for the award of Qualified Teacher Status. Furthermore, trainees within this partnership are required to meet other criteria in order to pass the course and obtain a Post-Graduate Certificate in Education. The notion of gradual and progressive professional development is integral to the course.

To ensure equality of trainee entitlement and experience throughout each phase of the course the responsibilities of both school-based mentors and university-based advisory teachers are clearly specified. The respective roles and responsibilities are described in detail in course handbooks. Schools are required to sign a Memorandum of Agreement with the university accepting the agreed roles and responsibilities, and the partnership model is subject to continuous monitoring, evaluation and development by all partners, including trainees. Schools are, for the most part, selected according to selection criteria which have been developed jointly by university and schools. Attention is also paid to available official data about the schools, provided by Ofsted, the Office for Standards in Education.

3. The French way: Les Instituts Universitaires de Formation de Maîtres (IUFM)

Like in the UK, ITT in France is based on a consecutive model. After completion of the fourth year of academic studies, students have to pass the open competition for the “Certificat d’aptitude au professorat de l’enseignement secondaire (CAPES)”. Those who pass are admitted to one year of professional training at special institutions integrated in the universities, the *"Instituts Universitaires de Formation de Maîtres* (IUFM)”.

These institutes were established in 1989, one at each university (i.e., 29 altogether), at a time when new teachers were urgently needed in order to implement the government's decision to provide at least 80% of the young generation with an A-level school education (*niveau Bac*).

In France, there has always been a strong professional feeling of unity among teachers. The idea of a common culture and common objectives shared by all teachers, independent of the age group and the level of the children they work with, is still present.

Therefore it was quite logical to organise the training of *all* future teachers at the same institutions, even offering some training units in mixed groups. Joint training was supposed to cover about 10% of the global amount of hours, but in reality it is less. It is referred to as "transversal training" and deals with topics like new technologies, pupil evaluation and professional orientation, heterogeneous classes etc.

Training at an IUFM lasts two years. The first year is more or less entirely devoted to subject application and to the preparation for the *concours* at the end of that year. Students may also take the exams without attending a first year course at an IUFM.

In general, it is not obligatory for students to get in touch with the reality of the classroom during the first year. Only a few IUFMs organise a short practical training between the written and the oral exams at the end of the first year. After these exams, at the beginning of the second IUFM year, trainees have to work at a school for twelve to fourteen weeks, four to six hours a week, to acquire some classroom practice. Their advisory teachers are recruited on a volunteer basis and do not get any additional salary or time reduction for their work. Sometimes advisory teachers and trainees do not work at the same school. This is because the administration (*rectorat*) tries to send trainees to schools where there is an urgent need of teaching staff, whereas the IUFM gives preference to schools with highly motivated advisory teachers. The trainees are visited by their IUFM trainers who give them support and evaluate their performance.

4. A wide range of different links

Links between training institutions and schools differ widely in the countries under review. These differences reflect the degree of institutionalisation and the level of co-operation between trainers as well as the status of advisory teachers who are in charge of monitoring trainees. Some school teachers are specially trained for this task, some are paid for it, or their teaching obligation is reduced. In some countries, personal relationship and individual initiative still play a bigger role than institutional links.

In the Czech Republic, for instance, the degree of co-operation between different institutions in the field of ITT largely depends on individual initiative. Therefore, the situation often differs significantly from place to place.

Every university department of history is free to determine the number of practical lessons on the basis of its educational and economic situation. In general, history departments are not willing to reduce the number of academic courses for future teachers. Therefore, practical training risks to be neglected if there is insufficient funding.

There are no official links between schools and universities. If there is an interest to co-operate in matters of ITT or INSET, history departments usually co-operate with regional teacher training centres and institutes or with the history teachers' association. There are also some examples of co-operation between schools and universities which usually prove quite successful. Since there are no official structures or guidelines, the success of such forms of co-operation largely depends on the commitment of the individuals involved. However, this situation is going to change. A new ministerial project on teachers' professional careers is being prepared. It should clarify the aims, methods and results of teacher trainees' practical training and establish national standards.

In Albania, it is the Ministry of Education and Science and its subordinate institutions which act as the link between universities, where ITT is provided, and schools. At the University of Tirana, for instance, the curriculum includes not only theoretical instruction, but also professional practice which takes place for two weeks in the first and second year of study and for six weeks in the fourth year. The advisory teachers of the classes where teacher trainees have the possibility to observe and teach themselves are not paid for their extra monitoring work.

In Estonia, ITT has undergone some reorganisation since 1991. During the Soviet period, future history teachers were only trained at the History Department of the

University of Tartu. Now there are two more ITT providers: the Tartu Teachers Seminary and the Tallinn Pedagogical University. Initial Training for history teachers at the University of Tartu is organised by the Lectorate of History Didactics that was established in 1995. As for classroom practice, the time spent in schools has been increased. In the past, students went for practical training only in the first term, now they spend four weeks at school in the first term and six more weeks in the second one. This change has also improved the co-operation between university teachers and advisory teachers at schools.

In Portugal, all history teachers for secondary schools must first obtain a university degree, which takes three to four years. In the fourth year they attend pedagogical training at university before they begin their training year at school. This practical training is referred to as "initial in-service training" and is supervised by the university where the teacher trainees attended their pedagogical year. Teacher trainees are responsible for two classes in secondary compulsory schooling, i.e., they have to teach three hours per week in each class. All teacher trainees from one school constitute a training group, which is supervised by a co-ordinator who monitors their work. They also have to teach lessons at the co-ordinator's class which is at upper secondary level. Just like "real" teachers they assist at pedagogical meetings, parents' meetings and do other kinds of work related to the profession. They also earn a salary while performing their one-year contract. The schools where they practise are State schools, approved by the Ministry of Education.

In this model there is close co-operation between the university and school teachers involved. The school co-ordinator is given enough time to supervise the lessons of the training group, to assist them in lesson planing, classroom strategies and assessment. Since this work is almost a full-time job in itself, s/he has only one class to teach beside his/her duties as co-ordinator. S/He is also invited to take part in the reflection meetings at university.

This "initial in-service training" year also offers fourth-year students a first glimpse of classroom reality. Fifth-year teacher trainees invite one or two of their fourth-year colleagues to participate in a lesson which they plan together. It is also quite common for fourth-year students to assist in projects and school trips organised by their fifth-year colleagues.

The History Department at the Universidade Lusiada of Lisbon seeks to co-operate closely with school teachers in the ITT of history teachers and to maintain the interplay between theory and practice. Students first have to acquire some theoretical knowledge about history teaching before they start their practical work, and they regularly reflect on this work by reviewing theoretical concepts when they come back to university once a week to meet their supervisors. Together they discuss their practical teaching experience and engage in educational research. School co-ordinators are invited to take part in these activities: Their timetables are specially planned to make sure they are free on these days.

There are currently debates in Portugal about ITT reforms. These debates are mainly concerned with the differences between ITT for secondary school teachers and for compulsory school teachers.

In the Netherlands, links are now being established on a more formal level than before 1998. Schools are affiliated to a pedagogical university or a “classic” university in the area. State universities look for schools which are interested in co-operation and affiliation, while Protestant or Catholic universities usually look for schools of the

same denomination. The links are organised by the institutions themselves, not by a local or State authorities.

5. The impact of different types of ITT institutions on co-operation with schools

In countries where differentiation in the school system already starts at the age of ten, this division is also reflected in initial teacher training. This is the case in Austria.

At the age of ten, after four years of primary school, children and their parents have to make an early first choice concerning their future school career. The family's socio-economic background and the area where they live play an important role in this choice.

In urban areas the majority of pupils opt for an eight-year *"Allgemeinbildende Hoehere Schule"* (AHS, general lower and upper secondary school), at the end of which they take the *"Matura"*, an exam which is the prerequisite for entry into university. In rural regions, where there are not as many AH-schools, children more often attend a *"Hauptschule"* (HS) until the age of fourteen and then either start to work or go on to a professional school.

Teaching of history as a subject starts at the age of twelve. The curriculum for the first three years (age group 12-14) is the same in both types of schools, *Hauptschule* and AHS. The teachers, however, are trained at different institutions and may not teach at both types of schools.

Hauptschule teachers are educated at Pedagogical Academies (Colleges of Education), whereas AHS teachers receive their training at university. The Colleges of Education are closely linked with schools and deliver more theoretical and practical instruction on subject application. Students experience the reality of the classroom very early on. Some, however, are unhappy about the lack of academic instruction which is predominant by far in the ITT for prospective AHS teachers. The Ministry in charge of the Colleges of Education has recently announced the transformation of these Colleges into Pedagogical Universities over the next years. It is mainly the lack of equivalence on the European level (graduates from Pedagogical Academies do not hold any university degree) which has necessitated this change.

The future development might be similar to that of the Netherlands where there is one system of schooling for the 12-15 age group, but a different system of ITT organisation. Teachers work together at the same schools at the 12-15 level. Only at the upper secondary level pedagogical university graduates are not entitled to teach.

Students who want to become history teachers at an AHS or BHS (professional upper secondary school) have to obtain a university degree. Beside history, they have to study a second subject which they are free to choose from the list of school subjects. It may be geography, as it is in some countries, but it does not necessarily have to be this subject.

Courses on subject application, which may include some practical, but non-compulsory teaching, start in the second year. The first contact with school is after two or three years of study. The teacher trainee works side by side with an advisory teacher, chosen by himself/herself from a list of advisory teachers who have been specially trained for this task at university. S/He assists in the teacher's lessons and delivers some lessons himself. This experience is reflected in a report. The advisory teacher is paid for his/her work. There is no contract between schools and universities: the link is between the advisory teacher and the university.

After graduation from university, young teachers take one year of practical training at school: They get a contract, earn a salary and teach both their subjects, working together with advisory teachers and taking over one of their classes. The advisory teacher is paid for counselling and supervising the trainee and also has to write a report on the trainee's performance. The school's headmaster then gives a mark to the trainee based on the advisory teacher's evaluation and on his/her own observations.

In Norway, we find some twenty-five regional Teacher Training Colleges in addition to the teacher training units, so-called Schools of Education, at the country's four universities. Teacher Training Colleges provide four years of professional study aiming at the primary and lower secondary levels and are closely linked to schools. The aims and contents for teacher training in all institutions are laid down in the National Curriculum for Teacher Education. Responsibility for this Curriculum lies with the Royal Ministry of Education, Research and Church Affairs.

The institutions themselves have full authority over the contents of teacher training, which takes the form of traditional courses at university departments. The Teacher Training Colleges, which provide four years of professional study after graduation from a *"Gymnasium"*, are specialised teacher training institutions aimed at the primary and lower secondary levels.

There is no separation at university between teacher trainees and other students in their courses at the various departments. The only specialised teacher training at Norwegian universities is one year of pedagogy, didactic and training practice, normally held as a final year after the end of "regular" studies which take five to six years. The university of Trondheim offers another, more flexible model: there, the "pedagogical year" may be split up into two separate half-years, one taken during the general course, the other one taken after graduation.

In the Czech Republic, students who might later teach history may go either to a Faculty of Education or a Faculty of Philosophy/Art. Those who opt for the first type of training institution know from the very start that they aim at a teaching career. Thus, they are trained in pedagogical sciences from the first until the last semester. They learn about the history of pedagogy and about psychological and sociological aspects. Practical teaching also forms part of their curriculum. Therefore, Faculties of Education are more likely to build up links (often informal ones) with schools or schoolteachers.

Students at a Faculty of Philosophy/Art have to decide about their future career aims at the end of their second year. They may take courses in pedagogical science and practice in addition to their academically-oriented programme which includes heraldry, numismatics, palaeography, Latin, German and other subjects. It is common practice for most students to take the pedagogical courses in order to leave the teaching option open even if they eventually choose to pursue an academic career after graduation.

6. University-based ITT and its links to schools

Although some new developments may be observed, the results of our research show that teacher training based at universities – except pedagogical universities – is still rather focused on academic learning and research skills. Good knowledge of a subject is a necessary prerequisite for effective teaching, but it is not the only one. There is no necessary correlation between someone's prowess as an academic

historian and his/her effectiveness in teaching history in a classroom, even though it is difficult, of course, to envisage how one might teach history without a reasonable foundation of subject knowledge.

At the Institute of Economic and Social History at the University of Vienna, subject application has been a major concern since the seventies. A mixed team of acedemic historians, didacticians and advisory teachers who also teach at the Institute has developed an integrated approach, designed to improve the imbalance between theoretical and practical training and to create a comprehensive system where theory forms the basis of practice, which in turn is subject to (theoretical) reflection.

From their second year onwards, teacher trainees may attend seminars of subject didactics where historians, didacticians and school teachers work together. First, some content input is presented on a certain topic. Participants then split into groups (maximum size: four students) and select a specific research topic that falls within the general subject of the seminar. Like in a traditional seminar, the group members engage in academic research on their topic and communicate the results to their colleagues. They then change their perspective, discussing the possible relevance of their research findings for teaching purposes. They look at all the information they have accumulated in a different way and start defining teaching objectives linked to the given topic. Finally, they prepare and hold a series of lessons in class.

The individual staff members have different tasks: The historian is responsible for the academic content of the course; the didactician is responsible for overall co-ordination, presiding at plenary meetings and supervising the learning process; and the advisory teacher supports the students in planning and holding their lessons or invites them to do their project in one of his/her classes. At the end of the seminar, great emphasis is placed on a common reflection of the teaching experience, where trainees are once again encouraged to develop self-reflection skills.

In this model, the university’s partner is not a school, but a teacher who is remunerated for his/her participation. The fact that s/he regularly works together with the university teachers provides them with information about new developments in secondary schools and other practice-related issues

In the Netherlands, "contract schools", which are linked with pedagogical universities, usually appoint a co-ordinator who advisory teachers all teacher trainees at the school, irrespective of their subject.

Teacher trainers at university sometimes criticise the way this linkage system works as they have no say in selecting the respective subject mentors at the schools because they only get in contact with the co-ordinator.

Teacher trainees working in such partnerships receive payment for a certain amount of their lessons, and the schools also get money for their guidance work.

A new scheme in the Netherlands is the upcoming system of partnership schools also for the university institutes. Teacher trainees will teach two or three classes for a whole year during their teacher education course. During this time, they also receive distance tutoring from specially trained advisory teachers and attend courses at university. The university as well as the school and the teacher trainee get a remuneration in this "dual learning" experiment.

A new model linking pedagogical universities and schools was introduced by the Ministry of Education in 1999, opening up an additional source of income for the pedagogical universities. This came as a reaction to the specific problems in the

Dutch teaching sector: There is a growing lack of teachers in certain regions and for certain subjects. The newly created partnership model between schools and training institutes enables schools to get teacher trainees to fill vacancies which often could not be filled otherwise. This may be due to the fact that the school is situated in a crowded or in a socially deprived area or that it has a lot of allochthone pupils with limited Dutch language skills; in short, schools with a "difficult audience" and, consequently, a challenging situation for teachers.

Some advisory teachers, therefore, are quite sceptical about this approach: Teacher trainees should not gain their first teaching experience in extremely demanding settings where they are confronted with students with a range of different problems like mastering the working language, or problems of concentration, etc.

Their first teaching experience should not be about learning how to survive, but about getting the opportunity to deliver good model lessons in an average class.

7. Establishing the links

In Albania, it is the Ministry of Education and Science and its subordinate institutions which establish the links between universities and schools. These links are important during the time of teacher trainees' pedagogical practice. Initially, it mainly consists of observation tasks; after some weeks, students take on a more active role in the classroom. At the end of this working experience they are given an assessment document, drawn up jointly by the advisory teacher and the supervising pedagogues from the teacher trainee's respective university.

In Norway, the relevant links are established by the teacher training institutions (university or training college) so that there are various ways of institutional networks with schools. The overall aim of all these networks is to provide teacher trainees with practical training opportunities, either in concentrated form between courses at the teacher training institution, or parallel to such courses.

As mentioned earlier, very close links exist between providers of teacher training and schools in England and Wales. These partnerships are compulsory, not optional. All students preparing to become teachers must spend about 60% of their training courses at school. Teacher training is provided by partnerships between universities and schools, with the universities transferring part of their budget to the schools. Sometimes, however, schools maintain that their work is not sufficiently remunerated.

In Austria, Pedagogical Academies run their own training schools. If the training schools do not supply enough people for special projects they also co-operate with teachers at other schools. Universities co-operate with teachers rather than with schools. Schools do not get any special funding, and no formal contracts are entered into. A special training is required for advisory teachers who supervise teacher trainees in their different school-based training tasks. This training is organised by the universities. The qualified advisory teacher is paid for his/her work (cf. Training the trainers).

Pedagogical universities in the Netherlands have permanent network schools as well as temporary partner schools. They appoint co-ordinators who arrange contacts between the training institute and schools. Special emphasis is placed on practical training for teachers for the 12-15 age group. In a four-year programme, the subject itself is taught as well as the methodology of teaching that subject and general pedagogics. Over these four years, the amount of time spent in school gradually increases and the teacher trainees' tasks become more demanding. The classic

universities which train history teachers for the 12-18 age group, with special emphasis on the 15-18 year range, mostly follow a consecutive model. Four or five years of university studies are followed by a one-year postgraduate teacher training course at university, with much freedom for the individual university to determine the course set-up and content.

8. Problems and chances of co-operation between university teachers and school teachers

There are different degrees of hierarchical thinking, depending on national traditions, within the teaching profession. The relationship between university teachers who teach future school teachers and school teachers is often marked by the difficulties of integrating theory and practice, difficulties which are also found in so many other areas of life. School teachers who have to cope with daily school routine and increasingly difficult classroom situations sometimes deny the competence of university teachers who have never entered a classroom. The "theorists", on the other hand, sometimes criticise that teachers are not willing to implement new approaches, clinging too much to their traditional ways of doing things.

In the past few years, however, the tendency to work in mixed teams of specialists with different backgrounds has also gained importance in the field of education. Some factors favour co-operation, while others are detrimental to it. In general it might be said that clearly defined contract-based projects foster co-operation, while co-operation that is mainly based on "idealistic", time-consuming and badly remunerated individual projects is not likely to promote a sustainable structure of co-operation.

The legal framework for co-operation in England and Wales seems to be a well developed system. Universities and schools devise teacher training programmes on a co-operative basis. If this is not done this way, they are not given good ratings or, ultimately, may have their accreditation withdrawn. The role of the serving advisor teacher as a specialist is fully recognised in all questions related to teacher training.

In the first years of the transformation in the CEO countries, when things where still changing a lot, new ways of co-operation between university teachers and advisory teachers at school were developed. They worked together designing new curricula, textbooks etc. Sometimes specialists from other countries contributed additional expertise. This enthusiasm of the first years was based on individual initiative and could not always successfully be integrated in the institutional process of transformation.

9. New developments

Over the last years, efforts have been made in all the countries to devote more time and effort to practical school-based training. We should not underestimate the pressure of parents, who have their say in school communities today, which has helped to promote authentic training conditions for teacher trainees. Parents, more than ever, have a critical eye on what is going on at schools and how their children are enabled to gain good academic results. Of course, this is not the case for all parents, but those who do get involved want to see quality.

There is a clear tendency towards a more professional approach in teacher education, working with teams of specialists from different disciplines. The personal monitoring of the individual teacher trainee is very time-consuming for the advisory

teacher, too. That is to say that good ITT simply costs money. In all the countries under review, however, budget constraints are being felt more and more severely. In England and Wales, this sometimes creates tension surrounding the division of funds between universities and schools which are partners in ITT. It should be borne in mind that making partnership work and liasing closely with all those involved is time-consuming and requires a great deal of tact and negotiating skills and – last but not least – money.

In many countries, schools, colleges and universities are given more and more autonomy in developing their own profile. At the same time, they also have to learn how to be competitive in a changing educational market where the State is only one provider among many. Financial pressure and increased independence may also stimulate positive developments. Norwegian universities are more and more forced by the market to reconsider their role in the field of teacher training. It might not be considered as a sideline any longer, but as a major item on their agenda. Future forms of co-operation between teacher training institutions and schools could be regarded as "joint ventures", opening up for school-based research at university, while enabling school teachers to take part in these research activities, ultimately fostering new professional competencies and school developments.

International co-operation in the ITT for history teachers has also increased significantly. Research on examples of good practice as well as the exchange on the results of national pilot projects offer a lot of input. Countries which already are members of the European Union might also be encouraged to reflect upon the ITT structures in order to meet common standards. This finally would facilitate free access to a European labour market for all history teachers.

Elka Drosneva, Heinz Strotzka

Academic and practical competencies in initial teacher training

One of the main problems in ITT is that of finding the right balance in fostering both academic and practical competencies. Which aspects should be emphasised? As shown in part I of the study, most time in ITT is still devoted to academic courses of history. Naturally, a profound knowledge of historical facts and of a broad variety of historical methods are essential prerequisites for teaching history. However, professional and practical competencies need to be given equal importance with regard to the future career of history teachers. Practical competencies also imply certain theoretical considerations which have to be clear so that teaching does not just follow some unreflected patterns. Even though some skills in teaching may certainly be regarded as something of a craft, their application always implies an enormous range of considerations concerning the subject matter and the attitudes of the pupils involved.

A working group including participants from Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary, the Russian Federation, and the United Kingdom was formed to discuss these problems after the Vienna seminar. This is an overview of the discussions we had at the two seminars in Vienna and Prague and of further questions we discussed between these seminars via e-mail and fax.[85]

1. The problem

Every conception of Initial Teacher Training (ITT) involves an implicit notion of the "ideal teacher". Where should we look for a definition? Various groups will have widely differing views on this topic, which will also be determined by the respective *zeitgeist* (spirit of the time). Even though the *zeitgeist* encompasses a variety of ideas, certain attitudes may be excluded as inadequate for a specific period. Max Weber's sociological concept of "ideal types" may also be applied to the teaching profession. The role of the teacher has changed considerably in recent decades as a result of changes of the school as an institution and changes in society as a whole. Apart from sociological considerations, psychological research and theories of learning as well as general political trends such as democratisation have also shaped the idea of what an "ideal teacher" should be like. The image of the "strict", authoritarian teacher of the 19th and early 20th centuries has given way to a more democratic one. Ernst Bloch's idea of the "contemporaneity of the non-contemporaneous" is relevant here because concepts from different historical periods are in force at the same time. Some of them are coming to the fore while others recede into the background, depending on the prevalent patterns in society.

[85] The members of the working group were: Heinz Strotzka (A), Elka Drosneva (BG), Carmen Sancez Ruiz (E), Robert Bartha (H), Ludmila Alexashkina (RF) and Yvonne Sinclair (UK). We would like to thank all contributors to this text very warmly for their active participation in the discussions and for their readiness to answer our questions.

Learning from role models is of utmost importance in the teaching profession. Students at the beginning of their studies in ITT are likely to have chosen this profession because, among other reasons, one of their own teachers greatly impressed them. This "model" history teacher who taught the student at school will have a considerable influence on his/her performance. However, it is often the teacher's personality rather than his/her methodical qualities which had such an impact on the former pupil. To copy a personality is almost impossible and, therefore, the model was chosen for the wrong reason.

2. The professional profile

There has always been a differentiation between "professional" and "non-professional" ways of dealing with the past. Most historians of the 19th and 20th centuries regarded written history as the professional method. But since "oral history" is an important historical source in its own right, the oral interpretation of the past has now regained its position as a vital part of historical tradition – with due attention being paid to the need for professionalism in this new narrative approach.

There is no universal "formula" laying down a specific way to write history, since – like all human activities – writing history is subject to constant change and development. History teachers still largely rely on oral ways of presenting the past even when other media are widely introduced in the classroom.

Modern historians are considered professionals who have been trained to study the past. They are expected to be competent in dealing with information: ways to obtain it as well as methods of studying and using it to reconstruct the past. They are able to read and understand all kinds of different sources, and to understand the researched society, time, space, and activity. This enables them to place new information (be it obtained from scientific literature, media, oral history, or other sources) into the right context. Modern historians are also supposed to be well acquainted with the history of their science because knowledge of the past is one of the most ancient sciences of mankind. They are fully aware both of their responsibility to reconstruct a picture of the past that is as realistic as possible and of the importance of explaining the past to present and future generations in order to help them find their own historical identity and accept the history of the "other(s)" by reflecting upon their own past.

The professional profile of history teachers is somewhat different. Like all teachers at the beginning of the 21st century, history teachers are expected to be competent in many spheres of school life: They should be good at managing educational processes in the classroom as well as in the school as a whole. They should have the relevant communication skills necessary for the professional contact with pupils, parents, colleagues, authorities, and other partners. They are supposed to be well informed about the relevant legislation and to know how to use and improve it while paying due respect to it. Society today also greatly relies on teachers' competencies to assess and foster the interests and personalities of their pupils. History teachers are expected to promote historical thinking and to encourage acceptance of "the other" in their pupils and to provide them with the necessary skills to understand the past, assess the present and evaluate its effects on the future. Last but not least, they are supposed to teach their pupils in such a way as to enable them to take the adequate decision when tackling problems by choosing appropriate values and forms of action.

Today, history teachers are no longer regarded as the only sources of information on the past although they still are the closest source for pupils. They are not expected to just retell and explain the past, but to use an active approach to education and to their subject in order to reconstruct and create a picture of the past together with their pupils. Thus, pupils do not just learn about history, but also get used to hard and serious work, acquiring research skills and developing critical thinking in the process. Besides, this approach also has a positive effect on their competencies regarding both individual and team work.

The competency of history teachers to work with textbooks also includes the ability to choose the suitable book for their pupils, to develop its ideas and to teach pupils how to work with it. A textbook is a complex channel of information. Therefore, teachers should be able to analyse different kinds of texts, pictures, photos, diagrams, tables, posters, cartoons, maps, etc., and to read the textbook with their pupils' eyes. This "new" way of reading will enable them to choose further materials as well as methods to teach pupils to properly read and use (text)books. Today, adults often complain that children do not read books anymore and that they prefer movies and computers instead. It is true that the children do not read our "books"; however, movies and computer programs are just different channels of information. If a child has never been taught to analyse a historical picture or a table of history statistics and is thus unable to properly use this kind of information, it does not matter whether the information is received through books, CD-ROMs, TV, movies, or any other channel.

3. Different concepts of ITT in different institutions

The amount of time allocated to fostering academic and practical competencies, the relation between them, and the links with schools are determined by the institutional framework of ITT. Universities have traditionally emphasised academic competencies, whereas the promotion of didactical and practical competencies was considered to be of minor importance.[86] This problem cannot simply be solved by allocating a larger share of the available time to fostering practical competencies. Quite often, the content that is taught at university is not in tune with the needs of schools. University historians have their own traditions and objectives that may or may not correspond to the demands of history teaching at school. Colleges of education and pedagogical universities, on the other hand, usually have closer links with schools, but the contents taught there are sometimes too narrowly confined to the needs of schools. This restriction may present a short-term advantage, but it limits the options of choosing topics which are off the "trodden path". In some countries there is a tendency to integrate history with other disciplines (such as political science, economics, sociology, geography), which goes beyond the way history is traditionally taught at university.

The two models in ITT, the concurrent and the consecutive model, also differ in their approach to fostering academic and practical competencies. The *concurrent* model combines the two aspects, providing both forms of training more or less simultaneously. Students get to know both "worlds" and experience the interrelation between academic and practical training; on the other hand, they may find it hard to meet demands because they still lack the cognitive basis necessary for teaching. The classical *consecutive* model, as practised in England, first and foremost provides

[86] See results of the comparison in part I.

students with academic qualifications and does not prepare them for teaching. A period of intensive training to develop the necessary teaching skills follows upon completion of academic studies. The consecutive model may give students the feeling that teaching is a world of its own and that it is about applying their academic knowledge to their pupils.

4. The training of academic competencies

Specialisation, as a result of and based on meticulous research, is the main trend in all sciences, including history. While it is certainly interesting for students to get a deeper insight into some areas of highly specialised research, they also need a broad survey of historical developments in politics, society, economic affairs and culture. However, ITT institutions hardly ever offer such surveys. The Humboldtian ideal of learning by doing research in seminars certainly is a lofty aim, but it is difficult to put into practice in everyday classroom work. Working with sources in class became rather fashionable in the seventies, but a certain disillusionment has set in since then. Pupils often find "doing" sources a rather tedious occupation because the "strange" language and the rather roundabout way of presenting events are difficult for them to understand. Yet teachers should be familiar with different techniques of handling sources and using them in the classroom. Sources have a special function in class: They are not the raw material for research, but they offer pupils the chance to learn methods of critical historical interpretation and, thus, to directly experience how historians arrive at their conclusions. The choice of sources requires a profound knowledge both of the respective material and of pupils' abilities and predilections. A model-based approach will usually suffice to equip students with the necessary competencies.

Writing seminar papers or essays is considered one of the pillars of sound academic training because it familiarises students with the available literature and enables them to make a synthesis of existing research on a specific topic. The more practice students get in writing such papers, the better they will be able to cope with the demands of a thesis at the end of their studies.

Colleges of education usually allocate a smaller share of time to fostering academic competencies, and the great amount of lessons per week makes it almost impossible to do extra work at home. Thus, the thesis may be the first long paper these students ever have to write, which may present them with enormous difficulties because they encounter the typical beginners’ problems only at a rather late stage and with a rather long paper.

The way how academic competencies are acquired is highly relevant for teachers’ future work. If attending lectures and working on one's own are the main means of instruction, it will hardly be possible to introduce different methods in class later on. Many students, particularly those at colleges of education, make the frustrating experience that group work and project work are highly recommended by the teaching staff, but that they do not get the personal experience necessary to convince them of the specific qualities of these methods.

5. The training of practical competencies

Practical competencies cannot be separated from academic competencies. It is a generally accepted truism that good academic training alone will not make a successful teacher. On the other hand, practical competencies will be of limited use if a teacher does not have a sound theoretical basis. Practical competencies are often reduced to teaching skills: The latter are also an essential professional prerequisite, but they need to be embedded in a wider didactical context.

In English the term "didactics" has not really been accepted and is more often used by non-native speakers. In German-speaking countries "Didaktik" and "Methodik" were two terms with specific meanings: "Didaktik" referred to that field of study which deals with objectives and the selection of contents, and "Methodik" was mainly concerned with methods, media and problems of conveying knowledge. The former was characterised by the questions "what? and "what for?", whereas the latter implied the key question "how?". This distinction was gradually given up in favour of a wider concept of "Didaktik" which includes both theoretical and practical aspects of teaching history.

The more academic the theoretical discussion on "didactics" became, the less fruitful it was considered by many teachers and students. Some of the findings of “didactics” were regarded as an unnecessary detour, and calls for more practical advice, or so-called prescriptions, were voiced. The response was ambiguous: While these views were dismissed as "unscientific" by some, other authors tried to meet this new demand, offering suggestions which – so they claimed – could be put directly into practice. On the whole, this controversy was not very helpful. If specific recommendations for improving teaching practice do not have any theoretical foundation, they will not work. Therefore, an in-depth discussion of such recommendations is of vital importance. Shorter versions may be easier to comprehend at first, but there may also be unexpected pitfalls when putting them into practice.

When they start their teaching career, beginners are usually overwhelmed by the formidable task ahead. As mentioned above, they are likely to copy some "model" from their own past, more or less consciously, in a kind of real-life role playing. The teacher’s role has undergone profound changes in recent years. Pupils have certain expectations as to what a teacher should be like. The psychological dimension and the fact that teaching often is a struggle for recognition and power should also be borne in mind. Their position gives teachers a certain basic authority, but it is up to their personal initiative to handle and use this authority.

Students need to acquire social and communicative skills. Here, opportunities for fostering academic and practical competencies overlap because these skills should be practised in various contexts. Discussions in seminars at university or colleges of education are certainly different from those at school, but they do have certain features in common. People who do not actively participate in discussions will certainly have more problems in arranging discussions later on. On the other hand, these people may know more about the barriers in a communicative process and this will enable them to develop strategies for overcoming these difficulties. Discussions in class require openness towards positive conditions for communication which can be influenced by the teacher.

It is sometimes maintained that pupils first have to be supplied with information before they are able to take part in a discussion. Although this argument seems to be commonsensical, it is often the very reason why a discussion does not take off. If pupils are confronted with a seemingly objective version of an event, they will not feel obliged to make up their own minds. The simple device of putting forward two contradictory statements on one topic on which the pupils must have some elementary knowledge will lead to better results.

A class consists of individuals whom the teacher knows nothing about at first. Sometimes it may be preferable not to know the pupils' background to avoid any bias on the teacher's part. On the other hand, problems will be easier to solve if teachers are familiar with their pupils' social background. The foundation for this social awareness has to be laid in the training for the teaching profession.

Planning a lesson involves so many activities that beginners will find themselves at a loss. One of the very first things students have to learn is that merely supplying pupils with verbal information will not do. The bare contents of a lesson can be communicated in a few minutes, but pupils cannot be expected to grasp all this information at once. Students' awareness of these problems increases when teaching practice is linked with didactical and academic training. If training courses remain isolated, young teachers will take longer to give up their unrealistic expectations regarding both their pupils and their own ability to direct the learning process.

Students should have the chance to practise all kinds of methods like lectures, dialogues, group work, project work, role play, discussions, etc. They also have to find a balance between the respective contents and methods and their pupils' abilities. The choice of method should not be an arbitrary one, disregarding crucial factors, but has to be based on well-founded arguments. Organising a learning process is more demanding, in many ways, than simply passing on knowledge. The scope of action is wider, and the needs of individual pupils have to be taken into account.

Teaching always involves personal interaction, as the teacher lays down the criteria for assessing the pupils' performance. The textbook as a printed material, on the other hand, commands a certain degree of authority because "books do not lie", as many still believe. In case of conflicting views it is very likely that the textbook will be considered more reliable.

Modern history teaching will make full use of the available media including the Internet. One question comes up in connection with all these new media: Can we trust them? This is hard to say. Professional historians have a set of criteria to judge whether a certain piece of information is reliable or not. This is almost impossible for young pupils; thus, the ability to compare and evaluate different kinds of information is of utmost importance. There has always been a discrepancy between the "official" version of history, as taught at university and school, and the "personal" version of any given family. The distinction between professional and non-professional ways of remembering the past is somewhat blurred by the introduction of records of oral history into research and the classroom. What do we do when there are obvious discrepancies? A pupil's grandparent may remember and evaluate a certain event in a way that differs from what is taught at school. Pupils have to accept the

controversial nature of history, though the fact that there is no certainty in history may pose a problem particularly for younger pupils.

It is one of the perplexing insights of experienced trainers that so little ever changes at school. Traditional patterns are hard to alter. All the media and methods presented in ITT can only be applied if students have the chance to get a direct personal experience of what they are worth. Self-reflection plays a central role because it is the precondition for change. It is essential that we think of our trainees as individuals whom we teach and help to develop their own personality, and that we appreciate their intention to become professional historians/teachers. We must not forget our own personalities and competencies, either, so that we are able to guide trainees, help them realise their dreams and accept them as our present and future partners.

6. Examples from the countries represented in the project

Standards and curricula also stipulate the promotion of didactical and practical competencies, emphasising either quantitative or qualitative aspects. These are subject to further development by the individual institutions concerned. This part of training is very much the same in most of the thirteen countries in the sense that its main elements are general and subject didactics, pedagogy, psychology, new technologies and practical training at school. Of course, there are certain variations:

As additional issues, for example, Tartu University (EE) also offers courses on the philosophy, sociology and policy of education, the general history of schooling, and school organisation. At Lusiada University, Lisbon (P), curriculum development is one of the topics proposed for discussion during studies. Other similarities are that a range of options is usually offered and that a report or thesis on history teaching at school is required (A, BG, H, N, P).

There is a variety of forms concerning general and subject didactics. Sofia University (BG) offers two courses: "Didactics of History" deals with the coexistence of different forms of historical knowledge in society. Initiated as a result of a seminar in Varna established in 1982 by Sofia University and the local teacher training institute, it is devoted to problems of historical consciousness and brings together researchers from all over Europe as well as many Bulgarian teachers. The second course, "Methodology of History", deals with school teaching.

Curricula in the thirteen countries also differ in the time allocated to the various disciplines and competencies. There are at least two stages of teaching at school. The focus in the first one is usually on observing and commenting lessons, while the second (or second and third) stage emphasises the active role of trainees in the process of education. Trainees in most cases of practical training work together with a university and an advisory teacher, their colleagues and their new partners, the pupils. The number of lessons trainees have to hold differs greatly, even when history is their single subject, and is mainly determined by the available funds, the relationships between higher and secondary schools and, most of all, the respective ITT model.

Some 10-15% of the time – including post-graduate training – is devoted to teaching competencies. The balance between theory and practice differs greatly: from almost no time to more than a third being allocated to practice, depending on the training institution and the type of school students are trained for. ITT mostly takes place at

secondary schools which enjoy a good or even very good reputation. Most of the students also come from well-reputed schools so that, when they find a job, they are often faced with a reality quite different from what they know and have been trained for. Institutions are afraid trainees might give up if they are confronted with life at less well-reputed schools. Then again, practice at school is much easier and cheaper to organise, and tutors are much easier to find, in towns with teacher training institutions.

Students at Vienna University (A) start their practical training by observing a school class before teaching that class themselves. At Sofia University (BG) an experiment was carried out with two groups of students in 1997-99: Eight schools in the Sofia region were visited and twelve lessons on different topics were held by different teachers. The classes were from both levels of secondary school, including a combined class in one of the villages. The lessons were commented on by pupils and students and were then discussed together with the teachers and headmasters and the regional officer of history education. All those involved were highly impressed and agreed that this experiment should be turned into regular practice.

All the countries under review have a long-standing tradition in teacher training so that we are likely to come up with a long list of good examples in all stages of ITT regarding the approach to fostering academic and practical competencies.

As a rule, fostering academic competencies is the duty of historians. Practice at school is always guided by an advisory teacher whose subject is history. Historians are also responsible for promoting competencies in special didactics. The number of trainees per group varies from country to country and from institution to institution and also depends on the type of practical work involved.

Students at Tirana University (AL) have their first practical training in Tirana. The second stage of practice then takes place in their native towns, minimising the financial problems involved for students as well as for the institutions concerned. Students receive a recommendation by the Ministry of Education. Albania can rely on good tutors for a particular reason: Teachers have to pass INSET after every five years of teaching. The necessary funds are supplied by the government.

At Vienna University (A), the Didactics Seminars I and II were of special interest to us. Seminar I includes researching a historical topic, planning lessons about it for a specific group of pupils, holding these lessons and debriefing with the advisory teacher afterwards. This is followed by evaluation and discussion in the seminar plenary and, finally, by the production of a written report. This seminar also covers curricula, teaching methods, and the use of textbooks and media. Seminar II deals with another historical topic, consolidating the skills acquired in seminar I and developing academic and didactical competencies. It focuses on reflection upon the student's own role as a teacher and on complex methods such as team-teaching, process-orientated education and interdisciplinary education as well as on new media and the Internet. Besides, the seminar also addresses problems like school autonomy or school organisation. The teacher trainers – a historian, a didactician and a school teacher – always work as a team with their groups of four or five trainees.

There are three stages of practice in Bulgaria. Depending on the university they take place either at the same time as, or after, theoretical training. In the first stage, students sit in on classes as mere observers. Working in groups of up to twelve

people, the students are guided by an advisory teacher and a university historian who is an expert in ITT. Students complete this first stage, which takes about 45 hours in total, by holding their first lesson. The second stage is devoted exclusively to monitoring, working with advisory teachers at either the same or another school. A good example of ITT at Sofia University shows how this time can be used in a better way. A group of students visits different schools and teachers, who specialise in particular types of lessons and subjects, two or three times each. Thus, trainees are familiarised with different schools, teachers, and methods and get an insight into actual school reality. The third stage of practice takes 75 hours and is mainly devoted to holding lessons. Students work in groups of up to five people, each holding about 20 lessons at lower and upper, or only at upper, secondary school, either at a school where they have already undergone practical training or at a new school. Advisory teachers and trainees prefer to hold some lessons without a university or advisory teacher so that trainees can experience a new situation where all the responsibility is on them. In the final exam at the end of this last stage, students have to hold a lesson in front of a state commission that includes a historian, the university trainer and the advisory teacher. In all stages of practical training, lessons are discussed by the group of trainees and the lecturers and advisory teachers involved both during the planning phase and after they have been held.

In the Czech Republic, students who study a foreign language often choose history as a minor. Their training focuses on the history of the area where that foreign language is spoken. In contrast to many other countries, teachers also enjoy a very good reputation and have a high social status. This may be attributed to factors such as the excellent results achieved by pupils and students in international competitions, and the restructuring of schools which do not meet educational standards.

In Estonia, the curriculum for ITT proposes various means to develop good competencies. Extracurricular work in history is compulsory. Trainees may choose from options such as the history of history teaching, historical country studies, the fundamentals of rhetoric, etc. Since the reform which incorporated the fifth and sixth grades into general primary school education, trainees at the pedagogical universities of Tallinn have been encouraged to choose history as a minor to equip them with better competencies in teaching history.

France is perhaps the only one among the surveyed countries where trainees can be sure of finding a job within a year after graduation. This is due to the way training is organised and to government politics concerning the teaching profession. Applicants, who must have a BA at least, undergo two years of training. In the first year they practise at school. Vacancies for the second year are strictly limited by the government: Their number depends on the number of vacancies for teachers in the following school year. Trainees have to pass a special exam in order to continue their training. Most of the time during the second year is spent at school. What is interesting to note is that the competencies to be fostered include the use of gestures and the tone of voice, knowledge of the discipline, the ability to create a teaching and learning situation, the use of the classroom space, and the communication with families and external partners.

The final exam in Hungary is devoted to the trainees' main subjects. They have to write an MA thesis and defend it in front of a commission. Trainees have to pass all courses and acquire a certain teaching experience in order to obtain teacher qualification. All three types of competency are fostered both at university and at

school to enable trainees to develop pupils' general and subject competencies. The latter are prescribed by national standards and curricula, but individual schools and local authorities enjoy wide-ranging autonomy in implementing these prescriptions.

One of the most interesting innovations in the Netherlands is the recording of lessons held by trainees. Thus, lessons may be discussed much more objectively afterwards when the beginner's nervousness that usually accompanies trainees' lessons has subsided. Besides, the Dutch History Association is very active in researching the problems of school teaching and exerts a great influence on history education at all levels and stages, including ITT.

The University of Trondheim, Norway, has introduced a number of special courses to meet the new challenges and provide trainees with various perspectives on why we teach and study history. These courses also deal with the legitimisation of the field of study, students' questions and teachers' answers, the selection of topics, and arguments to justify these choices, and they address current insights into how pupils and students learn history and how these insights may be used in the process of training and teaching. Encouraging critical thinking and promoting academic methods in history education at school are other important aspects. Courses are guided by the Institute of History; further activities are the responsibility of the Department of Teacher Education.

Trainees at Lusiada University, Portugal have to take two seminars. The first one is devoted to educational research, providing trainees with the skills to work on an investigative project and with an insight into the problems and the reality of school-life. The second seminar deals with school management and is considered useful especially if the future teacher will once be in charge of running a school. Besides, the seminar helps trainees to understand the school as an organisational structure, familiarising them with everyday school life and with the specific functions of the school as an institution. Fourth-year trainees may sit in on the lessons of their fifth-year colleagues at school and observe and assist them in the entire teaching process. Thus, they already get a certain experience of school reality. Fifth-year students serve a full year of teaching, for which they receive a remuneration. In the Monday meetings, trainees discuss and share their difficulties and achievements with fellow trainees and school and university teachers. These meetings also contribute to developing the necessary competencies.

Theoretical training in Russia takes place in four courses in general didactics: history of pedagogy (national and global), general didactics, general psychology, and pedagogical psychology. Special didactics also comprises four courses: didactics of history, teaching methods and organisation of the learning process, pupils' activities, and the control and evaluation of pupils' performance.

In Spain, curricula prescribe two kinds of courses: obligatory and optional ones. Obligatory courses at the University of Alcala de Henares are devoted to the pupil as an element in the process of teaching/learning, the organisation of the learning process in class, and problems of diversity. They also address aspects and features of the curriculum and of secondary school. Theoretical training at the University of Madrid takes up two thirds of the time. All trainees take the same courses on education and pedagogy, the psychology of learning and development, innovations and pedagogical work in the classroom, educational technologies, planning and evaluation at school, and teacher activities. The other theoretical courses depend on

the subjects chosen by the students. There are eight options, one of them being geography and history.

Partnerships like in the United Kingdom are a possible model for solving the problem of institutional links and the trainees' status there. As regards subject teaching competencies, the Didsbury School of Education at Manchester Metropolitan University emphasises a range of aspects. Trainees need to acquire an understanding of the aims of teaching and learning history and of the subject's place in the curriculum. Furthermore, special attention is paid to fostering the ability to identify potential learning problems and choose the proper strategies to deal with them, taking into account the pupil's individuality. Students also need to acquire techniques to identify pupils with a special interest in history and to develop their abilities. Besides, they are familiarised with methods of teaching local history and fieldwork as a means of raising pupils' interest. Other aspects include the role of history studies in the promotion of equal opportunities across the curriculum and in pupils' personal, spiritual, moral, social, and cultural development, and the knowledge of different teaching styles for different levels and types of school.

7. Perspectives

Today, there are plenty of realities and plenty of ideas of what to do and how to do it. What we have to do to ensure an effective initial teacher training, first of all, is to clarify what kind of history teacher we need. This means that we have to continue working on a professional teacher profile and job description, both of which should also include the competencies necessary in all stages of teacher development. In-depth knowledge of the current situation will enable us to supply the authorities with detailed information about the achievements and problems in the relation between teachers and the state and between teachers and society. We will also be able to propose the changes necessary to create a positive climate for the teaching profession.

As historians and educationalists, we are in a somewhat privileged position because every individual has a right to education and to the past: Our subject and our profession affect everybody. This is an advantage that we should use to explain to governments and to society that – and why – they should pay more attention to history and education.

As regards the modern history teacher that we want, we will start the further discussion on ITT from the end. This means that we will start out with a well-founded idea of the results we want to reach. This will allow us to concentrate on the question that is always most difficult to answer: How do we achieve these aims?

The shortest and most general answer is: by making initial teacher training more attractive. "Attractive", here, means both amusing and effective. There are literally thousands of interesting approaches and good examples. What is crucial is that all of us need to have the sincere desire to get to know them and to develop and improve them. If modern history teacher trainers say that they will be happy if their students become better than them, this is not just an empty phrase or mere politeness – it is an expression of their confidence in their ability to really make this happen.

Alois Ecker, Maria Luisa de Bivar Black

Training the trainers

Although awareness of the specific problems regarding the training of teacher trainers has increased over the last decade, there is still no coherent structure, no standardised discussion about objectives, trainers' professional profile or the contents of curricula, and no clearly defined organisation of the training of teacher trainers – neither in any single country nor as a common European standard. Thus, it might be argued that the training of trainers currently represents the biggest deficit in teacher training. This description of the general situation in teacher training also holds true for the training of history teacher trainers.

Nevertheless we have noted a tendency to pay more attention to these deficits not only at teacher training institutions themselves, but also on the part of universities and national ministries. Therefore, we feel optimistic that more advanced forms of trainer training will soon play a bigger role. What is needed is reflective, integrated, dynamic and complex forms of training, enabling trainers to constantly develop their teaching and training qualifications, to improve their didactic competencies and to acquire the skills they need for the training of history teachers in the 21st century.

Introduction:
The importance of developing a level of meta-reflection on the training system

As explained above, the training of trainers forms the third level of action, reflection and theoretical description with regard to problems in history teaching.

In this case, the clients (or learners) are not pupils at school or students at university or college, but adult trainers (teachers) at universities, pedagogical universities or other teacher training institutes.

What we deal with at this level of training, therefore, is post-graduate courses, in-service training seminars, 'train the trainer' models or similar concepts of adult education. – Courses may be provided either through internal or external training structures.

The most adequate theoretical descriptions for this level of reflection can be found in the concepts of 'life long learning'[87] or – as far as the problem of organisational development is concerned – 'the learning organisation'.[88] The Vienna group has contributed a special programme of 'process-oriented didactics for university teachers', which will be described later on, to this field.[89]

Unlike the first level (history teaching at school) and the second level (initial teacher training), this third level of action, reflection and theoretical description only has a

[87] OECD (1996) *Life-long learning for all*; European Commission (1995) *Teaching and Learning. Towards the Learning Society*; EURYDICE (2000) *Lifelong Learning.*

[88] Argyris, Chris (1992) *On Organisational Learning*; Argyris, Chris and Schön, Donald (1996) *Organisational Learning II*; Senge, Peter (1990) *The Art & Practice of the Learning Organisation*, pp. 181-204.

[89] Ecker, Alois (1994a) *Process-oriented methods in the teaching of history.*

very short history. The training of trainers has become an issue only recently, when concepts of meta-reflection on the teaching process[90] and concepts of life-long-learning[91] were beginning to emerge.

Until the late 1990s, the training of trainers was not regarded as a special field of reflection. The model of an experienced elder (university) teacher to act as the mentor of young trainees was common all over Europe as the principal approach to equip teacher trainers with the right teaching skills. The learning model that formed the basis of this way of training had emerged from the traditional system of the training of craftsmen. For centuries, teaching had been regarded as a form of craft where an experienced elder man (master) passed on his/her knowledge and skills to a young disciple (apprentice). This structure of apprenticeship also remained the dominant model of introducing young teachers into European universities and adjusting them to this environment: the 'assistant' started his/her teaching career under the supervision of 'his/her' professor. Through this very close relationship s/he not only got to know the specific forms of teaching the subject, e.g. history, but also internalised the institutionalised strategies of teaching at university through this particular way of 'training'. Owing to this specific form of induction, teaching at university is not a very reflective or systemised profession.[92]

As far as the education of university teachers is concerned, it sometimes seems as if things have not changed that much since the first universities were founded in Europe: Even today, it is still not uncommon for young assistants to get their induction into teaching without sufficient feedback and adequate reflection on the teaching experience. This problem was also addressed by Maurice Galton in 1994: "Each successive generation of teachers therefore acquired, through this apprenticeship, the habits and methods of their predecessors, thus producing a strong element of 'conservatism' into the profession."[93]

The social and cultural dynamics in force since the beginning of industrialisation has led to new demands regarding the qualification of trainers. But it was not until the 1960s, or even the 1970s, that it came to be widely accepted that experienced teachers also need to develop their competencies constantly and to reflect upon their training experiences themselves (!) if they want to remain up-to-date regarding both the contents and the methodologies they impart to teacher trainees. Until then, the training of trainers had not been of any special interest in theoretical and institutional discussions.

This may be regarded as something of a paradox in an institution like university, which deals with education, learning and (professional) training in so many ways. Still, we have to accept the fact that a great number of universities in Europe is much more oriented towards investigation and research than towards learning and teaching. 'Didactics' (= 'the art of teaching') in general had for a long time been considered a matter of (primary and secondary) school, but not a point of special interest in higher education. It is obvious that this kind of attitude would also attribute

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[90] Luhmann, Niklas and Schorr, Klaus E. (1982) *Reflexionsprobleme im Erziehungssystem*.

[91] EURYDICE (2000) *Lifelong Learning*; see also annotation 1, and: Kegan, R. (1982) *The Evolving Self.*

[92] De Bolt, G.P. (ed.) (1992) *Teacher Induction and Mentoring*; McCabe J.J.C. (1979) *Some implications of induction for ITT*; Prosser, Michael and Trigwell, Keith (1999) *Understanding learning and teaching*; Ramsden, P. (1992) *Learning to teach in higher education*; Wilson, J. D. (ed.) (1990b) *The Selection and Induction of Staff for Initial Teacher Training*.

[93] Galton, Maurice (1994) *Teacher Training in Europe: A Research Agenda*. In: Galton/Moon, Handbook, p.181.

more prestige to those who were working in research than to those who were ‘only’ teaching.

The relationship between university teachers and schoolteachers is widely experienced as hierarchical through its history; horizontal co-operation is seriously under-developed or is made difficult by mutual allegations of deficits and conflicts. The universities tend to put the blame for (too many) teaching problems on the schools.[94] This is mirrored in the relatively low status of the "didactics people" at university departments as well as by the chronic underexposure of didactic problems within the organisation of the university itself.

At school, anything bearing the label "scientific" or "academic" is often readily accepted with uncritical acclaim. On the other hand, we also have the complementary position of strong scepticism, even hostility vis-à-vis academic work, which is often reduced to an "only we know what it really means to teach" attitude. On the bureaucratic-administrative level, this kind of institutional defence mechanism[95] is embodied in the organisational and financial separation between the primary/secondary and the tertiary sectors, and in the splitting of educationally relevant decisions between federal and regional governments, etc. These long-standing barriers between the two institutions "school" and "university" currently represent the most serious obstacle on the way towards modernising education and training future teachers.

University-based teacher trainers have paid too little attention to these barriers so far. In their concern for developing theories and methods to be used in professional or practical training, they have been using traditional structures without critically examining them first. This has given rise to a new dependency relationship between school and university, where the role of teachers is that of mere consumers of new theories or training concepts. At the present stage, there are just a few serious forms of co-operation between school and university (see the article of Christa Donnermair in this volume).

In letting this happen, the didactics of history has neglected a problem which is ubiquitous in today's social sciences: the problem of creating and maintaining an equilibrium and a stable link between theory and practice. In criticising the education of history teachers for its lack of practical concern, therefore, we do not only refer to the lack of opportunities for students to engage in practical classroom work. Our criticism is even more fundamental and addresses the imbalance between theory and practice in academic subjects as much as in general educational and sometimes even didactic subjects (see the article of Elka Drosneva and Heinz Strotzka in this volume).

What has been analysed for the teaching profession[96] in general also applies to the situation of trainers: There is still only little awareness of the need for a permanent and systematic professional training of trainers in institutions of teacher education. Yet the non-existence of such courses also reflects another problem of trainers: In the highly industrialised countries we may assume that, at the beginning of the 21st century, a professional group which has organised the public discussion and representation of its professional interests is recognised in society. It should then be

[94] Ecker, Alois (1994b) *Process-oriented methods in the teaching of history*.
[95] Mentzos, Stavros (1976) *Interpersonale und institutionalisierte Abwehr*.
[96] Bölling, Rainer (1983) *Sozialgeschichte der deutschen Lehrer*.

possible to develop specific forms of professional training and in-service training without substantial efforts from individuals.

Since the professional training of trainers seems to be a subject which does not yet have sufficient support in society, the question arises whether the trainers of today are recognised as such and whether they exist as an organised group of professionals.

Does the profession of history teacher trainers exist as such?

When we discuss the question of training the trainers of history teachers, it seems clear that we are looking at teacher trainers as specific professionals within the teaching profession.

A teaching profession in general is characterised by

- knowledge and skills acquired through long periods of training in higher education or similar training courses;
- autonomy and control in professional decision making based upon knowledge, standards and peer review;
- an internalised code of ethics to guide activities;
- a colleague oriented reference group.[97]

Our first question in this context must therefore be whether we can identify such a group of professionals among the teacher trainers. Let us see whether we can describe such a group:

Who are the teacher trainers?

If we take the first three characteristics described above and apply them to those persons who are involved in the initial training of 'history teacher trainees' we find that there is not just one group of teacher trainers. At the moment, we distinguish between at least four different groups of trainers:

1. academic historians who hold general courses on history and introduce students into the knowledge and the methodology of history as part of the humanities,
2. didacticians and educationalists or pedagogues who teach general or special didactics (subject-related didactics / "Fachdidaktik") for trainees,
3. advisory teachers, supervisors, mentors, etc. who accompany, advise and monitor the practical training of students, and
4. psychologists, sociologists, jurists, ethnologists, economists, etc. who impart additional knowledge and skills to the teacher trainees.

The answers to the general questionnaire showed the same results for almost all the countries involved. In some countries, however, the two groups of teacher trainers present at university are either only historians (CZ, E, RF, UK) and occasionally also pedagogues/educationalists (CZ, RF, UK).

It is evident that each of these groups also has one or several colleague-oriented reference groups. But all these reference groups are rarely defined by the profile of a teacher trainer. Historians as well as members of group four (psychologists, sociologists, etc.) have reference groups of researchers or scientists, of archivists, or even journalists and lawyers, but not of teacher trainers. – Didacticians, obviously,

[97] Definition by Weiss, Janet A. (1989) *Theories of Control in Organisation,* p. 2.

are more likely to define themselves as teacher trainers, but members of group two will probably also prefer to describe themselves as researchers or academics and not as teacher trainers. Advisory teachers, on the other hand, tend to regard themselves as (school) teachers rather than as trainers. – As far as we have found out, even today only very few people at university consider themselves trainers of history teachers. Mostly, they are didacticians or educationalists, but they could, in fact, be from each of the four groups described above.

The role of trainers in the training of history teachers

If we look for qualifications which are common to all four groups, we may find – despite the important general aspect that they are all teachers – more differences than common aspects. The importance of these differences, naturally, results from the institutional context in which the trainers work:

The academic historians of today's universities are highly specialised researchers who know a small field of historical investigation very well, but who do not necessarily possess a very comprehensive general knowledge of history. In the training of history teachers, specialists should also be able to act as generalists: It might be interesting, for example, for pupils in school as well as for teacher trainees to hear about details from the diary of Christopher Colón or the biography of Nicolas II, but in this case the historian as a teacher trainer should be able to relate his/her special knowledge to the political, social, economic or cultural developments of Spanish colonialism, respectively the decline of the Russian Empire, instead of isolating them. With the rise of new information technologies it becomes even more important to teach the trainers to show student teachers how to select the adequate information out of the immense quantity of available historical data.

We also learned that educationalists and pedagogues are often oriented too much towards the academic discourse of their discipline and do not sufficiently relate their theories to the practical work of the (history) teacher at school. This is the case, for example, with the development of history didactics in Germany, where there is a highly elaborate discourse on the didactics of history, developed by a group of academics since the 1970s, but this discourse has very little impact on teacher training in practice. – A didactician of history should be able to combine two fields: historical knowledge and methodological as well as socio-psychological skills. The didactician should be able to plan and organise training settings which enable students to establish connections between thematically relevant information and the methodical or pedagogical requirements of a concrete learning environment. Didacticians should also be able to organise training settings which allow students to widen their social, communicative and reflective competencies, i.e., to reflect upon their teaching experience in classroom and to relate practical experience to theoretical concepts.

Advisory teachers and mentors normally act as links between the field of historians and didacticians – academic reflection – and the field of the practical teaching of history in the classroom. They are expected to possess broad classroom experience, but more importantly still, they should be able to reflect upon the teaching experience and to provide teacher trainees with certain categories that enable them to observe the learning process, to reflect upon it systematically and to discuss the experiences of practical work. Therefore, it is absolutely indispensable for advisory teachers to have a highly developed sense of empathy so that they may clearly distinguish between their personal (subjective) observations and the observations and

experiences which the trainees are able to describe. They should be able to guide students towards a more complex perception of the learning and teaching process.

Psychologists, sociologists, jurists, ethnologists, etc. are expected to provide trainees with the information and theoretical background they need for planning, organising and directing the complex learning process of 'history teaching in the classroom'. It is evident that they should be able to develop their theories and information in close relation to their practical experience in classroom teaching, so that this information may be used by the trainees to develop practical skills.

What we have discussed here are just a few elements which could be identified as part of the professional profile of each of the four groups. This is to underline that interdisciplinary co-operation between the four groups would greatly facilitate training work. But, as we know already from part one, this is rarely the case in teacher training.

This leads us to the discussion we had in the working groups at the seminars in Vienna and Prague: The working group on our subject consisted of representatives from Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia and Portugal.[98]

As regards the main characteristics of teacher trainers, we found that:

- Teacher trainers begin their job at an average age of 30 to 35. They usually train students until retirement.
- Not all trainers have experience as teachers in secondary school.
- There is no coherent professional profile for trainers of history teachers.
- Vacancies for trainers are filled according to university criteria and regulations.
- The predominant (and almost only) form of closer interdisciplinary co-operation is between university trainers and school mentors/tutors.
- Governments do not control initial teacher trainers directly, as this would interfere with university autonomy; trainers work in relative autonomy, even within university.
- There are no teacher trainer associations in the four countries. We learned about only one European Teacher Trainers Association, the ATEE (Association for Teacher Education in Europe).[99] The ATEE has no specific branch for trainers of history teachers, but members of the Association are also involved in projects related to history teaching.[100]

The answers to the questions as well as the discussions in our working group clearly showed that the issue of training the trainers was a sensitive one. We got the impression that the question of the training of trainers is still not being discussed in a broader and differentiated context. During the discussions in plenary we heard that even in countries where ITT was very much centralised and where there was rigorous and ongoing monitoring, evaluation, inspection and assessment of ITT against national criteria i.e. in the United Kingdom and in France, there was very little systematic or formalised training for trainers.[101]

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[98] The authors worked together with Marie Homerova (CZ) and Anu Raudsepp (EE). We would like to thank both of them very much for their contributions.

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[100] For more information see the ATEE homepage: http://www.atee.org

[101] Sinclair, Yvonne, report of working group two at the seminar in Prague.

If we connect what we have described as the general characteristics of a profession to the situation of different groups of teacher trainers for history teachers, the following picture emerges:

1. Teacher trainers have acquired knowledge through long periods of training in higher education, and they possess knowledge and skills which are linked with their specific occupation. These competencies – which we refer to as didactic competencies – are not recognised as a coherent and formal body.
2. Teacher trainers enjoy a different degree of autonomy and control in professional decision-making.
3. In most countries there is no 'colleague-oriented group'.
4. Teacher trainers do not have a specific career. Their growing responsibilities and recognition are linked to their university careers or to their teaching career at secondary school.

This is why we have the impression that, for the time being, the work of teacher trainers is seen rather as an occupation within the teaching profession or the researcher's mission. Occupations do not inherently possess the attributes associated with professionalism. As an occupation, teacher training is fully recognised, but not as a profession.

Teaching is professional work. The work teachers do is predominantly intellectual, requires the consistent application of judgement and cannot be standardised or made routine. The profession requires prolonged preparation through education.

The work of teacher trainers is similar in its professional attitude, but its organisation is not developed as such.

Objectives for a general professional profile for the teacher trainers of history teachers

It is characteristic for the general situation that no clear and precise idea of the qualities required from a teacher trainer for history teachers has yet been developed and discussed. In our working group, therefore, we discussed various criteria for such a professional profile and agreed upon following objectives:

As described above, at least four groups of trainers are involved in the education of teacher trainees during their studies. Nevertheless it is our opinion that all these teacher trainers for history teachers should possess

- a broad knowledge about current developments in the academic field of history (new theories, methodologies, epistemology),
- a broad capacity in the field of key competencies such as self-reflection, social and communicative skills, analytic and organisational competencies,
- the ability to work in teams and to co-operate in interdisciplinary training projects/courses,
- a well developed theory of didactics, oriented toward the social system of learning and teaching and
- a wide range of methodological competencies in directing the learning process, planning and design skills, interventions in the social system of the learning group, using all kinds of media including the new information technologies.

This is a very broad professional profile and we are quite aware that no trainer will fully comply with it in the near future. In our opinion, therefore, the ability to work in interdisciplinary teams and to carry out process-oriented work is the most important

competency that a trainer of history teacher trainers should have for the next step of professionalisation in training.

Who could train the teacher trainers?

This leads us to the final questions: Who could train the teacher trainers? And where should the training take place?

It is obvious when talking about the training of trainers that we are aiming at the improvement of trainers qualities. But who should train the trainers?

It is important to note that we do not aim at establishing a new group in the hierarchy of educational workers, i.e., taking teachers in primary education as the lowest level in this hierarchy and now putting the group of trainers on top, above teachers in higher education. Although trainers should possess competencies to reflect also on the situation in higher education, we do not primarily see them from a hierarchical perspective: Generally, we regard the trainers of trainers as a group of experts who put their expertise at the disposal of all groups of teachers and educationalists, whether they work in primary, secondary or tertiary education.

We first asked whether there is a special training for teacher trainers of history and we found out that this is not the case very often:

In general, there is a growing tendency for the improvement of trainers' competencies, and history teachers' trainers everywhere have the opportunity to follow more general training courses: In Bulgaria in-service training for teacher trainers is obligatory at university.

In Albania, Austria, Hungary, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain and the United Kingdom, in-service training for trainers exists, but it is not obligatory. The situation in France seems to be partially the same, although our information on this point is not exact. In the Czech Republic, in Estonia and in the Russian Federation, in-service training for teacher trainers is still at the beginning.

Among the trainers of trainers, we distinguish between two group of trainers, depending on the conditions of their professional life and the place where they work:

- internal trainers
- external trainers

Internal trainers are those who are members of the institution where they train others: Like the staff of a commercial enterprise they may, for example, receive an order from a university's department of personnel development, or from the director of an institute, or even from an autonomous group of teachers within the institution who decide to improve their abilities in a certain field of educational competencies. Internal trainers at university, for example, would be historians who train advisory teachers in historical competencies, psychologists who train historians or pedagogues in special psychological knowledge, or didacticians who are fully or partly engaged to train colleagues in didactical competencies (see examples below).

External trainers are trainers who are not members of the institution where they work. They may be members of another institution, members of a training institute or even free-lancers. In the context of teacher training for history teachers, these may be trainers who advise a team of historians and didacticians in the development of a new curriculum, trainers of organisational skills who work with members of a department of history to improve the co-ordination structures in the professional or practical training of teacher trainees, or supervisors who work with individual trainers or a group of trainers in analysing and evaluating their concrete experience during training lessons.

In the questionnaire we also asked who the trainers of trainers were, and we found out that they partly corresponded with those groups we have identified as trainers of teachers: There are

- historians who also work as trainers of trainers,
- didacticians,
- psychologists, and – as another important group -
- professional trainers.

As we have better data for Albania, Austria, Bulgaria, Hungary and Spain, we may give a more differentiated picture of training activities in these countries:

Historians more often work as internal trainers than as external trainers, only in Austria, Hungary, and recently in Bulgaria, we find them also as external trainers; they train colleagues (AL, A, E, H), didacticians (A, E, H), advisory teachers (BG, E, H), pedagogues (A, E, H), and even psychologists (A, E, H).

Didacticians more often work as external trainers; this is the case for Austria and Hungary. They train colleagues (AL, A, E, H) as well as historians (A, E, H), advisory teachers (AL, A, BG, E, H), pedagogues (A, E, H) or psychologists (A, E, H).

Psychologists work as internal trainers almost exclusively. They also train colleagues (AL, A, E, H), historians (A, E, H), didacticians (A, E, H), advisory teachers (A, BG, E, H) or pedagogues (AL, A, E, H).

In Austria, Hungary and Spain, but also in France, Portugal and the United Kingdom, there are also professional trainers who often work as external trainers. They are employed especially to improve the social, communicative and didactic skills of teacher trainers. They train historians, advisory teachers, didacticians, pedagogues and psychologists.

To conclude with, we would like to describe the situation in Austria to give a better idea of what is being done for the training of trainers:

The training of trainers in Austria

What is done in Austria to improve the above mentioned didactic qualifications of teacher trainers? What are the actual fields of training? In which forms are the trainers improving their qualification?

1. Personnel development at university

The organisational reform of Austrian universities, the implementation of which started in 1993 and is about to be completed, also allows the establishment of courses for the in-service-training of university teachers under the universities' new autonomy. At the University of Vienna, like at most other Austrian universities, a vice-rector is now responsible for personnel development. These rectors establish departments for the in-service-training of university personnel.

This new legal framework has facilitated the administration of a course which was developed in 1993 and which has been held each year since then.[102] It is a course of five seminars for the improvement of didactic qualifications of university teachers. This course includes seminars aiming at

- the improvement and training of self-reflection of university teachers;
- the training of moderating, steering and evaluating the learning process;
- the training of organisational skills;
- the skills of planning and designing courses: including new methods, media and new information technologies and
- the improvement of forms of examinations and ways of handling them.

This course is open to all teachers at the University of Vienna. All courses have an interdisciplinary approach, their theoretical basis includes theories of social systems and social psychology (e.g., group dynamics), and the practical training is based on teamwork and project work. The trainers at these courses are either internal or external trainers.All historians actively engaged in the training of teacher trainees (but also advisory teachers or pedagogues, etc.) are invited to take part in this course. Since 1993, about 15% of the historians have followed this course.

2. Special training for advisory teachers

A co-operation between the University of Vienna and the Pedagogical Institute of Vienna was established in 1996 for the training of special didactic qualifications for advisory teachers working in the practical courses for students of history teaching during university studies (Schulpraktikum, Fachdidaktische Seminare I, II) and in the one year of practical training at secondary school that is obligatory for teacher trainees after graduation from university. This training includes modules for

- the training of self-reflection and process-oriented work,
- the introduction to theories on the special didactics of history and
- the training in counselling and supervising student teachers.

All advisory teachers who work as teacher trainers at university, the Pedagogical Institute of Vienna or as mentors at secondary school have to take these courses. They also have to improve their didactic qualification on a permanent basis, otherwise their contract at university will not be renewed.

[102] Ecker, Alois (1994a) *Hochschuldidaktik als 'Selbstorganisation der Institution'*.

Students are more or less free to choose their advisors during the one year of practical training, so there is a sort of free market among good advisory teachers.

Advisory teachers working at the Department of Social and Economic History will normally have taken courses 1 and 2 or an equivalent of such courses.

3. External training of qualifications

Most advisory teachers, but also the didacticians and pedagogues we are working with, have taken additional training courses, outside their institutions, in group dynamics, group pedagogics, group psychology, group analysis, social psychology, organisational consulting and/or psychoanalysis.

The trainers in this case came from external training institutions, societies of organisational consultancy, group dynamics, psychoanalysis and others.

These additional qualifications help us to reflect on the learning process, in developing and improving our training models, and in developing the theory of didactics of history.

4. Postgraduate university course: 'civic education for teachers'

This course is a four-year postgraduate course, including twelve seminars and practical project work with the aim of training and improving teachers' qualifications for civic education. All seminars are based on interdisciplinary concepts and teamwork. There are seminars for social and economic history, political science, cultural studies, theory of social systems, training of self-reflection, planning and design skills and organisational skills.

The trainers are either university teachers, historians, sociologists, political scientists, trainers for group dynamics and organisational consulting or didacticians.

A degree (M.A.S. – Master of Advanced Studies) is awarded upon completion of the course. Many advisory teachers have graduated from this course.

5. Postgraduate course: organisational consulting for teachers

Over the past decade, secondary schools in Austria have been given more autonomy in organisational, economic and pedagogical affairs. Thus, teachers are now faced with a range of new challenges in organising school work and teaching. There is a three-year, twelve-seminar course to train teachers to become trainers in the organisational development of schools. This is an additional qualification for those who want to work for the improvement of school management, an issue which has attracted growing attention since schools were given more autonomy in organisational, financial and pedagogical concerns.

Most trainers on this course come from commercial institutes which normally train managers of companies and other business enterprises. School managers improve their organisational skills by working with these trainers.

6. Supervision

The training profession is a job where people are constantly involved emotionally in the process of learning and teaching. They cannot always keep a complete distance from the learners, as the latter need their empathy to really understand a certain subject or issue. As the trainers are emotionally involved in the learning process,

there is a permanent risk of being involved also in conflicts with the learners. Therefore, it is necessary to also have a form of personal support and reflection about concrete events on the job: The trainers themselves may have experienced stronger conflicts which made them less flexible to reflect on learners or the learning process. They may recover this flexibility with the help of professional supervision.

Supervisors of teacher trainers are either professional supervisors – there are three associations which offer courses from which to graduate as a supervisor in Austria – or trainers in various fields of communication, as well as psychologists or psychotherapists. They are rarely internal trainers, as the role of a supervisor in itself suggests that s/he is outside of the institution where the clients work.

Institutional support in supervision and coaching is given – although neither sufficiently nor extensively – by departments of personnel development at universities and by pedagogical institutes.

7. Balint groups

A ‘Balint group’ is a form of supervision in group. The Hungarian doctor and psychoanalyst Michael Balint developed this kind of professional supervision for doctors working in hospitals. It was adapted for the teaching profession in the late 1970s. Since then, Balint groups are offered especially to groups of teachers working in the same school, but also to teacher trainers who want to improve their analytic abilities by reflecting on their concrete experience during teacher training. Reflection in these groups of 5 to10 persons follows a clearly defined pattern to analyse and discuss concrete conflicts in training situations. The supervisor should possess at least a basic knowledge of psychoanalysis.

The trainers are either supervisors or psychoanalysts or both.

There are other forms of permanent qualification which we would like to include in the number of training options for teacher trainers:

8. Constructive consulting between colleagues

This form of training takes place without professional external support. Teacher trainers meet outside of regular working hours to discuss concrete problems in their work. The pattern of consulting is clearly defined and follows a certain schedule and system. Unlike in the above-described models, the trainers themselves choose one of their colleagues to act as a supervisor or to chair the discussion.

Despite the problem that blind spots may be overlooked by someone who works in the same institution, constructive consulting has the advantage that the trainers do not have to pay extra money for their supervision. This may be important especially in situations where they do not get institutional support for additional qualification.

9. Permanent reflection on training courses

In our courses of special didactics of history at the University of Vienna, we have introduced a form of systematic reflection on the courses. We usually meet half an hour before a university course to fine-tune it, and after the training course we sit down together to reflect about the learning progress, evaluate the students’ learning process and then plan the next step in the training process.

This reflection is a form of permanent qualification, as all members of the team (normally four to five people) speak about recent experience as well as new elements of theory of didactics they have recently read, etc.

We would like to stress that we have defined this time of planning and evaluating the learning process as obligatory for the lecturers.

10. Days of reflection: evaluation of courses in special didactics

Twice a year the team of trainers at our department (about 25 people, including advisory teachers) come together to reflect upon the experience of the courses. We use this day also to discuss new elements of didactics such as the role of “feed back“ in different training situations.

Joke van der Leeuw-Roord

The impact of a multicultural society on education and on initial training for history teachers in particular

Introduction

A working group on multicultural issues was established at the first seminar, held in Vienna, of the Council of Europe's project 'Initial Training of History Teachers in Thirteen Member States of the Council of Europe'. Five states – Austria, Estonia, The Netherlands, Norway and The Russian Federation – were represented in the group. In addition to the discussions we had during the seminars in Vienna and Prague, we got answers to a questionnaire on our topic from Austria, Estonia, The Netherlands and Norway, which have also been integrated into this report.[103]

Most European societies today are multicultural societies. There has been a large influx of immigrants into Western European countries since World War II. They came from former colonies, as guest workers or as asylum seekers. In Central and Eastern Europe, most countries have traditionally had a heterogeneous, multicultural population.

The history curricula in most European countries include a stipulation that the learning and teaching of history has to reflect the situation and the time people are living in. In the draft sections of the Handbook for History Teachers, Bob Stradling writes: "A generally accepted aim for history education in many European countries is a growing belief that one of the functions of school history is to help young people know and understand the world in which they live and the forces, movements and events which have shaped that world."[104] – A comparable observation was made by John Slater: "Contemporary history seeks to answer the question: 'How have we got to where we are now?'"[105]

Educating people for a multicultural society is, of course, an important aspect of this aim. Young people are part of a global society and have to understand and cope with diversity and to respect others. One of the tasks of history teacher training is to find ways to adjust history education to the needs of multicultural societies. Therefore, history educators have to encourage a debate on how these aims may be realised.

National identity in multicultural societies?

The traditional objective of history teaching – to create a national identity or to build good patriotic citizenship – and the corresponding training of history teacher trainees might interfere with the requirements of multicultural societies:

If we look at the history curricula of quite many countries in Europe in the year 2000, the creation of a national identity or the building of good patriotic citizenship still forms an important objective for the learning and teaching of history in schools. The

[103] We would like to thank the members of the working group in the project as well as the contributors from the Netherlands: Mr Magne Angvik, Mr Fred Burda, Mr Ronald Donk, Ms Mare Oja and Ms Ineke Veldhuis-Meester. Participants' comments from the seminars on initial teacher training in Vienna (1998) and Prague (1999) have also been taken into account.

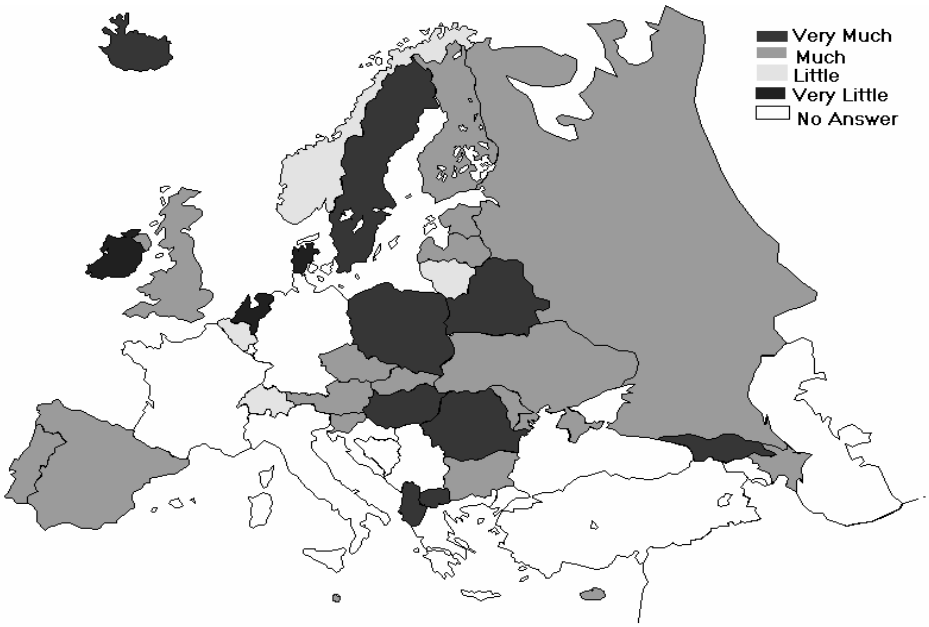
[104] Stradling, Robert (2000a) *Handbook*, p. 1.

[105] Slater, John (1995) *Teaching History in the New Europe*, p. 31.

EUROCLIO questionnaire on national identity and heritage as key issues in the learning and teaching of history, sent out in 1999, confirmed the common focus on this objective. The questions dealt with issues related to key concepts such as national identity, national heroes and heritage in the learning and teaching of history.

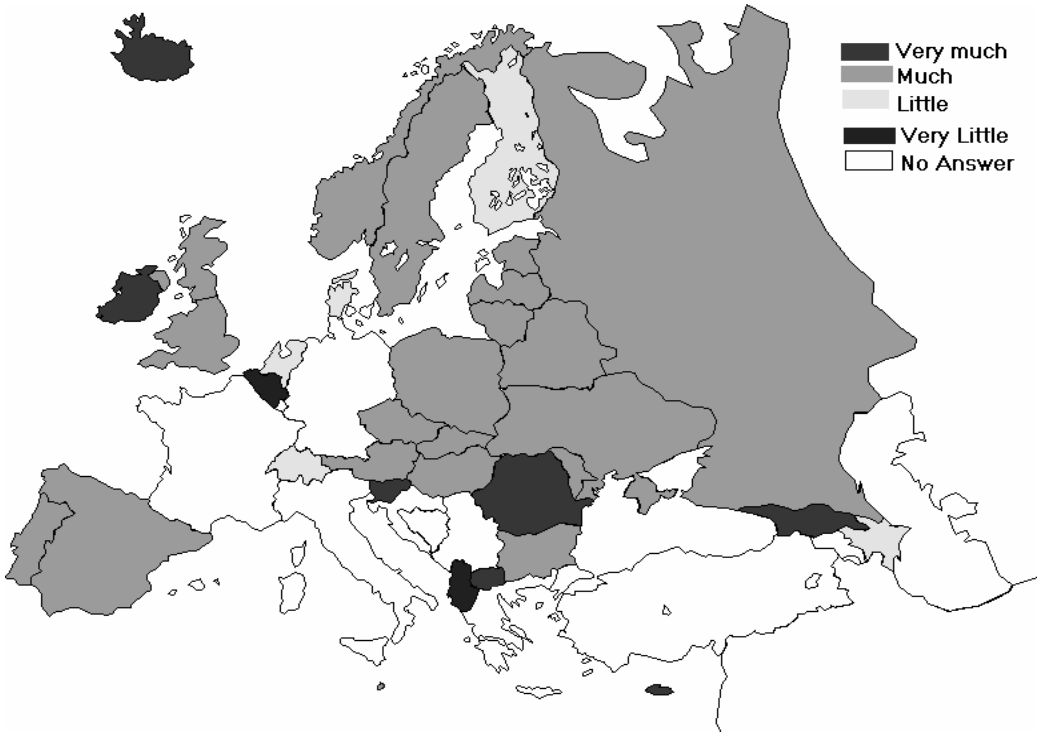
In a clear majority of European countries, replies to the question “How important is the role of building national identity in your curriculum?” were “quite important” or “very important”.

How important is the role of building national identity in your curriculum?



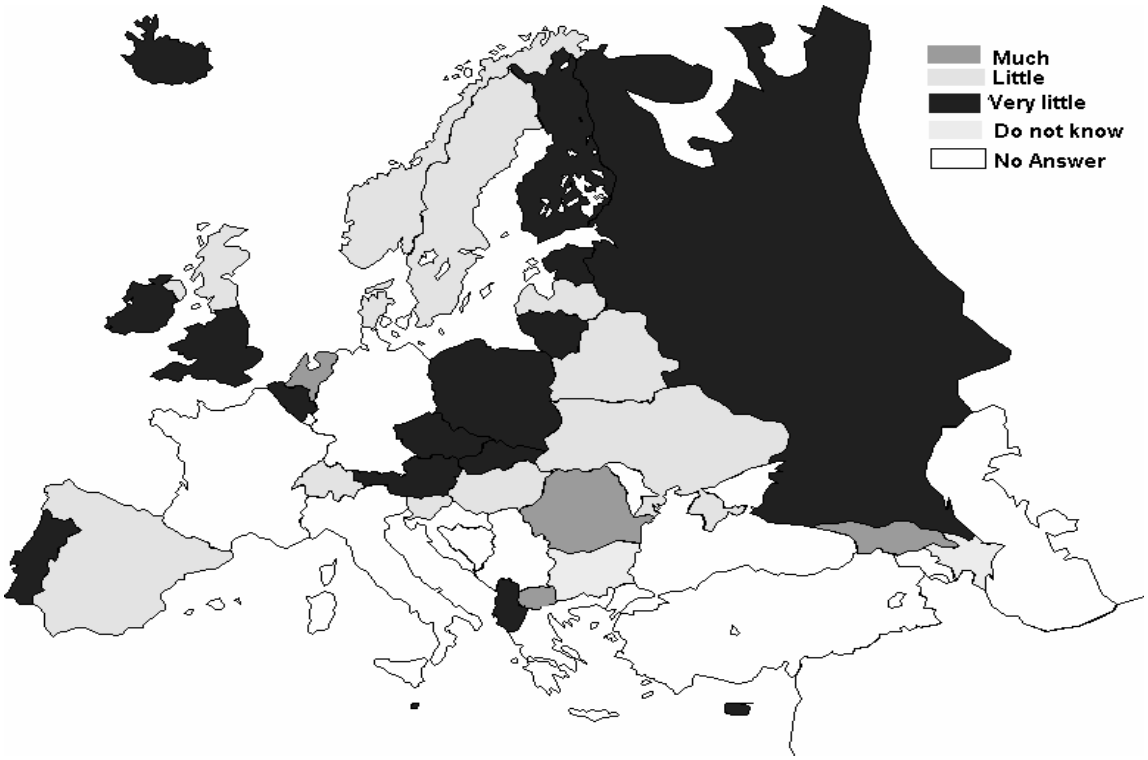
This objective, obviously, leads to a relatively clear focus on national history in European history curricula. This was confirmed by the question “How much space is there for national history?”, the answer to which mostly was “much”.

How much space is there for national history?



The interest of curriculum developers to focus on the multicultural aspects of history and allot space to the history of others in society seems to be rather limited. This was confirmed by the answers to the question: “How much emphasis is there on the history of migrants and minority groups in your history curriculum?” With the exception of four countries, all others answered “little” to “very little”.

How much emphasis is there on the history of migrants and minority groups in your history curriculum?



In view of the results of the EUROCLIO survey, it appears that the plurality of multicultural societies in Europe is not reflected in the learning and teaching of history in Europe. If countries are serious about the aim that “school history is to help young people know and understand the world in which they live and the forces, movements and events which have shaped that world”, then curricula have to be rewritten in most European countries.

Challenges of teaching in multicultural classes

The EUROCLIO questionnaire showed that teaching, and especially the teaching of history, encounters various aspects of a multicultural society in classroom practice. Both the replies to the questionnaire as well as the reports of the individual countries mention a variety of challenges:

The *religious* background was the first issue to be mentioned. In Austria, the Netherlands and Norway, schools are trying to come to terms with issues related to dress codes, worshipping and different dates of religious holidays. In the learning and teaching of history, religion is often related to sensitive and controversial issues and raises questions which lead to open, and often very personal, disputes in the classroom. Teachers are seldom trained to handle these issues.

Gender relations was the second important issue that was brought up. Answers from Austria indicate that it is difficult to integrate boys and girls on an equal basis in class, as there are very basic differences in their roles, especially in some religious groups.

In some cases, the role of girls is strongly influenced by their families and the social pressure in class.

In the Netherlands, the different attitude towards (academic) learning is quite often a gender-related problem. Boys from other cultures often want to express themselves as men and consider earning money more important than (general) education. Therefore, the percentage of girls of non-Dutch origin in secondary and higher education is relatively high. Programmes are being developed to encourage boys to return to school. It was also mentioned occasionally that boys of a non-Dutch origin might have problems to accept female authority, but this was not reported as an urgent issue. Teachers are not always aware of the above-mentioned issues, but they are certainly not trained to handle them.

Furthermore, it was mentioned that the individual immigrant communities or specific minorities in the researched countries are fully in charge of their everyday life and of social contacts between families, friendship and housekeeping. Pupils sometimes are the only members of migrant families who speak the language of the host country and, therefore, they represent the only link their families have with the host country's social and public life. This particular role makes them different from local pupils.

Schoolchildren from migrant families or ethnic groups are sometimes the only members of their family to speak the official state language. In Austria and the Netherlands, the government actively encourages migrant teachers to use their native language as a language of instruction.

In Estonia, there are both Estonian-speaking and Russian-speaking schools. Pupils in the Russian-speaking schools come from different countries such as Russia, the Ukraine and Belarus. They have compulsory lessons to learn Estonian. Special classes for Russian-speaking students have recently been set up in Estonian-speaking schools. These pupils are being taught in Estonian.

Lack of adequate skills in the official state language often prevents pupils from migrant or ethnic origins from reaching the highest levels in secondary education.

Segregation between schools is a growing problem. In many schools for general education in the big cities in the western Netherlands, more than 50% of pupils are of non-Dutch origin. Some schools, the so-called black schools, are attended almost only by migrant pupils. There has been a growing divide in the last few years between these schools and predominantly Dutch-origin schools. This is an issue of great concern for Dutch society. In Norway, the situation in schools has radically changed over the last years. In big towns, in particular, there are now classes with a majority of migrant pupils.

Whether the learning and teaching of history requires a special approach for such schools is hardly discussed in history teacher training.

History in the national curriculum

All of the researched countries have national curriculum guidelines for history. In Estonia, all schools are obliged to follow these national curriculum guidelines. However, each school prepares its own school curriculum, taking into account the special needs and interests of students in the history and culture of the nation. To help this process, the Subject Council for History, the curriculum development group in the Ministry of Education, includes teachers from Russian-speaking schools.

In the Netherlands, the national curricula for history and civics for the 9-18 age group contain several explicit attainment targets for multicultural learning. One of the two topics for the national history examination in 1998 and 1999 had a distinct multicultural approach. The task was to study Europe and the World outside, 1150-1350. It was fully devoted to the relationship between Europe and the rest of the world in that period, seen from both perspectives.

The national history curriculum in Norway stipulates that Saami history has to be included into the national history. The curricula for primary and secondary schools stress that learning and teaching must take into account different cultural aspects. As teachers are free to choose topics and teaching materials, it is difficult to assess to what extent these guidelines are being implemented. However, teaching and learning about foreign cultures has always been important in Norway, since it is a nation that has always depended on contacts with other countries.

In Austria, the rights of ethnic minorities are guaranteed by the constitution. As former parts of the Habsburg Empire, the history of the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Slovenia and Croatia is also included in Austrian history curricula and textbooks, albeit only to a limited degree and not always in a multicultural perspective. General guidelines for multicultural learning through history underline the aim to create basic structures for multicultural history teaching.

Additional teaching materials and training

National history curricula, in general, tend to give little room to the history of migrants and ethnic groups. Therefore, textbooks hardly ever deal with topics related to the history of such groups, and teacher training does not seem to focus on this issue, either.

This gap may be bridged with the help of additional materials. Only few institutes offer special materials and in-service training for teachers on learning about history in a multicultural society. The Austrian Ministry of Education, Science and Cultural Affairs as well as the Federal Provincial School Authorities provide this kind of support. Working groups for intercultural learning and teaching meet on a regular basis. The Service Centre for Intercultural Teaching and Learning at the Pedagogical Institute of Vienna develops and collects educational materials which deal with multicultural learning and teaching. These materials contain information on methods and didactical principles of intercultural education. The Centre also publishes teaching material and has drafted a questionnaire about marking and assessment in multicultural classes. It offers in-service training seminars on subjects such as “The origins of the cultures of our pupils and students” to make teachers more aware of the issue and also organises projects for teachers to exchange ideas and experiences and to implement intercultural methods of learning and teaching.

The Department of Intercultural Learning and Teaching at the Austrian Ministry of Education, Science and Cultural Affairs offers a variety of activities to assist the second-generation children of migrants and refugees. Special fields of attention are German as a second language, the development of bilingual and multilingual educational materials, and multicultural learning and teaching activities. Bilingual education in primary and secondary schools for children from Turkey, Croatia, Yugoslavia and Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia or Albania, especially in bigger cities, also includes the history of South-Eastern Europe.

In Estonia, the Ministry of Education is drafting a special policy to develop education within a multicultural context. There is a variety of projects and programmes to start this integration policy. Some Ukrainian and Jewish cultural associations support national identity by searching for and preparing teaching materials focusing on language, history and culture.

One of the Dutch Education Support Institutes, the KPC group, has a special branch of intercultural learning. The institute offers expertise on education in a multicultural society and has developed special additional materials for classroom practice, the so-called *Bouwstenen* (building blocks). These materials mostly focus on historical and geographical topics and have had a major influence on school textbooks in the Netherlands. New textbooks have integrated ideas, topics and materials from this project.

The Parel Foundation in Utrecht (Netherlands) does special research into racism, prejudice and stereotypes in educational materials.

The question is how much of these curriculum guidelines, textbook topics and materials is implemented and used in everyday classroom practice. For the Netherlands, we might conclude that the interest in issues related to teaching history in a multicultural society is left to those teachers who work in multicultural schools.

In Norway, multicultural aspects are emphasised in all new materials, and this approach is evident in many examples in the textbooks. Textbooks are often written by a group of authors with different backgrounds to avoid a eurocentric point of view.

Two dominant strategies for multicultural learning

In multicultural societies, the majority culture still dominates most subjects within the school curriculum. In countries with regions with a large percentage – or even a majority population – of more diverse ethnic or religious groups, there is a tendency to be more aware of the majority culture and to give the quiet voices[106] of other groups more representation in school subjects. However, this approach is regarded as a specific need of the respective cities or regions and not as a common national concern.

Implementing multicultural attainment targets that are appropriate for all pupils via national curriculum guidelines would be a more radical approach. Although this would strengthen mutual awareness among pupils, this strategy is hardly ever implemented in the European education system.

Initial teacher training and the language problem

The findings of the project group on multicultural teacher training suggest that teachers are not really prepared for teaching in a multicultural society. When the members of the project group were asked about the training of teachers in a multicultural society, the first problem they mentioned was the insufficient language skills of students with a different native language. In most multicultural societies, the official language is not always the only language spoken in the country. Quite often, students from different ethnic groups use their mother language within the family or among friends. Thus, the official language skills of these students sometimes fail to

[106] McDonalds, Sharon (2000), *On European Historical Consciousness*, Körber-Foundation, Essen.

reach the required standards for higher education. The countries under review apply different strategies to tackle this problem.

Initial teacher training in Estonia is bilingual, although Estonia recognises only one official language. There are special learning groups for Russian-speaking students at some faculties of the University of Tartu. However, it is not possible to study history in Russian at the Faculty of History, although there are some special facilities for Russian-speaking students. Out of a total number of 50 students who enrol at the faculty each year, five to seven are speakers of Russian. It is compulsory for them to study in Estonian. – At the Pedagogical University of Tallinn, students from Russian-speaking schools have the opportunity to study and attend lectures in Russian during their first academic year. The language of instruction after that year is Estonian.

In the Netherlands, courses related to Dutch as a second language are offered at most institutes of higher education. However, more emphasis is usually put on research into language-related problems than on programmes to develop practical implementation strategies. – The newly-established regional vocational training institutes aim not only at producing the labour force the country needs, but also at integrating migrants into Dutch society through language and civic education programmes.

Norway has a special curriculum for the Saami districts at the Saami College in Kautokeino. All subjects are taught in Saami, and graduates from this programme are qualified to teach both in Norwegian and Saami native-language schools.

Norwegian training colleges also run special language courses for migrant teachers to enable them to teach migrant pupils in regular Norwegian classes. Every pupil has the right to receive part of his/her education in his/her own culture and mother tongue. However, the practical implementation of this requirement largely depends on the economic conditions of the respective local community.

Special strategies in history programmes and curricula of teacher training institutes

Information from the project group also shows that courses at the training institutes rarely comprise any special strategies. In the Netherlands, the multicultural society only has a small impact on teacher training. Debates on teaching in a multicultural society are restricted primarily to the level of policy-making, and their results are hardly ever implemented. The institutes concerned are to receive national basic guidelines soon. These new guidelines will also contain stipulations regarding the training of teachers for a multicultural society.

The institutes' curricula include courses which focus directly on teaching in a multicultural society. Some courses aim at supporting the learning process of pupils of non-Dutch origin, while others focus on mutual understanding. Special courses have been developed to raise students' awareness of global society and the Netherlands' multicultural tradition. Some teaching materials do exist, but there are very few materials for initial teacher training.

History educators with a migrant background have played an important role in raising awareness in history teacher training of the challenges of a multicultural society. The institutes where they work have a greater focus on and interest in the impact of a multicultural society on history. Unfortunately, only very few history educators have such a background. In recent years, teacher training institutes have pursued a more

active policy, probably because the percentage of students of non-Dutch origin in these institutes is rising.

In Norway, the curricula of initial teacher training emphasise that learning and teaching must take into account different cultural aspects. This also applies to the textbooks for these institutes. However, it remains doubtful to what extent this principle is actually implemented. Teachers are free to choose different topics, and the outcome of their work depends very much on their interests and background.

The curriculum for history teacher training at Austrian universities now includes stipulations to promote multicultural aspects through the teaching of history. Trainers, therefore, are required to develop training courses which foster students' abilities to teach history in this way. There is a number of options for students to train their skills in teaching history in a multicultural context during their university studies, but these courses are not obligatory for all students.

A seminar on special didactics in history, for example, is dedicated to the history of Vienna as a multicultural city. During this seminar, students learn about the history of the Czech, Slovak, Hungarians and Balkan-people living in Vienna at the beginning of the 20th century. In a second step, these students have the opportunity to work in secondary schools with pupils from various neighbouring countries and, especially, with pupils from South-Eastern Europe and Turkey. They learn to apply multicultural strategies to teach these pupils the history of their countries of origin, discussing differences in the history of everyday life, culture and religion, in particular, and from this cultural approach they move on to the political and social history of Vienna in the 20th century, which also is a history of (labour) migration. After this practical work in the classroom, students also have the opportunity to reflect upon and evaluate their teaching experience.

The role of international programmes

There are virtually no international programmes which focus on the special needs of the multicultural learning and teaching of history. The only example available in the project group was from Norway, where some colleges offer special programmes for postgraduate students. One such programme at Bergen College is designed to confront students with foreign cultures. During a four-week trip to India, the costs of which students have to bear themselves, they take part in a programme devised together with a research institute in Madras. The students have to develop a teaching package for primary or secondary education. This task forms part of their final examination work.

Examples of good practice in teacher training institutes

Some institutes have developed ideas that may be transferred and tried out in other countries, too.

First, there is the Norwegian model which offers Saami students a double degree in teaching: Graduates are allowed to teach at schools with either Saami or Norwegian as language of instruction. Furthermore, there is a growing tendency to give particular support to students from ethnic or non-native backgrounds and to encourage them to become (history) teachers. Institutes encourage and support students in studying historical topics related to their personal background and to multicultural societies.

There is a growing awareness of the necessity to present compulsory attainment targets and guidelines for multicultural learning for all levels of education. We have mentioned the relevant Austrian examples earlier in this text.

Conclusions

In Europe, an important aim of learning and teaching history is to seek answers to the question: “How have we got to where we are now?” Therefore, multiculturalism should be an integrated aspect in the learning and teaching of history. However, considering the information received from the participants in the project group and the discussions during the seminars in Vienna and Prague, it is clear that the existing multicultural societies have had very little impact on history education so far. The EUROCLIO survey of 1999 confirmed this conclusion.

This situation is also reflected in the initial teacher training of history teachers. Very little attention is paid to the problems and challenges of learning and teaching in a multicultural society. The implementation of courses related to intercultural education largely depends on the commitment of individual teachers. Only a few institutes prepare history students systematically for the multicultural situation they are going to encounter in the classroom. However, institutes are now paying increasing attention to the structural aspects of intercultural learning. External and, particularly, political pressure has played a significant role in this process.

In primary and secondary education more attention is being paid, mostly for practical reasons, to the impact of multicultural societies on learning and teaching. In schools with a high percentage of pupils who do not belong to the majority culture, a more proactive approach towards integrating multicultural aspects into history teaching may be observed.

Most materials for multicultural history teaching are still produced by special agencies, although different cultures are increasingly being included in national curricula, textbooks and teaching programmes. Unfortunately, the teaching of this new content largely depends on the interests of individual teachers or local communities. There are no national and structural implementation policies to speak of.

Teacher trainers and teachers with ethnic and migrant backgrounds can serve as important role models in the process of implementing multicultural learning in the educational system. However, neither the group of trainers and history teachers nor the group of student history teachers reflects the percentage of inhabitants with a migrant or ethnic background in the countries represented in the project group.

Ways forward

General requirements

The project participants recommended that countries should establish national educational policies in order to integrate multiculturalism into the learning and teaching of history. They listed a variety of factors as minimum requirements for such an approach:

In the first place, they mentioned some general requirements for a policy to enhance the multicultural learning and teaching of history. These were as follows:

A compulsory national curriculum for history should contain open and flexible attainment targets. It should enable schools to develop their own school curricula for history.

Curricula, textbooks and other teaching materials should be in tune with the principles of multicultural education. History education in Europe should shift from a primarily national perspective to a wider, European and global perspective.

Countries should also adopt strategies to devise multicultural teaching methods for pupils at technical and vocational colleges and for pupils with special needs.

In particular, the project participants worked out requirements for multicultural education in history teaching and for teacher training institutes. These requirements are included in part III: Recommendations for ministries of education and for teacher training institutes.

RECOMMENDATIONS

After the working groups' debates at the seminar in Prague on 6–9 June, 1999, participants formulated the following recommendations:

I. WITH REGARD TO THE TRAINING OF HISTORY TEACHERS

The NATIONAL MINISTRIES are called upon

1. to develop and support national policies on history teacher training, taking into account the objectives of lifelong education, irrespective of the national models adopted,
2. to undertake the necessary steps to enable teacher training institutions to maintain and improve the quality of history teacher training,
3. to support teacher training institutions in developing common requirements for teacher training to ensure that the contents of selection procedures and those of training as well as the requirements for the teaching profession at secondary school level remain coherent, and
4. to propose and implement special measures and strategies to raise public awareness of the increasing importance of teaching history in today's dynamic, fast-moving societies.

TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS are called upon

1. to initiate and encourage an active intra- and inter-institutional dialogue on the main issues of history teacher training,
2. to encourage collective institutional measures designed to maintain a certain quality of history teacher training,
3. to promote and publicise examples of good practice in history teacher training, and
4. to offer professional support and assistance to both student teachers and practising history teachers, taking into account their respective needs.

The COUNCIL OF EUROPE is called upon

1. to support networking among teacher training institutions, especially with regard to history teachers at secondary school level, and to maintain a European network of history teachers,
2. to assist the countries concerned in building up a database on teacher training for history teachers in Europe, and

3. to publicise examples of good practice in history teacher training through international seminars, workshops and publications and the intensive use of Internet services.

II. WITH REGARD TO MULTICULTURAL ISSUES IN HISTORY TEACHER TRAINING

The NATIONAL MINISTRIES are called upon

to raise awareness among history teacher trainers and students of the increasing importance of teaching history in a multicultural perspective.

TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS are called upon

1. to raise institutional sensitivity about the place of multicultural perspectives and issues in the curricula of history teacher training,
2. to introduce and implement innovative intercultural approaches with regard to teaching history in multicultural contexts,
3. to encourage the publication of textbooks with a multicultural approach, and
4. to encourage the introduction of multicultural courses or integrated studies on multiculturalism.

The COUNCIL OF EUROPE is called upon

to assist the national authorities in supporting their practices concerning multicultural issues.

III. WITH REGARD TO THE COMPETENCIES OF HISTORY TEACHERS

The NATIONAL MINISTRIES are called upon

1. to encourage and support teacher training institutions in achieving a better balance between academic and professional training on the one hand, and between theoretical and practical components on the other hand, and
2. to assist and support the efforts of teacher training institutions towards raising the level of professionalism in history teacher training.

TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS are called upon

1. to raise awareness among all parties concerned of the importance of developing an ideal profile for history teachers, based on precise job descriptions as well as on the functions attributed to history teachers at secondary level,

2. to establish clear systems of evaluating the competency of history teachers,
3. to ensure a certain level of flexibility in history teacher training, taking into account the recognised needs of the trainees,
4. to guarantee the relation between the qualification of the history teacher and the amount and content of both academic and professional (especially practical) training,
5. to ensure proper links between teacher training institutions and INSET establishments with a view to the objectives of lifelong learning, and
6. to take special measures to increase the competencies of teachers who are just starting their career, placing particular emphasis on practical competencies.

The COUNCIL OF EUROPE is called upon

to promote and support international exchange programmes for good history teachers of proven competency who apply innovative practices.

IV. WITH REGARD TO THE TRAINING OF HISTORY TEACHER TRAINERS

The NATIONAL MINISTRIES are called upon

1. to develop national policies where the training of history teacher trainers should be given a certain priority, and
2. to assist teacher training institutions in developing and establishing structures and forms of organisation for the training of trainers with regard to the bodies in charge of training as well as to curriculum policy.

TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS are called upon

1. to recognise the training of history teacher trainers as a special priority and to take measures to give it the necessary structure and organisation,
2. to continue their efforts to raise academic and public awareness of the unique mission and growing responsibilities of history teacher trainers as a specific professional group, and
3. to support and develop a new institutional culture marked by a positive attitude towards history teacher trainers.

The COUNCIL OF EUROPE is called upon

1. to advance this idea and to assist national authorities in organising the training of trainers in various forms, including correspondence courses and instruction via the Internet,
2. to support, and contribute to, publications on issues concerning teacher training, and
3. to stimulate the dissemination of information on the experience made in this field by countries in Europe and around the world.

V. WITH REGARD TO THE SOCIAL STATUS OF HISTORY TEACHERS

The NATIONAL MINISTRIES are called upon

1. to take special measures and to provide the necessary resources to guarantee both the continuity and the quality of history teacher training at the pre- and -in-service level, and
2. to increase the prospects of promotion for teachers, including history teachers, taking into consideration their qualifications acquired through initial teacher training and INSET as well as the responsibilities that have been assigned to them.

TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS are called upon

1. to develop and support a positive professional self-image of history teachers,
2. to encourage both students teachers and history teachers to establish groups, associations and other bodies to act on their behalf and represent their professional interests, and
3. to intensify and strengthen links between teacher training institutions and the media in order to stimulate positive changes in public opinion.

On the basis of the above recommendations, special attention was drawn to the following points:

I. AS REGARDS THE TRAINING OF HISTORY TEACHERS:

- issuing and promoting special publications on issues related to training;
- (re-)evaluating national policies and practices in history teacher training with regard to national priorities;

- working out a system of criteria/indicators for evaluating the quality of history teacher training;
- evaluating the contents of selection procedures;
- ensuring a permanent updating of teacher training courses;
- applying various forms of effective institutional communication;
- identifying good practices in history teacher training;
- establishing database profiles; and
- elaborating criteria for evaluating the stability, effectiveness and efficiency of networks.

II. AS REGARDS MULTICULTURAL ISSUES AND HISTORY TEACHING:

- defining the appropriate place and extent of multicultural issues to be addressed in programmes, textbooks, etc.;
- defining appropriate subjects and interrelations in the context of teaching history in a multicultural environment; and
- re-evaluating curricula, where appropriate.

III. AS REGARDS THE COMPETENCIES OF HISTORY TEACHERS:

- evaluating the place of academic and professional training in curricula as well as programme contents;
- evaluating practical training and taking special measures, where appropriate;
- assessing the needs of trainees;
- identifying examples of success and failure in developing the competencies of history teachers;
- updating job descriptions for history teachers;
- analysing ideal profiles of history teachers;
- encouraging an approach that fosters innovation and experimenting;
- orientation towards project-work;
- teamwork;
- developing strategies to solve problematic situations; and
- using examples of, and the experience made by, others.

IV. AS REGARDS THE TRAINING OF HISTORY TEACHER TRAINERS:

- deciding on and identifying the bodies responsible for the training of trainers;
- establishing appropriate organisational patterns for the training of trainers;
- defining attainment targets for the training of trainers;
- issuing publications on the training of trainers based on good practices;
- using new information technologies in the training of trainers wherever possible; and
- realising a special differentiation of the core competencies of teacher trainers.

V. AS REGARDS THE SOCIAL STATUS OF HISTORY TEACHERS:

- maintaining stable relations among the institutions concerned with the social status of history teachers;
- intensive inter-institutional communication;
- increasing history teachers' opportunities to upgrade their qualifications and improve their prospects of promotion;
- providing support for professional associations and student groups; and
- developing strategies to raise media awareness of the issues and problems of history teachers.