

# **TEACHER EDUCATION CASE STUDIES IN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE**

**Editors**

**Gabriella Pusztai – Ágnes Engler**

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# **TEACHER EDUCATION CASE STUDIES IN COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE**

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## Editorial preface

More than half a million teacher students receive initial teacher education in more than one thousand institutions within heterogeneous system contexts in the European Union. We initiated the TECERN network (Teacher Education Central European Research Network, supported by Visegrad Fund) because when we investigated higher education in the CEE region we realized that there are several common features in the situation and social context of teacher education. But we don't have enough research results about it. One part of the study deals with curricular questions of teacher education, while the other part investigates practicing teachers. However, little attention was paid to students who chose and took part in teacher education and their development during teacher education years. We can use a comparative research with very limited affectivity. The TEDS (Teacher Education Development Study) gathered by International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) investigated science teacher education students in 2008. It is good news for us, because this creates opportunity to compare prospective teachers aspiring to teach several educational levels and we can compare national data, but our countries were not in the study, and we cannot compare them with students preparing to teach different disciplines and different professions.

Moreover, in this volume we deal with the faces of future teachers. What do we know about teacher education students? The special self-selection that works in teacher education is well known. The attraction of teacher education depends on the national-level prestige of the profession as a teacher. High status and male students strive to find a profession full of prestige that promises more social progress and elevation for them. If one of the teacher education students' parents has a higher education degree, this could be the mother.

After the massification of higher education and diversification of student body we consider the deep structures of self-selection and professional pro-socialization as well as student engagement and commitment real key factors, which have strong effects on the future achievement. Because there are differences between countries in connection with the inputs of teacher education institutions and teacher education students' outcomes, it is worth to investigate the „prospective teachers” in a comparative point of view.

Different countries in their case studies try to find the answer, who will be the future teachers and where do they come from. The orientation towards teaching as a profession could be as interesting as a well-considered, pre-planned teacher career path by a teacher student. The further career-view is equally determined by the motivation leading to the teaching profession, by the experiences in teacher education and by the way of thinking about the teaching path. The social acceptance

and the moral appreciation of this profession highly affect the commitment of the students or even against it, their avoidance of the teaching as a profession. The researchers of the teacher education of those countries taking part in the research try to reveal the teacher recruitment and its modifier factors and characteristics. The country case studies give an excellent opportunity to the middle-east European comparison, to think over the present and future of the teacher education together.

The Editors

## **Teacher education systems in close-up**



# SIMONETTA POLENGHI & PIERPAOLO TRIANI

Teacher training and profession in Italy. Today's situation after a 250-year history<sup>1</sup>

## 1. From the first Normal School to the 20th century

### 1.1. The origins of teacher training and secularization of teachers

Up to the 18th century teachers in Italy were generally priests. The Society of Jesus, the Barnabites, the Piarists had a web of colleges, but also parsons might teach Latin (for free or thanks to a legacy). Private lay teachers also worked in towns and cities. In rural areas, simple people (cobblers, tailors, farmers, etc.) who could read and write, taught children the little they knew (Pagano &Vigo, 2012).

During the Enlightenment, the idea of a national and state school system began to spread widely among intellectuals and lay educationalists, but a state secondary school system was nowhere built: the suppression of the Company of Jesus just left space for the other congregations. Before Italian unification, the majority of teachers in secondary schools (grammar schools and high schools, with a curriculum dominated by Latin) were priests, even if in Northern regions, such as Piedmont and Austrian Lombardy, lay teachers were already half of the total.

As for elementary schools, Felbiger's didactic was introduced in Lombardy under Joseph II, and in 1786 the very first school for teacher training was set up in Milan. In spite of the brevity of the course, which lasted only 3 months, after 15 years already 1/3 of the teachers of the Duchy of Milan mastered the normal method. Joseph II favoured the employment of lay teachers, who saw their work recognized with the right to a pension. As a result, 40% of the teachers in the area were lay. In the Napoleonic Kingdom of Italy the normal method was encouraged through a system of exams, but without a previous training and knowledge of pedagogy. 50% of teachers were lay in Lombardy and South Tyrol, whereas in the other regions of the peninsula the percentage was as low as 20-10%. After Napoleon's fall, it was the Austrian regime again which speeded up teachers' professionalization introducing in the Kingdom of Lombardy and Venetia the compulsory attendance of a 3 or 6 months course in Normal Schools – opened in every city – followed by a year's training in an elementary school. The candidate teachers had to learn the "*Methodenbuch*" by J. Peitl, based on the pedagogy of V.

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<sup>1</sup> This essay conveys the common reflections and works of the two authors, but S.Polenghi is directly responsible of chapter 1 and P.Triani of chapter 2.

Milde, and final exams were difficult. The biggest cities such as Milan already used a standardized system to employ teachers, recognizing their education, competence, experience, family situation, and granting them a pension. A key point was the opening of a great number of female schools, since compulsory schooling was also for girls, with the consequent requirement for female teachers to pass the same teaching qualification exam as men. A great number of women did get this state certificate (Polenghi, 2013).

*One can find in Austrian policy the roots of the professionalization of the job of teacher.* Also secondary school teachers were appointed after a competition and were supposed to have some knowledge of pedagogy, until Thun-Hohenstein's reform of 1849.

## **1.2. After Italian unification: changes in schooling and in the figure of the teacher**

In November 1859 the Kingdom of Sardinia, after the conquest of Lombardy, issued the school law named Casati after the minister of education. It regulated the entire school and academic system and was in force in Italy up to 1923. The Casati law designed a rather simple school system: 4 years of elementary school (only the first 2 years being compulsory, up to 1877), followed by 5 years of grammar school (*Ginnasio*) and 3 years of *Liceo* (a high school with a curriculum based on *humanæ literæ*, only for the ruling class's sons) or by a 6/7 years technical school (for the sons of the middle class). At a lower level, the law set out a Normal School of only 2/3 years, to prepare elementary school teachers. The law left a gap between the 4 years elementary school and the normal school, without foreseeing a link between the two, so that pupils often waited to enter in the normal school without attending any other schools or entered it after being rejected from the *Ginnasio* or from the technical school. It was only in 1896 that a proper 3 years school, propaedeutic to the normal school, was set up. The route to become an elementary school teacher was still much shorter than the one to become a teacher in the secondary school, which implied having attended *Ginnasio-Liceo*, having a university degree and passing a state examination. Even if this norm was only gradually imposed, the gap in competence and therefore in salary between elementary and secondary school teachers was great. Indeed the two jobs were also semantically separated, and still are today: "*maestri*" the first, "*professori*" the second, the word "professore" in Italian referring to both high school and university teachers, who must have a degree. Another relevant point was that the first was appointed and paid by municipalities (therefore with a very different range of salaries) and not by the state, until Daneo-Credaro law in 1913 (Pazzaglia & Sani, 2001).

The new Italian State, proclaimed March 17<sup>th</sup> 1861, was plagued by a very high percentage of illiterates, particularly in Southern regions and among women.

The immediate need, therefore, was to train as many teachers as possible, in a short time. Quantity and not quality was a forced solution. Elementary teachers however were not only supposed to teach the three “rs”, but also to implant in children’s minds patriotism and subordination to authority. They were invested by a high task, but as a matter of fact they were paid poorly and educated badly. There was a great gap between the rhetoric of the image of the teacher (good hearted, well-prepared, humble, assiduous, virtuous, devoted to the Monarchy and to the homeland, happy with his condition) and the reality. The traits of the perfect teacher were masterly depicted in “Cuore” (Heart) (1886) the famous novel by Edmondo De Amicis, which was read by generations of children and which was pervaded with patriotism and sentimentalism. But De Amicis, who was a brilliant journalist, also described the harshness of teachers’ life and the poor consideration which public opinion had for elementary teachers.

In the 40 years after unification, the teaching world experienced great changes. First of all, a quick process of secularization occurred. Whereas in 1861 1/3 of elementary school teachers were priests, clergymen disappeared by 1900. The necessity of a state degree and certificate and, above all, the tension between the Holy See and the Italian State that rose dramatically after Rome was conquered, and the fact that religion was nearly erased as a subject from Italian schools served to draw priests away from public schools of all levels. On the contrary, quite a lot of private schools (elementary and secondary) were set up, many of which were denominational (Chiosso, 2011).

Not only did the teaching world become a lay one – a process connected deeply with its professionalization and with the modernization of the state, it also became a more and more female one in the primary level. Feminization of teaching became a massive phenomenon. In 1860 44% of *maestri* were women (ca 7.000 vs 13.000 men). In 1877 women outran men and in 1900 they were 67% of the teachers (but in Milan they were 85% already). Meanwhile the *Scuola Normale* had turned into a female school: 94% of the pupils were girls (Soldani, 2004).

There are various reasons for this phenomenon. According to the Casati law, municipalities could pay women a smaller salary (up to 1/3 less). But mayors preferred woman not only to spare money, but also because women were more subdued and less involved in politics. Quite a lot of associations of mutual help had sprung all over in Italy; men were often engaged in them and many adhered to socialism. There was also a pedagogical reason that favoured women: the idea that children’s teaching was a “maternal mission” to which women were naturally inclined – here both Catholic and Positivist agreed. Working as an elementary school teacher became a job with little appeal to men: poorly paid, tiring (classes could have even 80 pupils) and not high in social esteem, in spite of government’s

propaganda. For women instead it granted a socially accepted way to reach a (limited) economic independence. Many girls of poor family trooped in the “*Scuola normale*” (Covato, 1996). Their life was not easy and has been described by great novelists like Matilde Serao and Edmondo De Amicis, to quote but the most famous (Ascenzi, 2012). Teaching became indeed a route towards female emancipation; this however was crushed by Fascism.

### 1.3. The new century

At the beginning of the 20th century, teaching world was much more mature than before. Herbartism and Positivism dominated the pedagogical scenario. Beside the Normal School, there were quite a lot of informal tools to improve the update of teachers’ culture: many magazines, associations, libraries, conferences, specific books. In 1900 the first national union was set up, the “Unione Magistrale Nazionale” by Luigi Credaro, professor of pedagogy, follower of Herbart and future minister of education (followed in 1901 by FNISM, the secondary school teachers’ union, founded by the socialist historian Gaetano Salvemini and the socialist teacher Giuseppe Kirner). Elementary school teachers, now more prepared and ready to struggle for their rights, conscious of the importance of their job but painfully aware of the inferiority of their culture, compared with that of their colleagues of secondary schools, asked for a better education. In order to answer this request, prompted by Credaro, from 1904 to 1923 some universities offered the so-called “Pedagogical Schools”, which consisted in a two years course of subjects such as Pedagogy, Italian, History, Hygiene, Philosophy, Law, Psychology. These courses were successful, but many university professors and students resented them and objected to having adult teachers as students in the university lecture hall: they still considered elementary school teachers as socially inferior and too ignorant to attend a lecture (Sani, 2010).

The idealist philosopher Giovanni Gentile sharply criticized the prevalence of didactics in teacher training and underlined the role of humanistic culture instead. Appointed minister of education in the first Mussolini government in 1923, he passed a series of acts that deeply reformed the Italian school. The centre of this system was the “*Liceo classico*” (humanistic high school), which became very selective and which was the only secondary school that granted access to every Faculty. Philosophy and History, Latin and Greek, Italian literature were core subjects. Their teachers therefore acquired a higher status, helped by the tough strictness the reform imposed and by the fact that the *Liceo classico* was the school for the elite.

As for elementary school teachers, Gentile closed the “Pedagogical Schools”, but greatly improved the *Scuola normale*, replacing it with the “*Istituto Magistrale*” (Teacher institute), a new 7 years school, with Latin, Philosophy and a modern

language as well. He abolished the internship, however, for he considered a good culture sufficient to be able to teach (Sani & Pazzaglia, 2001). Those who wanted to teach in the *Istituto Magistrale* could enrol in the 4 years *Istituto Superiore di magistero* (Superior Institute for teaching): since they were nearly all women, there was a sort of circle that confined women who wanted to teach to a lesser level. Indeed even after in 1935 the *Istituto Superiore di magistero* was turned in the “*Facoltà di Magistero*” (Faculty of Teacher Training), it long struggled with the noble sister Faculty of Arts and Philosophy to establish an equal status. Being connected with elementary school implied in fact a lesser status. Feminization of the job had an influence in that. On the other hand, only elementary school teachers did have a pedagogical education, which was totally lacking to teachers of secondary schools -better paid, with a degree and generally men.

#### 1.4. The Italian Republic

The Republic of Italy was born on 18<sup>th</sup> June 1946. A new wave of reform ideas spread with the democratic state. Dewey’s pedagogical theory became a landmark. Teachers were involved in the great inquiry launched by the Catholic minister of education Guido Gonella, but due to the tensions between the Catholic and the Communist Parties, all the suggestions ended up in nothing, until in 1962, after decades of debates, eventually the *Scuola Media Unica* (Unified Junior High School), a 3 years compulsory course after the 5 years of the elementary school, was established (Sani & Pazzaglia, 2001). There was a great dispute about what title the teachers of this new school were to have: *maestri* or *professori*: the Union of the Catholic elementary school teachers pleaded *maestri* had to be appointed, claiming the *Scuola Media Unica* was a sort of prosecution of the primary level and pupils needed only a single class teacher. On the contrary, teachers of secondary schools and educationalists near to Dewey and Hessen wanted teachers with a degree, *videlicet* different persons for different subjects, as in the *Licei*. Trade union motivations were implicit in both positions, since a surplus of teachers and of graduates was already menacing social stability. The second solution prevailed (Sani, 2006).

Elementary school teachers were trained in the *Istituto Magistrale*, which had been reformed in 1952. Psychology was introduced as a subject and the practical training came back. The final certificate still sufficed as teaching qualification. Instead, graduated candidate teachers of *Scuola Media unica* had to pass a state examination to be appointed, where only the knowledge in their subjects was tested, with no reference to pedagogy, psychology, didactics. Having to deal with young teenagers (11-13 years old), these teachers often lacked the pedagogical bases that elementary school teachers had, which ended up in a too strict system of evaluation, which tended to fail children of disadvantaged families (Barbieri, 2010).

The feminization of schools went on: the number of women attending university rose dramatically and many chose to teach. Many who graduated were failed in the state competitions. The number of supply teachers without a stable employment became a chronic problem. Under the pressure of the new republican trade unions the governments opted to by-pass the formal strict state examinations in favour of much easier qualification courses, especially appointed. The presence of lesser qualified teachers, though, diminished their value in the social perception. Besides, feminization at the secondary level had a side effect, contributing at keeping salaries low (Bottani, 1994).

In the wake of 1968, the doors of university were opened in 1969 to all students of every secondary school, provided it was a 5 years course. In 1969 therefore a 5<sup>th</sup> year was added to the *Istituto magistrale*, so that its pupils could enrol in any Faculty. Significantly, only 4 years were still necessary to enter the *Facoltà di Magistero*, which was still perceived as a lesser one.

## **2. Early teacher training in Italy: the present framework**

### **2.1. Law 341/1990 and the “Berlinguer” Decree of May, 1998**

Teacher training in Italy reached a turning point, after a long discussion and postponements (Gattullo, 1989), in the late '90s. With the Law 341/1990 “*Reform of higher education and university teaching system*”, we experience the overcoming of a clear gap (Luzzatto & Pieri, 2002) in *maestri* and *professori* training, establishing a new comprehensive system of university education for Italian school teachers of all levels.

Article 3, paragraph 3, envisages the establishment of a specific degree, with two different orientations, aimed at cultural and professional training of preschool teachers (still called “*scuola materna*” – nursery school) and elementary school (still so called). The university degree is a necessary qualification for admission to open competitive employment exams for state schools.

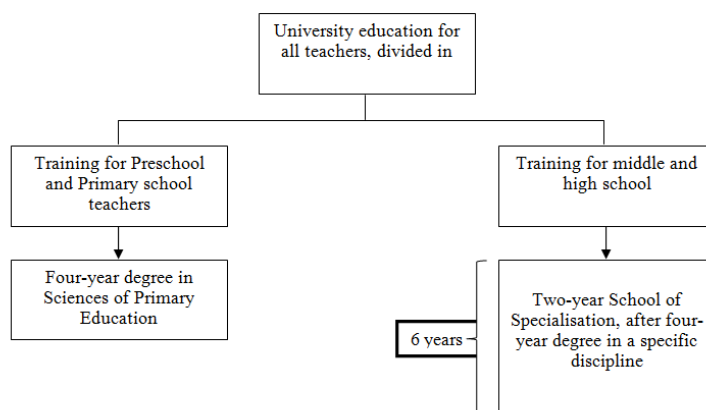
Article 4, paragraph 2, in turn, establishes the School of Specialisation, divided in two orientations, one for junior high schools (*scuola media*) and one for senior high schools. The title obtained after the Specialisation has qualifying value and is required for admission to open competitive exams.

Law 341/1990 draws the institutional framework and refers to subsequent decrees for specific aspects. This law, on one hand, affirms the need to ensure that all future teachers will have a university-level education, beyond the school grade in which they will teach; on the other hand, it confirms the convenience of having two separate and specific training paths for *maestri* and *professori*, due to the pupils' needs and the different school levels specificities that characterize the Italian system.

As it often happens in Italy, quite a long time went by before a new decree was issued. Only in 1998, with the Decree of The Ministry of Education, University and Research, Luigi Berlinguer, dated May 26<sup>th</sup>, 1998, the “*General criteria for the Universities discipline of graduate programs in Sciences of Primary Education and Schools of Specialisation in secondary teaching*” have been defined.

In line with the new autonomy system of Italian universities, as defined by Law 127/1997 on “*Urgent measures for the simplification of administrative procedures, control and decision-making*” (also called Bassanini Law), the Ministry decree does not offer a strict compulsory framework, but rather a sufficiently precise one, which leaves the University room for leeway, although small, in regard to tuition programmes and management issues.

**Figure 1.** D. M. 26 May 1998.



As shown in the graphic above, the initial training of preschool and primary school teachers is characterized by a numerous clausus four-year degree course, customarily referring to the Faculty of Science of Education (see Art. 3, par.3).

The degree course is divided into two common years and, for the following second two-year period in two branches depending on whether the student intends to teach in preschool or primary school.

As for the initial training of junior and senior school teachers, the educational path is longer, as required by law and as the tradition suggested. The teaching qualification, in fact, is acquired through attending the School of Specialisation for a two-year period, which can be done only after having obtained a university degree in a specific discipline, usually lasting four years. Therefore, the total duration of the studies is six years. However, for the first time secondary school teachers must have also teaching competences and training in school.

The School of Specialisation for secondary school teaching (called SSIS) does not refer to a single faculty, but it is defined as a “didactic structure of the

university, with the contribution of all involved faculties and departments” (Art. 4 , par. 3). It is articulated in different disciplines, respecting the structure of secondary schools teaching, and it is a numerus clausus course.

The Decree also considers specific training activities related to the education of students with disabilities, in order to enable future teachers to carry out assistant teacher duties, as required by the Italian law.

It is relevant to point out that, through special attachments, this Decree arises attention on the definition of common benchmarks through the two different educational paths, in order to ensure a core cross-training.

The first reference is represented by Annex A, that clearly indicates twelve characteristics of teachers’ professional learning objectives common to both the degree course in primary education and the SISS. It therefore recognizes the existence of a set of “skills and competencies” that found the teaching knowledge belonging to any teacher, beyond the different contexts of work (Luzzatto, 2001).

A second reference point concerns the organizational structure that provides a structured curriculum regarding four areas for both educational paths, as indicated in Annexes B and Annexes C of the Decree: *Area 1*: training for the teaching role, which includes educational activities aimed at acquiring planning, relational and methodological basic features, own of the teaching profession; *Area 2*: teaching topics, which include teaching activities aimed at the acquisition of disciplinary knowledge that is the content of the students’ training, in close connection with learning appropriate teaching methods; *Area 3*: laboratory, defined as “analysis, design and simulation of teaching activities referred to areas 1 and 2” (Art. 1, par. 1, point C); *Area 4*: apprenticeship, defined as “experiences carried out in schools to integrate theoretical knowledge and operational skills” (Art. 1, par. 1, point F). The beginning of the training provides for the establishment of a ‘supervisor’ as a link-person between the university and the school system and for support during the future teachers’ field experience.

## **2.2. The “Moratti” Decree n. 227/17 October 2005.**

The Bachelor Degree in Sciences of Primary Education was established in Italian universities in 1998/99, and the SSIS began the following year. In the meantime, however, the Italian school and university outline was crossed by multiple changes, which in the years to come have interfered in the new teacher training.

In November 1999, the decree n. 509 of the Ministry of University “*Regulations on the University curricular autonomy*” was approved. It defined, for most of the faculties and courses, a first level three-year bachelor degree and a second level two-year master degree (called specialist degree), according to the so called Bologna process. This reform became executive with the Ministerial Decree

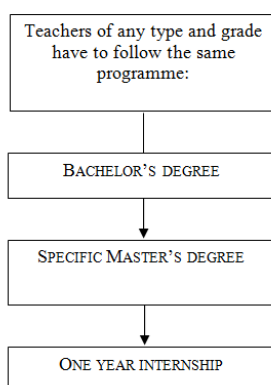
of 4 August 2000 and 28 November 2000 and referred to specific rules regarding teacher training, without changing what Minister Berlinguer had introduced a few years before.

Through the activities of Minister Moratti, also the school system was subject to a comprehensive reform started with the Law no. 53 of 29 March 2003 *“Delegation to the Government for the definition of general standards of education and the basic level of performance in education and training”*. Art. 5 of this law specifically addresses the issue of teacher training, heralding a strong revision of the system, as described in the previous paragraph. According to the principle statement of “equal dignity” expected for all teachers of any type and grade, a specific training for the last two years has to be delivered through appropriate postgraduate courses.

This procedure is confirmed by the subsequent Legislative Decree n. 227, 17 October 2005, Art. 2, par. 1: “The initial training of preschool teachers, first school cycle teachers [including primary and lower secondary school, eds.] and second school cycle teachers [including courses for higher secondary schools, eds.] are of equal dignity and are held in master degree courses [as they are called since 2004 in place of specialist degree, eds] and in the second-level academic courses, in order to acquire disciplinary, pedagogical, didactic, organizational, interpersonal and communicational skills, that reflect on teaching practices which characterize the profile of professional teacher training”.

To access a specific qualifying teaching degree course, first the student must have obtained a three-year degree. Therefore, for all teachers the total duration of the training course is five years (see Figure 2). In this way, the differences in duration, characterizing the system activated in 1998 decree, have failed. In Art. 6 it is provided for all qualified teachers “one year of implementation” (through a special training contract), considered an essential part of the university training, that goes up to a total of six years.

**Figure 2.** Dec. Leg. 227/2005.



The new education system, similar to the previous one, considers the need of a teacher training path as well as the development of a professional profile dedicated to act as a reference point for all educational paths, teaching activities and laboratory internships, in addition to the main contents.

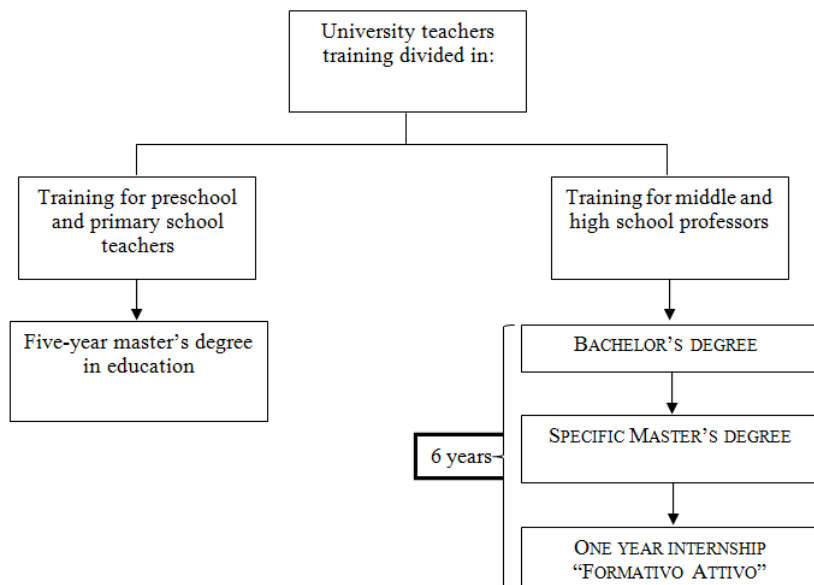
However, these aspects, together with others, would have to be further defined by following decrees that have never been published. In this way, the system of initial training, as determined by Minister Moratti, remained only on paper and was never actually activated.

### 2.3. The “Gelmini” Ministerial Decree n. 249/10 September 2010.

Fabio Mussi, the new Minister of University and Research, from May 2006 to May 2008 did not act in a specific way on teacher training. With the new change of government and legislature, since Summer 2008, the policies of reorganization and rationalization of costs adopted Minister Maria Stella Gelmini have also affected the school system.

With Art. 64 of Law n. 133/ August 6<sup>th</sup> 2008, a series of measures has been announced, including “a comprehensive review of initial recruitment”. This was, in fact, a very complex project not easy to implement. Therefore, in the meantime it was decided to take a few steps ahead. In 2008, the graduate schools for secondary education have been suspended, while in 2010 the Legislative Decree n. 249, which defines again initial teacher training, has been released (see Figure 3).

**Figure 3.** D. M. 249/2010.



The setting designed by Minister Moratti of equal duration for both *maestri* and *professori* was set aside and there is a return to a time discrepancy of the two educational paths.

For preschool and primary school teaching there is a five-year, *numerus clausus* degree course.

This curriculum differs from the previous one, governed by the Decree of 1998, not only for the one-year increase in the duration but also for the disappearance of two specific internal addresses. This course, in fact, makes it possible to obtain a qualification for both preschool and primary school. Centrality of the internship is confirmed, scheduled to begin in the second year until the end of the fifth year, in close contact with schools, and workshops too, for which the link with some specific subjects has been intensified.

The aims of cultural, methodological and didactic training reflect those existing in the previous educational paths with some discreet but not minor changes. The first one is the common professional profile of teachers discussed, without going into detail, only in a few lines of Art.2; there is a broader focus on the cross skills, especially, those related to information technology, English (ESL B2 Level) and inclusion of pupils with disabilities. Already in the academic year 2011/12, following the publication of Decree 249, Universities launched the new five-year degree course, in spite of many difficulties.

The situation is different for secondary schools teachers. Decree n. 249 established that students must achieve a master degree and complete a subsequent year of “active internship” (TFA). Given the fact that it is possible to attend a master degree program only after earning a three-year degree, the total duration of the training is six years.

Specific numerous clauses degree programs will be designed for each subject area being taught in middle and high schools. The two-year degree program is focused on the deepening of teaching content, while the acquisition of planning, didactic and organizational skills is deepened during the year of active internship (TFA), when sciences of education, didactics of subjects, training activities and workshops will be provided.

However, three years after the decree publication, universities have not activated the master degree courses for the training of secondary school teachers yet, due to lack of necessary legislative acts. The system of teacher early training is, therefore, currently not fully functional.

## **2.4. Concluding comments: known aspects and open issues**

After having briefly described the succession of laws and decrees that have tried to build a new system of initial teacher training in Italy, it is necessary to make some

concluding remarks in relation to two questions: a) Which problems has one tried to respond in the various attempts described?; b) Which problems did one really answer to?

The first question can be answered briefly. In recent years, the review process of teacher early training has tried to address three main domains.

The first domain is the increase in training of all teachers at a university level, including those who work in early childhood services (3–6 years). The second aspect is defying, at the basis of university courses for teachers, a uniform profile, characterized by a common core of skills and beyond the different types and grades of school in which the teacher will operate. The third one is structuring courses with strong connection between the theoretical and the practical dimension, thanks to a close relationship between teaching, workshops, training and a clear partnership between universities and schools.

Have these questions been answered? The need of university education is nowadays a fact, even though, as it has been shown, there is still no agreement on training dignity corresponding to equal time duration of the educational paths. The current establishment of a unique qualifying course for preschool and primary school teachers, on one hand, answers the need for unity, on the other hand there is the risk of losing attention towards the educational specificity of preschool.

The definition of a common group of skills typical of the teaching profession is a theme carefully studied in Italy (Damiano, 2004). With the final decree of 2010, this aspect seems to have lost the centrality that it had in previous years, with the risk of returning to a culture of separation between *maestri* and *professori*.

The theme of the relationship theory - practice, whose importance has been stressed in recent years (Damiano, 2004; Nigris, 2004; Zanniello, 2008), is now, as a principle, a cornerstone of the system of early training. However, the actual integration between the theoretical and the practical components is still experiencing many difficulties (Giovanni Agnelli Foundation, 2010) and the risk that they remain two separate fields is still present, especially in the training of secondary school teachers where the connection between theory and practice was developed only last year, prompting someone in the thought that it is a sort of appendix.

The university teacher training in Italy is, therefore, a work in progress, and more and more problems to be addressed urgently are emerging. Among these, it is worth mentioning the need for a strong renewal of university teaching techniques and the importance of thinking of a new system of in-service training being capable of supporting teacher professional development in an increasingly complex educational context (Goisis, 2013).

The whole system of teacher training, both initial and in-service, is faced with the challenge of supporting a professionalism that is living a radical transformation in the Italian context (Bottani, 2013). *Maestri* and *professori*, mostly women, have to deal now with a decrease in the social prestige related to educational jobs, with a different relationship between schools and families that is more on equal terms but more conflicting. In fact, there is a growth of educational responsibilities assigned to the school system, with an increase in demand for personalization of teaching that takes into account the differences of individuals, with a change of contexts and educational languages, also related to new applied technologies. Families ask more to teachers, but have less trust in them. Students, instead, experience less conflict situations and more positive relationships with their teachers (Trinchero, 2012).

Therefore, disciplinary skills should be more and more integrated (and not replaced) with relational and communicative competences. The teacher is no longer supposed to speak from a “chair”, but to teach whilst building a relationship with both students and adults, to define her/his strength not on a supposed social prestige, but on professional competences.

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# **CARMEN CAMPOS APARICIO & ALMUDENA BUCIEGA ARÉVALO**

## **Teacher training system in Spain**

### **Preliminary clarifications**

The Spanish education system is managed by 19 Departments of Education, each one corresponding to one of the regional governments and the two autonomous cities of the country. Regulatory and coordination functions are held by The Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (MECD). The regional governments are responsible for scheduling and planning the activities necessary for continuous teacher training, and for ensuring a diversified and free training offer through the promotion of continuous teacher training programmes (PAFP) and the creation of training centres or institutes to that end. The analysis proposed in this section will, where relevant, refer to political actions related to education policy taken by the Valencian Community since this is the point of reference for the authors.

### **1. Background. Institutional framework for Teacher Education**

It seems obvious to say that educative systems are a reflection of the social, cultural, historical and political contexts in which they have been evolving. This assumption, that may apply to any context, gains particular relevance in the case of Spain where educative reforms have followed one after another, coinciding with changes in the political parties being in government. In fact, democratic governments have approved four general educative laws since 1990.

However, the objective of this chapter has another focus which is to present an overview of the Spanish system for Pre-school or Childhood, Primary and Secondary teacher training. In this regard, readers must be aware of the complexity of presenting a general framework built from a mosaic of different realities, characterized by a highly increasing combination of public and private universities with the capacity to define their own curricula, and by a territorial administrative distribution having an important degree of autonomy, as well as diversity in cultural and socioeconomic terms, that also irremediably influence what teachers are and must be.

We need to go back into history in order to understand why teacher training studies have been designed as they are now, or even to understand issues related to teachers' social prestige. There are some key dates and events that we must refer to

to understand the evolution of childhood and primary teacher training that have been compiled by Román and Cano (2008).

The Moyano Law of 1857 put together and articulated at national level all the existing legislative norms that regulated training for teachers. At the time a Normal School was also created in Madrid that over four years would train teachers who would later work in the respective Normal Schools located in the provinces (NUT3). A differentiation was made between Elementary and Superior Normal Schools. The former was addressed to elementary primary teachers and the latter to superior primary teachers, offering a duration of two and three years training respectively. This Law also regulated the education of female teachers with lower requirements than those for male teachers (Román & Cano, 2008, p. 76).

Between 1874 and 1931 various events occurred that contributed to outlining what teacher training should be: the creation of different institutions to support pedagogic development; the introduction of 'New School' (Escuela Nueva) ideas. In 1909 professors for the Normal Schools were trained in the Superior School of Teacher Training and this set the precedent of university studies for teachers.

All these changes contributed to building a particular form of understanding childhood and primary teacher training and education. However many of these plans for education renovation and innovation were to be frustrated by the military uprising, the subsequent civil war and the period of dictatorship. In 1939 Normal Schools lost their status of Higher Centres for Teacher Training, and in many senses education and teacher training regressed to the way it was one century before.

It was not until 1971 that teacher training once again became a university study course, in a framework in which the LGE (General Education Law) of 1970 established compulsory and free education for children between the ages of six and thirteen years. From 1992, under the 1990 Law for the General Ordination of the Educative System (LOGSE), many Normal Schools that were later called University Schools for General Education Teacher Training, turned into Faculties of Education where primary, secondary and tertiary studies were offered: three year Diplomas for primary and childhood teacher training; five year bachelor degrees for pedagogy or social education; and doctoral studies for those having a bachelor degree. Under the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) the tendency has been to eliminate the three year diploma programmes and move towards the establishment of four year courses that provide levels of Teacher Training that have the same academic perspectives as traditional five year Bachelor degree studies.

The current general picture for University childhood and primary teacher training is quite diverse since each university adopted its own model to integrate or organize teacher training studies. Therefore, we may find Faculties for Education or for Childhood and Primary Teacher Training (Facultad de Magisterio), such as in

the Universities of Barcelona or Valencia, where courses for Childhood teachers and for Primary teachers are offered, and also a postgraduate Master's degree for Secondary Education Teachers that is compulsory for anyone having completed any specialization in the respective faculties and wishes to become a secondary education teacher. These Faculties are independent from the Faculty of Philosophy and Education Sciences in the case of Valencia, and from the Faculty of Pedagogy in the case of Barcelona. In other Universities, for instance in the Complutense University of Madrid, there is a single Faculty and Centre for Teacher Training that imparts courses for Teacher training and also Pedagogy, Musicology and Social Education. This is also the model for Seville and Santiago de Compostela.

In the case of secondary education teachers, the 1970 law set the basis for the establishment of the Course for Pedagogic Adaptation (CAP) that is compulsory for future secondary teachers after the finalization of their academic studies. Since 2009 this course has been replaced by the Master for Secondary Education Teachers that we have previously referred to. The latter provides a more comprehensive and complete training for teachers who will work in classroom contexts, which in recent years have grown in complexity not only in terms of students but also in organisational and structural terms. Secondary education teachers may simultaneously teach in centres that offer both secondary compulsory education (12-16 years old) and secondary education (*bachillerato*) studies prior to going to university (two years study), and this requires considerable flexibility and capacity to adapt (Escudero Muñoz, 2009) since we are speaking of different curricula and different student profiles.

According to data for 2013 from the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport, the Spanish university system comprises 50 public universities and 26 private ones. Degrees for Primary education and for Childhood education teachers can be taken in 39 public and 23 private universities. Among the former, as we have seen, we find that these courses can be taught in different faculties that vary among the universities i.e. Faculties of Education, Faculties of Social and Human Sciences, Faculty of Education Sciences, University School for Teacher Training, or in other centres, usually private, that have signed an agreement with public universities to take up any student surplus.

In 1983 the University Reform Law implemented the gradual transfer of competence from the central Ministry of Education and Science to the different Autonomous Communities. This process lasted for eleven years and finalized in 1996 with the transfer responsibilities to the Balearic islands.

Despite some apparent heterogeneity facilitated by this administrative autonomy, Spanish universities present very similar patterns especially in terms of organization. In the dilemma between a representative democracy and organisational

efficiency, the system of government in Spanish universities is positioned towards the former, namely representative democracy, where institutional power is concentrated in the hands of the academic community (Castro & Ion, 2010). According to these authors, this form of management is identified as the “professional bureaucracy” of Mintzberg although it incorporates a stratum structure (Castro & Ion, 2010, p. 165). The dual structure that characterizes the Spanish universities incorporates two hierarchies with separated bodies, one academic (faculties and departments) and the other administrative (management and services).

From 1985 to 1996 university studies grew considerably. While for the academic course 1985-86 registrations in public universities were of 776,396 students distributed across 734 studies, in 1996-97 the numbers were 1,222,679 students across 1,671 studies (CRUE, 2010). In section three of this chapter we will review this data in more detail in relation to teacher training.

## **2. Various aspects of education policy on teacher professional development.**

The Law On Education 2006 (LOE), in Article 102.1 reproduces Article 56.2 of the General Law of the Education System (LOGSE) of October 3, 1990: *the continuous training of teachers is a right and a duty of all teachers, as well as being the responsibility of the authorities and of centres of education themselves*. The proposals that emerge from the European Higher Education Area (EEES) bring to the fore the change in the role that has to date been played by teachers. “*It has gone from seeing the teacher as a technician whose function was to transmit knowledge, to consider him instead as a critical and reflective professional, ethically committed to his profession, who advises and guides the learning of his students, being able to generate and reconstruct knowledge from his own experience and capable of teamwork. To facilitate this change in the teaching role, it is necessary to rethink teacher training from the initiation of training to its more established stages of professional development training and educational updating*” (Diaz & Castillo, 2011, p. 691).

### **2.1. Continuous teacher training in Spain**

The initial teacher training that takes place in universities is inadequate to address the complexity of the teaching/learning process in the classroom: practicing teachers need strategies to address the needs of students and the context of the ‘classroom’ and the ‘centre’ as well as to face up to the demands of a changing society. To do this, and to meet the challenges of the education system, various groups and educational reform movements emerged in the 70’s and 80’s that encouraged the training of practicing teachers through the exchange of experience and pedagogical innovations. Towards the end of the 80’s agencies were established for continual

teacher training (Teacher Centres: CEP) under the auspices of the education authorities. Today, Spanish educational legislation provides for the development of continual training activities for teachers through the Annual Plan for Teacher Training (PAFP) set out by each regional government.

## **2.2. State policy framework for teacher training**

The following information can be found on the INTEF<sup>1</sup> website.

### *2.2.1. Initial training*

Teachers must be in possession of the academic qualifications needed and appropriate teacher training. The national education legislation sets the initial teacher training requirements for each stage:

**Childhood Education Teachers:** The first year of childhood education will be undertaken by professionals who hold the title of ‘Teacher’ with specialization in childhood education or the equivalent graduate degree, and where appropriate, by other staff duly certified to care for boys and girls of this age. The second year will be taught by personnel having the title of ‘Teacher’ specialized in childhood education or possessing the equivalent graduate degree, and may be supported in their teaching activities by teachers specialized in other areas when the subjects taught so require.

**Primary Education Teachers:** To teach primary school education it will be necessary to have the title of Primary Education Teacher or the equivalent graduate degree. The teaching of music, physical education and foreign languages will be undertaken by teachers with the expertise or qualifications necessary.

**Compulsory Secondary Education and Baccalaureate Teachers:** To become a Secondary Education teacher it will be necessary to have a university degree, be an engineer or an architect, or hold an equivalent graduate degree, as well as having postgraduate pedagogical and didactic training<sup>2</sup>, without prejudicing the acceptance of other qualifications which for teaching purposes the government could establish for certain areas.

**Technical/Vocational Training Teachers:** To undertake teaching at this level it will be necessary to have a university degree, be an engineer or an architect, or hold an equivalent graduate degree, as well as having postgraduate pedagogical and didactic training. Exceptionally, graduate or non-graduate professionals who undertake their activities in the workplace, may be incorporated as specialist teachers for certain modules.

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<sup>1</sup> Available in: <http://formacionprofesorado.educacion.es/index.php/es/servicioformacion/normativa/306-formacion-del-profesorado>

<sup>2</sup> Master of Secondary Education.

Art Education and Foreign Language Teachers: To become a teacher of Art Education and Foreign Languages will be necessary to have a university degree, be an engineer or an architect, or hold an equivalent graduate degree. The possibility also exists that other qualifications may be established by the Government for certain modules. Exceptionally, foreign graduate or non-graduate professionals may be incorporated depending on their qualifications and the needs of the education system. The legislative and regulatory framework of reference is: Organic Law 2/2006 of Education. Title III, Chapter II ('Teaching personnel of the various levels of education') and Chapter III ('Teacher training').

Special Education Teachers: In order to ensure quality education for all students, additional personnel resources will be provided in education centres made up of teachers specialised in therapeutic education or special education and also speech and listening, incorporated in the education guidance and psychology teams in primary schools and in those secondary schools in which pupils with permanent special educational needs are enrolled. In those schools specifically oriented to special education, teachers and other interdisciplinary staff must possess the qualifications required for their function and, where appropriate, the expertise, experience and skills that may be necessary<sup>3</sup>.

#### *2.2.2. Continuous training*

Changes in education and society place new demands on the teaching profession making it increasingly complex and requiring more and better training. State regulation of Continuous training for teachers is contained in: Organic Law 2/2006 of Education: However as we have said, state regulation is developed locally by the regional governments<sup>4</sup>, and usually the educative centres or schools themselves make their list of most preferred course, for instance, in NICT, cooperative work, attendance to diversity, etc.

#### *2.2.3. Postgraduate schools*

In Spain we have two fundamental legislative references in training PhDs: Organic Law 4/2007, of 12 April, which modifies ORGANIC LAW 6/2001, of 21 December on the Universities, and ROYAL DECREE 99/2011, which regulates the official doctorate studies.

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<sup>3</sup> The legislative and regulatory framework of reference is: ORGANIC LAW 2/2006 of Education. Title II, Chapter I ('Students with special educational needs').

<sup>4</sup> The Valencian Community is governed by ORDER 65/2012, of October 26, of the Department of Education, Training and Employment, which establishes the continuous teacher training model and the design, recognition and registration of the training activities. [2012/10009]

Organic Law 4/2007 defines the structure of university studies in three levels: Bachelor, Master and PhD, and it specifies the doctorate studies, corresponding to the third level, that result in the official qualification of Doctor (PhD). Doctoral studies are organized and conducted in the manner determined by the statutes of the universities, within the criteria approved by the government for obtaining the degree of Doctor (PhD), based on the report of the Universities Council.

Universities may establish doctorates (and/or Master courses) under the leadership and academic responsibility of a centre, a department, a university research institute or a specific agency/organisation created for this purpose, under the tutelage of the Postgraduate Study Commission. To this end, Royal Decree 99/2011 contemplates the constitution of Doctoral Schools and establishes academic committees of doctoral programs, as well as the figure of coordinator of the programme. This Decree constitutes the framework for the organization of doctoral studies upon incorporating the recommendations of European and international forums on the training of doctors in a research environment that encourages communication and creativity, as well as internationalization and mobility.

#### *2.2.4. International cooperation in teacher training<sup>5</sup>*

The action programme in the field of lifelong learning of the European Union (EU) aims to contribute to the development of its Member States, encouraging exchange, cooperation and mobility between the education and training systems within the EU. By virtue of teacher mobility, the exchange of expertise and experience of pedagogical methods will be encouraged. To achieve this, aid and grants are awarded to projects that increase the transnational mobility of people, promote bilateral and multilateral partnerships and/or improve the quality of education and training systems. The action programme includes the following programmes: Erasmus, Leonardo da Vinci, Grundtvig, Transversal Programme and Jean Monet Programme.

### **2.3. Institutional system of continuous training**

#### *2.3.1. Organization aspects*

Via the National Institute of Educational Technology and Teacher Training (INTEF) the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (MECD) annually determines the priority lines of the plans for continuous teacher training. It also offers continuous training programmes at state level and establishes appropriate agreements with other institutions for this purpose.

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<sup>5</sup> Available in: [http://europa.eu/legislation\\_summaries/education\\_training\\_youth/general\\_framework/c11082\\_es.htm](http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/general_framework/c11082_es.htm)

The LOE defines the guidelines that should be followed by the continuous training programmes offered by the educational authorities of the regional governments: it considers the adequacy of knowledge and teaching methods to the development of science and specific didactics; it offers training related to coordination, guidance, mentoring, attention to diversity and school organization; it establishes training programmes in ICT and in foreign languages; it supports programmes of research and innovation in education; and offers specific training in equal opportunities for women and men, and coeducation.

Regional governments are free to set their own priorities in those areas that are within their own management. This implies that both the content of the training and institutions responsible for providing it differ from one regional government to another.

In all the regional governments there exists a network of institutions (Teacher and Resource Centres) dedicated to provide training activities. Their roles and responsibilities are related to: the organization and development of the scope of the training plan, the promotion of inter-institutional workgroups, the provision of resources, and the improvement of educational innovation. In each regional government there are other institutions involved in teacher training, such as university departments, Institutes of the Science of Education, Professional Associations, Unions, educational reform movements, and teacher training centres<sup>6</sup>.

### *2.3.2. Structure of continuous training*

As already mentioned the Annual Teacher Training Plan (PAFP) is directed by each regional government. Hence we will use the example of the Valencian Community, being that which we know best.

The continuous teacher training model of the Valencian Community establishes three organisations that participate in this activity: The Teacher Training Service, the network of Centres for Training, Innovation and Education Resources (CEFIRE), and the Continuous Teacher Training Units in centres of education.

### *2.3.3. Continuous training plan*

In the case of the Valencian Community, the Annual Teacher Training Plan (PAFP) is the official document that defines the overall strategic lines, priority action areas and specific instructions on continuous teacher training for each school year. It is approved by a resolution of the general directorate responsible for teacher training and establishes the guidelines for the design, development and evaluation of annual action plans of the Training, Innovation and Resource Centres of the Valencian

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<sup>6</sup> *Escola de Mestres* began in July 2013 as the initiative of AKOE (Association of Education Cooperatives of the Valencian Community). Florida Universitaria, the centre in which the authors of this article work, is a member of AKOE.

Community, and also the PAFP of centres of education. The results of the evaluation of the annual action plans of the CEFIRE and the annual training programmes of education centres will influence the PAFP proposed for the following school year.

#### *2.3.4. Teacher training service*

This service drafts the PAFP proposal for each school year, directs and coordinates the CEFIRE network, evaluates the continuous teacher training activities, manages the registration and recognition of continuous teacher training, and identifies educational needs based on the evaluation of training and a diagnostic assessment. The Teacher Training Service can also promote training activities directly.

#### *2.3.5. Training, innovation and educational resource centres*

The CEFIRE network plays a mediating and coordinator role between the Teacher Training Service and centres of education, and also encourages training activities directly. Each CEFIRE prepares an annual action plan which contextualizes the strategic lines of the PAFP to the limits that are within its own scope. Training counsellors have to identify the continuous training needs of teachers and advise the training coordinator in drafting the PAFP of centres of education. In addition they have to collaborate in the implementation of specific programmes established by the Department of Education, Training and Employment, and promote innovation and educational research. They will also record and disseminate the experiences had by education centres and teachers that constitute good teaching practices, and assess the PAFP of education centres.

#### *2.3.6. Centres of education*

Continuous teacher training will be part of the educational project of education centres. Given their autonomy, these centres will encourage and propose training activities in the context of the development of their educational projects. The management teams of non-university education centres will include the training needs of the staff in the PAFP as well as specific individual actions for updating teacher curricula. To this end, TRAINING UNITS will be created in each centre of education and coordinated by the head of training to identify training needs and ensure application of the training in the classroom. The coordinator will collect the input from families and local representatives. The PAFP will be assessed by educational coordination bodies and the governing bodies of the centres of education. The results of the evaluation will be included in the end of year report and proposals for improvements will be taken into account when designing the PAFP for the following course.

### *2.3.7. Training plans for associates*

In order to be recognized as continuous training activities, collaborating entities must comply not only with the provisions stipulated but also study, evaluate and propose training plans to the general directorate, as well as monitoring them. All these aspects will be assessed by the training recognition commission.

## **2.4. Professional development and continuous training**

The concept of professional development is obviously broader than that of continuous training. Training is an important and necessary element in professional teacher development which is comprised of various factors such as the teaching career, professional status, the remuneration system, employment context, etc. Professional development should be understood as a process of growth and improvement in relation to knowledge, in attitudes towards work and the work place, seeking an interplay between the needs of personal development and institutional and social development (Laffitte, 1991). Professional development shapes the construction of professional identity (MEDINA, 1998), that aims to increase satisfaction in the exercise of the profession through greater understanding and improvement of professional competence.

### *2.4.1. Itineraries*

A training itinerary is considered to be the sum of the training activities for which it is considered that all teachers of a certain specialty, level, position or group of similar professional interests should participate in. The general directorate with responsibility for teacher training will determine and develop training itineraries, the conditions for participation and the deadlines for their realization. The itineraries must provide skills in methodology, teaching, new technologies, social skills and resource development, and in all cases be directed towards the target groups of interest.

### *2.4.2. Training account*

Only those activities included within the PAFP and approved by the relevant general directorate of continuous teacher training will be recognized. In this regard, the MECED maintains a record of training, or training account<sup>7</sup>, where every teacher should register any training undertaken. This register facilitates greater access to the training history of every teacher, each of which may periodically evaluate it, establish whether the desired results have been obtained, decide which training is most suited to his/her profile, and update their professional skills. The recorded and assessed training accounts will be taken into consideration in the recognition of three-yearly and six-yearly evaluations and hence have an impact on salary.

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<sup>7</sup> As termed in the Valencian Community.

This record will also evaluate processes and players involved in the training activities and reflect the commitment of teachers to this activity, thus facilitating the improvement of employment and professional options and the evaluation of such training in calls for outplacements.

Continuous training activities are classified into five basic categories for the purposes of their recognition, certification and registration: courses, seminars, workgroups, training projects in centres, and congresses. Activities can be undertaken by physical presence, via the internet, and mixed (one in which attendance and internet phases are combined).

#### *2.4.3. Financing and incentives for participation in continuous training*

Participation in continuous training is optional but it has repercussions on teachers' professional careers in the form of merits in offers of employment in the public sector or the award of salary bonuses. Teachers can perform these activities outside school hours, or during the working hours spent in the education centre or during the working day provided they are undertaken outside the centre.

In terms of funding, the provision of continuous training by public (state) institutions is free. In the case of activities offered by other organisations, financial help is available to participants to cover costs. Regional governments tend to favour the development of paid study leave for state school teachers in order to stimulate training activities and educational research and innovation.

As regards incentives, several agreements related to continuous teacher training were established between the MECD and the education departments of the regional governments in 2011 concerning the recognition of teacher training and teacher salary bonuses linked to it, in order for teachers to receive the special allowance for continuous training (three-yearly and six-yearly bonuses). Thus, it is established that a credit is equivalent to ten hours of training<sup>8</sup>.

### **3. Sociological profile of teacher training students and teachers**

One of the elements that has been most analysed in sociology in relation to teachers is that of social mobility and the socioeconomic characteristics of teachers. Since the 1970s and until the late 1990s different studies in several contexts have analysed the socioeconomic profiles and backgrounds of teachers (Guerrero 1997; Lortie, 1975; Ortega & Varela, 1985). These studies found links between the teaching profession and social origin, evolving from existing links between this profession and the small rural bourgeois class, to others with the middle class, and later in the 90's to an increasing proletarianization and urbanization of teachers and teacher training students.

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<sup>8</sup> Second additional amendment to ORDER EDU/2886/2011, concerning training credits.

In the last two decades sociological studies have shifted from the analysis of teachers as a social category, especially from a social class perspective, to one of an educative agent, exploring their role in teaching and learning processes (Guerrero, 2007).

In addition, various studies over the same period (Esteve, 1994) have explored the special situations that affect teachers' practices within classrooms and the 'burnout teacher' syndrome (Durán et al. 2005; Silvero-Miramón, 2007). It is a reality that the teaching profession is surrounded by multiple difficulties: the reduction of public resources for schools; increasing ratios of students within the classrooms that at the same time coincides with greater student diversity in cultural, social and capacity terms. Also the crisis of schools and the formal education system in achieving one of its main functions in highly complex social contexts, the socialization function, gets into conflict with other contexts and with the subject's own individuality and the construction of his or her identity. To these elements we must add the worsening of working conditions that for many decades had been an important incentive for attracting new candidates.

One of the most attractive characteristics of the teaching profession has been the possibilities it offered for accessing the national or regional civil service structure. This used to imply security and stability at work, a generous vacation period and salary increases linked to career promotion. In a study undertaken by Guerrero in the middle 1990's to analyse the socio-professional profiles of secondary teachers he mentions how this type of teacher was happy about "*being secure, of having an 'iron job position', secure and rigid*" (Guerrero, 1997, p. 255).

Conditions offered by the public service system have been especially attractive to women who found in this professional career an area where merits would be more objectively valued without gender discrimination. Some authors (Enguita, 1999) even went further and expressed very criticized opinions in relation to the way women found this profession also to be quite suitable for conciliation with family life, and how this had been to the detriment of professionalization and the educative system, and even against the interests of students and families. The truth is that even when the gradual feminization of the profession is a reality (see table) there is no evidence to suggest that this has gone against teacher professionalization, indeed rather the contrary (Guerrero, 2003). It is also a reality that the greater number of women holding education positions is particularly noticeable in the lower educational levels, decreasing gradually as we move to higher education levels, and substantially if we look at higher level positions in the university hierarchy.

If we look at the figures for student registration in the field of education, we keep seeing the significantly greater presence of women in this area of knowledge

and professional practice. However, as commented earlier, this is especially true for childhood and primary education while for secondary education and vocational training there is still superiority of women though the difference is less wide. This conclusion is extracted out of the Masters' registration figures, since secondary teachers must undertake a teacher training Master as a requisite for being able to work.

**Table 1.** Percentage of registered students by gender in Education Degrees. 2011-12

	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Education	78,3	21,7
Education science	81,2	18,8
Childhood education training	94,1	5,9
Primary education training	66,4	33,6

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Sport

**Table 2.** Percentage of registered students by gender in Education Masters Degrees. 2011-12

	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
Teacher training and education science	53,3	46,7
Teacher training	67,7	32,3
Education science	67,0	33,0
Childhood education teacher training	94,5	5,5
Primary education teacher training	84,4	15,6
Training of teachers in special subjects	62,1	37,9
Vocational education teachers' training	53,7	46,3

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Sport

The public offer of positions for childhood and primary, and secondary teachers have been alternatively offered each year by the various autonomous community governments. However, in recent years civil servant teacher recruitment has been reduced and a consequence of this gradual drop can be observed for example in the ageing of teachers in public schools (see table) while private schools incorporate younger staff. In the case of secondary education teachers the public offer of places has also been reduced, but in some regions there has also been a major reduction in the possibility to access teaching positions in the public system on the temporary contract basis that previously used to be a frequent route for obtaining work for many teachers. Public investment in education has reduced and there have been readjustments of classroom ratios and the distribution of teacher positions per student. This has limited mobility a lot in the list of aspirants to teaching positions.

The following figures show the distribution of teachers by region and centre ownership, and it is interesting to see how in some regions, e.g. Madrid or The Basque Country, the proportion of private centres is considerably greater and above the usual average of 30% private centres that characterises the Spanish system. What is also remarkable is the large number of teachers working in private centres that offer the modality of compulsory education (6-16) plus secondary or vocational

training. This is the private sector's response to family demands for having their children in the same centre for as much time as possible.

**Table 3.** Distribution of teachers<sup>9</sup> by regions and type of centre. 2012-13

	<i>Public centres</i>	<i>Private centres</i>	<i>Proportion private</i>
TOTAL	474,993	189,332	28.5
ANDALUCÍA	96,344	29,071	23.2
ARAGÓN	13,688	5,147	27.3
ASTURIAS (Principado de)	10,675	2,891	21.3
BALEARS (Illes)	10772	4,667	30.2
	21,622	4,970	18.7
CANTABRIA	6,274	2,042	24.6
CASTILLA Y LEÓN	25,730	8,947	25.8
CASTILLA-LA MANCHA	26,399	4,885	15.6
CATALUÑA	70,222	34,834	<b>33.2</b>
COMUNITAT VALENCIANA	50,628	19,712	28.0
EXTREMADURA	13,942	2,406	14.7
GALICIA	28,678	7,731	21.2
MADRID	48,326	38,773	<b>44.5</b>
MURCIA	18,773	5,556	22.8
NAVARRA	7,089	2,705	27.6
PAÍS VASCO	20,102	13,226	<b>39.7</b>
RIOJA (La)	3,333	1286	27.8
CEUTA	1,177	271	18.7
MELILLA	1,219	212	14.8

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Sport

**Table 4.** Distribution of teachers by type of centre and ownership (2011-12)

	<i>Childhood Centres</i>	<i>Primary education centres</i>	<i>Primary and Secondary compulsory education centres</i>	<i>Centres for Secondary compulsory education and/or non- compulsory secondary, and/or vocational training</i>	<i>Centres for primary and secondary compulsory education, and secondary education or vocational training</i>	<i>Centres for Special education</i>	<i>Specific centres for distance learning</i>	<i>Plans for Initial Professional Qualification</i>
PUBLIC	27,981	219,947	12,852	20,191	188	4,122	403	309
PRIVATE	21,080	7,961	54,975	13,663	88,038	3,290	9	316

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Sport

The data show that the proportion of teachers younger than 39 years and older than 60 is higher in private centres than in the public sector, while the higher proportion of teachers between 40 and 60 years of age is greater in public centres, the latter

<sup>9</sup> The figures include all centres offering compulsory studies and also those offering compulsory and non-compulsory education (Secondary education and Vocational training). It also includes teachers of the Plans for Initial Professional Qualification that is a formula directed to children coming from educative failure.

reflecting the considerable number of years during which the offer of public job positions was high and continuous. The figures also demonstrate the feminization of the teaching profession, this being greater at the childhood and primary levels.

**Table 5.** Distribution of teachers by age and centres' ownership (2011-12)

	<i>Less than 30 years old</i>	<i>From 30 to 39 years old</i>	<i>From 40 to 49 years old</i>	<i>From 50 to 59 years old</i>	<i>From 60 to 64 years old</i>	<i>65 years old and more</i>	<i>No data</i>
Public centres	7,6	26,2	26,8	26,1	1,9	0,4	11,0
Private centres	15,0	27,7	22,9	16,5	5,8	0,9	11,3

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Sport

**Table 6.** Distribution of teachers by gender and centre ownership (2011-12)

	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Public centres	29,8	70,2
Private centres	27,9	72,1

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Sport

Given a scenario where the profession is not free of difficulties, Sanchez Lissen (2009) introduces the following reflection: why is the number of aspirant teachers still so high? According to this author, and from the information provided by different studies over the last three decades, there are five myths that surround the election of this career: salary, vacations, the duration of studies, the low requisites for access, and vocation. Some of these reasons could be questionable since reality in relation to these issues is changing so much in recent years that these elements do not appear to be so advantageous. Nevertheless, teaching is still a worthy career and vocation remains one of the most important reasons for its choice.

## 5. Future professional plans of teacher education students

Despite the increase in tuition fees and that teacher training is not always a first choice career option, teaching training colleges still fill all the places offered each year. According to data in the White Paper (2004) Childhood Education and Primary Education teaching degrees occupy the 8<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> positions out of a total of 118 university degrees, in relation to the total number of places available.

Although teaching has traditionally been regarded as a vocation, various studies (De la Rosa Acosta, 1969, Gonzalez Sanmamed, 1995, Ortega & Varela, 1985, Sanchez Lissen, 2002) recognized other factors that influenced the choice of this career: the salary, the holiday leave, the duration of the training course, the low level of the requirements for entry into the profession. As regards access to teacher training and the teaching profession, in Spain the requirements are few for pursuing a teaching degree, hence this training may be chosen more readily than others (Sanchez Lissen, 2009). As regards selection, this is done at the moment of access to

the teaching profession. In case of schools that are private or jointly financed by a mix of private and state funding ('concertado'), the head of the school is responsible for choosing the teaching staff. For publicly funded (state) schools, access to civil service teaching positions is done through an entry exam. While entry to the teaching profession via the civil service is the most widespread model of teaching practice in Spain, providing lifelong employment, some authors (Esteve, 2003; Fernandez Enguita, 2005) are of the opinion that there should be more to entry into the profession than just passing an exam. The skills and personality of the candidate should also be considered, thus recognizing the importance of recruitment. Working conditions should also be improved to attract better teachers. In this respect, *collective bargaining by teachers unions can lead to different outcomes to those attained by negotiations of individuals* (OECD, 2009, p.166).

In relation to the abandonment of training courses, in the view of Cabrera, Thomas, Álvarez and González (2006) humanities courses have the highest dropout rate (43%) but the lowest delay (15%). Thus if abandonment is little associated with academic failure, the impact of other factors such as the ease of access (lower exam result cut-off marks or unlimited access) must be considered to favour the entry of students who fail in more difficult degree courses or who do not have the possibility of accessing other qualifications, or the oversubscription of teaching courses which results in saturation of the labour market. (Cabrera et al., 2006, p. 178).

With regard to abandonment of the profession, the highest rates occur among new teachers, being greatest for secondary school teachers rather than primary. Attrition and turnover rates are not uniform across different schools but tend to be greater in schools located in disadvantaged areas (OECD, 2009, pp. 198–199).

The study of Anaya and Suarez (2006) revealed the existence of significant differences in job satisfaction among teachers. In general, it appears that newly qualified teachers have a higher level of satisfaction than their senior colleagues, and that female teachers are more satisfied than their male counterparts. In regard to the stage of education, secondary education teachers manifest lower levels of job satisfaction than childhood and primary teachers. In terms of personal achievement, work design, promotion and bosses, and salary, the results indicate that teachers like the work they do and probably would not change their current job for other work of a similar status and category. This position changes however as the stage of education advances.

Whilst on the other hand the mobility of teachers between countries is growing thanks to organizations like the European Commission that support teacher exchange programmes in different countries (OECD, 2009, p. 184), there is a relatively low rate of teacher mobility between schools and educational jurisdictions in Spain. This results in schools that have a certain degree of staff stability but it

stifles the introduction of new ideas and perspectives, and can aggravate regional imbalances in the supply and demand for teachers (OECD, 2009, p. 182). Monitoring of teacher turnover and mobility is the responsibility of the regional education authorities that periodically hold competitive offers for teacher mobility. Data on employability are derived from the job positions offered in each competition and differ from one region to another<sup>10</sup>.

## **6. Social construction of teacher image in wider society**

Social prestige depends on various factors of economic, social and culture nature. Historical factors are also important to understand teacher prestige in childhood and primary education levels and the way these studies and the professional career have been conceived. Studies for childhood and primary teaching degrees have traditionally been regarded as being low difficulty studies, and have very often been used as a previous step to gaining access to higher studies. That these were three-year study (Diploma) courses prior to the Bolonia process may have contributed to this career being regarded as 'semi-professional' (Cabrera & Giménez, 1994; González Sanmamed, 1995) in comparison to other longer studies. In this sense, secondary education teachers come from different specialisation disciplines and in most cases from five-year Bachelor studies that, along with other considerations, also contribute to a better social prestige for this collective.

There is to some degree a pessimistic view among teachers that the profession is below minimums in terms of social prestige, and we find two principal reasons to which this situation can be attributed. On the one hand, teachers complain of a lack of authority within the classrooms and among families; according to them, families are bewildered and unable to control their children (Fernández Enguita, n. d.). On the other, teachers feel that their work is undervalued and that the labour benefits associated with their work (salary, schedules, vacation periods...) are overestimated. Added to this, they may also feel that in the last few years institutional and political support of the figure of the teacher has reduced, and that the media has been responsible for disseminating some of these tensions by alternately providing biased publicity to both parts.

In relation to the first of these factors, the issue of authority and the way this is linked to the (lack of) professional prestige, we could say that it is necessary to understand the general evolution of this concept in wider society to extrapolate consequences in the field of teaching. We only need to go back to the texts of some

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<sup>10</sup> The cut-off levels in June of the current year oscillated between 6.83 (affiliated centre 'Florida Universitaria') and 7.99 (University of Valencia) in Primary Education. The cut-off values for Childhood Education remained around 6. Recruitment is not the same in all countries although this becomes significant depending on the way the teaching profession is viewed in each country.

classical authors (e.g. Plato, the baron of Chateaubriand etc.) to see how historically we get the impression that in former times the idea of authority was more strongly implanted in youth, and teachers and parents were stricter (Trilla, 2009), and that even the amount of knowledge and the academic levels of our students was higher (Fernández Enguita, 2012). Nonetheless, it may be a reality that, with the exception of particular cases and involution periods, disciplinary mechanisms in both family and school contexts have softened (Trilla, 2009).

In relation to the authority issue, Marina (2009) speaks of three concepts that can help to explain the teachers' situation i.e. legitimate power, received authority and deserved authority, and these concepts have some parallelisms with the Weberian distinction of authority: traditional, charismatic and bureaucratic, and how we can find different nuances in the way these forms take currently place. In this sense, we can observe that coercive power has reduced. Teachers' capacity to apply some type of sanction in the school context has been limited and indeed we must congratulate this. There is on the contrary a diversity of opinions in relation to the received authority of teachers, that is, the fact that teachers are respected only because of being teachers and because of the institution that is behind them. Some authors believe this type of authority has reduced (Marina, 2009) while others do not support this idea (Trilla, 2009). There are in effect some factors that may contribute to explain this supposed situation. For instance we could mention the higher education level of parents, in recent decades the numbers of people going to university has increased very importantly and in 2011 (INE, 2013) more than 30% of the Spanish population over 25 years old had university studies. This percentage is especially high among women of between 25 and 34 years of age where the proportion having university studies is 44.1%. This may have had the effect that parents do not irremediably accept all decisions made by teachers as used to be the case 30 years ago. However, there is probably another reason of greater weight, and this is the fact that schools rival with other contexts in their socializing and education functions Pérez-Agote (2010). It is not new to say that mass media and information technologies have a very great impact on childrens' socialization and forms of learning, but also individualization makes individuals that do not easily accept all educative and ethical parameters simply because they are transmitted in the school context. Schools are also questioned as the main context for providing knowledge and learning processes since 'knowledge' may come from different sources and NICT play a key role in this. However, even when we are in agreement with this, a revision of the concepts of 'knowledge' and 'information' is necessary when considering this assumption.

At this point it is worth mentioning the data from the Centre for Sociological Research (CIS, February 2013) since it shows interesting results in relation to social perceptions of the teaching profession. According to this data, childhood and

primary education teachers are the most valued professions after medical doctors and university teachers. Vocational training teachers and secondary teachers appear as the fifth and sixth most valued. However, when asked about the profession that the interviewees would recommend to their children, teachers appear in the list but at a very considerable distance from medical doctors (46.1%), lawyers (17.4%), architects (12.2%) or university teachers (11.7%). Only around 7% would recommend Childhood, Primary or Secondary education teaching as a career to their children, and this percentage drops dramatically if we speak of vocational training teachers (2.5%).

39% and 38% respectively of the interviewees consider that childhood and primary teachers are not well-paid professions. Almost 50% consider that childhood teachers do not have social prestige, and 47% think the same about primary teachers. The majority of the interviewees (more than 83%) believe that childhood and primary teachers require a very sound background and training, and this percentage of respondents increases as we talk of higher educational levels. The survey does not ask whether teachers receive a really solid training, however the need for continuous training appears as one of the most important factors for improving their work.

More than 50% of respondents consider that in the last ten years teachers' social image has deteriorated and only 15% believe that it has improved. Also 62% think that teachers are not or are very little motivated, and there could be a multiplicity of factors to explain this situation. According to respondents, the most important reasons for this lack of motivation are: the economic situation and reduction in public resources and investments; the low respect of pupils towards teachers; low social prestige and the fact of being a non-well paid profession; and the questioning of teachers' authority. This loss of authority and the low respect of children and teenagers towards teachers seem to be main worries among participants in the survey who believe that teachers should be considered as a 'public authority'. This measure, that some years ago generated social and political debate, has been adopted in some autonomous communities and it implies that the 'veracity principle' applies to teachers and that they have the authority to adopt adequate measures to reprimand inappropriate behaviour in education centres.

When asked about the main challenges facing teachers, those most mentioned were directly linked to students: the lack of discipline, the ratio of students within the classrooms, and the lack of interest and motivation among students. Beyond these, the other factor mentioned was the lack of material resources. Therefore, and according to the results of this study, it seems that society highly values the role of teachers although it is recognized that they face important difficulties in their day to day work. It is worth mentioning that issues such as salary, the number of teaching hours, or the increasing time being dedicated to bureaucracy are not considered to be

the main challenges to be faced by teachers, but these are indeed important issues linked to the professionalization and rise of teachers' social prestige which has been recognized as low among this professional collective.

Factors that respondents consider could improve teachers' work are the provision of teachers with more material and technical resources, and the strengthening of teachers' authority. Following these, other factors appear that focus on teachers' performance and qualifications, hence respondents mention the importance of improving the selection criteria for having access to the studies and the work, and also the need to evaluate teachers' work in a continuous way. These two issues may reflect society's worries about the challenges facing education and the problem of educative failure and/or abandonment, where different responsibilities need to be examined and teachers should remain outwith this exercise.

## **7. Curricula and values in teacher training, curricula and society**

“Key competences in work (*Marco, 2008*) proposed by the European Higher Education Area in the case of teaching degrees incorporate knowledge, skills and attitudes as basic reference points for this professional qualification (...). Building attitudes of tolerance, democracy and plurality must be present so that students will have the capacity to be self-critical about their own behaviour” (*Mérida, 2009, p. 43*).

When we addressed the training of teachers in paragraph 3, we referred to teacher training highlighting legislation in the national context, according to which studies for the Teaching degree cannot have an overall workload of less than 180 credits; instructional time ranges between 20 and 30 hours per week, including practical work. The common materials that constitute the core of the curriculum are: Psychopedagogical Bases of Special Education, General Teaching, School Organisation, Psychology of Education and of School Age Development, Educational Sociology, Theories and Contemporary Institutions of Education, New Technologies Applied to Education and Practicum (the minimum duration of which is 320 hours). Apart from the core subjects, additional courses are obligatory for each of the specialties<sup>11</sup>. Along with both of these elements, each university also has - in the exercise of its autonomy - a set of compulsory and optional topics for students. The teaching degrees for Childhood Education and Primary Education share 13 courses and constitute a total of 84 credits in common, a situation that facilitates obtaining both degrees<sup>12</sup>. In this respect, Florida University (a centre

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<sup>11</sup> Infant Education, Primary Education, Special Education, Music Education, Physical Education, Foreign Languages and Audition, and Language

<sup>12</sup> Source: web page of the University of Valencia

affiliated to the University of Valencia) offers a double degree (Primary Education and Childhood Education).

Over the course of their training, teachers are prepared in order to be able to impart knowledge but barely receive instruction in the formation of attitudes, thus while many consider themselves to be specialists in their field they do not see themselves as *educators* of students, thus generating a debate about whether it is important to teach the contents of the different subjects or prepare students in ethical, political and social respects. In any case, teachers must respond to the needs of the educational institutions: *“teaching how to think, preparing for work through the development of skills and instilling values that facilitate and enhance coexistence and social transformation: pacifism, solidarity, tolerance, justice, authenticity, equality”* (Santos Guerra, 2010, pp. 24–25).

In the UNESCO report (Delors, 1996) it was already argued that teacher training should include ethical and emotional development since teachers transmit values and attitudes through their way of being and being in contact with students. Hence both the social and emotional skills of teachers influence how teachers do their job and establish relationships in the classroom (Palomero, 2009). As noted by Zabala *“Personal qualities play a critical role (...), how a person is: very authoritarian, little authoritarian, paternalistic, not very paternalistic, very creative, very bad-tempered with students, very distant, very close; all are personal issues that significantly affect the type of work that one can do. But really we do not know how to organise it in university or even in degrees (...) where we prepare the teachers of the future”* (2006, pp. 105–106). Thus the crux is that both the initial and on-going training of teachers for the development of their social and emotional skills is generally insufficient. Five attitudes would cultivate these skills in teachers: phenomenological disposition, autonomy, responsibility, independence of judgment and a cooperative disposition (Palomero, 2009). Thus, if attitude training *“is related to the poise and nature of the teacher, or put another way, with training in personal skills”* (Palomero, 2009, p. 149), teacher education cannot and should not omit the ethical, attitudinal and emotional resources needed to achieve the democratic education of future citizens, especially when the choice of the content of the school curriculum – established from the political sphere – is not neutral but in reality includes an ideological component<sup>13</sup>. *“The educational institution must cease to be “a place” in which only the basics are learnt (the four rules, socialization, a trade) and instead assume that it is at the same time both a manifestation of life in all its complexity (network of relations) and an institutional form for gaining knowledge*

<sup>13</sup> An example of this can be found in the draft of the new law on education (LOMCE) with the disappearance of the course ‘Education for citizenship’ from both primary and secondary education curricula.

and therefore teach about the world and the complexity of being a citizen bearing in mind the latter's democratic, social, solidarity, egalitarian, cultural and environmental perspectives" (Imbernon, 2010, p. 6). It may appear obvious but to build democratic schools in democratic societies one must count on individuals dedicated to democratic values (participation, tolerance, respect, equality, ... )

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# **GABRIELLA STARK & KATALIN ZOLLER**

## **Initial and continuous teacher education system. National report – Romania**

### **Introduction**

Reflection on initial teacher education and continuous teacher education systems is highly relevant in our society marked by continuous demands. By strengthening the roles, capacities and responsibilities of teachers, education systems can provide emphasized answers in fulfilling all the demands set by the new information society characterized by new patterns of labor, social interactions and lifestyle supported by information technology. This report aims to reveal the current situation of the education and continuous professional development system of teachers in Romania. At the same time its aim is to set out the main areas and contribute to the process of revision where the system needs to be improved. The study is based on official documents, laws and regulations available in Romania, also on prior studies and reports summarizing, researching the same topic.

### **I. National system of initial teacher education and training**

#### **1. Teachers in compulsory education: from kindergarten to secondary schools**

In the current system of education in Romania, the concept of teacher involves all educators employed in compulsory education institutions but there are different categories of teachers for each phase of the schooling structure: teachers for secondary schools, teachers for middle and upper primary school levels (gymnasium, grade 5-8), teachers for lower primary school levels, and teachers for pre-primary education, kindergartens (preschools). The title of “teacher” refers only to a narrow group of kindergarten and primary school educators, only those who already acquired university-level (and master’s) degrees. Educators with secondary education or college degrees have been given a respite until 2018 to acquire university-level (master’s) degrees (emergency Government Decree 92/2012, Paragraph 6). Beginning with 2018, only teachers with university-level (master’s) degrees will be allowed to teach at all levels of the system of compulsory education.

#### **2. Teacher education in Romania: from pedagogical lyceum to the master’s degrees of the Bologna system**

Teacher education in Romania is quite diverse; educator degrees are available at different education levels in various educational institutions. We have to differentiate the education of kindergarten and lower grade primary school teachers

from that of middle and upper primary school (gymnasium) levels and secondary schools. In our approach to analyze the system of initial education of teachers, we will discuss the above mentioned two sub-groups separately.

### *2.1. Kindergarten and lower primary school level teachers' education*

In Romania, kindergarten and lower primary school level teachers' education is palpable in different forms and at different levels: there is training at the secondary education, post-secondary (post-lyceum), college and university level. The education programs at these various levels are partially offered at the same time; also the kindergarten and lower primary school level teachers with different degrees are employed simultaneously at educational institutions.

#### *a) Secondary education level training of kindergarten and lower primary school teachers*

Four- or five-year-long secondary education level training has deep traditions in the Romanian compulsory education; prestigious pedagogical lyceums/secondary schools (in Oradea, Aiud, Sighetu Marmăției, Odorheiu Secuiesc, etc.) have evolved into a frame of reference for the public perception of the teaching profession. Secondary education level teacher training institutions still exist even today but their standard has decreased over time and nowadays they serve as preparatory institutions for university-level teacher education. The Education Law (Paragraph 236/2) abolished teacher training at the secondary education level, and the 5347/2011 Ministerial Decision (Paragraph 1/4) enforced that pedagogical lyceums are not allowed to start kindergarten and lower primary school level teacher training classes beginning with the 2012/2013 academic year, and transformed these institutions into infant care training establishments. However, the emergency Government Decree 92/2012 put into force these institutions again, they are allowed to train infant care professionals and, temporarily, kindergarten and lower primary school level teachers with secondary education degrees as well (emergency Government Decree 92/2012, Paragraph I/11). This represents and confirms hesitations and tendencies of stepping back. According to Paragraph 6 of the emergency Government Decree, teachers already within the system can continue working at kindergartens and schools in their current positions under one condition: they have to acquire their university-level degree within six years. Paragraph I/12 supplements the Education Law; i.e. "kindergartener" (with secondary education degree) may be included in status descriptions until 2018, while Paragraph I/13 states that teachers with secondary education degrees are allowed to be employed at lower levels of primary schools until 2018.

*b) Post-lyceum education of kindergarten and lower primary school level teachers*

The two-year long post-lyceum type of education was part of the Romanian education supply for only a short period. It was implemented temporarily (for one or two years) following the 1989 political transition to decrease tremendous teacher shortage (Barabási, 2006; Szabó, 2006). Today, there is no such education type; teachers with post-lyceum degrees are considered in the same category as teachers with secondary education degrees.

*c) College education of kindergarten and lower primary school level teachers*

The 84/1995 Education Law allowed organizing tertiary-level (non-university level) kindergarten and primary school teacher education possible in the higher education system. Romanian-language academic extension of primary school teacher education was first established in 1998 in Bistrița-Năsăud by the Babeș-Bolyai University, then Hungarian-language primary school teacher education colleges were founded in 1999 in Târgu Secuiesc, Cluj-Napoca, Aiud, Satu Mare and Odorheiu Secuiesc, and in 2001 in Târgu Mureș (Bura, 2008, p. 168). Generally, these primary school teacher education colleges were launched by pedagogical lyceums with long traditions and were associated with the faculties of psychology and education of various universities. Those institutional structures were implemented as short-term college level education programs based on an internationally less recognized model, starting with triple qualifications (Keller, 2004, p. 450), which later became dual degrees. According to analysts, increasing the level of education to tertiary level did not necessarily result in improving the quality and content of training (Péter, 2004). Péter states that primary school teacher education was anarchic at that period (training was offered as distance education, correspondence education, secondary education and university levels, with single or double majors, in seven cities and ten institutions) and because of this great supply the essence was lost: preparing kindergarten and primary school teachers accurately to the most demanding educator professions (Péter, 2004).

*d) University level education of kindergarten and lower primary school teachers: the multi-cycle training structure of the Bologna system*

College-level primary school and kindergarten teacher education operated until 2005, when the Bologna system was introduced into the Romanian higher education system and thus it was replaced by university-level education (288/2004 Higher Education Law). We are able to detect structural and content-related changes in the transformation of education.

As for structural changes, the previous system of three-year college-level primary school and kindergarten teacher education was replaced by the Bachelor programs of the Bologna universities. Such trainings continued to belong to faculties

of psychology and educational sciences under the name of Pedagogy of Primary and Preschool Education major. Graduates earned university-level Bachelor degrees certifying their specialization in Pedagogy of Primary and Preschool Education and were categorized as teachers when employed. University-level degrees entitled graduates to enter the second cycle of the Bologna training system, i.e. the Master's level (Bura, 2008, pp. 168–169). The structural reform of primary school and kindergarten teacher education resulted in content-related changes as well (Barabási, 2007, p. 20; Stark, 2009, pp. 60–61; Szabó–Thalmeiner, 2010, pp. 37–38). The ratio of psychological and pedagogical subjects and courses increased (from 31% to 45.8%), and unified pedagogical practice was replaced by practice in different subject areas.

Interoperability is one of the principles of the Bologna education structure. As a result of its implementation, the first three semesters of the Primary and Preschool Education major and the Pedagogy major are the same. At the same time, when the multi-cycle Bologna system was introduced, college graduates could earn university degrees by completing a one-year complimentary program, and thus were able to enter the second phase of the Bologna system, the Master's level. The 1/2011 Education Law abolished this option; educators with college degrees are able to earn university degrees if they enrol into the entire Bachelor's program. As a result, numerous educators are not entitled to enter Master's programs, as they do not commence full, three-year-long Bachelor's programs. If a primary school or kindergarten teacher with a college-level degree had previously completed a pedagogical lyceum and wished to earn a university-level degree, s/he would earn the third certification of almost identical professional competencies.

What kind of innovation could university-level kindergarten and primary school teacher education offer for adults who earned their third, almost identical degrees? In pedagogical lyceums they mastered the foundations of the profession, then they enrolled at colleges to complete the one-year complimentary program to be able to earn university degrees and now, they should enter Bachelor's programs with their long-term intent of earning Master's - and thus their fourth - degrees? We should also consider the individual and social rate of return of kindergarten and primary school teacher education if triple capital investment is necessary for certificates that ensure employment. While making educational policy decisions, the rate of return for each training program should also be taken into account.

While describing the changes in the structure of education we emphasize that the transformation of the Romanian teacher education system was not finished with the changes induced by the implementation of the Bologna system. The new Education Law also introduced major changes in this respect, which will be described in the following sections regarding kindergarten, primary and secondary school teacher education.

## *2.2. Teacher education*

Teacher education had previously been a privilege of teacher education colleges, and certain university majors were a priori teacher training majors, such as the faculty of arts and humanities, mathematics, geography, etc. Teacher education was simultaneous with professional training in a multi-channel and compulsory form. Teacher education colleges (three years) offered short-term training, while university programs were considered long-term (four-six years). Teacher education became peripheral amidst the attempts of trying to become research universities. At the time when Romania entered a new era, meaning 1989, the system of college level education training of teachers started to integrate in universities. This process was similar with the Slovenian model. In this way the structural dissimilarities between the colleges and teacher training universities were about to disappear.

The induction of the new institutional structure in the process of teacher education represents a very significant moment in the history of teacher training (Birta-Székely, 2012). According to Murvai (1999, p. 183) in Romania the separation between teacher and scientist education newer happened.

Teacher education became biphasic (Szabó-Thalmeiner, 2009, p. 151) as, according to Laws; completing academic training at universities did not entitle teacher candidates to practice their professions. Teacher qualifications could be earned through completing a separate module. In this teacher education system, students must be enrolled in after training programmes delivered by Teacher Education Departments which gives to them the opportunity to undertake theoretical courses on education sciences, didactics of the subject to be taught and practical activities in schools (Szabó, 1998, p. 137, and 2009, p. 172). The first Teacher Education Departments where students may attend the courses delivered were established in 1996. Their curriculum continuously was changed and renewed: in 1998, 2001 and in 2003. Significant changes were implemented in 2001 when compulsory and optional subjects were established, also their time allocation and the number of credits. The next important reorganization was represented by the introduction of the Bologna-system. In line with the Order 4316/2008 the two-level modul-system was introduced which was tied to the Bachelors' and Masters' degrees.

The structure of the biphasic pedagogical module is the following: Level 1 (foundation phase): 30 credit of pedagogical - psychological and methodological-didactical subjects and courses; middle and upper primary school (gymnasium) teacher certificate. Level 2 (deepening phase): minimum 30 credits added to the 30 credits of level 1 of pedagogical - psychological and methodological-didactical subjects and courses; secondary school teacher certificate, entitles graduates for teaching in post-lyceum education and at universities.

Birta-Székely (2012, p. 124) draws the attention to the impersonal nature of teacher education: with the expansion of higher education many self-financing students acquire teacher certification. According to the new Education Law, teacher qualification is granted through the Didactic Master degree, which is described in the following section.

### **3. Following Bologna: current changes in educators' training**

The 1/2011 Education Law introduced tremendous changes in the entire system of education; it also transformed higher education and teacher training significantly. Here we underline the reform of the career-for-life model for teachers among numerous significant changes in teacher education. According to this model, Bachelor's education is three years long, which is followed by a two-year-long Master's training and one-year internship (Education Law, Paragraph 236/1). The three-year-long theoretical foundation training in subject areas can only be offered and carried out by accredited programs at universities. Besides, future teachers are required to earn Master's degrees in the form of a Didactic Master certificate (Education Law, Paragraphs 236, 238). Besides completing the first and second phases of the gradual training structure in the Bologna system, another requirement for the teaching profession is a one-year practice at schools under the supervision of mentor teachers.

As a result of the new Education Law, only educators with tertiary degrees will be allowed to work at kindergartens or schools in "teacher" status in the near future, except for infant care professionals whose training is covered by pedagogical lyceums (Education Law, Paragraph 236/2). The emergency Government Decree 92/2012 granted educators without tertiary degrees six years to earn university certificates.

Paragraph 248/3 of the 1/2011 Education Law envisaged the validation and equalization of professional competencies acquired formal, informal or non-formal ways so that lower status educators would also be able to receive the kindergarten/primary school teacher status. The 5484/2011 Decree opened the possibility for educators with secondary education degrees to acquire the "teacher" status, while the 5553/2011 Decree made college degrees equal to Bachelor's degrees of the Bologna system. This equalization was based on certain professional criteria; only a portion of educators could receive degree equalization, while other educators were left with the only option to acquire the degree necessary for the "teacher" status in a formal way. Making necessary for working adults to complete BA (and then MA) degrees resulted in the emergence of a non-traditional student population in university-level kindergarten and primary school teacher education.

One of the negative sides of the Education Law involves excessive regulation, the decline of university autonomy. Due to Paragraph 237/1, the Ministry of

Education as the main funding actor regulates curricula requirements for educators' training, which includes teacher education (by the rigid curriculum control of Didactic MA) and the curricula control of kindergarten and primary school teacher education as well.

Paragraph 238/7 of the Education Law, the curricula of kindergarten and primary school teacher education should be developed on the basis of those professional standards that are set by the Ministry of Education and the Romanian Agency for Quality Assurance in Higher Education. These professional standards regulate the number of subjects, optional and compulsory modules, their ratio, which leaves minimal space for personalized training programs. For example, there are nine foundational subjects in the curriculum for the Pedagogy of Primary and Preschool Education major that are compulsory. Besides, 33 other subjects need to be completed within the same curriculum, out of which 26 are compulsory and 7 are optional. As a result of this decision, various university education programs have lost their specialities. There are no distinct curricula or characteristic training specialities as those programs that do not meet the standards will not be accredited. Universities offering training for the Pedagogy of Primary and Preschool Education major have their freedom only in outlining the time and logical order for building these compulsory subjects into an entire training program complemented by some optional subjects.

The 3841/2012 Ministerial Decree defines the criteria of Didactic MA. This decree regulates the compulsory framework curriculum uniformly for every institution that aims to offer teacher education. This curriculum requires 27 compulsory subjects for each training program for four semesters, out of which one is optional per semester. As a result, universities have a degree of freedom in one optional subject every semester to shape their own characteristic image (14.8%). The 5475/2012 Decree put into force again teacher continuing education institutes to offer pedagogical modules, although their right to do so was abolished by the 3481/2012 Decree.

The 5745/2012 Decree overwrote the career-for-life model for teachers outlined by the Education Law: kindergarten and primary school teachers do not need Didactic MA degrees right now; their university degrees entitle them to practice their professions (Paragraph 17/2). Besides, graduates with pedagogy and special education Bachelor's degrees are not required to complete Didactic MA or pedagogical modules (Paragraph 16/2). Those who would like to work at middle or upper primary school (gymnasium) levels are required to complete level 1 pedagogical module of 30 credits in addition to their university degrees. Future teachers of secondary schools, post-lyceums or universities are ordered to complete level 2 pedagogical modules of 30 credits and the Didactic MA degree. In sum, kindergarten and lower primary school level teachers need Bachelor's degrees

(secondary education degrees and college-level are satisfactory until 2018), middle or upper primary school (gymnasium) teachers need Bachelor's degrees and level 1 pedagogical module, while secondary education teachers are required to earn Bachelor's degrees, level 2 pedagogical module and Didactic MA certificates as well. The Didactic MA curriculum is regulated by the 3841/2012 Decree, while that of pedagogical module is regulated by the 5745/2012 Decree.

We now examine the summarizing table of the specialities of kindergarten, primary school and secondary school teacher education.

**Table 1:** Changes in the Romanian system of education

Period	Teacher education	Kindergarten and primary school teacher education
Before Bologna	Tertiary education Short-term and long-term training forms -Pedagogical module	Secondary education Post-secondary Tertiary, short-term
After Bologna	BA + pedagogical module	BA (university level)
1/2011 Education Act 3841/2012.04.26.	BA (3 years) + MA (2 years) + practicum (1 year)	BA (3 years) + MA (2 years) + practicum (1 year)
5745/2012. 09.13.	Lower secondary education: BA + level 1 pedagogical module Upper secondary education: BA + level 1 pedagogical module + level 2 pedagogical module + MA	Only BA

Source: own table.

Currently, having a university degree does not entitle teacher candidates to practice their profession, except for kindergarten and primary school teachers. After graduating from universities, they have to spend one year at educational institutions under the supervision of mentor teachers. According to Paragraph 239/1 of the Education Law, this practicum is obligatory to earn teacher degrees. Following this one-year practicum, i.e. minimum one year service time, and novel teachers may apply for their final qualifying exams. If they pass this exam successfully, they are entitled to practice teaching in compulsory education in the status of "teacher" (Education Law, Paragraph 241/2). The rules for the final teacher qualifying exam are included in the methodology of the competitive exam (5560/2011 Decree). The final teacher qualifying exam assesses the minimal professional competencies required for practicing the teaching profession (5560/2011 Decree, Paragraph 64). As for its content, it includes minimum two inspections, and a written test on content-matter, didactics and psychological-pedagogical knowledge. Grade 8 is the passing grade for the exam and if candidates fail, they may attempt to take the exam twice within five years. These candidates that had failed the exam can only be employed by temporary contracts in the status of novel teachers. Before the 1/2011 Education Law, passing the final teacher qualifying exam was the first phase of teachers' continuing education, while nowadays it has become the prerequisite of practicing the teaching profession.

#### **4. Teacher education in Romania as a subject of research**

Research results on teacher education in Romania serve as a reference point for our examination. The Romanian teacher education studies mostly investigate the structure of the teacher educational system and the opportunities to innovate the system (Iucu, 2004), and compare the Romanian teacher education system with others in Europe (Șerbănescu, 2011; Zgaga, Neacșu, Velea, 2007). Also in the research appears the possibilities of professionalization of the teaching profession (Avram, 2009; Bumbuc, 2009; Zgaga, 2006); furthermore appears the investigation of the content of training too (Niculescu, 2001; Lăscoiu, 2009).

A partial summary about the research regarding the Hungarian teachers in Romania can be read in Kellers' (2004) work. Birta-Székely (2012) analysed the structure and content of (Hungarian) teacher education in Romania; presenting the transitional situation of teacher education, she calls the attention on the lack of any relation between theory and practice in the teacher education. Szabó-Thalmeiner (2009) examined public primary school teacher education in lyceums and colleges and compared those to secondary school teacher training. Barabási (2008) researched the integration of theory and practice in primary school teacher education by comparing the systems of these trainings in Romania and Hungary. Péter (2012) examined the reception of compulsory education reform among educators, thus generated significant points of reference for the analysis of a reform at a different level, the reform of higher education. Barabási & Antal (2008) analysed the Bologna curricula of kindergarten and primary school teacher education, while Baranyai and Szabó-Thalmeiner (2009) examined a special case of kindergarten and primary school teacher education in the Bologna system, namely, that of the complimentary year. In 2010, a research team of Babeș-Bolyai University professors examined different aspects of kindergarten and primary school teacher education in the Bologna system from the students' perspective, they investigated their satisfaction with the training their attitudes to mathematics education, to the pedagogical practicum, the relation of theory and practice during training, their plans to continue their studies, their labour market and employment chances etc. (Szabó-Thalmeiner, 2010). In 2011, the research was conducted among university professors and lecturers as well (Stark, 2011a). Research results presented the emphasis on theory in the kindergarten and primary school teacher education in the Bologna system, the neglected nature of practical training and the problems with organizing high-quality practicum. These examinations generally focused on educators' training and did not embed educators' training into a broader conceptual framework.

## **II. National system of continuous teacher education and training**

The legal framework for teachers' continuous professional development (TCPD) in Romania is regulated by two main documents: the Education Law and the Teaching

Staff Statue. The application of those laws is described in details in methodologies, methodological norms and regulations. The current National Education Law was adopted in 2011, Law no. 1/2011 and together with the Methodology of continuing professional development for teachers in secondary education sets out the pillars of teachers in-service education.

The Romanian Law on National Education regulates the types of programs which are intended to provide further training for teachers being in in-service period of their teaching career. One component of teachers' continuous professional development is related to the career path of teachers and consists of classroom inspections, compulsory written and oral exams and dissertations (for didactic degree I and the title of profesor emerit in secondary education). The second component of TCPD is based on professional transferable credits and requires teachers to participate in professional development programs and achieve 90 credits in each five year period. According to the methodology established by Ministry of Education achieving the didactic degrees (one of them in a five year period) are equivalent to 90 credits, furthermore the teacher doesn't have to fulfill other obligations in the considered period.

Based on the regulations by Teaching Staff Statue, professional teacher training can be provided by the following institutions (Paragraph 244): (1) higher education institutions through faculties, departments and chairs for continuous training programs within the subject-area for teachers in secondary education; (2) higher education institutions through the Teacher Education Departments for continuous training programs in the subject-methodology area, psychology and pedagogy for teachers in secondary education; (3) pedagogical university colleges and pedagogical high schools for continuous training programs in the subject-area and subject-methodology area; (4) House of Teaching Staff for the training of teachers and auxiliary staff; (5) Children's National Palace for the training of teaching and non-teaching staff who work in non-formal education programs; (6) centers and other institutions; (7) the Institute for Educational Sciences, national Centre for Curriculum, National Council for the Development of Vocational and Technical Training, National Service for Evaluation and Examination; (8) institutional structures which are implementing international projects (e.g. Socrates, Leonardo) or projects whose beneficiary is the Ministry of Education and are financed by international organizations (World Bank, Phare programs); (9) foundations, professional associations and NGOs whose object of their activity is the training of teaching-staff; (10) county school inspectorates.

The Teaching Staff Statue and the methodology also indicate the types of activities considered to be continuous professional training activities (Paragraph 70): (1) activities organized at the school level or centers where issues regarding teaching practices, psychology and pedagogy are addressed; (2) participation in scientific

seminars, meetings, conferences to exchange experiences, opinions focused on the specialty and also psychological, pedagogical problems; (3) periodically participations at meetings for updating the theoretical knowledge in educational sciences and a teachers' specialty; (4) participation at courses provided by scientific organizations; (5) distance education programs; (6) participation at courses which are designed to prepare teaching staff to get a higher level of competence such as the II and I didactic degrees; (7) participation in management courses; (8) scholarships for training in the country or abroad; (9) post-university courses (e.g. MA); (10) doctoral studies.

The Methodology (5561/2011, Paragraph 70 – (2)) sets out the role of universities in organizing professional development programs. The education programs offered by the universities can be held in higher education institutions through faculties, departments and chairs in the subject-area; departments for in-service training programs (as the Teacher education Departments) in the subject-methodology area and Psycho- pedagogy; Departments of Primary- and Preschool Education for the training of teachers in preschool and primary school education. Universities can offer all the programs mentioned above, only they must have legal approval for those.

According to the Methodology (5561/2011, Paragraph 71 – (1)) pre-university institutions can organize professional training programs only for didactic personal with medium-level studies.

Paragraph 77 – (1) specifies the principal forms of continuous professional development programs: a) courses organized in training modules during vacations, legal day offs or during working days with the accord of participants and teachers' unions; b) distance learning possibilities as e-learning platforms, IT solutions combined with tutorial help; c) without visit courses organized by universities with periodical consultations; d) other organizational forms which combine assisted forms of learning with participants' individual studies and activities.

Within the school teachers with the same curricular fields are organized in chairs; they also organize activities centered on methodical issues, teaching practices, psychology and pedagogy issues (Paragraph 78 – 1).

Also pedagogical circles are organized at local, school or county levels, where the minimum number of participants has to be 15 (Paragraph 79). The county inspectorates have the duty to organize and operate those circles. They reunite two-four times each school year.

## **1. Teacher career paths**

The career path of teachers is a progression process where the professional degrees are the main stimulants for evolution in the teaching profession. Although the professional degrees aren't compulsory, the majority of teachers take this path

because the higher the professional degree, the higher the appreciation and formal recognition within the education system. In any case where job cuts are justified, the professional degree held by the teacher is determinant, even decisive in keeping the employment status. Besides specific salary-incentives are established according to the professional degree held by the teacher and are added to the salary according to the level of initial training, the professional degree and the number of years spent in education system.

The advancement in teaching career is composed of two professional levels, named didactic degrees I and II. Didactic degrees can be obtained after achieving the definitive status as a teacher.

### *1.1. The definitive status*

According to the methodology regarding to the acquisition of definitive status in education, the definitive status for teachers represents the right to practice teaching, actually certificates every graduate coming from initial teacher education systems as a teacher after at least one year of teaching practice under the supervision of a mentor. The definitive status is compulsory for any graduate student who wants to become a teacher. This year represents the final stage of teacher's initial education. Within a period of five years graduates may try to pass the exam three times to obtain the definitive status; otherwise they can no longer be employed as a qualified teacher. The exams' content is determined as follows: internal evaluation procedures are compulsory and consist in an annual individual evolution of professional performances. To go further in the process, the candidate must get at least a "sufficient" mark. Also the candidates' professional portfolio has to be evaluated. External evaluation is also compulsory and contains the following steps: two special inspections where the passing mark is minimum 8.00 and a written examination. Each special examination consists in four didactic activities and it is valid only for the current school year and the current exam session. The content of the written examination depends upon the teachers' education level, but in all cases is comprised of subject-specialty, subject-specific didactics, pedagogy and element of psychology. Paragraph 241/1 of Education Law states that the content and the literature of the examination have to be approved by the Ministry of Education for each specialty in part.

### *1.2. Didactic degree II*

Didactic degree II can only be obtained if the teacher already has a definitive status and only after four years of teaching practice after getting the definitive degree. Paragraph 242/8 states that if the definitive exam was achieved at the highest score, which means the maximum passing mark, than achieving didactic degree II can be possible only after three years. As Paragraph 242/4 and the Methodology of continuous professional development (in more detail) specifies, the didactic degree

II exams' content is determined as follows: internal evaluation is compulsory, where the candidate has to get at least the "sufficient" mark; special inspection is compulsory and has to be preceded by two inspections during those four years. The minimum passing mark at the special inspection is 8.00 and can't be appealed. The internal evaluation and the special inspection are followed by written and oral compulsory exams. The exams' content and literature has to be approved by the Ministry of Education. The examination committee elaborates the test items based on the content already approved. The written and oral examinations' minimum mark is also 8.00. For those candidates who passed the exam, salary incentives are given after the Ministry of Education validates the exams' results, in practice this is 1<sup>st</sup> September of the next school year.

As can be seen the definitive degree and the didactic degree II exams have the same structure: before the application of the latest Law on Education (Law 1/2011), the definitive degree it was part of the teachers' career path, was and remained compulsory for every graduate student who wants to become a teacher. The career path model presented as part of the continuous professional development of teachers emphasizes the training of teachers mostly detached from the school and teachers needs. Training is determined mostly by external evaluation standards and is finalized with rigorous exams. Didactic degree I exam has a different structure, the content can represent in an emphasized way the local socio-cultural, school and individual teacher needs.

### *1.3. Didactic degree I*

Didactic degree I can only be achieved if degree II has been already achieved and also only after four years of teaching after getting the degree II certificate. According to Paragraph 242/8 if degree II was achieved at the highest level of performance, didactic degree I can be possible even after three years. The degree I represents a high level of professional maturity and expertise. Teachers, who want to enroll in the process of obtaining this title, must meet the following conditions: at the internal evaluations the candidate must get the "excellent" mark, also the preceding inspections must have this mark. The candidate must have the school collectives' recommendation; his/her work must meet very high standards in term of quality, pedagogical competences, research, innovation in the process of education, school and class management, ethical and deontological issues. The enrollment process ends with a colloquium based on a content and literature previously approved by the Ministry of Education. After passing the colloquium, candidates enter a process of research based work; they must elaborate a dissertation proving their ability to research empirical questions as well. Each candidate works with a mentor, who is a university teacher. Degree I is awarded if the candidate passes the special inspection and successfully defends the thesis. The minimum passing mark

at both tests is 8.00.

The roles of universities are determinant in teachers' in-service education. The examinations for degrees I and II are centered on universities; they deliver the examination element of those non-compulsory assessments as the grades mentioned.

#### *1.4. Profesor-emerit title*

The profesor emerit title can be achieved in the following conditions: teachers must have a definitive position within the education system and must have spent 15 continuous active teaching years after getting the didactic degree I certificate. The profesor emerit title can be awarded only after passing the competitive examination. The number of positions to fill is limited by the Ministry of Education.

According to the Methodology of continuing professional development for teachers in secondary education, Paragraph 48, the emerit title is about enhancing teachers' professionalism, achieving this title represents higher levels of professionalism on the following areas: a) high level of proficiency and skills on the subject-area; b) latest research on the field of psychology and pedagogy; c) high level of skills and proficiency on theory of education area and subject-methodology area; d) high level of skills and knowledge on school- and classroom-management; e) IT knowledge; f) interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary as alternative and complementary options in the process of teaching and learning; implementation of research based practice; effective communication with other social areas.

Teachers of pre-university education can achieve the profesor emerit title under the following conditions: a) exerts a successful and effective teaching process; b) they are also successful and effective on the area of didactic innovations/managerial innovations; c) participate and coordinate educational projects; d) participate in the development of educational management practices, in quality assurance and in increasing their schools' reputation.

Achieving this profesor emerit title permits teachers to take advantage of the following benefits: a) priority is given in the selection and appointment of teachers who would like to transfer their positions/jobs to other locations; b) they can be mentors in teachers continuous professional development; c) priority is given in a case of competitive examination if other candidates have the same results; d) is annually awarded with a bonus; e) county school inspectorates may entrust those teachers to solve different regional matters.

The title can be awarded only after passing a competitive examination. The content of the examination is composed of classroom inspections, a compulsory colloquium for the enrolment, a dissertation and the defense of the dissertation. The minimum passing mark for obtaining the title is 9.00. Candidates can take advantage of the benefits of the emerit title for the whole didactic career.

The career path of teachers seen as a part of in-service training has long traditions and deep roots in the Romanian educational system.

## **2. Continuing teacher professional development**

The legislative framework of continuing teacher professional development was developed in the past decade and expanded the conception of in-service training interpreted only as a teaching career path. Although achieving these didactic degrees is equivalent to an in-service education program and the condition of once every five years compulsory in-service education is considered fulfilled for those teachers who have obtained the definitive degree or any other didactic degree in the considered period. Nevertheless there is no centralized system for following teachers' evolution in professional development. According to recent research outcomes (Bîrzea et al., 2006; Zoller, 2013), most teachers participate in in-service activities because of their personal interest in their professional development and also because of salary incentives coming with professional degrees. Although a high percentage of teachers mentioned subject-area knowledge as the main motivational base for taking up different professional development courses (Zoller, 2013).

In order to implement the "Strategy for the development of the initial and in-service training system for teachers and managers in pre-university education" a legislative framework was developed. The Order of the Minister of Education and Research No. 4796/2001 established a professional transferable credit system in continuous teacher professional development process, also established the type of providers, structures of training programs. An institution called the National Centre for In-service Training of the Pre-university Education Staff (CNFPPIP) was founded, the institution became responsible for implementing the strategy, for accrediting programs proposed by different institutions.

Besides the professional development itinerary of teachers' career (see Chapter 1) the second type of in-service teacher training programs refers to the periodical in-service duties. According to the Order No.4796/2001 teachers must participate in a professional development program once every five years (Law 128/1997) which is awarded with professional transferable credits. Teachers are required to undertake the compulsory training. These are delivered either by the Teachers' Resource Centers throughout Romania, which are administrated by the regional inspectorates or by other providers from the "private sector" who must be accredited by the Ministry of Education to offer training. Those providers include universities, colleges, non/governmental agencies (NGOs).

## **3. Continuing professional development as a subject of research**

In our investigation we are committed to summarize previous research results as well. Future investigations will be created based on outlined previous research results. Teacher's continuous professional development always follows the

guidelines provided by the legislative regulations therefore an emphasized research area is the presentation an analysis of the structure of the system with the current legislative framework, the main institutions responsible, providers and training supply (Bîrzea et al., 2006; Iucu & Pânișoară, 2000) Although can't be rigorously separated, another category of research represents the content of trainings: characteristics of the programs, main areas, duration of programs and also the organization of these trainings as providers, organizational procedures, sources of information, funding sources and participators motivational base (cord. Jigău, 2008). Quality and Equity represents another research focus (Quality and Equity in the Romanian Education System, 2004). All those themes appear in the Hungarian literature related to the situation of Hungarian teachers in Romania (Bodoni, 2009; Papp, 2007; Tókos, 2011; Zoller & Petras, 2012). If we try to briefly summarize the researchers' conclusions one of the main problems with all of this education supply is its inability to meet the real needs of individual teachers. Are the programs offered really ought to provide support to improve their performance and be an effective response to the development of kids, teachers, schools, communities, life expectancies?

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*institutori/institutoare, învățători/învățătoare, maistruinstructor, antrenor, în vederea ocupării funcției didactice de profesor pentru învățământul preșcolar, profesor pentru învățământul primar, profesor de instruire practică, respectiv profesor-antrenor în cluburile sportive școlare, palatele și cluburile copiilor.* [The 5553/2011 decree for equivalation of vocational competence acquired formal, non-formal and informal ways for teachers with tertiary education degrees]. In *Monitorul Oficial*, 735/2011.

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# **JOLANTA KARBOWNICZEK, MONIKA GRODECKA & ELŻBIETA MITERKA**

## **The modern system of teacher education in light of the National Qualifications Framework**

### **Changing European and national context of teacher training**

Presenting the contents of the modern system of teachers' education in light of the National Qualifications Framework needs to stress that the whole material included in the article is based on sample research to be analyzed as the first step to implement the idea of the UE into national circumstances.

The most visible aspect of the formation of the European Higher Education Area is the structural convergence among member countries. The creation of the new higher education system based on program cycles (BA+MA+PhD) rather than institutional types was the most easily and formally attainable objective of the Bologna Declaration (1999). The elements of structural convergence serve the improvement of European and international transparency of higher education, easily readable and comparable degrees and after all the mobility of labour in Europe. Seemingly these objectives involve more than some structural adjustments between higher education systems. They create the demand for curricular changes and some level of curricular convergence, which in Europe due to its cultural aspects is a sensible policy area. These reforms imply not only the reconstruction of the content, but a different curricular philosophy (in the labour market directly usable and easily adjustable competence-based content), its harmonization between the institutions and national systems (the principle of recognition), the elaboration of a recognition framework and quality assurance mechanisms, the creation of different curricular emphasis in the two-cycle system of the teacher training, and the improvement of professional relevance of the programs and focus on learning outcomes.

Higher education policy researchers (Cerych, 1989; van Damme, 2009; Goedegebuure & Van Vught, 1994; Meek et al., 1996; Neave, 1996; Phillips & Ertl, 2003; Tomusk, 2004; van Vught, 1996) show how these initiatives created tension in Europe between diversity and standardization, convergence and divergence (Chmielecka, 2010; Kraśniewski & Próchnicka, 2013; Próchnicka, 2013; Woźnicki, 2012). Such initiatives as similar quality assurance policies, common educational standards, the TUNING project, the European Qualifications Framework, common curriculum development practices, student assessments through standardized tests,

and the credit transfer system gradually enlarge the dimensions of convergence between national systems of higher education in Europe. However, one should take into account what Neave (1996) underlines: the assessment of convergence differs according to the perspective and analytical level (from a central European or national perspective many see an undesirable convergence, whilst from the institutional and disciplinary level the preservation of diversity). Increasing convergence in content supports the main objectives of the Bologna Process, namely the easily readable and comparable degrees. However, the most important aspect of these reforms is the way the Bologna Process serves as a platform for curricular and methodological renewal across Europe. As Agten (2007) pointed out, the Bologna Process is a frame for competence-based learning, with a special emphasis on teacher training. Together with practice and competence orientation, this supports the creation of more valuable training programs on the labour market (in this case, primary and secondary education). It appears to have been the first politic step demanding further activities to be undertaken by the EU Commission looking for different solutions to make the whole programme more global and sustainable, for education has to deepen in various educational opportunities. So, the new conditions of the Bologna process turn out to be challenging for all educational subjects responsible for creating high quality competences. Bologna process implementation assumes that Higher Educational (HE) institutions will apply a contemporary philosophy of education to a policy of development. This is the next step in HE development. Higher Education research has a high capacity to develop innovative and traditional potential in curricula by inter-relations between content and meta-content. Researchers can implement the educational research and recommendations into their own scientific framework.

Recognition and relevance raise further curricular issues. As Teichler (2009) argues the implementation of the two-cycle system has generated many debates on the functions of Bachelor's and Master's level. For example there should be different curricular emphasis if a Bachelor program is relevant to the labour market (more practical and competence-oriented) or for further education (more academic and theoretical). This raised tension in teacher education not only at national levels, but across Europe, since different countries choose different options (uniform or different type Bachelors, consecutive or concurrent model), which clearly emphasized diversity and professional relevance, but made recognition difficult.

With regard to the curricular reconstruction of teacher training we need to take into account not only the changing international and European context, but the national environment and internal challenges of primary and secondary education as well. Universal participation, vertical and horizontal diversification and differentiation, the growing social and cultural heterogeneity of the student population, the expansion of new technologies, internationalization, social-economic

changes and labour market expectations have placed new requirements on teacher training, further training and teachers in practice. One of the most important factors is the focus on institutional efficiency and accountability. These challenges enforced new teacher roles, knowledge, methods and preferences for special competences (e.g. social and cultural problem sensitivity). In addition, there were internal changes of the profession (e.g. with regard to primary teacher education this implies the professionalization, upper mobility of the institutions, and academically of the teacher training curricula) (Kárpáti, 2009; Szabó, 1998).

European teacher training experts elaborated a proposal regarding the new training requirements of teachers, which places emphasis on social and civic competences (special interest in highlighting and solving problems). In this policy perspective the student-oriented aspect of the teaching process is highlighted, where educators should be prepared to serve the needs of a socially, culturally and ethnically diverse student population (cited by Kárpáti, 2009, p. 204). The educational policies fuelled by such approach give rise to a higher awareness of an efficient teaching process. Teacher training and further training forms are places where the first basis of such an efficient teaching process can be built. In further lines of this study we will focus on the way this curricular and structural renewal has been evolved in Polish teacher training programs.

### **National Qualifications Framework in Poland**

Since the beginning of the 2012/2013 academic year, Polish higher education institutions have started realizing the educational process according to the procedures deriving from Polish participation in the Bologna Process and National Qualification Framework implementation. This enabled a thorough reconstruction of the training programs in terms of requirements of the EHEA (European Higher Education Area). In accordance with the recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23rd April 2008 on the establishment of the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning, the changes will help to modernize education and training systems by linking education, training and employment, and to build bridges between formal, non-formal and informal learning, thus leading to the validation of learning outcomes based on the practical experience (Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23rd April 2008 on the establishment of the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning 2008/ C 111/01 points 13).

The immediate cause of the inclusion of the Polish institutions in the implementation of the Bologna goals was not only the membership but the fact of the massification of higher education (Kraśniewski, 2011):

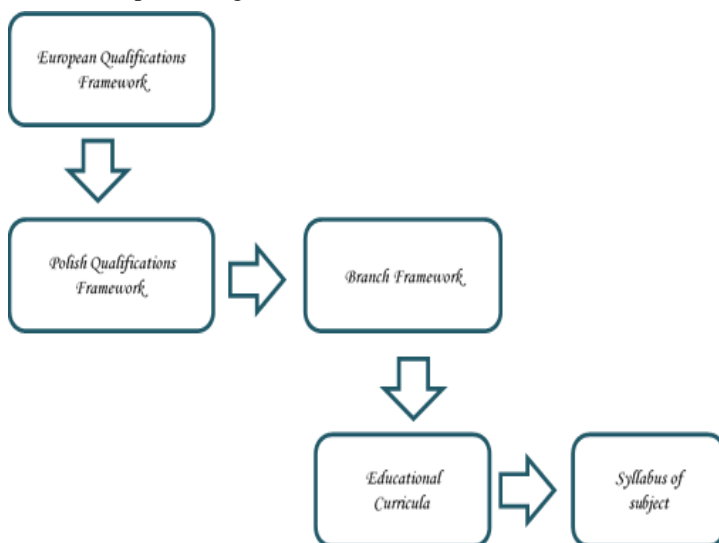
“This phenomenon is very favorably commented on in the world and has its significant implications for the educational process and its results. The

implementation of the educational process in its current form - as if nothing had changed - can lead to equally good results as before, if only because the distribution of talent and the level of preparation of the merits in such a broad representation of vintage is (...) very diverse” (Kraśniewski, 2011, p. 2).

The introduction of the National Qualifications Framework in Poland means adapting curricula to the needs and capabilities of students by improving the quality of Polish educational institutions, which in turn will contribute to the diversification of the competence of graduates and their adaptation to the changing needs of the labour market (Chmielecka, 2010).

Particular activity stages in the process of creating “new” program curricula are depicted in the scheme beneath.

**Figure 1.** The scheme presenting a structure of educational curricula in Poland.



The first stage: European Qualification Frames formally implemented the recommendation of European Parliament and Board in 2008, recommendation on the establishment of the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning.

The second stage: Polish Qualifications Framework and preparing Branch Framework were implemented in the Polish system of education by the Act of Higher Education and subsequent orders. This stage is currently being implemented at Polish institutions through the implementation of specific individual fields and areas of learning. Based on the description of learning outcomes developed for eight separate areas of education, such as: (1) area of humanistic studies; (2) area of study in the social sciences; (3) area of study in the sciences; (4) natural area of study; (5) area of technical studies; (6) area of medical education; (7) area of study in

agriculture, forestry and veterinary use; (8) area of study devoted to the art. The education has been assigned to the area of social sciences.

The third stage: curricula of studies are made by Education Quality Teams directly within particular higher education institutions and their units, whereas the particular modules or subjects – by employees –, coordinators, specialists responsible for realizing the subject within the appropriate module. It is worth noting that the procedures are controlled and internal evaluation carried out by members of the university teams responsible for the quality of education and external evaluation undertaken by teams of controlling Polish Accreditation Committee (Polish Accreditation Committee as an independent body working to improve the quality of education, supports the Polish public and private universities in the process of improving the quality of education and the achievement of educational standards in force in the European and global academic space. Its task is to make mandatory the programmatic and institutional assessments and formulate an opinion on proposals for granting permission to conduct the study. The Polish Accreditation Commission cooperates and dialogues with all stakeholders in the education process, including the academic community to study the candidates, employers and the authorities of the state and public administration, including in the international arena, to actively interact with other accreditation committees and to pool them with international organizations in the implementation of the Bologna Process and the construction of the European Higher Education Area). Some universities such as the Jesuit University Ignatianum in Krakow, also performed the procedures resulting from the maintenance of the quality management system according to PL-EN ISO 9001:2009 to ensure a high level of service to guarantee a high quality of policy implementation (Appendix 3 to the KJ of 1<sup>st</sup> October 2011, Jesuit University Ignatianum in Krakow).

### **The creation of teacher education curricula in Polish higher education**

A thorough reconstruction of higher education programs stems from the need to be able to compare learning outcomes on both a national and international level, and to change the perspective of the content of that education or learning outcomes for student achievement of the level of competence. Śliwerski (2010) writes: “The profession of the teacher more and more often perceived is current of competence. A need of specialist preparing for this role in the scope is being stressed desired of the efficiency and abilities which should be backed up with the general theoretical, directional wisdom (pedagogic) and specialty and with essential features of the personality, including in the thinking (best creative)” (Śliwerski, 2010, p. 37).

These words are also reflected in the standards applicable as guidance of teacher education in Poland under the standards of education in preparation for the

teaching profession. Standards of teachers' education appear to be separate criteria used for defining appropriate learning outcomes applied at studies of pedagogy that prepare future teachers.

The regulation of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of 17<sup>th</sup> January 2012 on education standards for preparing the teaching profession learning outcomes, concerns psychological and educational knowledge as a value that can help to understand this process. It also covers the field of the knowledge of the detailed methodology of teaching and pedagogical activities, supported by practical experience in its use. What's more, the graduate teaching profession should guarantee to reach the skills and competencies necessary for comprehensive implementation of teaching, education and nursing school assignments, including the aspects of the way the curriculum should be prepared and adapted to the needs and abilities of students. Realizing the standards for teachers' education should equip them with the ability to learn and improve their educational workshop using modern aids and methods to capture, organize and process the information and materials for a broadened interdisciplinary area application. Then new educational goals can emerge to have a strong impact on all the educational subjects to use a variety of techniques covering the communication area, so that other people can be engaged to interact in the process of teaching and learning comprising other scientific specialist support for this process. The new reform concepts induce ethical sensitivity, empathy, openness, reflexivity, pro-social attitudes and a sense of responsibility enabling professionals to perform their roles on a high-quality level of personal, social, and occupational development.

As pointed out by Brezinka (2005) "When it is about a useful knowledge and professional activity, they think still that nobody can become an expert, if doesn't get acquainted thoroughly with achievements to date and won't base his thinking and action on them" (Brezinka, 2005, p. 9).

Thus, the implementation of theoretical knowledge in practice during their studies provides opportunities for students to appropriate vocational training. Theory and practice are balanced by adequate number of hours appointed to realize the particular module, on the first and second grade level studies: Module 1. Preparation within essential content domain to teach the first subject (conducting the subject) – essential/faculty preparation; Module 2. Preparation within psychological-pedagogical domain – 180h including 30h practice; Module 3. preparation within didactic training domain – 240h including 120h practice.

The organizational – legal determinants enable the preparation to teach another subject (type of training) within module 4, which in addition to any previous preparation includes 60h of teaching the subject at a given level of education, plus 60h practices. In parallel with module 3 or after its completion, optionally, it is also possible to implement module 5, after which the graduate gets prepared to work in

kindergartens, schools and special or integration institutions in the appropriate scope for the preparation get as a result of the completion of Modules 1, 2 and 3 and of kind of disability or the social maladjustment of pupils. In the case of graduates, you become an unprepared teacher when you graduate in the delivery unit 4 or 5, as well as 2 and 3 in the absence of psychological-pedagogical and didactic preparation.

A careful and accurate preparation of initial teacher education should take into account both aspects of competence in the development of knowledge and skills and the development of social competence and thus a hierarchy of values. Śliwerski (2010) rightly wrote that: "Every social profession, and especially the role of the teacher - as one very strongly associated with public trust - requires a special kind of aptitude or talent known as "the pedagogical soul". Extremely valuable for supporting the development of a variety of individuals and social groups are those who have been blessed with some kind of sense, talent and sensibility teacher. It is necessary however to discover them or to polish also thanks to the directional, specialist knowledge and communications abilities, which will let students of this direction identify socialization, education and teaching or teaching processes and influence them. Without an interesting personality and cultural equipment that is in your own home, knowledge and a diploma alone are not enough to be a teacher and to succeed" (Śliwerski, 2010, p. 136).

## **Research results**

To meet the expectations of the inner quality educational process state-holders group, the Authors undertook the diagnostic research aiming at the initial analysis of curricula studies evaluation criteria by last-year students of pedagogy faculty preparing to be future teachers for pre-school and early education.

The research subject was the curricula assessment comprising the student enjoyment assessment and particular criteria assessments on a 5 point scale. The general research goal turned out to systematize and describe the teacher training components in the aspect of students' expectations. The research has an explorative character, and its results will serve to initiate discussion about the problem of education process development and introducing indispensable changes. The research carried out in Poland in assessing the quality of education by students included previous training programs therefore the found knowledge is fragmented and does not include the effects of aspect-oriented education programs and teachers. According to the authors, the separation criteria are particularly important elements in the system of validation of competence, which is the primary factor affecting the functioning of the teaching qualifications.

In the research aim context, the main research problem refers to the question: *How does the evaluation of the program of studies and the step look by students of the third year?* Detailed description of the problem are elaborating by the following

problems detailed: (1) *What level of satisfaction do indicate third-year students, with a specialization in preparing for work as a teacher of pre-school education and early childhood education?* (2) *Which of these criteria are esteemed the highest and which the lowest?* (3) *What is the overall assessment of the program of study for students?*

The research was carried out with the use of a questionnaire interview technique covering the representative sample of two Polish higher schools: Jesuit University Ignatianum in Krakow and The State School of Higher Education in Chełm. The diagnostic research was complemented by a document analysis concerning curricula of education in Bachelor's studies within the faculty of pedagogy and specialization preparing future pre-school and early education teachers. It served to distinguish the curricula assessment criteria and research identifying qualifications and competences defined by law and higher school selected inner regulations. 223 students of the third year of three-year full-time Bachelors participated in the research. The structure of researched group is depicted in the table beneath.

**Table 1.** Gender of research persons

Gender	Number	Percentage
Female	219	98.2
Male	4	1.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>223</b>	<b>100</b>

*Source:* own table

The results show that the studied group of 223 persons comprised 219 (98.2%) women and 4 (1.8%) men. All the people were over junior high school educated and represented the age range of 22-25. The Authors did not differentiate the research results according to gender (considering the low rate of men taking part in the research).

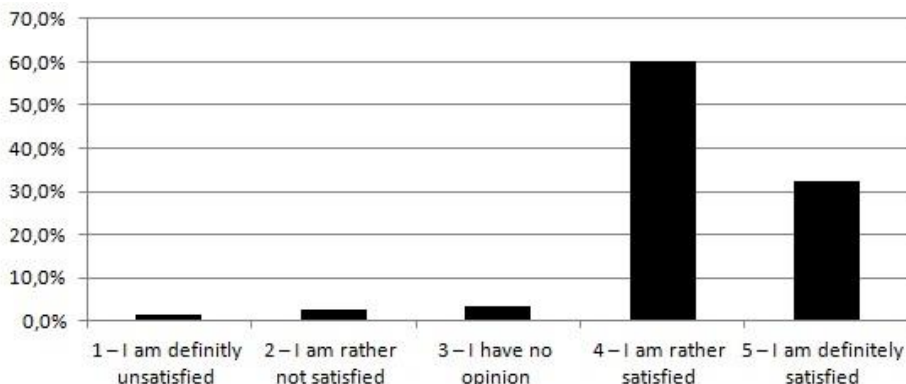
**Table 2.** The satisfaction assessment of studying at faculty of pedagogy, pre-school and elementary teacher specialization

Assessment	Number	Percentage
1 – I am definitely unsatisfied	3	1.3
2 – I am rather not satisfied	6	2.7
3 – I have no opinion	8	3.6
4 – I am rather satisfied	134	60.1
5 – I am definitely satisfied	72	32.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>223</b>	<b>100</b>

The results indicate that a prevailing number of the research persons – above 90% declared being satisfied with studying at pedagogy faculty, pre-school and

elementary teacher specialization comprising 32.3% people expressing definite satisfaction, and 60.1% - just satisfaction (histogram 1):

**Graph 1.** Percentage of students assessing the satisfaction level of studying at faculty of pedagogy, pre-school and elementary teacher specialization



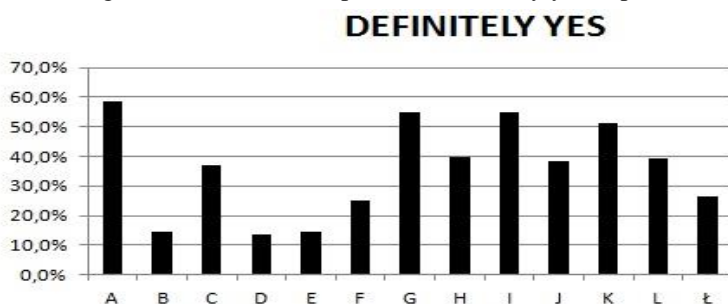
**Table 3.** General curricula assessment

L.p	criteria	Number of people who responded to questions				
		DEFINITELY YES	RATHER YES	I HAVE NO OPINION	RATHER NO	DEFINITELY NO
A.	curricula enabling to obtain the preparation for teacher profession	131	74	17	1	0
B.	curricula enabling to realize a part of studies abroad within the international cooperation (Erasmus and others)	32	78	98	15	0
C.	curricula flexible regarding the needs emerging from students interests (extra faculty activities)	83	49	67	17	7
D.	appropriate structure of particular subjects during studies	30	127	52	12	2
E.	appropriate selection of theoretical and practical subjects	32	78	96	16	1
F.	optimal number of practical hours (practical training activities, lab, workshops)	56	74	82	8	3
G.	sufficient number of pedagogical practice hours	122	52	38	8	3
H.	appropriate forms differentiation of realizing the practice process (continuing, mid-year practices)	89	56	65	7	6
I.	good cooperation with local environment in terms of practice program realization	122	58	38	4	1
J.	curricula enable obtaining teacher competences in the range of knowledge domain	86	98	37	2	0
K.	curricula enable obtaining teacher competences in the range of skills domain	114	86	19	3	1
L.	curricula enable obtaining social competences for teachers	88	98	37	0	0
M.	curricula taking into account labor market needs (local, national, international)	59	98	56	9	1

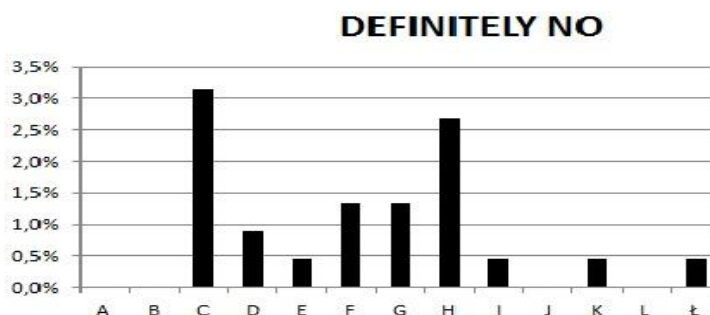
The analysis of results received in the aspect of curricula assessment criteria is depicted in Table 3 with the implications that modal values in the range of distinguished assessment criteria are as follows: (1) curricula enabling to obtain the preparation for teacher profession - was assessed by 131 (58.7%) people as – definitely yes; (2) curricula enabling to realize a part of studies abroad within the

international cooperation (Erasmus and others ) - was assessed by 98 (43.9%) people as – *they have no opinion*; (3) curricula flexible regarding the needs emerging from students' interests (extra faculty activities) was assessed by 83 (37.2%) people as – *definitely yes*; (4) appropriate structure of particular subjects during studies – was assessed by 127 (57.0%) people as – *rather yes*; (5) appropriate selection of theoretical and practical subjects – was assessed by 96 (43.0%) people as – *they have no opinion*; (6) optimal number of practical hours (practical training activities, laboratories, workshops) - was assessed by 82 (36.8%) people as – *they have no opinion*; (7) sufficient number of pedagogical practice hours - was assessed by 122 (54.7%) people – as *rather yes*; (8) appropriate forms differentiation of realizing the practice process (continuing, mid – year practices) – was assessed by 89 (39.9%) people as - *definitely yes*; (9) good cooperation with local environment in terms of practice program realization – was assessed by 122 (54.7%) people as – *definitely yes*; (10) curricula enable obtaining teacher competences in the range of knowledge domain – was assessed by 98 (43.9%) people as – *rather yes*; (11) curricula enable obtaining teacher competences in the range of skills – was assessed by 114 (51.1%) people as – *definitely yes*; (12) curricula enable obtaining social competences for teachers – was assessed by 98 (43.9%) people as – *rather yes*; (13) curricula taking into account labor market needs (local, national, international) - was assessed by 98 (43.9%) people as – *rather yes*.

As far as six criteria of thirteen are concerned, the largest number of students assessed curricula within the particular criteria as *definitely yes*. In terms of four criteria - the assessment *rather yes* dominated, and the curricula assessment *I have no opinion* appeared mostly in three criteria within the following: curricula enabling to realize a part of studies abroad within the international cooperation (Erasmus and others), appropriate selection of theoretical and practical subject, and optimal number of practical hours (practical training activities, laboratories, workshops which can result from insufficient knowledge on the part of students regarding curricula structure, sorts of student practices, and from not using the offer of international exchange. The assessment *definitely yes* and *rather yes* was expressed by a prevailing number of the questionnaire respondents, which confirms an appropriate orientation towards the curricula projecting process for pedagogy faculty within specialty preparing the future pre-school and elementary teachers. The percentages used for the assessment of the scale represent the following histograms 2 and 3:

**Graph 2.** Percentage of students who responded - definitely yes to particular criteria

A prevailing number of the respondents confirmed that curricula enable them to obtain the preparation for teacher profession, definitely yes by 131 students and rather yes (74 students).

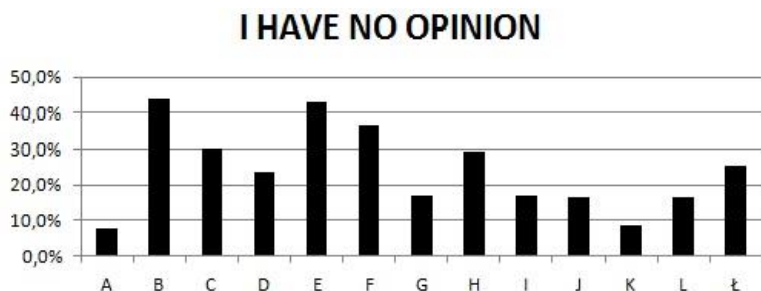
**Graph 3.** Percentage of students who responded - definitely no to particular criteria

The largest number of the questionnaires, with a response – definitely no to the criteria of curricula flexibility regarding the needs emerging from students' interests (extra faculty activities) appears to be merely 7 people or 3.1% of the total number of people. Appropriate forms differentiation of realizing the practice process (continuing, mid-year practices) appears to be merely 6 people or 2.7% of respondents.

**Graph 4.** Percentage of students who responded - rather yes to particular criteria

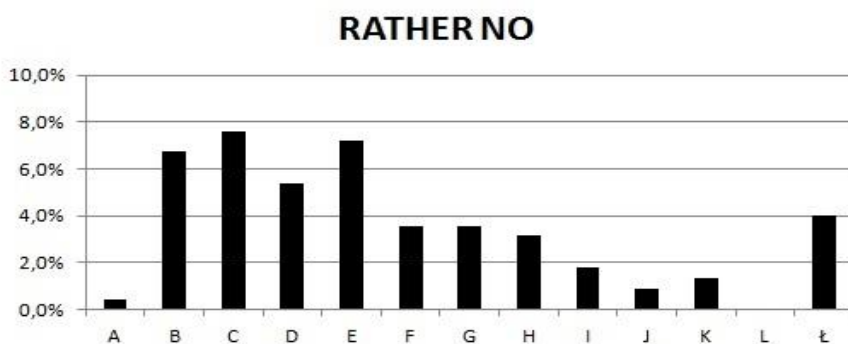
Rating – rather yes, indicating the existence of a problem in clearly positive evaluation criterion for the proper structure of the subjects during the study prevailed in 127 (57.0%) of the students.

**Graph 5.** Percentage of students who responded - *I have no opinion* to particular criteria



The neutral reply I have no opinion was given by most students (98 persons, 43.9%) in the measure of the curricula in terms of enabling students to carry out part of study abroad, international cooperation (Erasmus and others). Next on the proper selection of the theory and practice 96 (43.0%), and the optimal number of hours of practical classes (classes, labs, workshops) 82 respondents or 36.8%. Each of the above criteria was assessed as such by less than half of the respondents.

**Graph 6.** Percentage of students who responded - *rather no* to particular criteria



The criterion of flexibility regarding the needs emerging from students' interests (extra faculty activities) received the most "hardly" responses: 17 (7.6%) of the respondents granted such an answer. Similarly, the proper selection of theoretical and practical subjects got 16 such answers (7.2% of the respondents) and the appropriate structure of the subjects during the study, where the answer "unlikely" was expressed by 12 (5.4%). These figures do not suggest a negative assessment of the individual criteria.

In summary, you should pay attention to the fact that teacher education should take into account the complexity and volatility of the situation and the

conditions in which the people involved will be doing their job or social service, and therefore in the training of future teachers it should be considered important to skillfully equip them with the broadest cross-disciplinary knowledge in the humanities and a reference to the practical dimensions of the future social and occupational tasks. It is advisable, therefore, that we include in the learning process of a scientific theory cognitive patterns operating in the beliefs of those entering college, so that it would prompt them to critical personal reflection on their own professional identity, aspirations, imagination potential consequences of actions and possibilities of their effective implementation (Śliwerski, 2010, p. 124).

The result of this study was to refine the description graduate profile pedagogy with a specialization in early education in pre-school education for undergraduate study, which is presented below.

Graduate:

the knowledge should acquire knowledge:

(1) acquire basic teaching knowledge including terminology used in early and pre-school education, to know its source and use within the related disciplines, its subject matter and methodological links with other disciplines;

(2) acquire knowledge of structured education and training in kindergarten and school, their philosophical, social-cultural, historical, biological, psychological and medical grounds;

(3) learn about some philosophical, psychological and social concepts of human rights and human development in the life cycle in terms of biological, psychological and social aspects;

(4) gain a basic understanding of social bonds, structures and institutions of society, and the relationship between them and the ruling regularities;

(5) acquire an elementary knowledge of the process of interpersonal communication and social development, their accuracy and noise;

(6) acquire a basic knowledge of the determinants of the processes of education, teaching and learning and different educational environments with respect to their characteristics and the processes involved in pre-school and early childhood;

(7) learn about traditional and contemporary trends and educational systems, their historical and cultural context in early and pre-school education;

(8) acquire basic knowledge on how to design and conduct research in the field of early and pre-school education and on the traditional paradigm of origin of each approach;

(9) to get elementary theoretical knowledge of pedagogy, early and pre-school education, which can be used in educational practice;

(10) gain a basic understanding of the structure and functions of the education system, for legal grounds, organization and functioning of various educational, protective, therapeutic, cultural institutions;

(11) be equipped with the knowledge of the methodology and didactics specific to particular areas of learning in kindergarten and at school;

(12) gain a basic understanding of the participants of educational activities, education, care, culture and the methodology to perform common tasks, standards and procedures for the various areas of early and pre-school education;

(13) acquire basic knowledge about occupational health and safety in educational institutions - kindergarten and school;

(14) gain knowledge on how to design their own development paths;

(15) acquire structured knowledge of the principles and ethical standards; should have the skills to:

(1) be able to make the observation and interpretation of social phenomena, and bind them to different lines of teaching in kindergarten and at school;

(2) arrange the conditions for the use of the basic theoretical knowledge to analyze and interpret educational issues, education, welfare, cultural establishments and school facility and be able to assess the motives and patterns of children's behavior;

(3) use the basic theories to analyze, diagnose and predict human behavior, the situation of practical strategies for different contexts of pedagogical activity in the kindergarten and school;

(4) acquire skills of independent learning and develop their professional skills using a variety of sources (in the native language and a foreign language) and new technologies (ICT);

(5) acquire elementary research skills that allow you to analyze examples of research and construction and operation of simple educational research and the ability to draw conclusions, presenting results and indicate directions for further research in pedagogy, early and pre-school education;

(6) gain skills of precise and cohesive saying oneself in the speech and in the writing on topics related to teaching selected topics using different theoretical approaches in education pre-school and early childhood education, and other disciplines;

(7) acquire the ability to communicate with experts in the field of early and pre-school education and with customers outside the circle of specialists using various channels and communication techniques;

(8) develop the skills to present their ideas, concerns and suggestions, supporting them in the context of arguments selected theoretical perspectives and views of various authors;

(9) acquire the ability to apply and evaluate the suitability of common objectives, methods, forms, procedures and best practices to perform the tasks associated with the various spheres of activity teaching in kindergarten and school in line with the detailed methodology and didactics;

(10) use the basic theories to analyze, interpret, design strategies of pedagogical activities in kindergarten and school, and to generate solutions to specific educational problems, prognosis resolution and predict the effects of planned educational activities in specified institutions;

(11) be prepared to animate the work on the development of the participants in the educational process, to promote their independence in the acquisition of knowledge and skills and to inspire action to lifelong learning;

in terms of social competence they should:

(1) be able to work in a team and play a variety of roles, acquire competence to adopt and set objectives, design and do professional activities;

(2) be able to analyze their own learning activities, identify potential areas for change in the future action;

(3) be aware of the level of their knowledge and skills, the need of continuous training of professional and personal development skills, self-assessment of own competence, determination of the direction of their own development and training in the specialties: early education of pre-school education;

(4) be able to create situations to appreciate the importance of sub-disciplines of educational sciences: pre-school education and early childhood education for the maintenance and development of normal relations in social environments, to take the acquired knowledge back to design professional activities;

(5) be sure of the meaning, value and need for pedagogical action in the social environment, organize the conditions of the activity, take the trouble to implement persistence in achieving individual and team activities for pre-school and early childhood education;

(6) be sure of the importance of behaving in a professional manner and respecting the rules of professional conduct;

(7) provide the opportunity to discern and formulate problems of moral and ethical dilemmas in their own and others' work, to seek optimal solutions, act in accordance with the rules of ethics;

(8) be prepared to actively participate in groups, organizations and institutions implementing educational activities, be able to communicate with persons and non-specialists in the field;

(9) be aware of the responsibility to prepare for their work, design and construction of educational activities in the field of early and pre-school education.

Graduate education with a specialization in early education from pre-school receives basic professional teacher qualifications and is prepared to work in a kindergarten and school (grades I–III), as well as to study for a second degree.

To sum up, the presented analysis proves significant from the point of view of students, internal stakeholders of the education process, the conditions for building professionalism in the teaching profession. It is therefore necessary to do research on a new approach to the training of teachers in terms of development of their skills and at the same time building the social authority of the teaching profession.

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### **Legislation**

- Annex to the Regulation of the Minister of Science and Higher Education of 17 January 2012. Retrieved from <http://isap.sejm.gov.pl/DetailsServlet?id=WDU20120000131>
- Appendix 3 to the KJ of 1 October 2011, Jesuit University Ignatianum in Krakow. Retrieved from [http://www.ignatianum.edu.pl/system-zarzadzania-jakoscia-iso-90012008-page\\_563.html](http://www.ignatianum.edu.pl/system-zarzadzania-jakoscia-iso-90012008-page_563.html)
- Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 April 2008 on the establishment of the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning (2008/ C 111/01) points. (13).
- Documentation curricula of education Jesuit University Ignatianum in Krakow and The State School of Higher Education in Chełm.
- The European Higher Education Area in 2012: Bologna Process Implementation Report.

## **BARBARA SURMA & ANNA MALINA**

### **Educational policy aspects of teachers' Continuing Professional Development**

#### **The concept of lifelong education – a spotlight on the literature on the subject**

The concept of lifelong education of adults is tightly connected to permanent education, the history of which dates back to the eighteenth century. In the literature on this subject, lifelong education is treated as one of the current trends in permanent education. However, sometimes these two notions can be used interchangeably. In broad understanding the concept of permanent education includes: natural upbringing (connected to family, peer, local and professional background), school education, both parallel and permanent. Lifelong education can take the form of self-education, schooling, development and disinterested education (Wiatrowski, 2000, p. 331).

According to Zygmunt Wiatrowski (*ibidem*, p. 341) the ideas, statements and publications from the 1960s and 1970s had an influence on the development of recent ideas related to the essence and tasks of lifelong education in Poland. The above mentioned publications and statements included both documents prepared by international organizations working for UNESCO and the views of P. Lengrand (1970), B. Yeaxle, and P. Arendo. The report prepared by E. Faure's, entitled: *Learning to be. The World of education today and tomorrow* had a great influence on the change of understanding education in Poland (Faure, 1975). According to the above mentioned scientists, the tasks of permanent education focus on ensuring the possibility of continuing education in order to prolong professional activity as well as creating conditions for adults to update, refresh and develop skills. It is important to enable them to participate in the achievements of our civilization (Wiatrowski, 2000, p. 343).

Lifelong education is treated as a new pedagogical idea, which was influenced by dynamic changes in the society and economy. It is an educational idea of a deeply humanistic character, since at the center of attention it places man for whom it is important to create good conditions and possibilities of lifelong education. Thanks to this, it is possible to ensure full development in personal, social and professional area (Cieślak, 1981, p. 56). What is more, lifelong education is perceived as a new rule of education leading to a new approach in active cognition

and permanent intellectual and cultural development. Finally, lifelong education is understood as the basic form of modern education.

On the basis of the analysis of literature, Wiatrowski (2000, p. 342) states that lifelong education can be seen as a whole-life process (broad meaning) or as after-school education (narrow meaning). In this broad meaning the author enumerates several aspects of this concept: (1) lifelong education is both formal and informal learning throughout the whole life of a person. The aim, and also the result, is to reach full development in personal, social and professional life; (2) lifelong education can be perceived as a concept showing aims, ways and educational means helping in developing skills and aspirations throughout the person's life; (3) lifelong education is defined as the process lasting throughout the whole life and connected with education, personal experience and following the example. The aim is to develop individual possibilities to the highest possible level in the context of social interest; (4) lifelong education includes all forms of education; (5) lifelong education is an individual philosophy of a man and his creative development.

In the narrow meaning, lifelong education is understood as after-school education connected with such forms of human activity as play, education, work. The last form makes it necessary for a professionally active person to develop and learn constantly. The aim of lifelong education is to develop professional qualifications and broaden general knowledge. However, the problem of unemployment forces some people to start education in order to change qualifications that will meet the requirements of the job market. In the last few years, this problem has affected more and more teachers who have been made redundant. The ministry of education offers development to such teachers in order to, for example, get qualifications necessary to become a family assistant (social worker).

The policy of lifelong education of teachers is connected with a transformation to the new educational model called critical-creative education (Pułturzycki, 2004). The assumption of this new model is changing the emphasis from adaptation teaching and learning to skills of gaining and verifying knowledge on one's own, skills of making choices to create mechanisms and competences of lifelong education and creative self-adaptation (Kosiba, 2012). The above mentioned skills and social competences were defined in the Regulation of 17th January 2012 concerning teaching standards for those preparing. Therefore the alum of teacher's undergraduate school and graduate school should be fully aware of further education needs, gaining knowledge and skills which are necessary in this job. This is consensual with the assumed results. The teacher's lifelong education is treated as an intentional, deliberate and continuous process. This process includes the whole development of personality, raising and changing professional competences and

qualifications, which is made possible by self-education, self-improvement and also participation in different kinds of courses organized by specialist institutions. More often than not, teachers participate in further education as both in-house and off-the-job training (*ibid.*, p. 124).

Lifelong education is connected with the process of self-education characterized by independence of a person in setting educational aims, creating a set of activities and means, making conclusions and decisions. These may include all kinds of efforts to update professional qualifications, broadening specialist knowledge in the course of professional work and improving the process of it (Nowacki & Jeruszka, 2004, p. 60). Professional development is defined as the process of systematical updating, broadening knowledge and skills, both general and professional (Wiatrowski, 2000, p. 367). The motivation for further education or self-education is usually the desire to increase professional qualifications, to gain knowledge connected with technological changes and development of science, economic reasons, the urge or the need to change jobs, pressure from the boss, the influence of family and friends and education policy (Nowacki & Jeruszka, 2004, p. 60; Wiatrowski, 2000, p. 367).

In the literature on the subject it is possible to enumerate four functions of professional development. Adaptation function is connected with adjusting to the new workplace, new post, getting to know the requirements, means and tools. Compensatory function is connected with the need to get relevant qualifications, which is motivated by the lack of such qualifications or changes in law. It sometimes results from a reform or changes connected to the development of science and technology. Renovation function leads to getting to know new technological solutions. Reconstruction function is aimed at preparing employees to introduce innovative solutions in one's workplace (Wiatrowski, 2000, pp. 367–369). All four functions can be used in teachers' permanent education connected to professional development, in which the consecutive stages of the system are taken into consideration.

Apart from the process of self-education and further education of adults it is possible to enumerate the process of improving one's skills and reskilling. The process of improving one's skills is defined as developing formal qualifications, focusing on the process of gaining theoretical professional qualifications, finishing with getting a certificate or a diploma (Wiatrowski, 2000, p. 364). This process is organized by specific educational institutions such as vocational schools, high schools, colleges and universities and after-school courses. Reskilling is an educational or a legal process leading to changing a job or specialization and what follows changing professional qualifications and competences (*ibidem*, p. 365)

The research which was done in recent years concerning teachers' lifelong education is connected, among other things, to the motivation of teachers to participate in further education (Litwa, 2008) their involvement in the self-education process (Kosiba, 2012) understanding permanent education and legal solutions and recent problems of lifelong education (Pólturzycki, 2006).

One of documents defining the new approach of permanent education is 'Strategy of Development of Further Education up to 2010'. The document was accepted on 8<sup>th</sup> July 2003 by the Council of Ministers. This document states that permanent education is perceived as education which is organized in schools for adults, receiving and updating general knowledge, skills and professional qualifications. This education is organized as out-of-school education and concerns adults who have finished obligatory education. According to J. Pólturzycki, this idea narrows the present approach to permanent education which is recommended by the European Union. To some extent, the strategy accepted by the Council of Ministers omits and suppresses the need for teachers' permanent education, identifying it only as further education. The confirmation of such understanding of the concept of lifelong education is the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 11<sup>th</sup> January 2012 concerning permanent education which is organized outside of school. In the whole document we may find only one record related to teachers' development. The record says that 'the centre of practical education can be provided in cooperation with institutions of teachers' development concerning improvement of professional skills of teachers who teach vocational subject.

### **The rules of methodological research**

The analysis of the chosen documents dealing with lifelong education shows the area of research in order to determine educational policy concerning permanent professional education of teachers. The issue of research was presented in the form of the following questions: (1) What are the legal determinants of the lifelong education of teachers? (2) What are the rules of organizing the lifelong education of teachers? (3) What are the forms and ways of providing lifelong education of teachers?

The main method of research was an analysis of such documents as: the Regulation of the Minister of National Education concerning professional development, qualifications and standards of education, information found in the Education System Act and the Teacher's Charter.

### **Description of the research**

#### **1. The legal regulations of lifelong education of teachers in Poland**

The basic documents regulating the functioning of educational and pedagogical institutions in Poland together with the guidelines on the requirements of the

teaching profession are: The Education System Act of 7 September 1991; The Teacher's Charter of 26 January 1982; The Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 1<sup>st</sup> December 2004 establishing conditions of promotion of teachers; The Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 3 February 2012 changing the list of qualifications of teachers and establishing rules when teachers without a degree from a university or a teachers' training college could be employed.

The process of lifelong education is linked to legal regulations concerning the required qualifications i.e. a university diploma with teaching credentials, graduating from a teachers' training college and filling the position corresponding to his or her qualifications. Teachers are obliged to develop their skills in order to get promoted. It is tightly connected to planning their career development. In order to be promoted, a teacher has to participate in various courses, organized as both in-house and off-the-job training. The external motivation to develop one's skills and get promotion is financial gratification. It is worth mentioning that in the evaluation of educational institutions one of the factors which is taken into consideration is teachers' development.

Professional qualifications are often defined as a scope and quality of preparation to do a certain job (Okoń, 1992, p. 106), whereas competences are understood as the ability to do something which depends on the knowledge of skills and the belief that one can make the most of it (Masterpasqua, 1990) or as learned behaviour or natural abilities of confrontation, active battle or coping with life problems thanks to cognitive and social skills that one has (Dudzikowa, 1994, p. 204).

Pedagogical qualifications of a teacher include knowledge and pedagogical skills which are visible in performing three basic functions: didactic, tutelary and educational (Pienkiewicz & Jakubowicz-Bryx, 2004, p. 31). According to W. Okoń professional qualifications include: the level of general education, professional knowledge and skills, and the ability to organize and facilitate work as well as professional talents and interests, social and moral qualifications, physical state and health (Okoń, 2001, p. 201). Taking into consideration the influence a teacher has, his or her professional qualifications include a theoretical system of scientific knowledge about conditions and general features, content, methods, correction and practice. The teacher should know the levels of children's development and learning styles in order to create proper conditions encouraging the educational process.

According to the article 14a sec. 6a of 7th September 1991 of the Education System Act lessons in kindergartens and in the early stages of primary school are provided by teachers who have qualifications which kindergarten and school teachers should possess according to the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 12<sup>th</sup> March 2009 establishing special qualifications of teachers and

determining cases in which it is possible to employ a teacher without a university or teachers' training college degree. Since 1<sup>st</sup> September 2009, it has been determined that in order to become a teacher in kindergarten and early stages of primary school, the person has to have graduated from a teachers' training college preparing to work with children at pre-primary and primary age or from a university at the faculty of pedagogy, with a pre-primary and primary education specialization. Additionally, they should complete a qualifying course preparing to conduct lessons.

Apart from qualifications, a teacher should have a range of competences. Literature enumerates cognitive, diagnostic, educational, organizational, communicative, interpersonal, and innovative competences.

Cognitive competences are interpreted as a moral and intellectual condition of a person, which is manifested in being open to information about oneself, the world and skills, and readiness to use them up to date (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 1997, p. 92).

Diagnostic competences enable teachers to get to know pupils, their needs, interests, possibilities and social relations between children. Cognitive competences, i.e. self-reflectiveness and diagnostic competences enable teachers to choose appropriate information, methods and means of education. A kindergarten teacher is obliged to monitor and diagnose the results of children in accordance with the core curriculum and syllabus in the scope of all educational areas, social competences, and readiness to start school.

Educational competences (organizational and managerial) enable to solve problems connected to organizing the educational process, including adjusting tasks to children's abilities, individualization, flexibility of plans, cooperation with other teachers (also with an assistant teacher), creating proper atmosphere, showing friendliness towards children having different developmental needs. According to B. Grzeszkiewicz, a kindergarten teacher should be: an organizer and coordinator of all areas of children's and his own activity, an initiator and stimulator of development and the educational process, a partner helping in the individual development of a child. The teacher is, apart from the parents, the most important person who provides a positive role model of interactions and relations (Grzeszkiewicz, 2002, p. 284).

In the child's early development the stress is more frequently put on the need of individualization. According to W. Okoń (1992, p. 74) and S. Palka individualization is an attempt to adjust aids, tasks, content, methods, forms, educational means, pace of work to individual students, especially to the intellectual level that they represent, their talents, interests, cognitive passions and health condition (Palka, 2003, p. 110). As A. Sajdak has it, individualization in education is taking into account in the educational system individual differences among students and using such pedagogical efforts which favour maximal development of students'

personality (Sajdak, 2003, p. 298). Individualization is also understood as adjusting didactic materials and methods to the individual needs of a child, and not working on a material which is the same for every child in the classroom with a teacher or individually (Grzeszkiewicz, 2003, p. 643).

Didactic competences of a teacher in kindergarten should be characterized by the knowledge of various methods and forms of working with a group and individual students, the ability to create appropriate conditions for children's development, a creative approach, dynamism, the ability to form a syllabus that would be suitable for students' needs and interests.

Interpersonal competences are abilities determining the quality of interpersonal relationships, communication and contact with co-workers (Bąbka, 2001, p. 517) they involve such personality features as: patience, open-mindedness, sense of humor, consistency, tolerance, nice temperament, protectiveness, self-control, calmness, understanding, empathy, authenticity, communicativeness. Interpersonal competences of a teacher in kindergarten are formed by the knowledge and abilities to communicate with children, parents and other teachers. The development of such abilities should be based on the knowledge of levels of development of kindergarten children, psychology, pedagogy, methodology and acquiring such communicative competences as pedagogical tact and empathy (Grzeszkiewicz, 2003, pp. 645–646).

Innovative competences allow teachers to create, seek and apply the best solutions connected with the educational process (*ibid.*, p. 518). The process of lifelong education of a teacher has to do with acquiring appropriate qualifications in accordance with the Regulation as well as competences related to the process of self-education as well as in-house and off-the-job training (Surma, 2013). The educational reform pushes every teacher to develop their professional skills constantly and to get a consecutive promotion in rank.

The legal basis regulating the rule of promotion in rank includes the following documents: The Teacher's Charter of 26<sup>th</sup> January 1982; The regulation of the Minister of National Education of 1<sup>st</sup> December 2004 concerning teachers' promotion; The Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 14<sup>th</sup> November 2007 changing the regulation concerning teachers' promotion.

The levels of promotion of teachers include: junior teacher, contract teacher, appointed teacher and certified teacher (Karbowniczek, Kwaśniewska & Surma, 2013, p. 165).

Junior teachers willing to become contract teachers are obliged to appear before a qualification board to present a report laying out the realization of the development plan and to answer the questions of the members of the board referring to the following areas: (1) The knowledge of the institution, its tasks and rules of

functioning; (2) ability to conduct lessons in a way in which they can fulfill the tasks of the statute; (3) The knowledge of the local environment, problems of students and the ability to cooperate with them; (4) the ability to discuss conducted and observed lessons.

The internship of a teacher beginning his or her job is tightly connected with the above mentioned adaptation function. The teacher gets to know the organization of the institution, the documents, the students, and takes an active part in the operation of the school. Lessons they conduct and observe help them acquire competences.

The next level in a teaching career is a continuation of teacher's development. A contract teacher applying to become an appointed teacher has to: (1) present his or her professional achievement; (2) show knowledge concerning; (2.1) the ability to organize and develop his or her workshop, to evaluate his or her own activity, and assess its effectiveness and if necessary make changes that will improve the process of education; (2.2) the ability to take into consideration the development needs of students, problems of the local environment and recent social and civilizational problems; (2.3) the ability to use a computer and information technology in his or her job; (2.4) the ability to use psychological, pedagogical and didactic knowledge as well as general aspects of education, social help and acting in juvenile delinquency proceedings solving problems which are related to the tasks of a teacher; (2.5) the ability to use the regulations of the educational system, social help or acting in juvenile delinquency proceedings that are connected with the functioning of a school.

On this level professional development is similar to the renovation function especially in sections c and d. Teachers often take part in post-graduate studies or courses to complete their qualifications in order to get a higher promotion in rank. After completing the internship and passing an exam a contract teacher becomes an appointed teacher. An appointed teacher can apply for promotion to become a certified teacher.

The procedure of promotion to become a certified teacher is based on the formal analysis of documents which are enclosed with an application form. The documents, according to the Regulation of 14<sup>th</sup> November 2007 changing the rules of acquiring promotion in rank, should include: (1) documents confirming qualifications – certified copies; (2) the act of granting promotion in rank to an appointed teacher – a certified copy; (3) the certificate of the headmaster including: (a) the number of hours, subject or kind of classes conducted during the internship; if the teacher changes places of employment or if the teacher is employed in several schools, where his or her working time is less than a half of the required numbers of hours, but together they constitute at least a half of the required number of hours, it

is necessary to attach confirmation from every school in which the teacher has been employed during the internship; (b) the date of confirming the plan of the teacher's development; (c) the date of submitting a report on the accomplishment of the plan; (d) the evaluation that the teacher gets for the internship and the date of making it, and in case of a teacher who changed the place of work during the internship – the evaluation from the previous job; (4) The description and analysis of the accomplishment of the requirements established in the Regulation of 1<sup>st</sup> December 2004 connected with acquiring promotion in rank by teachers, especially the results; (5) if the teacher decided to fulfill the task in which he or she is supposed to get a diploma or a certificate confirming the advanced knowledge of a foreign language on the basis of the Regulation establishing special qualifications required from teachers and pointing out schools and cases in which it is possible to employ a teacher without a university or college degree – a certified copy.

Teachers are also required to write their own syllabuses and plans that would be adjusted to the needs of development of children suffering from various developmental disorders, and for children who are highly gifted, applying innovative methods and educational solutions, all related to the reconstruction function.

The next legal aspect is presented in the Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 21<sup>st</sup> September 2000 establishing kinds, rules of forming, transforming and liquidating the institutions of teachers' development and establishing rules of their functioning. It is regulated by the current system of lifelong education of teachers. The regulations also establish the rules of their organization, forms and ways of realization.

## **2. Rules of organizing lifelong education of teachers**

The above mentioned Regulation introduces regulations connected with rules of organizing lifelong education of teachers. On the central level, it is the Minister of National Education who is responsible for the functioning of this type of education. He or she does his or her job through organizing central development institutions. Their duties are: diagnosing qualifications of teacher, setting the needs related to lifelong education, creating national standards of teachers' development, supervising the functioning of the lifelong education system of teachers and testing the effectiveness of local institutions providing this type of education.

On the local level, the voivodeship council runs provincial institutions of teachers' development. Their duties are: cooperation with supervising institutions, preparation and realization of educational programs for methodological advisors, providing for the needs for personnel in the voivodeship on the basis of analyses of plans of social-economic development of the region, organization of various forms of cooperation and exchange of experiences, creation of the information system in terms of pedagogy, psychology and methodology. Lifelong education of teachers

can be accomplished through different forms of organizations, public and non-public institutions, especially universities and developmental institutions.

The tasks involved in the lifelong education of teachers are realized also by a local council through providing methodological consultations. The job of a methodological consultant can be performed by a teacher who fulfills certain conditions related to education and work experiences. Supervision is exercised by the director of a provincial institution of teachers' development. A local council organizing methodological consultancy should guarantee the possibility of getting advice and methodological and curricular materials for all the teachers working in the area of a certain district.

Lifelong education is also organized as an in-house development for teachers. The headmaster of a school or kindergarten is responsible for organizing such development. It can be organized in the form of workshops or lectures for the teaching staff. The headmaster also organizes help for junior teachers assigning supervisors and sending such teachers to take part in various qualifying courses, trainings, postgraduate studies and conferences.

Institutions of teachers' development should offer a vast array of courses for teachers taking the initiative of improving their qualifications. The local policy should support the understanding of lifelong education.

### **3. Forms and ways of lifelong education of teachers in Poland**

On the 1<sup>st</sup> September 2012 the government introduced changes in the system of adult education. These changes concerned a new approach to professional development. The basis of the new approach was distinguishing in vocational education qualifications, i.e. a set of desired results whose accomplishment is confirmed by granting a certificate issued by a Local Examination Board, after passing an exam.

The regulation of the Minister of National Education of 11<sup>th</sup> January 2012 concerning lifelong education organized beyond schools establishes forms and conditions, organization and procedure of providing lifelong education beyond schools. These forms include (1) professional qualifying course; (2) course of professional skills; (3) general competences course; (4) theoretical course for junior workers; (5) another course enabling acquiring and updating professional knowledge, skills and qualifications.

Lifelong education of teachers can take the following forms: (1) in-house training: (1.1) training staff meeting; (1.2) meetings of training teams; (1.3) workshops; (1.4) methodological conferences; (1.5) seminars; (1.6) open lessons; (2) off-the-job training: (2.1) qualifying courses; (2.2) post-graduate studies.

The lifelong education of teachers can be organized in the form of a lecture prepared by teachers or of a meeting with specialists.

In the future, the importance of self-education through modern mass media, especially through the Internet, will increase. The longstanding program aiming at equipping schools in IT classrooms with Internet access, is supposed to create technological infrastructure for the development of various forms of e-learning enabling teachers to update and broaden their professional knowledge. This will play an important part in the program of giving equal educational opportunities to teachers working away from academic centers.

## **Summary**

The aim of our research is to indicate current aspects of educational policy concerning lifelong education of teachers in Poland. So far, there is no clear-cut definition of continuing education. Thus, at first we analyzed the evolution of the term based on departmental regulations and documents called strategies of continuing professional development. Our main sources were: the Regulations of the Minister of National Education concerning professional development, teachers' qualifications, teaching standards; sections in the Education System Act and in the Teacher's Charter. After the analyses of the above mentioned documents, we answered the research problems: (1) What are the legal determinants of lifelong education for teachers? (2) What are the rules of organizing lifelong education for teachers? (3) What are the forms and ways of providing lifelong education for teachers?

Continuing education is treated in three ways: as a new pedagogical idea that was somehow forced by dynamic social and economic changes in society; as a new rule of education leading to a new approach in active study and permanent intellectual and cultural development; as a basic form of modern education implementation (Pólturzycki, 2004).

The main documents regulating the functioning of didactic-educational institutions in Poland with guidelines on needs, teachers' qualifications are: (1) The Education System Act of 7 September 1991; (2) The Teacher's Charter of 26 January 1982; (3) The regulation of the Minister of National Education of 1<sup>st</sup> December 2004 concerning teachers' promotion; (4) The Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 3 February 2012 changing the regulation on specific teachers' qualifications and defining schools and circumstances that make it possible to employ teachers with no higher education or completed teachers' training college.

In the future, the meaning of self-education conducted by the means of modern communication, especially the Internet, will increase. The long-lasting program of equipping schools with computer laboratories with access to the Internet

will create the technical infrastructure for the development of various forms of distance learning, allowing teachers to constantly update and expand their professional knowledge. This will be an important element in the program of equal educational opportunities for teachers working in areas located far from academic centers.

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## Regulations

Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 21<sup>st</sup> September 2000 establishing kinds, rules of forming, transforming and liquidating the institutions of teachers' development and establishing rules of their functioning

The Education System Act of 7 September 1991

The Teacher's Charter of 26 January 1982

The regulation of the Minister of National Education of 1<sup>st</sup> December 2004 concerning teachers' promotion

The Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 3 February 2012 changing the regulation on specific teachers' qualifications and defining schools and circumstances that make it possible to employ teachers with no higher education or completed teachers' training college

The Regulation of the Minister of National Education of 12<sup>th</sup> March 2009 establishing special qualifications of teachers and determining cases in which it is possible to employ a teacher without a university or teachers' training college degree

The regulation of the Minister of National Education of 11<sup>th</sup> January 2012 concerning lifelong education organized beyond schools establishes forms and conditions, organization and procedure of providing lifelong education beyond schools.

# EDINA MÁRKUS & GÁBOR ERDEI

## Educational policy aspects of teacher Continuing Professional Development in Hungary

### Teacher trainings in Hungary – introduction

In the recent two decades theoretical works and researches have been published (including Gönczöl, 1998; Kelemen, 2003, 2010; Majoros & Perjés, 1999; Mihály, 2002; Poór, 2002; Sapsál, 1998), which deal with the theme of teacher training from the approach of historical, topic-functional, pattern of institution, international experience.

The most recent achievements, observations connecting to the teachers' education are comprised through the completed researches in the first section of the project of Social Renewal Operational Programme (SROP) 3.1.1: "*21. századi közoktatás – fejlesztés, koordináció*" (*Public education in the 21<sup>st</sup> century – development, coordination*”).

You can get an insight into the situation of employment and compensation of teachers from the volume of *Erők és eredők* edited by Sági (2011) (Varga, 2011); from the current and the past situation of the professional improvement of the teachers (Ceglédi, 2011; Gönczöl, 2011; Sági, 2011). In the volume of *Teachers at the vocation* edited by Kocsis and Sági (2012), Derényi (2012) represents the condition of teachers' professional further education in higher education.

In addition to this, the project of OECD Talis gives useful information in the related topic. The OECD TALIS- international examination (Teaching and Learning International Survey) initiated by the governments of OECD member states, which asks the teachers about the circumstances of teaching and learning, their relationship to the school as their workplace.

In the research 23 countries, including Hungary took part. The international teacher research was initiated by the OECD International Indicators of Education Systems (OECD INES) dealing with the circumstances of education with the aim to define the features of the valuation of the teachers' work through comparable samples in the countries that took part; the aspects and characteristics of school managing of the further education of teachers, professional developments, the attitudes of the teachers with the school as a workplace and teaching (Hermann, Imre, Kádárné Fülöp et al., 2009).

In the followings, after a short historical review we endeavour to look over the current regulation, institution-system, financial and development aims and programmes. The major aspects are the presenting of the legal background and the educational programmes.

## **1. History (legal, institutional)**

Gönczöl presents the most typical features and turning points from the beginning of 1906 legal background of the working system of the Hungarian teachers' education. We can get to know the legal regulation, the institutional background and the changes of the allowance of concerns of educational programmes. We distinguish the following periods according to Gönczöl in the teacher further education.

The first period is the first decades of 1900's. The first ministerial regulation appeared in 1906: "Az elemi népiskolai tanítók és tanítónők továbbképző tanfolyamainak szervezete" (The organization of the further trainings of elementary school teachers). In 1912 the Capital city Pedagogical Seminar, was the first European institution, which was established for the regular and continuative further education (Gönczöl, 2011, p. 87).

The period after the Second World War. In 1945 the system of pedagogies' continuative education was started to reorganized. Since 1947 a three years long educational plan has been introduced. Since 1949 the content of the trainings has become estranged from the professional issues and masses of teachers have been trained by compulsory, centralized instructions. The further education of teachers was centralized; in 1952 the Central Further Educational Institution for Pedagogist has been established.

The 60's and the 70's. According to Gönczöl (2011, p. 89) the government of education in the 60's was endeavoured to the achievement of the policy of voluntariness and decentralization. More and more local further educational initiatives were organized, professional work panels came into being in the counties. Kelemen (2010) draw the attention to the fact that from the middle of 1960's a new point of view become significant, which says that there is a need of control even in a decentralized system, so further educational cabinets were created in the counties and in towns with county law. These cabinets besides the organization of the further education, supported the school work panels, organized professional forums, prepared publications. In the 70's they organized complex practical seminars. (Gönczöl, 2011).

The 80's. The act of public education, appeared in 1985, increased the independence, the central regulatory aspect of the schedule remained but the schools and the teachers could choose the exact school-work according to the local needs, suiting to the students' interests the educational institutions could feature its own education system. In 1985 after the act of public education a ministerial decision appeared about regulation of the teacher's further education too. In the 80's as the descendant of the continuative educational cabinets county pedagogue institutions were established in 1985.

Form the 90's to our age. In the 90's the act of public education from 1993 and the National Curriculum actualized in 1995 also generated significant re-educational and post gradual needs. The National Public Educational Institution was

charged to coordinate the teachers' further education and to elaborate the method of quality assurance and to suit it to the system (Gönczöl, 2011). In 1997 the Regulation about the remuneration and preferences of teacher's further trainings and examinations of the participants (277/1997. (XII. 22.)) has been declared, since then it has been modified several times however it is still in force.

## **2. Current regulation, institutional system, financing**

In this chapter we will deal with the most important regulations. Besides that, to make an overview about the recent institutional system and the financing structure is also essential. The basis of teacher education is based on the following laws: (1) Government Decree No. 277/1997. (XII. 22.) on further training for teachers, professional examination for teachers, and on allowances and preferences for training participants; (2) Government Decree No. 93/2009. (IV. 24.) on the amendment of Government Decree No. 277/1997. (XII. 22.) on further training for teachers, professional examination for teachers, and on allowances and preferences for training participants; (3) Ministry of Education and Culture Decree No. 10/2006. (IX. 25.) on general conditions for organising specialised further training.

The duration of completing the further training obligation during the teacher's career is governed by Paragraph (4. § (2) of Government Decree No. 277/1997. (XII. 22.) on further training for teachers, professional examination for teachers, and on allowances and preferences for training participants. According to this one working as a teacher is obliged to take part in an at least 120-hour further training every seven years, during the period between the first working day of September of the seventh year following the obtaining of the degree entitling the person to work as a teacher and the last working day of August of the year in which the person reaches the age of 50 years.

The further education is completed with taking part of one hundred and twenty hours of activity and performing the prescribed education requirements. The training can be fulfilled by other ways defined by the law (e.g. teacher higher examination, getting post gradual degree in the same professional field etc.).

The demand of further education can be fulfilled only by taking part in those training which are issued in the list of the further education published by the educational minister twice a year. At the initiation of the further education system the ways of the further education during a seven years long period could be divided to the following groups: (1) accredited further education (30–120 hours trainings, but in special cases there can be trainings with longer duration); (2) special further education which is ended with special examination or certificate; (3) education which leads to gain another qualification (e.g. Teacher degree with another major, OKJ, or higher level education); (4) beside these the list names some particular trainings which have to be considered during the further education (e.g. ECDL, foreign language trainings).

The accreditation of the short term trainings are accomplished by the Teacher Further Training Accreditation Board. The permission of the training with professional exam can be applied for the Higher Education Licensing and Administration Department of Higher Education Division of Education Office.

Government Decree No. 277/1997. (XII. 22.) on further training for teachers, professional examination for teachers, and on allowances and preferences for training participants (hereinafter: Government Decree) requires the Education Office to register on-line the list of teacher further trainings. According to the modification of the government edict which came into force on the 15<sup>th</sup> of January in 2010 the further education list have to content the trainings which possess valid foundation permission and the organizers applied for the their recording. The presence in the list<sup>1</sup> is considered until the foundation of the programme.

In the chart (1) below we summarize the current (14.03.2013.) fields and numbers of *teacher further educations*. This potentials list of education does not give a real picture about the number of the trainings which are launched. In the appendix 1 the basic types of branches and the duration of the trainings are listed.

**Table 1.** Trainings according to their fields and the relevant number of individual trainings, registered in the further training list of teacher further training

Fields	Number of trainings
1. Public education –guidance	95
2. Organization and quality development	128
3. Measuring and appreciation	106
4. National and ethnical minority education	7
5. Education of the handicapped, developing education	88
6. Teaching – learning	488
7. Care about talent	100
8. Equal opportunity	264
9. Institutional education (nursery school )	94
9. Institutional education	211
9. Institutional education	1
9. Institutional education (education of Art)	12
9. Institutional education (education in collage)	2
9. Institutional education (career orientation )	33
9. Institutional education (free time- culture)	12
9. Institutional education (Physical education, mentalhygiene)	174
9. Institutional education (environmental education)	15
10. Information science	189
11. Vocational training	29
12. Public education developments	5
13. Other	85
<b>Together</b>	<b>2138</b>

Source: Self made chart based on the list of teacher further education

<sup>1</sup> The continuously updated list is to be found at the following website: <http://pedakkred.oh.gov.hu/PedAkkred/Catalogue/CatalogueList.aspx>

The preparing trainings to the teacher professional exam are significant from the aspect of teacher further education. These trainings have 4 semesters and provide teacher qualifications.

The demands about the preparing trainings to teacher professional exam are detailed 10/2006. (IX. 25.) in the 2<sup>nd</sup> appendix of OKM order named the general conditions of the organization of professional direction in further education.

Building on the knowledge gained in the teacher education and public education defined fields of interest: knowledge about the management of civil service, educational institution, as organization; the institution and its surrounding; the efficiency of the educational institution; the questions of integration and segregation; the teacher in the system of the educational institution; education of people and groups who need special pedagogical, psychological knowledge and methods.

The preparation to the professional exam contributes to the renewal, deepening, competition of the knowledge gained during the bachelor and master education, the practice needed to the teacher to fulfil the task connecting to the work field.

Preparing ones for the specialised professional exam contributes to the refreshing, deepening and supplementing of the knowledge and skills acquired during the bachelor and master courses, to developing the practice and skills required for accomplishing the tasks related to the teacher's position, and it also provides new knowledge not related directly to the knowledge acquired during the bachelor and master courses, but to be used in a teacher position to be filled with any higher education degree.

According to dates of the Educational Office from 2012 the higher educational institutions established 72 branches as professional further education majors. Apart from the foundation institution other institutions can launch trainings with the permission of the founder, currently 115 institutions proved the 72 founded trainings.

The trainings are diverse from thematic point of view. Similarly to the short period teacher further-educational trainings, trainings in higher number appear in the following subjects: social service and management, organization and quality development, measuring and appreciation, institutional education from the approach of the subject, education of the handicapped, developing education. The appendix 2 contains the full list.

Currently the institutions which provide the further education are very colourful. Among organizers of the short term period 30-120 hours long training the higher educational enterprisers predominate, besides these ones, institutions maintained by the state and non profit organizations also appear, as training organizers and coordinators.

If we want to outline the ratio between the sectors more precisely, than we can rely on Ceglédi (2011, p. 203) work from 201 in which the author arranges the number of the accredited trainings according to the organizers' constitutional form<sup>2</sup>. According to the dates from 2011 the 50,85% of the trainings were organized by profit oriented institutions, 9,51 % were organized by civil establishments, the maintaining 39,64% were organized by state institutions.

According to the law the trainings ended with professional exam can be founded and started by higher educational institutions.

Considering the financing, we can state that the amount of money appropriate for the teacher further education has decreased since the introduction of the further education system. At the introduction of the further education system the law about the government budget provided almost 3,4 billion Forint for this purpose. Practically this object has remained constant for three years. The decreasing started from 2000 when the head quota was 15.182 Ft, in the budget law in 2001-2002 it was 14.420 Ft/person. In 2003 the support was 14.500 Ft, in 2004 and 2005 it was 15.000 Ft, in 2006 it decreased to 11.700 Ft, which remained fixed until 2009. From the government budget in 2010 the head quota for the teacher further education was removed. To the debit of the limit amount of the finance of "certain public educational tasks" included in the government budget you could compete in this year exclusively with teacher professional exam, gaining further education and costs connecting to the education in higher educational institution stated in 2009 or earlier, and holding even in 2010 to get additional knowledge or higher superlative degree. In the government budget in 2011 further education normative appeared again however not more than 10.500 Ft/person (Nagy, 2011).

*"In the second part of the 2000's the established system of further education underwent a significant change which was caused by the changes of financials and the connecting laws and the appearance of support of the EU Structural Basis"* (Derényi, 2012, p. 33).

### **3. Changes, developments, future**

At this time the revision of teacher further education is happening, the developing purposes are defined, the renewal of the system, so serious changes can be expected in the future regarding this field.

The SROP 3.1.1. XXI. Century public education (development, coordination) II. part" and the SROP 3.1.5. Support of teacher education" named stressed European Union projects can have strong effect on the developing of teacher's further.

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<sup>2</sup> In the teacher further training on-line list of the Education Office's Teacher Accreditation System (PedAkkred), based on search word results.

Especially the support of 3.1.5. teacher education can bring significant changes. The Education Social and Service Non-profit Ltd., the Education Office, and the consortium of the Education research and Developing Institution realize the project. The basic aim of the project is the renewal of the teacher further education system with the revision of the current system, with content and structural renovation, with the developing of additional further education programmes connecting to the life path model as well as with the updating of the advisement services connecting to teacher's professional progress.

Education research and Developing Institution wishes to accomplish the revision of current teacher further education trainings, the accreditation of the new trainings, the secure of education and support institution in the scope of the project. The additional aim of the project is to increase the standard of the trainings: (1) with the increasing of the importance of the content during the accreditation of further educational trainings; (2) with the introduction of non traditional forms of education (blended, module-based, by mentor, imbedded in process); (3) with the following support in the interest of utility; (4) with the establishment of the relationship of the further education and professional advise system (Szentandrás, 2013).

#### 4. Conclusion

The public education system has been restructured recently. This process has influenced all the different parts of the system. It is obvious, that one of the most important parts of the changes is the teacher life path model. The introduction of the teacher life path model's plan may suppose significant changes connecting to the further education structure. At this point it is too early to make any conclusions about this, however this field will be one of the most researched field of public education and continuing professional development of teacher at later time.

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## **Faces of the future teachers**



# DANA HANESOVÁ

## Teacher recruitment in Slovakia

### Introduction

At present, Slovak teachers are searching for their professional identity, real professional autonomy, the ability to generate the standards of performance and the ethical codex of the teaching profession.

The teaching profession in Slovakia was vigorously shaken by the mandatory decision of the Bologna process and the new national educational Acts to divide teacher education (TE) programmes at universities into two discontinuous/or only formally connected levels – Bachelor and Master degrees of TE since 2004. From a pedeutological point of view, this caused a violent disruption in systematic professional development of teachers' professional key competences (Kosová, 2011, p. 56). The voices calling for the reintroduction of an undivided system of TE<sup>1</sup> have been growing stronger each year. According to Kosová (2011, p. 57) it would underline the importance and the state support of teaching professions and raise their social status. A specific example of this effort is a project *Transformation of University TE in the Context of the Reform of Regional School System*, carried out by the University of Matej Bel and other fourteen Slovak TE faculties in 2011, supported by the representatives of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport. The aim was to evaluate the impact of the Bologna process on TE institutions and to create a conception of university TE that would reflect the new needs of educational practice. It focused on researching and analysing the current crisis in TE and searching possible solutions.

It seems that the current non-attractiveness of the teaching profession is reflected in the lower numbers of applicants for TE as well as a rising number of teachers leaving the profession, especially the younger teachers (Kosová, 2011, p. 9). Similarly to most of the EU countries - the Slovak education system faces a double challenge of **teachers/TE students' recruitment**: how to enlarge the pool of applicants for TE, and how to also tighten the criteria for selecting people for teaching posts<sup>2</sup>. The theoretical part of our study presenting its characteristic and wider socio-cultural context is documented by several research results, including the

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<sup>1</sup> Statement of the Association of Deans of TE faculties in the Slovak and Czech Republics, 29 September 2011

<sup>2</sup> [http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374_en.pdf), p. 29.

author's own enquiry, showing its development over the past several decades in Slovakia.

To respond to this challenge, analysis of three categories of data were used: a) of students' intake in TE faculties according to official Slovak and international statistics, followed by an analysis of previous research reports and other official documents on TE; b) of selection of original research studies and publications from three historical periods – before and after 1989, before and after the Bologna process. It describes not only Slovak, but in certain cases also Czech situation; c) of data from our qualitative research among two groups (Slovak and Czech teachers and TE students) in 2013 is described in the second part of this study.

## **1. Teacher recruitment in its wider pedeutological context**

### **1.1. Basic concepts**

Teaching crisis and the effort to accomplish an effective educational transformation has brought along a discussion about the status of teachers in Slovakia. A rising amount of experts' attention has been paid to the progressively developing *pedeutology* – a modern educational discipline, defined as the theory of the teaching profession, dealing with the objectives, means, preconditions and conditions of professional activities of a teacher as well as with physical and social expectations from the teachers, their personality, education and carrying out their job (Kasáčová, 2009, p. 20–38).

The research of professionalization of the teaching profession has brought evidence that instead of just an academic development of knowledge or practical training of skills, the biggest challenge for TE is to develop the crucial professional competences of teachers. *Teaching competences* are complex combinations of knowledge, skills, understanding, values and attitudes, leading toward effective action in a situation. The concept of teacher competences is likely to resonate differently in different national contexts<sup>3</sup>. In accord with the Czech approach (Lukášová & Kantorková, 2003; Vašutová, 2004), a Slovak group of experts formulated a clear interactional framework of teacher's competences in 2006 (p. 44–47). A professional teacher should be a) an autonomous expert in knowing his/her own self; b) an expert in educational relations helping individual development of pupils; c) an expert in facilitating teaching and d) an expert in reflection and self-reflection. His/her everyday professional activities are thus focused on a) pupils; b) educational process, and c) his/her own self development (Kosová, 2009, p. 15). The purpose of this framework is to ensure that all TE programmes in Slovakia would aim to develop a common core of teaching competences in their graduates<sup>4</sup>.

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<sup>3</sup> [http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374_en.pdf), p. 23.

<sup>4</sup> As recommended by [http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374_en.pdf), p. 31.

Although there has been a lot of research focused on specifying the teaching competences, only a few investigations have dealt with real performance of the teaching profession. This became the aim of the project “The Profession of ‘Pre-primary Education Teacher’ and ‘Primary Education Teacher’ within Dynamic Concept” (No. APVV-0026-07) accomplished by the Faculty of Pedagogy, University of Matej Bel in Slovakia together with Polish and Czech colleagues (2008-2010) (Kasáčová, 2009). By applying professiograms for investigating the daily professional activities of teachers, the project succeeded to confront the theoretical pedeutological thinking, and the required competences of teachers in the Competence Profile of the Pedagogical Employee (Kasáčová, Kosová, Pavlov et al., 2006) with their everyday practice.

Developmental or *‘biodromal’ research* is probably the most frequent approach to categorizing pedeutological research among Czech and Slovak experts. Among others, it focuses on the phase of choosing the profession and on the phase of the teacher preparation.

**Recruitment** in the broader sense involves all activities by the government and by TE faculties, e.g. their entrance exams and intake policies, presentations to the public (open days etc.), focused on the information campaign and on the admission of high quality TE students. From the international comparative point of view, Slovakia is a country applying ‘open recruitment’<sup>5</sup> of teachers by which we mean a decentralised system where recruitment is usually the responsibility of the school or local authorities.

On the other hand, **recruitment of TE students/ teacher recruitment** points to one’s abilities, motivation and processes preceding the decision to become a teacher. It is connected with one’s extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, self-selection of the teaching profession, decision to study at TE faculty, one’s retention to stay focused on teaching profession during actual TE preparation in spite of its frustrations and weaknesses, and the final decision to enter teaching at school.

Teacher recruitment can be also viewed from a narrower angle as the research area that is focused on analysing the profile of the population of young people who want to study or are already studying TE (Průcha, 1997, p. 202).

As recruitment is a complex issue, the way of researching it by the team of V4TECERN No. 21210119 project “TE in Central and Eastern Europe” was to analyse, define and investigate its substantial subcategories: TE students intake policy; previous academic qualifications of TE students; advantages of the teaching profession; and factor influencing the decision for the teaching profession. The synthesis and evaluation of the acquired data should present an overall picture of the

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<sup>5</sup> Eurydice: Key Data on Teachers and School Leaders, forthcoming, provisional data. According to: [http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374_en.pdf), p. 10.

current state of recruitment of TE students/teachers in each country and thus make it available for comparison with other countries.

In our study, after showing a brief diachronic picture of research throughout the recent history, the V4TECERN team's characteristics of recruitment is going to be applied. Examples of previous research are presented as the context of our own research (part 2).

## **1.2. Previous research of recruitment for TE/teaching profession**

Previous research on recruitment is presented as a chronological overview summarizing data about research on recruitment from three distinguishing historical periods in Slovakia, typical also for other post-communist countries and their TE: a) the era before the democratic revolution in Czechoslovakia; b) the era after 1989, before entering the EU and applying the Bologna process into the universities (2004); and c) the recent era after the compulsory structuring of TE studies became reality at all universities<sup>6</sup>. As Slovak researchers have often cooperated with Czech and Polish teams, a limited selection of comparing research data about these countries is implemented here too.

### **Research on teachers during socialism**

The research on teaching professions in socialist countries was insufficiently developed in comparison with other areas of educational research. In spite of some attempts (e.g. Byčkovský, 1983; Kulič, 1980; Průcha, 1985; Vorlíček, 1979), critical evaluation of TE empirical research was very rare before 1990 (Průcha, 2002, p. 173).

On the other hand, it would be wrong to consider it as non-existent. In Czechoslovakia research on the biographical development of a teaching career applied predominantly the psychological view (Kariková, 2002). Three research studies on teacher career were written by J. Vaněk already in 1947. In 1974, V. Špendla researched the motives for choosing a teaching profession. The most important motive was one's love for children. Teaching was considered to be a job suitable for women. The second motive was the desire to educate.

In 1975 Klímová compared social origin and the motives for becoming a teacher. It was the most extensive and detailed research of students at all faculties of education in the Czech Republic.

The study *Učitel a jeho povolání* by V. Pařízek (1988) was the only complex study using empirical findings on determinants and preconditions of the teaching profession.

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<sup>6</sup> In 2005 the accreditation of the 4-5 years TE programmes expired. The newly accredited programmes were structured into 3 degrees (bachelor, master and PhD).

## Research on teacher recruitment during 1990 – 2004

After the democratic revolution in 1989, the research on teachers stopped playing the role of propaganda and a new concept of free researching was born. Several theoretical publications advising how to carry out a proper research were published. An important summary of overall pedeutological research in the first era of Slovak democracy was published by P. Gavora (2004) in the Slovak research journal *Pedagogická revue*. Our overview of research on TE recruitment is presented in Tables 1 a 2.

**Table 1.** Research on TE recruitment in Slovakia during 1993 – 2004

Researcher	Focus/sample	Main purpose/result
Porubská, G., 1990-1993	Decisions to study TE by students (for ISCED1)	51.4% decide for T profession during the age 6 – 15; 38.8% decide during higher secondary school. Big influence of family background on choosing T position - 43% T in family
Schnitzerová, E. 1994	TE students' attitudes towards teaching	Decline of positive attitude from 1st to 4th grade in TE
Krystoň, M., 1994	Decisions for TE of secondary school students	Teaching profession was considered to be the third most attractive (out of seven suggested): 54% of girls and 39% of boys.
Kasáčová, B., 1995, 1996	Motivation for TE, TE students' expectations from the study	Desire to become a teacher since childhood (44.6%) – to take care of children, to teach them; influence of a parent – teacher – or both parents are teachers (15.4%); Secondary school of education (ISCED 3). Influence of a specific teacher 8.5%; first desire to study something else, but then content with the profession/willing to stay at school the whole life 18.5%.
Kasáčová, B., 2002	Motivation to become a primary school teacher	<i>2nd grade students</i> attracted by working with children (55%); the advantages of a teaching job (9%); organizing children and grading (5%). "I do not want to teach after my graduation" (1 student); <i>3rd grade students</i> attracted by working with children (only 36%). the advantages of teaching job (1.2%); organizing children and grading (5%); "I do not want to teach after my graduation." (24%)
Gavora, P., 2001	Motives of TE students via life stories	The most important factors: family surrounding during the time of childhood; personality features of the student; experiences from school; role models; key people; life crises.
Gavora, P., 2002	Motives of TE students via life stories	Family background, personal characteristics, experiences from school, role models, key persons and critical events of mid- and late career teachers
Kasáčová, B., 2004	Primary and secondary choices of T profession Motives	5-23% came to study knowing they will never teach but that this is a means to other professions; 64% - already working in education, need qualifications; main motives: love of children, experiences with educational work; others: desire to be with interesting people, to have more social contacts; 23% - the fulfilment of their life desire

**Table 2.** Predominantly psychological research on TE recruitment (Slovakia) 1993 – 2004

Researcher	Focus/sample	Main purpose/result
Kariková, S., 1998	TE students: evaluation of psychological preparation at TE faculty	Absence of activities focused on solving problems and conflict situations in the classroom. Lack of training for social skills as well as activities focused on better self-recognition and the recognition/understanding of others.
Kariková, S., 1998-1999	Opinions of TE students: listing the skills of an ideal teacher, comparison with opinions of in-service teachers.	Personal maturity and mental health of TE students. An ideal teacher should be fair, creative, full of empathy, be able to help pupils and listen to them, friendly. Real picture of teachers: they consider themselves to be 1) friendly, 2) able to help pupils, 3) able to appreciate pupils, interested in people, 4) fair and accepting, and 5) emphatic.
Kariková, S., 2000	Personal characteristics of TE students	Social skills: 1/2 of TE students – very little confidence in social situations, 1/3 - problems in expressing emotional proximity/relationships with people. Emotions: more than 1/3 of TE students seem to be restless, unstable, ¼ of them - significantly strained, prone to impatience.
Kariková, S., 2000	Choice of the job by TE students and future economists	Identical numbers of students in both groups (77.3% and 78%) considered their choice of future job as primary one. No evidence of 'attractiveness'/'prestige' of economic studies.
Kariková, S., 2000/2001	Stamina - willingness to stay in the profession after the studies	Women: 1/3 of TE students want to go to work abroad (to acquire the language competences), then return to their profession. Some want to continue to study another (related) field of study (e.g. special education). All men want to find a more profitable job, especially those who are married or are going to get married. Most of them would like to find a job with the police department.
Kariková, S., 2004	Factors influencing the relationship towards the T profession. Motives and worries of TE students. Comparison between teachers and TE students.	Research of anamnestic data, motivation, worries before entering the practice, demands/difficulty, content, fluctuating tendencies. Personal aptitude: for 68% being a teacher was a primary choice. Decisive motive: the opportunity to work with children. Falling interest in studying primary TE. The percentage of teachers who consider leaving educational sphere is highest among the youngest teachers.
Kariková, S., 2010: comparison with Spendl, 1974	Spontaneous interest in teaching profession, positive/negative sides of T profession	Raising level of feminization, lowering status of teaching profession, growing pressure from negative sides of teaching profession (fear of working with problematic children, communication with parents, legislative changes). Falling interest in studying primary TE.

Compared with Slovak results, Czech research showed similar tendencies in all areas of TE recruitment (Průcha, 2002, p. 167–168). After 1990 the Czech researchers focused also specifically on investigating the interest amongst young people in a teaching career and the motivation to study at a TE institution (e.g. Chráska, 1996; Hřebíček, 1995; Kalhous & Horák, 1996; Šimoník, 1994). Research

studies were collected in the Proceedings *Teacher – Preparation and Requirements of School Practice* (1994).

R. Havlík (1995) aimed at finding out the motives of TE applicants. Many of them did not really mean to study TE in the first place, and only 58% of them started TE programme in the end. Women, primary education applicants, and students from smaller towns and villages showed higher interest in TE studies. Almost 60% of applicants made their decision just shortly before filling out the application. Their 'last minute' motivation proved to be the weakest. Only 36% of TE students would prefer to study TE again. Havlík investigated also the professional perspectives of TE students. About 69% respondents wanted to become teachers. Men were less oriented towards the performance of their studied profession. A family teaching tradition seemed to be relatively strong.

J. Kotásek (1994), and later with R. Růžička (1996) and M. Tichá (1995) studied social characteristics of primary TE students focusing on motivation and on economic, educational and social background. Majority of their parents were administrative and manual workers. Their research, similarly to Havlík's, indicated certain generational continuation in the teaching profession. The main attraction of teacher profession was the opportunity to educate somebody. A strong influence of middle-European school tradition, especially emphasising the standards of general knowledge or relatively high levels of social pressures at schools was indicated. In 1996 the social profile of TE students in the Czech Republic showed that they came from a lower social class (34 % of fathers and 27% of mothers are workers) more often than students of other faculties. Up to 23% of TE students were coming from families with teachers.

More data comparing motivation and opinions of Slovak, Czech and Polish teachers from this era were summarized in the research study *Central-European teacher on the threshold of society –learning community in the beginning of 21<sup>st</sup> century* (1999) which will be referred to later on.

### **Research on teacher recruitment during 2004 – 2013**

In Slovakia the research so far has concentrated on TE students' expectations from their teaching studies, on changes in their attitudes influenced by the studies, on personality preconditions for the performance of the profession, on their willingness to work as a teacher after studies, forming one's professional identity, developing one's reflexivity in the course of preparation for the job and building one's teaching capabilities.

Similarly to the previous period, Table 3 mentions some research projects that have taken place at Slovak universities recently.

**Table 3:** Research on TE recruitment in Slovakia (2005– 2013)

Researcher	Focus/sample	Main purpose/result
Valicová, T. 2006	Motives - primary and secondary choice of teaching profession	Primary choice for 81% (I like to work with children, I want to educate somebody.) Secondary choice for 19% of respondents.
Valkovičová, M., 2008	Motivation of primary teachers: Would you choose TE again?	1/3 respondents – positive response, 2/3 - do not know, changed their minds (reason: finances)
Hrubišková, H., Višváder, P., 2011	Socio-cultural background of science TE students	To be a science teacher is preferred more by students from rural areas; active believers; often being first born children. ¼ of them do not plan to teach after graduation.

As the overview of research in Slovakia shows the main motivating factors influencing the decision to become a teacher have been: family influence, especially during the time of childhood, personality features of TE students, the influence of previous teachers of TE students, school experience, role models, key people, critical life periods, the influence of peers and their altruistic motives.

In the Czech Republic, the interest of young people in the teaching profession is relatively high. On the other hand, some teachers leave their profession, mainly because of low salaries. So the question of recruitment has been of interest of several researchers there too. Seberová (2009, p. 204) highlighted the importance of three monographs summarizing research on TE students and teachers written by Průcha's (2002), Vašutová (2001) and Havlík (2000). Similar to Slovak researcher Gavora (2002), a few Czech researchers apply qualitative methods of teachers' life stories out of which the attitudes of future teachers to their own profession are inferred (Urbánek, 2001). Juklová (2008) used another qualitative method – analysis of written self-reflections to suggest factors influencing the development of motivation towards a teaching profession.

### 1.3. Intake of TE students

The policy for admission of students in Slovakia depends on individual TE schools and their different study programmes. Some of them accept students based on their study results. Others require personal attendance at entrance examinations, which consist of testing general study knowledge and/or assessing specific capabilities of future students (e.g. music competence, physical fitness, etc.).

In the beginning of the transformation process after 1989, there were four faculties of pedagogy in Slovakia with approximately 3.000 to 3.500 students studying primary education, and to a limited extent, preschool pedagogy. The biggest boom of new students was during the second half of the Nineties. Before the structuring of teachers' studies into Bc. and M.Ed., 4.084 students studied in these two fields, mostly in 4-year study programmes, which means approximately 1.020

students per year on average. In 2003 there were 4.503 graduates from all teaching programmes, including teachers for special schools.

The number of first graduates of the structured TE studies in 2008 was 7.736. It included all programmes in both BC and M.A level. To show interest in TE it is necessary to divide the final number of students by two. It shows that it decreased to some small extent. In 2009 the average was about 925 students per year. So “in spite of an increase in the number of higher education institutions, the number of students in the two fields of study has changed only slightly and did not grow much” (Kosová, 2011, p. 37–38).

In Slovak universities, applicants have the right to apply to as many study programmes as they desire. Logically the number of applications is higher than the number of students who actually decide to go through the admission process. As can be seen from the example of the year 2011 in Table 4, after the applicants successfully passed the entrance admission process, they could choose whichever programme they were admitted in to. Finally, the number of registered students in the beginning of the academic year reduces in comparison with the number of applications to one third in full times studies and to half in part-time studies. In 2011 out of all applied students 57% of them were admitted but only about 37% of them registered for their studies.

**Table 4.**<sup>7</sup> The applications and admissions of TE students (2011/12)

Study field/ Year 2011/12	Form of study							
	Full-time (daily students)				External students			
	<i>Applied</i>	<i>Admission procedure</i>	<i>Admitted</i>	<i>Registered</i>	<i>Applied</i>	<i>Admission procedure</i>	<i>Admitted</i>	<i>Registered</i>
Pre-primary and elementary teachers education	2.045	1.714	934	650	1.122	976	645	520
Teaching vocational subjects*	226	187	122	99	1.511	1.499	1.485	1.050
Teaching academic subjects**	7.523	6.922	4.371	2.379	370	354	327	225
Teaching art, music, P.E., ethical and religious education***	3.593	3.082	1.601	1.142	181	145	126	100
<b>All teaching and educational programmes</b>	<b>15.284</b>	<b>13.625</b>	<b>7.951</b>	<b>4.900</b>	<b>3.895</b>	<b>3.607</b>	<b>3.133</b>	<b>2.301</b>

#### 1.4. Advantages/disadvantages of the teaching profession

In the years 1996 – 1997, an extensive comparative research *The Central European Teacher on the Threshold of Society – the Learning Community in the Beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century* was carried out. Its purpose was to compare the working conditions for the teachers from Poland, Czech Republic and Slovakia before entering the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The comparison of opinions of teachers on advantages and disadvantages of teaching profession is presented in Table 5 and 6 (according to Blížkovský, Kučerová & Kurelová, 2000).

<sup>7</sup> <http://www.uips.sk/sub/uips.sk/images/PKvs/Statista/r2011pk1.pdf>. T 07b

**Table 5:** Advantages of teaching profession

Advantages	Slovakia	Czech Republic (ratio)	Poland (ratio)
Inspiration to work with children and young people	62.7%	26%	25.4%
Longer holidays	39.5%	20.05%	23.9%
Creative work	32.2%	15.85%	
Chance to educate somebody	24.3%	3.46%	
Self-realization	19.2%	12.38%	
Shorter time spent at the work place	19.2%	15.36%	9.4%
Self-education	15.3%	3.46%	
Stable working place	4%	2.97%	
Other reasons	10.7%		19.7%
No advantages			19.7%

**Table 6:** Disadvantages of teaching profession

Disadvantages	Slovakia	Czech Republic (ratio)	Poland (ratio)
Low salary	79.1%	36%	27.4%
Low social status	49.7%	26.89%	12.4%
Psychologically demanding, stress	41.8%	19.33%	15.4%
Poor material equipment	17.5%	4.23%	
Timing, discrepancy holidays	15.3%	3.02%	
Take home work	6.2%	3.93%	
Difficult cooperation with parents	5.1%		
Health problems	5.6%		
Meaningless work/activities	4.5%		
Low competencies of teachers	3.9 %		
Little support for continuous education	2.8 %		
Bad concept of schooling		6.34%	
No problems			12.9%

In the Slovak research group, the negative sides prevailed over positive ones. A strong frustration was caused by low public opinion on teachers, financial and moral underestimation of their work. Up to 21.9 % would not have chosen the teaching profession again. In the Czech and Polish samples teachers saw their profession as having balanced advantages and disadvantages. Most Polish teachers would choose their profession again.

From the long-term point of view an important comparison of teachers' motivation was carried out by Kariková (2010, p. 64–66) who used the same questionnaire used in Czechoslovakia by Špendla in 1974. The comparison of statements of teachers in 1974 and in 2009 depicted pros and cons of teaching profession - why the TE students planned/did not want to start teaching. Almost half

of the respondents in 2009 were most concerned about their ability to deal with the behaviour of current students, in 1974 their number was very small (4%). The second strongest concern (29%) of 2009 group was the fear of communication with parents which was indicated only by 3% in 1974. The frustration from frequent changes of legislation was pointed at by 19% of respondents in 2009 whereas only 1.5% of them in 1974.

Both researchers found out three categories of positives sides of the teaching profession. The first category consisted of *psychological* responses that respondents liked to work with children and young people. The second category was formed by *utilitarian* answers (long holidays, and suitable working hours). Only the group in 1974 was content also with good salary. The third category of positives of teaching profession showed their connection with the *personal* character of respondents: ability to see an opportunity to expand their knowledge and to work intellectually. Here the difference was the biggest. Current TE students are less interested in the personal benefit of the teaching profession/self-development/continuous education; they do not emphasise the utilitarian sides of the teaching profession.

### 1.5. Factors influencing the decision for the teaching profession

As Kariková (2010) detected in her comparison of the research in 1974 and in 2009, the spontaneous interest in “becoming a teacher” has had a decreasing tendency. Though the primary choice of the teaching profession seemed similar to the sample in 1974, almost 30% of current teachers would choose another profession if given a second chance. So what factors influence this decision?

According to the above-described previous research, a person’s decision for TE studies and teaching profession seems to be influenced by gender, family background, socioeconomic status, previous academic qualifications, changes in social background characteristics, etc.

#### *Gender*

Similarly to other EU countries<sup>8</sup>, the feminisation of a teaching staff has been a trend in Slovakia. There has been a significant gender imbalance, with a general shortage of male staff in early childhood education, primary and lower secondary education. According to Kariková (2010) - in 1974 the ratio of male teachers was 10% higher than in 2009 and so feminization in education is growing. It seems that women have been more inclined to choose the teaching profession. Feminisation of teaching staff is a distinctive feature in education also in the Czech Republic. “The

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<sup>8</sup> Commission staff working document. Supporting the Teaching Professions for Better Learning Outcomes. Communication from the Commission Rethinking Education: Investing in skills for better socio-economic outcomes. Strasbourg, 20.11.2012. SWD(2012) 374 final. [http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/news/rethinking/sw374_en.pdf)

dominant proportion of women is an undeniable statistical fact” (Göbelová, 2009, p. 64–65).

### *Previous academic qualifications*

Kasáčová (1996, p. 316) compared the motivation of two groups of TE students according to the type of secondary schools from where they graduated (grammar schools and secondary vocational teacher training schools). The former group showed higher interest in educational and psychological theory. The latter group showed higher interest in the methodology of teaching specific subjects and in actual teaching at schools. They had a better overview of the literature and were better prepared for studies than the graduates from the grammar schools.

In her later study, Kasáčová (2004) showed that the group of primary teachers consisted of 52% graduates from grammar schools, 23% from secondary teacher training vocational schools and 15% from other vocational schools. This ratio changed slightly through years. In the case of pre-primary and primary schools, teachers more often came from secondary teacher training vocational schools. In 2011 this ratio among future science teachers was 83.7 : 12.7 : 3.3 % (Hrubišková & Višváder, 2011).

In her research, Kariková (2000) tested the myth about lower number of talented people among students of TE compared to other study programmes. Her comparison of a sample of future teachers and of future economists showed no statistically significant differences between the cognitive and creative abilities of these two groups.

Kariková (2010) also showed that for 23% of the respondents in 1974 the choice of the teaching profession was inspired by “lack of any other study opportunities“, whereas in 2009 only 10.4% of them agreed with that.

### *Socioeconomic background of TE students*

Gavora (2012) in his qualitative analysis of life stories of 11 teachers showed that the decision to become a teacher was usually formed very early, even in the primary years. It emerged gradually in these phases: primary inspiration by the profession, preconception of a teacher’s role, identification with the teacher role, primary vision of the profession, elaboration of the vision as the result of experiences, and the final decision to become a teacher. Gavora summarized the most influential factors on choosing a teaching career: socially cohesive family environment in childhood leading to showing an interest in other people; certain personality features, e.g. the sociability, self-confidence, self-promotion, steadiness, reliability, accuracy, responsibility, diligence; experience from one’s own schooling period (activities and norms); role pattern – particular teachers; key persons – positive or negative examples; and life crises.

From a psychological research later on in 2004 (Kariková, p. 54–51), the influence of the tradition of the teaching profession in the family was not confirmed; it seemed the least decisive influence from all motives. The decisive motive was the opportunity to work with children.

Hrubišková & Višváter (2011) researched the socio-economic background of science TE students; 27% of them had a teacher in the family. About 1/2 of the parents were secondary school graduates, 1/3 of them were university graduates. The most educated were mothers of students not planning to become teachers. Those who did not plan to start teaching had 1.32 siblings on average. Those who wanted to become teachers had 1.57 siblings on average; there were fewer students who were only children and more of those who had 3-4 siblings.

As Kariková compared in 2010, in 1974 about 63% of teachers decided for this profession based “on the influence of other people” and in 2009 it was only 45.6% of the group. This can be explained by higher status of a teaching profession, more extensive influence of parents and of one’s own teachers – ideal models, and also by the smaller number of study fields in 1974.

According to several research studies, the decision to study at TE institution was partially influenced by a good example of teachers in the family. Obviously, the responses depended on the type of questions in the investigations. Porubská (1994) found out 43%, Kasáčová (1995, 1996) 15.4%, Kariková (2004) 15%, and Višváter and Hrubišková (2011) 27% respondents who due to the model of their teacher parent were more attracted to the teaching profession.

The influence of other teachers upon TE students’ decisions was recognized by 8.5% of respondents in research by Kasáčová (1995); it was also mentioned in teachers’ reproduction of their life stories (Gavora, 2001, 2002).

Concerning the religious background, 81.16 % of respondents were members of Christian churches, and 12.32 % were non-confessional. This difference was even bigger in the group of TE students who planned to become teachers (Hrubišková & Višváter, 2011).

## **1.6. Personal motives and formation of attitudes**

In 1994 Schnitzerová investigated a gradual change of attitudes of TE students towards the teaching profession. The first year students described them by positive cognitive statements. Gradually the attitudes became less positive. Last year students used more emotional statements about children, saying, e.g. that they would assess children only according to what the pupils knew and not according to his/her effort put into it. They often considered the effort paid to the under-average pupils as unrewarding labour.

Similarly Kasáčová (1996) compared the personal interest in the teaching profession between a group of second grade TE students and a group of third grade students. She found out that the personal attraction of having a chance to work with children dropped from 55% to 36% while the number of students who did not plan to teach after graduation rose.

Another comparison was carried out by Kariková (2004) between TE students and in-service teacher. She found out statistically important differences between their motives for choosing TE and the worries from the beginning of their teaching performance. TE students did not feel prepared to communicate with parents, solve various school situations or do the administrative work. Teachers seemed to be more motivated; able to explain the reason for choosing the profession (meaningful creative job, allowing continuous self-development); expressing fewer worries about communication with parents and finances; more satisfied with the profession; considering their job to be more stable and school climate more positively; more interested in the work itself and evaluating its social meaning more highly; considering pupils to be significantly better and more obedient; more positively evaluating the school management; more objective, rational, closed and reserved. Their negative attitudes expressed in connection with new technology and university TE (not practical enough – e.g. work with SEN children).

In 2006 Valicová found out statistically important difference between the educational motives of a group of respondents for whom the teaching profession was the primary choice (81%) and the alternative choice (19%). About 96% of the first group agreed with the statement “I like to work with the children” as it being the most important value. Out of the second group with teaching as an alternative, only 69% believed that it should be the first value; for the rest it was not an important value. The second motive, “I want to educate somebody“, was evidently one of the most important motive in 62% of the first group. Only 38% of the second group considered it as one of the most important motives.

According to a research in 2011 (Hrubišková & Višváder), 45.6 % of TE science students had a strong desire to become teachers; 28.3% studied TE as an alternative programme. Their prior desire was to study at another school (medicine, pharmacy); some of them wanted to reapply to their preferred study programme; 13% of them chose TE because of the easy admission (no entrance exam).

### **1.7. Willingness to enter teaching profession and teachers' stamina**

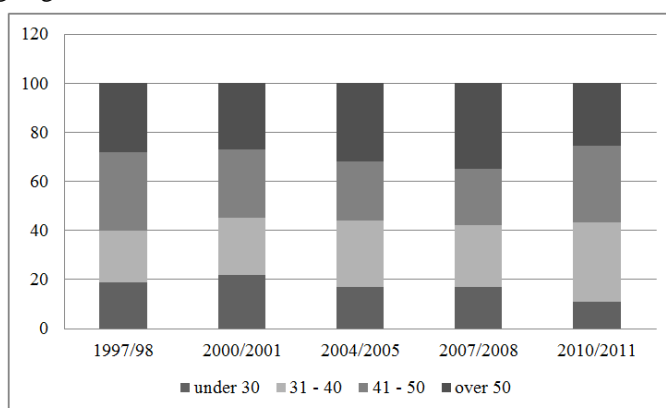
According to Eurydice statistics, Slovakia belongs to the group of countries (Finland, Greece, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Spain and the UK) where the retention of teachers appears problematic. There is a high percentage of TE graduates who do not actually teach, which may be due to various already mentioned sources of

dissatisfaction. Unfortunately, the total amount of money wasted has not been quantified (Černotová, Drga, Kasáčová et al., 2006) yet.

In the above described comparative study by Kariková (2010), respondents in 1974 considered their choice of a teaching job as final; only up to 14% - in the case of grammar schools - and 2- 6% of teachers from other schools would have chosen a different job. In 2009 almost 30% of respondents stated they would have chosen a different field if given the chance.

In 2011 (Hrubišková & Višváder), half of the TE science students group wanted to become teachers after graduation,  $\frac{1}{4}$  of them had not decided yet and  $\frac{1}{4}$  did not plan to become teachers.

**Figure 1.** Ageing of teachers in Slovakia



The tendency not to enter teaching profession after graduation can be seen from Chart 1 on evident ageing of teachers in Slovakia<sup>9</sup>. Though the recent estimations of Education at a Glance<sup>10</sup> have showed some stabilization of the number of teachers between and under 40 years old, the number of young teachers is falling down. On one hand a certain group of TE graduates get employed in more attractive jobs with better social conditions, more opportunities to travel and, study languages. On the other side, it is the result of non-conceptual human resources policy; socially unappreciated value of teacher's work; and hard working conditions.

The biggest level of commitment to enter the teaching profession and the highest level of stamina is observed with female primary TE students/teachers who come from rural areas and smaller towns and those whose parent/parents are

<sup>9</sup> [http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/education-at-a-glance-2013/indicator-d5-who-are-the-teachers\\_eag-2013-29-en#page1](http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/education-at-a-glance-2013/indicator-d5-who-are-the-teachers_eag-2013-29-en#page1);

[http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27/medzinarodne\\_merania/talis/publikacie/TALIS-web.pdf](http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27/medzinarodne_merania/talis/publikacie/TALIS-web.pdf)

<sup>10</sup> [http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/education-at-a-glance-2013/indicator-d5-who-are-the-teachers\\_eag-2013-29-en#page1](http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/education-at-a-glance-2013/indicator-d5-who-are-the-teachers_eag-2013-29-en#page1);

[http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27/medzinarodne\\_merania/talis/publikacie/TALIS-web.pdf](http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27/medzinarodne_merania/talis/publikacie/TALIS-web.pdf)

teachers (Kasáčová, 2004, p. 45). TE graduates considered the first year in a teaching position to be the most difficult as they faced situations they had not expected. They did not feel to be well prepared by TE institutions to communicate with parents, to advise them, or to work with SEN children (Kasáčová, 1998).

According to current data collected via a website forum (Boledovič, 2013) for parents, students and teachers in 2012, a majority (58%) of young teachers under 30 years old consider leaving their job if the financial situation of their profession does not change. In the group of teachers of 31 – 40 years old, 36% consider leaving; in the group of 41 – 50 years old, only 20% consider leaving while about 33% teachers over 50 years old consider leaving.

To sum up, the number of TE students/teachers who would choose another job was at first growing – from 14% in 1974 to 24% in 1998 and 33% in 2004. Then it started to stabilize by 30% in 2009%; 25% not decided yet and 25% not planning to teach in 2011; to about 30% in 2013.

## **2. Qualitative research of teacher/TE students' recruitment (2013)**

Having a teacher educator's access to personally talk to and observe TE students during their studies, we decided to accomplish our own investigation of determinants of their decision to become a teacher. The research questions were: Why do young people study at TE institutions nowadays? What influenced them to study TE? What do they think about the demands of the teaching profession and their own stamina for accomplishing it?

The research was accomplished via interviews about their opinions and segments of life stories connected with the teaching profession. Guided memory recalling of one's own specific experience in order to reflect one's motivation and decision making was carried out. The respondents had also to compare it with those of their TE colleagues, and thus to indicate the reasons for remaining in the teaching profession. Thus the occurrence of any responses was feasible. The aim was to collect soft data in order to bring to light the current variety of categories taking part in current recruitment, and which, if desired, might be used for quantitative research in the future. The quantitative weight of several responses seemed interesting too and worthy of mentioning. After analysing the data, the comparison with the previous research was done. We expected that the range of motivational factors of the current TE students would be wider than those of the previous generations. At the same time some of the motivational factors, such as an influence of having a teacher in the family or interest in working with children or teaching, were presupposed to be factors with strong stability index. Due to the choice of the qualitative character of the research, the sample was relatively small. It consisted of 53 Slovak respondents (22 TE students, 26 teachers and 5 TE graduates); and 9

Czech 9 TE students. Only 6.4% of the sample were men which reminds the current feminized situation in lower education both in Slovakia and Czech Republic.

### **Analysis, interpretation and discussion of the collected data**

As it was mentioned above, the respondents were not given a list of choices. It can be assumed that their responses reflect the strongest influence, not exhaustively all objective effects.

Most homogenous group of Slovak respondents (30%) described the decision for a teaching profession as a *spontaneous childhood decision*. It is a decrease of more than 15% comparing to the previous research: 51.4% of TE students in 1994 (Porubská) and 44.6% of them in 1995 (Kasáčová) developed their positive attitude towards the teaching profession in their childhood.

More than 1/4 of the respondents radically rejected any correlation between their *socio-economic background* and their decision to study TE. Several respondents mentioned that in villages and small towns the profession of teachers was more valued than in bigger habitats. In one case, 70% of students in her study group were from villages, with one being from a village with a typical Roma settlement. But generally, the respondents think that the decision of young people to study at TE is more due to their personal characteristics than to their childhood background. Among their schoolmates they did not recognize any pattern concerning the background that would be characteristic just for teachers. They think that there are many combinations of factors influencing this decision and that it is not possible to generalize any strong connection between coming from village/town/city, being more or less or none at all religiously active. Their argument is that there are plenty of young people with similar background around them, and yet they are not willing to be teachers, but they become business people, lawyers or politicians. It depends mainly on their view of life meaning.

One respondent explained that the future teachers' parents are predominantly either teachers or secondary school graduates (workers, farmers, etc.). There are a few from a medical doctor's family. But a TE student from a manager or lawyer's family is a very unusual phenomenon. Another respondent commented that in the past there was a visible connection between the teacher's background and his/her decision to become a teacher. But at present the quality of education has fallen down so drastically that even those people who are not suitable for this profession apply for the job, and so it is hard to say what a background for such of a mixture of different quality teachers is.

Concerning *religious background*, 42% of respondents said they personally had Christian worldview but they were not aware of the influence of religion on their schoolmates.

We found out that all Slovak respondents who were willing and able to participate in the inquiry had a personally positive attitude toward the teaching profession. Here are *the reasons why the respondents chose TE/teacher profession*:

Half of the respondents *praise the 'beauty' of the teaching profession*. Similar percentage of respondents attracted to work with children, take care of them and organize them was found out in the mentioned research in 1995 and 2008. All of our respondents showed genuine interest to become a teacher and praised the teaching profession. It is the fulfilment of their childhood dream; their life mission/calling (for 3 respondents –a calling from God), a natural decision for a meaningful, satisfactory profession which can change the conditions of children from socially deprived areas. To be a teacher means to love teaching and having an influence upon people's lives. Almost half of the respondents considered positive attitudes to children to be cause of their studying TE/being a teacher. For 20% of them teaching profession is the actualization of their natural ability, talent, hobby, love to work with people, need to communicate or to manage people. E.g., "I literally cannot do anything else than teaching." "I love playing the role of a teacher."

One third of the respondents indicated the *influence of another person* on their decision. They were influenced by observing their teachers' work and attitudes (10%); by learning to help educating younger siblings and other children, to understand their needs (17%); by teachers in the family - parents, grandparents, uncles (10%); and by other ways of encouragement.

The influential teachers in the childhood became a source of knowledge combined with positive attitudes and deep personal relationships towards children, expertise, love of their subject, willingness to share their experiences and to reveal its meaning and beauty.

A few respondents commented that though having a teacher in the family can trigger the decision to study TE, but only up to 50%. The demotivating 50% is caused by the persistent problems in education. Sometimes teachers in the family even decide to discourage their offspring so that not to choose the teaching profession, mainly because of economic reasons, wishing that their children would have a better paid and higher socially esteemed profession.

One special comment confirmed positive influence on becoming teacher of those family members who could not teach under communism because of their religious worldview.

*Personal growth and self-realization* was the reason for becoming a teacher for one third of respondents. They think teaching is a creative dynamic profession with no chance for stagnation (10%). It is a prestigious job bringing adventure, friends, a right to manage (9%); giving a chance for personal change, growth (e.g. in

patience, overcoming personal weaknesses (9%), a good opportunity to learn from others, enjoyment in the teaching process; fulfilment of love to study or an interest in the subjects themselves (13%). It is a good combination how to fulfil one's love to some subjects and to teaching (2).

Some respondents mentioned also the *utilitarian advantages of teaching profession*: a comfortable job with enough free time, vacations, good working hours, suitable for perspective mothers, easy recyclable preparations, etc. (10%). Some respondents commented on the insufficiently financially rewarding profession.

There were also *other reasons for studying TE*, e.g. to learn how to bring up one's own children (10%), to help one's own child with special education needs; to fulfil one's philanthropic desires; to continue in previous studies on education; or even to have fun in life.

Similarly to the amount of previous mentioned studies (1995, 2000, 2004, 2006, 2011), for 18% of schoolmates of our respondents TE was only *the second choice*, an opportunity to be admitted to university study with none or easy entrance exams, one of the ways how to get Master degree in an easier way; a good chance to study at a university and have a chance to teach too. ("And in the end teaching is OK or even interesting" (15%); a bridge between secondary school and becoming a researcher – an open door for PhD studies/teaching at the university; a way how to get to other more desired jobs (IT at school); a stable job with some stable income.

Though only 2 respondents did not want to teach themselves, they estimated that only up to 30% from their schoolmates plan to teach after graduation. This estimation is twice smaller than those from previous research, it was influenced by the fact that it was only an opinion about others. The reasons for not teaching after graduations are several: either lack of teaching opportunities, or continuation in PhD studies, going abroad to improve one's language competence, finding employment in other fields or in private businesses. One student would like to become a school inspector.

According to 1/6 of respondents, the present situation differs from the past in a lower status of teachers. The previous generations used to honour the teaching profession and so they led their children to respect the teachers. Now the parents doubt the expertise of the teachers, "excuse their children from school for no real reasons", "allow them too many things", etc. The disrespectful behaviour of students, their aversion to learning and the low financial reward are the main hindrances for young TE students to enter their profession. Several TE students are afraid of entering a job as they are not satisfied with the level of practical preparation at TE institutions, they do not feel competent to start teaching. TE offers too much theory and little practical application.

Similar to the Slovak responses, also all **Czech respondents** expressed a *positive attitude* towards the teaching profession. They consider it to be a *fulfilment of personal dream* since childhood/a personal calling;a result of a courageous or naïve decision;preference for this type of work;a job with relative stability; a creative job;fulfilment of desire to study, to work with children and to gain experience with educational work.

On the other hand, for many students TE studies are just an *alternative chance* to get another degree and better payment. It takes care of their need of a MA qualification. Entrance exams might be as easy as the study itself is.

Several Czech respondents mentioned the *utilitarian advantages* of a teaching profession, such as good working hours and vacation, stability, and finances. Only a third of respondents considered choosing TE profession as the means of fulfilling one's love of the study of the subjects and of continuous growth. Half of the respondents thought that the *socio-economic background* had an influence on their decision to become a teacher. A few were influenced by opportunities to help with children' upbringing.

The Czech group consisted of people with assorted motivation ranging from those who wanted to become teachers as the first choice to those who did not want to become teachers but later started to be content with this study.

## Conclusions

In the theoretical part of our study the wider context explaining what we mean under teacher recruitment was indicated. It is not only an activity on the part of the TE institution, but also a complex of social and personal factors influencing the motivation to become a TE student, and a teacher. An overview of previous research studies in this presented specific data from the several periods Czechoslovak/after on Czech and Slovak history before 1989, after 1989 before Bologna process in 2004, and after its application.

Previous research in Slovakia showed that the main motivating factors influencing the decision to become a teacher were: family influence, the influence of the teachers that the students have met during their life, school experience, the influence of peers and altruistic motivations. Problems of teachers' stamina, willingness to stay in the profession after the studies have proved to be connected with students' expectations from the teaching studies; changes in their attitudes influenced by the studies; personality preconditions for the performance of the profession; one' willingness to work as a teacher after completion of the studies; forming one's professional identity, and developing student's reflexivity during preparation for the job and building one's teaching capabilities.

As our predominantly qualitative investigation showed, TE students can be divided into four groups according to the motives why they study at TE institution<sup>11</sup>:

*From psychological reasons:* They want to become teachers, though they might have a naïve idea of what it means. They loved to play the role of a teacher in their childhood or they had good experiences working with children. Besides those who dream, some really want to teach, some just want to study. Their decision was often influenced by other teachers, work with children, their love toward the specific subject, etc.

*From personal reasons:* They enjoy learning opportunities and chances to grow personally in many areas; they want to become professional in parenthood;

*From pragmatic reasons:* This group - mostly women - think that teaching does not require a lot of effort, and so it would be a suitable job in a time when they themselves have small children and need to work. A few TE students think TE is an easy (maybe the easiest) university study, so will be the job;

*From other reasons:* They might not be sure yet about their future career or say, "Let me try teaching and then I will see."

Those for whom becoming a teacher after graduation is the first choice, display some, if not all of the following characteristics: They **love children** and want to influence children's lives; in their opinion, teaching has of high value, aspirations and ideals. They **love to learn**; to study themselves; they love the content of the subjects. They have a **desire to teach others**, to share with their expertise. They **believe in the results** of good education/knowledge, moral character and other results of education. Of course, some TE students only want to **get a university degree** (B.A. or M.Ed.). They either do not have any clear ambitions about their future yet or they consider TE study as an alternative, maybe leading to another profession, research, etc.

Being a teacher is a unique profession. As one of our respondents put it: "Teaching is the most frequent job that we, as children have observed, practiced since our childhood. So I decided to study TE somehow subconsciously, automatically after having observed my teachers at primary and secondary school for years. I kept thinking: What will I do in such a situation? Not: What might I do? I always had my ideal teachers, and so my steps towards this decision were sure and automatic."

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<sup>11</sup> Here we avoid generalizing the percentage due to the qualitative character of the inquiry.

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# CSABA JANCSÁK

## Choosing teacher education and commitment to the teaching career

### 1. Introduction

The issues of transitioning into higher education and teacher training and choosing the teaching career are two of the most important fields of research conducted on university students, as these are essential questions for higher education and educational policy making alike (Chrappán, 2010, p. 267). Some of the characteristics of the future generation of university-educated intellectuals are defined by the students' choices of institutes. Young people form their life and career plans in a flexible way, taking higher education, views on the relationship between the economic and social environment, and opinions on the process of transitioning from education to the labour market into consideration. Additionally, university life plays the most significant role in the decision process because of the emphasis placed on an institute's atmosphere and the decision altering nature of peer groups (Fónai & Pusztai, 2012; Gábor, 2006; Kabai et al., 2007; Pusztai, 2011; Pusztai, 2012).

The findings of Kozma (1995, 2004), Gábor (2001), Kabai (2006, 2009), Somlai et al. (2007), and Vaskovics (n.d.) state that the phenomenon of delaying adulthood, in other terms, post-adolescence, has also appeared in Hungary as the driving force behind conducting further tertiary-level studies. There are young people who wish to stay in the educational system, partly because they seek to master knowledge and skills offered by education, but also because of the insecurities accompanying the risks of entering the labour market and becoming an adult (detachment from parents). As a result, the student life stage is expanded, as young adults are exploiting this young adult 'moratorium' (granting them release from having to work and starting a family), and this way it is accepted by the economic and social environment to continue life under these circumstances (Jancsák, 2013).

In our study conducted within the framework of the Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development (OFI) in 2010-11, we examined the world of university students taking part in teacher education. This paper presents some of the elements of the life of the students specified above in higher education (transitioning from secondary to tertiary education, i.e. to bachelor level training, further training in teacher education master programmes and the motivation behind

selecting majors and institutes) and orientations in connection with commitment to the teaching career and entering said career. The data was collected based on students participating in school subject teacher education of 19 faculties at 12 training institutes in the spring of 2011 (N=1210).

**Table 1.** Distribution of respondents.

institutes	daytime	correspondence	TOTAL	unweighted sample		weighted sample	
				daytime	corresp.	daytime	corresp.
University of Debrecen	43	30	73	6	5	6	5
Eszterházy Károly College	44	191	235	7	35	6	36
Eötvös Loránd University	194	41	235	29	7	30	7
Károli Gáspár University of the Hungarian Reformed Church	52	0	52	8	0	8	0
University of Miskolc	36	13	49	5	2	6	3
College of Nyíregyháza	26	96	122	4	18	4	17
University of West Hungary	0	72	72	0	13	0	13
Pannon University	12	30	42	2	6	2	6
University of Pécs	78	25	103	12	5	12	5
University of Szeged	106	47	153	16	9	16	10
Pázmány Péter Catholic University	12	0	12	2	0	2	0
Semmelweis University	62	0	62	9	0	8	0
TOTAL	665	545	1210	100	100	100	100

Source: own table.

## 2. Transition into higher education based on earlier research on teacher training students

In this section the research findings of recently conducted studies on students participating in Hungarian teacher education are summarised. It is important to note that both studies cited below were conducted before Hungary's transition into the Bologna system of higher education, i.e. before teacher education became a two-cycle programme. In Kocsis' study (N=323), the data was obtained between 1998 and 2000, and in the study of the Institute for Educational Research (Lukács and Nagy) in 2002 (N=997).

According to the findings of the Institute for Educational Research in 2002, application to higher education does not automatically mean that students "start their training programme with the ambition to become teachers in the end." (Lukács, 2002, p. 64). When examining the motives of institute selection, they listed fourteen decision-influencing factors, which could be scored on a four-point scale in the response. If we look at ambition to become a teacher, we can see that one fifth of the

respondents considered it a decisive factor when applying for higher education. If the data is presented distributed among the different training programmes, it becomes apparent that it was mostly students participating in lower primary teacher education who can be characterised by this deciding factor (“wished to become a teacher”); in comparison, this proved to be a less significant motivational force for students from college and university teacher education programmes.

The researchers established two groups: the “faithful”, who applied exclusively for teacher education, and the “trying elsewhere”, who also applied for programmes other than teacher education. Based on this distribution, it is revealed that the group of the “faithful” is 17% in the case of secondary school teacher education, 25% in the case of college-level teacher education students, and 50% of the students in lower primary teacher education programmes.

A more informative description can be provided if the data is considered in the distribution of the three sub-samples. In the case of students participating in university level teacher education, when it comes to the motivation for applying to higher education studies, a marked difference can be detected between selecting an institute and selecting the teaching career. The decisions of university students were motivated by their interest in the given academic field (indicated by 57%), and they selected a given institute based on its reputation of quality of instruction in their choice of subject area, and not because they wished to apply and pass on this knowledge in a teaching career. It must be noted that the “I wish to become a teacher” as a decisive motivational factor characterised mostly the lower primary teacher education students (41%), while only 25% of college-level teacher education students, and 16% of university students indicated this as their main motivational factor. (In the full questionnaire, 20% gave the answer stated above. The 71 lower primary teachers, 305 college-level teacher education students were questioned, and the university student sub-sample’s total was 621 students.)

Having the opportunity to experience the student lifestyle was an influential motive to apply mostly for the college-level teacher education students, while the lower primary teacher education students and university students were less influenced by this deciding factor (marked by 15% in both sub-samples). The belief that the matriculation examination is “easier” played a role when making the decision for students of secondary teacher education the least frequently, while 14-15% of college students said that this was a decisive factor for them when applying for further studies. It is important to note that in the case of the lower primary teacher education students, the desire to care for others appears as a significantly more influential decisive factor. (“I love children” is an important motive for more than 66% of lower primary teacher education students and the notion of “when I have my own child, it will be useful what I learn here” as an influencing factor is similarly

strong.) These two viewpoints are less typical in the case of future teachers of upper-primary or secondary levels. Less than 33% of them reported that it would influence their decision. The regional accessibility of the institute as a factor appeared most conspicuously in the group of lower-primary teacher education students as a decisive factor, and it influenced 25% of the students in selecting an institute. However, if teacher-models as influencing factors are considered, a reversed order can be detected among these educational programmes. It was the lower primary teacher education students who reported the least (3%) that a “favourite teacher’s example” would have a decisive impact on the orientation of their further studies, while 10% of college-level teacher education students reported that they considered a teacher model as a decisive influence. (Even though there is not any detailed data available regarding the students’ prior knowledge, opinions and views on the educational programme, it is hypothesised and indicated by the existing data that there is a phenomenon of the early (“founded” and “presupposed” already in higher education) feminisation of the teaching career, especially of the lower primary teacher. Finding/looking for a partner is not reported as a motive by the lower primary teacher group as not a single student marked the possibility of “I can find a partner or spouse more easily among my fellow students” as an influencing factor. It is important to note that the data is collected among graduating students. Without going into deeper analysis and explanation for the purposes of this paper, the distribution described above can only be explained by not being influenced by this factor at all, while 4% of the college-level teacher education students were markedly influenced by this factor as well).

Chrappán (2010) provides a short overview of career choice motivations, staying in the career and career experience, based on data gained through a career follow-up system of graduates. In the sample, 47 different teacher qualifications were identified; one fifth (47 people) of the teacher sample (738 people) obtained their degrees in teacher education. The author reports that “both international and Hungarian studies on motivations in the teaching career agree on the chosen lead motives and change patterns of these motives in relation to time spent in the teaching career. Among career starters, an overwhelming majority name love of children and the taught subject and a sense of vocation as a reason for their choice of career” (Chrappán, 2010, p. 268). 68% of the graduates with a teaching degree claim that when applying to study a specific major, their most important motivational factor was their interest in the chosen subject area (Chrappán, 2010, p. 269).

The image of the teaching career, i.e. financial and moral appreciation, determines the selection process in society to a high degree. As a result of this, “the »sense of vocation« has lost some of its glamour” (Brezsnyánszky, 2006, p. 180), as financial considerations might discourage someone from choosing this profession.

Varga regards this phenomenon, manifesting at each point of the selection process of teachers – when applying for higher education, starting the first job, and in five or six years after graduation (Varga, 2007, pp. 622–623) –, to be a “negative self-selection effect” (Varga, 2007, p. 627). Based on students’ career plans, some researchers believe that expenditure on teacher education is not effective, but “it rather contributes to increasing the professional standard of insurance agents, receptionists or media personalities” (Kárpáti, 2007, p. 4). Kárpáti (2007) bases this strong statement on her data, which shows that more than 60% of career starter graduates with teaching degrees find employment in non-teaching positions.

As for teacher education students’ aspirations for selecting a major, an institute and a career, the versatility of motives (Kozma, 2004; Nagy, 2001) manifests in various ways: some choose this career consciously, while, to the other extreme, there are students who regard teacher education majors of multi-faculty institutes as a starting point (a springboard). Naturally, there are many other attitudes between these two views. For example, there are some who are “drawn into it” (Kozma, 2004, p. 130). However, apart from individual selection backgrounds, some rules can be detected, such as the desire to care for others or the commitment to the field of study. Additionally, the regional accessibility of the institute, the “call” of its marketing strategy, and the peer group can all be determining factors, just as the influence of the family (e.g. teacher dynasties) (Kozma, 2004, pp. 130–131).

Literature on selecting majors finds the education of the parents a determining factor as well. Lukács and his colleagues, based on their study conducted in 2002 on teacher education students, support this thesis by claiming that “it is rather the fathers’ education that is detectably connected with the layers of the inner structure of future teacher generations” (Lukács, 2002, p. 50). This presumably is a result of the fact that the majority of teacher education students come from lower middle class families, and in this social class, women’s level of education is more homogeneous compared to the men’s. Due to the transformation of Hungarian higher education, it can be assumed that the changes of the system (demographic, financial, and driven by social expectation) will result in significant changes in this particular issue, both in career selection awareness and student recruitment.

### **3. Results of the study**

#### **3.1 Transition from secondary education to bachelor level education**

When examining teacher education students, the following questions help determine what the transition from secondary education to higher education is like: What reasons for higher education selection are dominant? What opinions are presented on the positions of the various training institutes in the Hungarian higher education

arena? Finally, what motivations and attitudes appear during the process of choosing to complete further studies?

In our study conducted in 2009 on teacher education students participating in (at the time) one-cycle teacher education programmes in the University of Debrecen and the University of Szeged, we found that the majority of the students were accepted by the higher education institute as first-time applicants (71%), while 22% were accepted for the second time, 3% for the third time, and 4% needed to apply more times than that.

The results of our study conducted in the spring of 2011 show that 98% of daytime students applied to a higher education institute in the year of their secondary school graduation exam and 91% of them were accepted the same year. Furthermore, 77% applied to their present institute. (In the case of correspondence students, 42% applied to their present institute.) The institute offering the master programme did not accept 14% of the students. 7% were not accepted into higher education (at that time).

### **3.2 Motivations for conducting further studies in higher education**

The findings of Péter Lukács and his colleagues also show that when teacher education students apply for higher education it does not automatically mean that they consciously select a subject teacher major (Lukács, 2002, p. 64). According to Nagy (2001) and Kozma (2004), the influencing factors to apply are the students' interest in the field of studies, their "love" for the taught age group and their commitment to the teaching career, followed by the accessibility of the institute and the desire to continue the student lifestyle. This corresponds with the findings of the 2001 study on first year university students (Gábor, 2001).

In this question group there were 14 statements in our questionnaire, and the respondents were asked to decide on a four-point scale how determining each factor was when they were applying to an institute. The answers were ranked according to their mean scores. First in the rank, in the case of daytime students, is the statement "I would have liked to obtain tertiary level qualification in any case". (78% of the respondents indicated that this played a very big role.) The next in the rank is the statement "I had good results in secondary school" (46%). As the third strongest motivational factor the chosen subjects were the deciding factor in their future profession (53% indicated that this played a big role). The next main influential factor when handing in applications was encouragement from family and secondary school teachers (66% of the students reported that this factor played a very big role). The prospect of a higher salary due to possessing tertiary level qualification as a motivational factor – ranked next according to the mean score – played a significant role for 25% of the students. The statement "student lifestyle and prolonging the

years of studies were appealing to me” was given the same mean score as the ideas on financial considerations, and it was found that one quarter of the students marked the “it played a very big role” answer. In the middle range of motivational factors based on mean scores, the statement “I already knew as a secondary school students that I wanted to be a teacher, and I needed further studies for that” can be found; the same statement is marked by 40% of the students as playing a big role when applying for higher education. Among the last factors on the list, factors such as avoiding unemployment or opportunity of finding employment abroad can be found, the decision influencing power of these – the subjects being daytime students – meets the previous expectations. Their parents’ higher education degrees influenced a small portion of the respondents (with a mean score of 2.4, while 74% said that it did not influence them at all). The last in the rank of decision influencing factors is a statement that refers to the “standby” nature of higher education (“it doesn’t matter what, but I want to study”). This statement needs to be underlined in both sub-samples as 6% of the respondents said that the factor above had a decisive influence on their application process for higher education. However, nearly two thirds of the respondents said that this was not a motivational factor for them at all.

According to the findings of the study, the number one motivation for further studies after secondary school is to obtain tertiary level qualifications, mainly because of the prestige that comes with having tertiary level qualifications, but also because of the accompanying financial advantages and opportunities to find employment (mostly in Hungary). The most significant difference between the motives of daytime and correspondence students is that avoiding unemployment appears as a motivating factor among the former group more powerfully. However, among them, encouragement from parents, relatives and secondary school teachers is also more significant.

When selecting an institute, prestige-like factors related to the profession and/or the institute are the most influential. 59% of the respondents reported that it was their attraction to the field of study (a factor with the highest mean score of 3.5) that powerfully influenced their institute selection. The same was said about the reputation of the institute by 48% of the students (the mean score among daytime students was 3.4) and about the reputation of the faculty offering the programme by 44% of the students (3.2). Considerations of “comfort” (“this was the easiest institute to get into”, “this is a programme that can be easily completed”, “I wouldn’t have got accepted elsewhere”) are found at the end of the list (66% of the students reported that these factors played no role in their decision.)

### **3.3 Application to master programmes**

In the year when they were applying to their current level of study, daytime students applied for 2.2 MA/MSc programmes on average, while correspondence students for 1.7. The majority of these were teacher education master programmes (daytime students 1.9, correspondence students 1.6). The majority of applicants were accepted. 95% of the daytime students and 92% of the correspondence students were accepted for the programme that they had listed as their first choice.

Among the motives to apply to a master programme the number one reason is again to obtain a (more valuable) degree (Figure 1). Three quarters of the students reported that the most important motivational factor for them was to receive a master's degree. 56% of the students were motivated to a great extent by the fact that they were determined to become teachers and they had to obtain the necessary qualifications for that. The data also reveal that the teacher education students considered their labour market positions to be more favourable with higher qualifications ("with an MA/MSc degree, it is easier to find a job" played a very big role for 38% of the students; "with an MA/MSc degree, one can make more money" played a significant role for 32% of the students). Receiving positive feedback during bachelor level studies also appears among the reasons: the fact that they received good grades during the bachelor level programme was a reason for further studies in the case of 30% of the students. In the case of the daytime students, all the factors are more important than the ones relating to the present profession or workplace. Naturally, these are more important for the correspondence students. Avoiding unemployment is similarly important for both the daytime and the correspondence students, but if it is compared to the motives to apply for bachelor level programmes, the subjective significance of the master programme among the correspondence students is higher in this respect. Advice from teachers or parents is not as influential to either group when applying for master programmes as it is when applying for bachelor level programmes.

8% of the students reported that the most essential reason for them was that while they did not wish to become teachers, the knowledge they would gain in teacher education could be utilised well in other careers.

Prolonging the university life stage did not influence their decision to continue their education in master programmes for many of the respondents (38% reported that to prolong their university years was not a reason for them at all, and 65% said that the "it doesn't matter what, but I want to study" opinion was not a reason for them).

The factor of being oriented towards the career (where orienting the student is an element of the higher education instructor's role) also appears as a motive: 20% of the students reported that they had been greatly influenced in their further studies

by the encouragement of a teacher in their bachelor level programme (or earlier higher education programmes) to take part in a master programme.

**Table 2.** Motives for further studies in master programmes (means of four-point scale: 4=played a very big role, 1=played no role at all).

	daytime	correspondence
I would definitely like to obtain an MA or MSc degree	3.7	3.6
I am strongly determined to become a teacher and I need an MA/MSc degree to achieve that	3.3	3.1
it is easier to find a job with an MA/MSc degree	3.1	2.7
I had good grades during my earlier studies	3.1	2.6
one can earn more with an MA/MSc degree	3	2.6
my parents and relatives motivated me to get an MA/MSc degree	2.7	1.9
I would like to avoid unemployment	2.7	2.6
a teacher in my bachelor level programme (or earlier higher education programmes) encouraged me	2.6	1.9
I find student life rather attracting	2.6	1.7
my parent's also have an MA/MSc degree	2.2	1.6
my friends have also applied for an MA/MSc degree	2.1	1.7
I need an MA/MSc degree to get promoted	2,1	2,7
I would not like to become a teacher, but the knowledge I would gain in teacher education could be utilised well in other careers	1,9	1,5
I need an MA/MSc degree for my current employment	1,9	2,7
I need an MA/MSc degree in teacher education for my current employment	1,9	2,8
to get an MA/MSc degree, it doesn't matter what, I just want to study	1,5	1,5
other reasons	1,1	1,1

Source: own table.

### 3.4 Motives for choosing the teacher education master programme and the institute

The motives playing a role in choosing the teacher education master programme and the institute are hardly different from the important motives for deciding where to complete the bachelor programme. When making the decision, the strongest factors are the institute-related, partly prestige-like ones, with “comfort” considerations being at the end of the list in this respect as well. (The factor analysis justified this grouping: three dimensions of decision making were distinguished: prestige motives, comfort factors, and external impact or advice.)

Appeal to the teaching profession appears as a factor influencing the decision to choose the teacher education master programme to a very high degree in the case of 52% of the students. The reputation of the training institute and the faculty are strong motivational factors as well: these to a very high degree influenced 40% of the students. The least motivational force when choosing teacher education proved to be the factors “this major can be completed easily” and “I wouldn’t have got accepted elsewhere”. For 75% of the students, the factor that they would not have

been accepted in other programmes played no role at all in their opinion. 67% of the teacher education students said that the idea of “this major can be completed easily” did not influence them at all, and nor did the idea of “this was the easiest programme to get into” influence 66% of the students.

The influencing power of opinion forming people (parents, friends and teachers) does have an impact, though not to the same degree. It is the influence of higher education instructors that needs to be highlighted as it precedes the influence of parents and friends according to both the mean scores and the distribution of response categories.

Among the daytime students, with the exception of the proximity of the location of living, all factors seem somewhat more important; the greatest difference is in the advice of parents and friends and in the assumed significance of application ranks. Among the correspondence students, accessibility of the institute is the most important factor.

**Table 3.** Motives for choosing the teacher education master programme and the institute (Means of the four-point scale: 4=played a very big role, 1=played no role at all).

	daytime	correspondence
I liked the profession, field of study	3.4	3.1
the university/ college has a good reputation	3.2	2.9
the faculty offering the programme has a good reputation	3.1	2.9
it issues a valuable degree	3.1	3
this is the best institute in this field	2.9	2.6
I like this city	2.7	2.5
the institute is ranked high in the application ranks	2.6	2.1
the institute offers programmes for further studies	2.5	2.1
it is close to my living location	2.3	2.5
my teacher at the bachelor programme suggested it	2.3	1.7
my parents suggested it	2.2	1.5
my friends also applied here/ study here	2.2	1.7
my acquaintances, friends suggested it	2	1.7
to avoid paying tuition fee: many state financed spots here	1.9	1.7
it was to the easiest place to get in	1.7	1.6
my secondary school teacher(s) advised it	1.6	1.3
this major can be completed easily	1.6	1.4
I wouldn't have got accepted elsewhere	1.4	1.3
other	1.1	1

Source: own table

### 3.5 How the teaching career is viewed

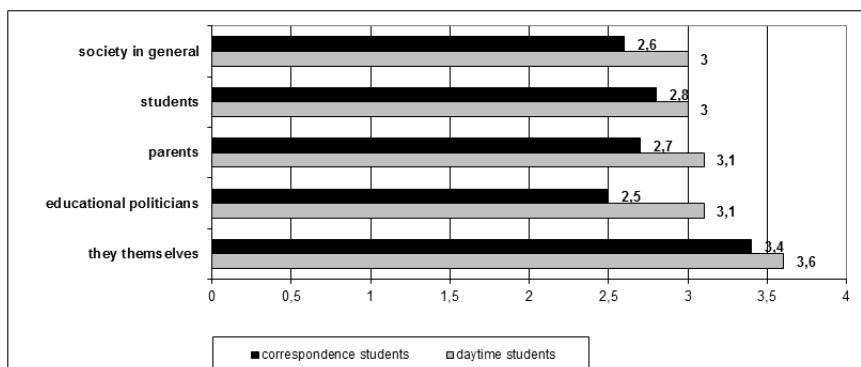
In the questionnaire the respondents were asked to evaluate fifteen professions on a five-point scale indicating how much appreciation they receive from society (1 = it has no prestige at all, 5 = it has great prestige, the other scores marking the values in between). Based on the mean scores of the responses, the prestige of teaching professions in public education is considered low both among daytime and

correspondence students, the only exception being teaching in higher education, which is considered elite. The least prestige is associated with teaching careers that do not teach a particular school subject. According to the students, among the listed professions requiring a degree, lawyers rank the highest (daytime mean score 4.5; correspondence mean score 4.4), followed by university instructors (4.4; 4.1), economists (4.2; 4.2), medical doctors (practitioners/physicians) (4.2, 3.9), mechanical engineers (4.1; 4), pharmacists (4; 3.9), computer programmers–ITs (3.9; 4.2), journalists (3.6; 3.5) and pastors (3.3; 3.5). Secondary school teachers are ranked tenth (3.2; 3), followed by primary school teachers (2.8; 2.6), kindergarten teachers (2.7; 2.6) and lower primary teachers (2.6; 2.6). Librarians (2.7; 2.6) and dormitory teachers (2.4; 2.2) are ranked the lowest.

The daytime students ranked all the teaching careers higher than the correspondence students. Despite this difference, teaching careers are ranked in the same order in both groups in terms of the prestige of professions. There are only a few differences: according to the correspondence students, computer programmers–ITs and (to a lesser extent) economists are appreciated more (thus preceding university instructors, doctors and pharmacists) than according to the daytime students.

In the questionnaire the respondents were also asked to give their opinions on how the actors of the educational system – students, parents, educational policy makers, and the teaching community – view teachers. According to the daytime students teachers' prestige is viewed very similarly (medium level), while the correspondence students are more pessimistic. The main difference between the opinions of the daytime and the correspondence students lies in their views on educational policy makers (as for the correspondence students, it is the policy makers who appreciate teachers the least) (Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** Social prestige of primary and secondary school teachers (Means of the five-point scale).



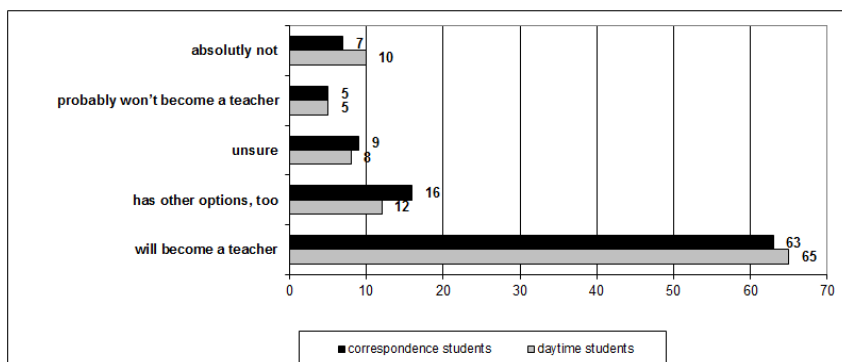
Source: own figure

Those daytime students who are planning to become teachers view the prestige of the profession higher in all social groups than those who would like to find employment elsewhere. The same is true for the correspondence students as well. Those students who are planning to pursue a teaching career consider the prestige of the profession the highest while the most pessimistic are those who are currently employed as teachers. They feel a sense of rejection, especially from educational policy makers, and it is only from the students that they sense higher appreciation than those who will not become teachers.

### 3.6 Choosing the teaching career and plans on finding employment

In the study we were interested to see what opinions teacher education students have on the appeal of the teaching career and staying in it. 65% of the master programme students in both sub-groups would primarily like to find employment as teachers. 12% of the daytime and 16% of the correspondence students are also planning to have other professions. Nearly 10% of all the students are not planning to pursue any profession in particular. 10% of the daytime students and 7% of the correspondence students claim that they definitely will not become teachers. 5% of the students will probably not find employment as a teacher or will become one only if there is no other alternative.

**Figure 2.** Choosing the teaching career (%).

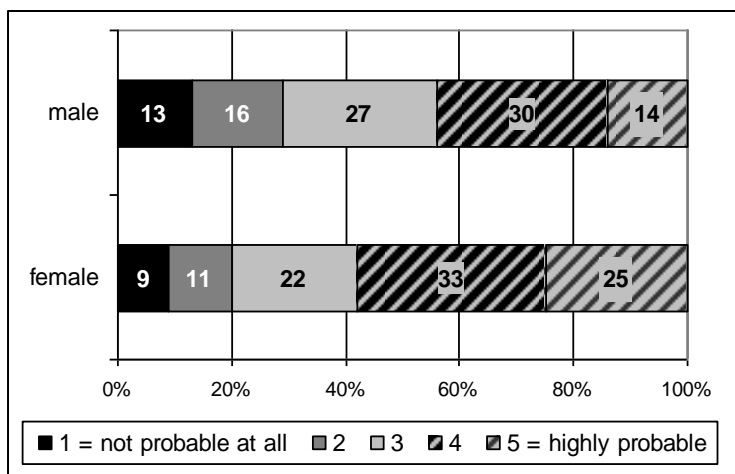


*Source:* own figure

The feminisation of the teaching profession was identified as a phenomenon presented in teacher education students' aspirations in a study in 2002 (Lukács, 2002). It was found that the proportion of men is one third; while their underrepresentation decreased with the increase of the level of education (the proportion of male students is higher in school subject teacher education than in lower primary teacher education). At the beginning of the new millennium, men were overrepresented among those teacher education students who were not planning to pursue a teaching career: "twice as many men would like to find non-teaching employment as women" (Lukács, 2002, p. 48). The findings of the present

study are more moderate: 65% of men, while 84% of women, are planning to choose the teaching career. However, as for staying in the profession, men were more pessimistic than their fellow female students: 1.5 times as many men consider it probable that they will not be in this career in 5 to 10 years.

**Figure 3.** If you are not working as a teacher currently, how probable do you think it is that you will be working as a teacher in 5 to 10 years from now? (%).



Source: own figure.

Most of the students see their future in state or municipally-run educational institutes (this is what 65% of the daytime and 69% of the correspondence students are planning primarily). 20% of the daytime students and 16% of the correspondence students are planning to find employment in a church-run institute.

Secondary schools are the most popular among those who are planning to pursue a teaching career both in the case of daytime and correspondence students. 75% of daytime students reported that they would like to work in a general education secondary school (gimnázium), however, only 6% would choose working in vocational schools (25% of the respondents said that they would like to find employment in primary schools and the same proportion in secondary vocational education). (Table 4) The students are usually not committed to any type of educational institute, the daytime students considered 1.7 institutes on average to be appealing, and they would accept a further two if there was no other alternative. The correspondence students have somewhat more determined views: they regard the same institute types positively as the daytime students; however, they would only work in 1.6 if there were no other alternatives.

**Table 4.** Ideas on finding employment in educational institutes after obtaining the degree among those who are planning to work as teachers (%).

<b>daytime students</b>			
	planning	if there is no other alternative	not planning
upper primary school	27	46	27
vocational education	6	34	60
secondary vocational school	25	45	30
general secondary school	74	18	8
courses, trainings	18	37	45
higher education institute	24	17	59
<b>correspondence</b>			
	planning	if there is no other alternative	not planning
upper primary school	32	29	39
vocational education	12	28	60
secondary vocational school	35	30	35
general secondary school	56	23	20
courses, trainings	21	32	47
higher education institute	20	16	64

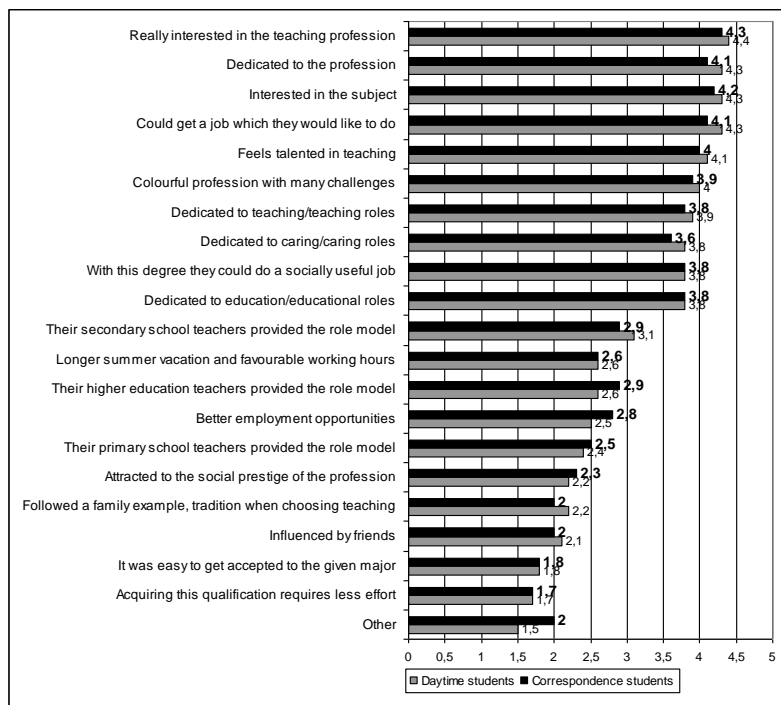
Source: own table.

The students' main motives are their attraction to the profession and to the given subject area, as well as being talented in the profession. The higher mean scores of the daytime students refer to a stronger dedication to the teaching career.

When examining the reasons for choosing the teaching career, we found that the main motives for the students (who are currently not working as teachers) are their attraction to the profession and the subject area. Aptitude and feeling a sense of talent for teaching is nearly just as important of a reason. The colourful nature and challenges of being a teacher are also important. Furthermore, the social value of teaching is viewed as an additional important motivational factor. Attraction to teaching, educating and care-giving roles appears as moderately important. When examining teacher role models, the data is that it is mostly secondary school teachers who influence the students with their examples, followed by higher education teachers to a somewhat lesser extent, and primary schoolteachers have the least influence. The special working schedule of the teaching career (summer holiday, more favourable working hours) is a less significant motivational factor. The higher mean scores of the daytime students suggest that they are somewhat more committed to the teaching profession. The correspondence students – presumably

due to the experience they have gained in the world of work – rate the factor of better employment opportunities higher compared to the daytime students.

**Figure 4.** Reasons for choosing the teaching career among people not working as teachers (Means of the five-point scale).



Source: own figure.

In order to reveal the deeper patterns of this question, factor analysis was conducted, based on the twenty motives and distinguished five dimensions: the dimension of the degree to be obtained, the attraction towards teaching roles, commitment and interest in the school subject, external teacher examples and colourfulness-challenge-usefulness. In terms of mathematics, these dimensions are independent of each other, however, based on their factor weight, overarching relationships can be interpreted (e.g. the dimension of commitment to the role includes the motive of talent and social usefulness). The elements of the component of the “degree to be obtained” seem controversial: apart from getting accepted easily at this major, obtaining a degree more easily, and the more flexible nature of the profession, the motives of the social prestige of the career, and teacher role models in the family also belong here. It is assumed that those who share this view consider any degree more valuable, regardless of its type, and they believe that it is by choosing teacher education they can achieve it with the least possible risk taken. It is also assumed that it is among these students where the proportion of those who are not planning to choose the teaching career is highest and we also find those who chose teacher

education in order to obtain knowledge that could be mastered in teacher education but utilised in other careers.

**Table 5.** Dimensions of choosing the teaching career (Means of factor scores).

	Degree to be obtained	Attraction towards teaching roles	Commitment and interest in the school subject	External teacher examples	Colourfulness-challenge-usefulness
Less effort is needed to obtain a degree in this field	<b>0.824</b>	0.076	-0.113	0.087	-0.058
It was easy to get accepted to the given major	<b>0.789</b>	-0.015	-0.154	0.040	-0.002
He/she was attracted by the social prestige of the profession	<b>0.687</b>	0.052	0.090	0.182	0.078
He/she was influenced by his/her friends, acquaintances	<b>0.639</b>	0.027	0.014	0.189	-0.086
Better job prospects	<b>0.508</b>	-0.052	0.027	0.319	0.088
He/ she followed a family tradition, example when choosing a career	<b>0.503</b>	0.141	0.015	0.099	-0.072
Longer summer holiday and more favourable working hours	<b>0.444</b>	-0.090	-0.096	0.021	0.186
He/she felt committed (attracted) to education/ educational roles	0.039	<b>0.901</b>	0.206	0.088	0.072
He/she felt committed (attracted) to caring/care-giving, supporting roles	0.042	<b>0.685</b>	0.225	0.154	0.142
He/she felt committed (attracted) to instruction/ instructional roles	0.052	<b>0.662</b>	0.343	0.102	0.090
He/she was truly interested in the teaching profession	-0.144	0.238	<b>0.841</b>	0.098	0.005
He/she felt committed to the profession	0.000	0.363	<b>0.746</b>	0.123	-0.026
He/she could get a job he/she would enjoy	-0.067	0.296	<b>0.645</b>	-0.019	0.401

	Degree to be obtained	Attraction towards teaching roles	Commitment and interest in the school subject	External teacher examples	Colourfulness-challenge-usefulness
He/she felt talented at the profession	0.019	0.451	<b>0.491</b>	-0.070	0.266
The school subject was appealing to him/her	-0.034	0.045	<b>0.341</b>	0.113	0.197
He/she was influenced by his/her secondary school teacher's example	0.096	0.064	0.120	<b>0.631</b>	0.068
He/she was influenced by his/her higher education teacher's example	0.293	0.115	0.060	<b>0.588</b>	0.102
He/she was influenced by his/her primary school teacher's example	0.263	0.139	0.032	<b>0.505</b>	-0.033
Colourful, with many challenges	0.035	0.275	0.340	0.072	<b>0.674</b>
He/ she can do a job that is useful for society	0.060	0.416	0.146	0.193	<b>0.421</b>

Source: own table.

Our data suggest that planning to choose a teaching career is related the strongest to a commitment and interest in the school subject. The other dimensions (commitment to teaching roles, colourfulness of the profession, and a feeling of a sense of challenge and usefulness, and teacher role models) characterise those who are planning to pursue other careers apart from teaching. These dimensions less affect those who are definitely not planning to choose the teaching career. In the case of those who will probably not choose the teaching career, in comparison to the others, the degree obtained and its convertibility play a more significant role.

**Table 6.** Dimensions of choosing the teaching career according to career choice plans (Means of factor scores).

	will become a teacher	has other plans as well	unsure	probably not	definitely not
Degree to be obtained	-0.011	0.161	-0.193	<b>0.225</b>	-0.292
Attraction towards teaching roles	0.037	0.125	-0.215	-0.380	-0.530
Commitment and interest in the school subject	<b>0.140</b>	-0.167	-0.325	-0.683	-0.792
External teacher examples	-0.001	0.168	-0.116	-0.296	-0.410
Colourfulness-challenge-usefulness	0.014	0.018	-0.005	0.087	-0.500

Source: own table.

The study was also meant to reveal how the students see the regional aspect of their transition into the world of work, where students who would like to be teachers are planning to find a job. In the data it can be seen that in the students' preferences of looking for employment, it is the attraction of the proximity of the training institute and their parents' home that are prevalent (50% of the students reported that they are planning and would like to find employment either at the place of their training institute or their family's home). Finding employment abroad is rejected by more than half of the students. However, 33% of the students have plans for that as well (if there is no other alternative), and 20% of the students said that this was among their primary plans.

The plans for employment examined with reference to their distribution among the Hungarian administrative regions reveal that Central Hungary is the most attractive (30% of the students would really like to work here, and 28%, if there is no other alternative). Next in the rank of the regions is West Transdanubia (76% of the students are not planning to work here), then Central Transdanubia (78%), South Transdanubia (79%) and finally the eastern regions, the South Great Plain region (80%), the Northern Hungary region (81%) and last, the North Great Plain region (82%). If the regions are ranked not based on rejection but on higher preference then Central Hungary is the most popular (29.5% of the students are planning and would really like to find employment here), followed by the South Great Plain (12.4%), South Transdanubia (9.6%) and the North Great Plain (9.2) are next (with a knowledge centre of regional reach in each region, such as the University of Szeged, the University of Pécs and the University of Debrecen, which determines the students' aspirations about settling in these places: 54% of the students reported that they would like to find employment in "the place where they are currently studying").

67% of those who are planning to pursue a teaching career believe that, after having obtained their degrees, they will be able to find a teaching position that matches their qualifications and school subject, even if it may not be easy. Only 6% said that in their opinion, they would not find such a job. The data also is that the students are more optimistic in connection with their own futures than the future of the society, and those who are planning to choose the teaching careers are more optimistic both in connection with the future of the society and their own future than the others. This optimism is a characteristic of those who are committed to the teaching profession.

#### **4. Summary**

According to my thesis statement, formulated based on the findings of Lukács (2002), Kocsis (2003) and Kozma (2004), when applying for teacher education, students are motivated by the opportunity of obtaining a degree, the improvement of

employment opportunities and the intention of building a career, and this is supplemented by the phenomenon of being drawn into the training programme. With respect to the latter statement, based on Varga's (2005) results, I also hypothesised that views on the contents of the training programme and the standard of studies are less significant motivating factors. Based on the statements of Nagy (2001) and Kozma (2004), I made a further assumption that the attraction to teaching/caring roles also appears among the motivational factors when applying for teacher education. The findings reveal that it is primarily the opportunity to obtain a degree, interest in the field of study, and the appeal of the student lifestyle that determined applications; however, avoiding unemployment and building a career also have strong motivational effects.

According to our results the primary motivation for pursuing further education after secondary school is to obtain tertiary level qualifications: mostly because of the prestige of higher education qualification, but also due to the financial advantages and better employment opportunities associated with it. When selecting an institute for bachelor programme studies, it is the institute-related, partly prestige-like, factors that are the strongest. 59% of the students reported that it was their attraction to the field of study that played a crucial role when selecting the institute. In connection with the reputation of the institute, this was stated by 48% of the students, and in connection with the reputation of the faculty offering the programme, by 44%.

The most important factors among the motives for conducting further studies in higher education are obtaining a degree (also as it offers an opportunity to build a career of intellectual work), interest in the field of study and the profession, the appeal of the student lifestyle, and avoiding unemployment; while among the motives for selecting the institute, it is the reputation of the institute, the university city's location, the "attraction" of acquaintances and the proximity of the place of living that are the most important. This latter reinforces Katalin Forray R.'s statements (of the same content) that she made on university integration (Forray, 2000, p. 128). The motivational factors typical before the expansion and characteristic of the pre-selection application system, which resulted in the standby nature of higher education ("I wouldn't have got accepted elsewhere", "it doesn't matter what, but I want to study), have lost their importance.

To obtain a (more valuable) degree that is of primary importance is among the motives to apply to master programmes. 75% of the students said that the most important motivation factor for them was to obtain a master's degree. 56% of the students were greatly motivated in their further studies by their definite idea of wishing to become a teacher and they needed to obtain the necessary qualifications for that. It is to be highlighted that only less than 10% of the respondents claimed

that they would like to utilise their teaching qualification in another – non-teaching – career.

Secondary schools are the most popular among those who are planning to become teachers both in daytime and correspondence programmes. 75% of the daytime students said that they would like to teach in a general secondary school (gimnázium), while vocational training was chosen by only 6% (19% of the respondents said that they were planning to find employment in primary schools and the same proportion in secondary vocational schools).

Our data also is that in the students' preferences of looking for employment, the attraction of the proximity of the training institute and their parents' home is prevalent.

When examining the social prestige of the teaching career, it becomes clear that the students participating in teacher education sense that the prestige of this career is undervalued by society: both the daytime and the correspondence students reported that the prestige of teachers working in public education is low, the only exception being university instructors, which is considered an elite profession. The lowest prestige accompanies teaching careers that do not teach a particular school subject.

Planning to choose the teaching career is most closely related to commitment and interest in the school subject. At the same time, the students who feel committed to the profession consider the colourful nature and challenges of the teaching work important. Furthermore, they also see the social usefulness of teaching as an important motivational factor. The same pattern can be observed when looking at future orientations: those who are planning to become teachers are more optimistic both in connection with their own future and the future of the society than those who do not plan to teach.

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# **ANETA KAMIŃSKA, MARTA PRUCNAL & IRENA PULAK**

The motivation of the students of teacher training of Jesuit University of Philosophy and Education “Ignatianum”. Research results.

## **Introduction**

From the psychological point of view, the motivation is a series of conscious beliefs and values which initially affect earliest experience collected in situations of achievements and characteristics of the direct environment. Undoubtedly, motivation is one of the most important factors in the effectiveness of the educational process, in it on higher education level. Individual motives of students may have a significant impact on the quality of the whole process of academic training and subsequent employment. Motivated students have a clear aim where, how and what they want to study. They take appropriate activity to obtain their educational goals. The best kind of motivation is the intrinsic one. However, it is determined by many external factors, such as the teaching strategies, teaching methods or even the character of the educational higher institution. The motives of education may also be dictated by the family financial status, the parents' education and the family social background. Moreover, the aim of the academic teachers should be the suitable educational situation to make their students motivated for studying. To fulfill it they have to know the motives of undertaking the studying of teaching training in catholic institution.

## **Candidate profile for pedagogical studies**

Jesuits University Ignatianum in Krakow is a Catholic higher education institution consisting of two faculties: the Faculty of Philosophy and the Faculty of Education. The Faculty of Education offers four fields of study: pedagogy, social work, political science and public administration and policy. Graduate of pedagogy can earn both bachelor and master degree. Students can obtain bachelor degree choosing to study one of three specialties from among: after-school education and care with the environment animation, rehabilitation pedagogy and social prevention studies, pre-school education and early school education. Those who wish to continue their education at master degree are entitled to choose to study one of five specialties from among: early school education, rehabilitation pedagogy and crisis intervention studies, pedagogy of family and young children care education, school pedagogy

with pedagogical therapy.

Despite the fact that the etymology of the concept of pedagogy narrows its scope to science that focuses on preparing candidates to work with children (especially in kindergartens and during the first three years of elementary school education), pedagogy - in its modern sense, is the science relating to many phases of human development - from the early years of his life, through adolescence until adulthood. Pedagogy focuses on the education of children but also on self-education, self-study and – in case of such a need - rehabilitation of youth and adults.

Due to the great variety of the educational offer realized in the form of seminars, practices and field trips, graduate of pedagogical studies acquires not only knowledge but also valuable communication and interpersonal skills. Thus, education opens up the opportunity to work in different institutions. It prepares the candidate to working in care, education, teaching, diagnostic and therapeutic institutions. Pedagogical studies offer its graduates the opportunity to work in educational institutions (kindergartens, schools), childcare centers (community centers, socio-therapeutic centers, orphanages, pre-adoption centers, adoption centers), specialist clinics (psychological and pedagogical centers, early intervention centers, education and rehabilitation centers), cultural institutions (theaters, museums, advertising agencies), social prevention institutions (social welfare centers, nursing homes, sanatoriums, hostels, night shelters for the homeless), lifelong learning institutions (learning centers, senior clubs, organizations/associations for activation of the elderly), the justice institutions (courts, curator centers, police chambers for children, correctional centers, juvenile hostels, centers for drug addicts, penitentiaries).

Pedagogical studies prepare primarily to work with people who for various reasons (age, clumsiness, confusion, addiction, difficult life experiences, disability, illness) need help, guidance, support and education. Although there are no ideals, we can indicate some characteristics of the ideal candidate for pedagogical studies. A person, who intends to study pedagogy in order to later use their skills to work with other people, should be an open person, full of empathy, responsibility and kindness. He or she should be a sincere person who is capable to recognize the needs of people and showing great willingness to get involved in helping a particular person in his or her individual life difficulties. Such a person should have a sense of responsibility for helping another person, for 'taming' this person, for the decisions taken and should be persevere in steps undertaken.

At this point we cannot forget about professor Maria Grzegorzewska, who - in her 'Letters to a young teacher' - describes for us a profile of an ideal teacher. In her second letter, she states that 'beyond the professional training of every person, beyond their education, there is the most important, the most fundamental and decisive value in their work and it is their humanity.' She stressed that 'the results of

each activity depend primarily on who performed it and who he/ she is as a man, what his/ her relationship to another person is, whether he/ she is interested in the fate and life of other people, whether he/ she is able and willing to help others or just staring at his/her own destiny and his/ her own course of life? In short, the results of each activity depend on what the man is like, what his/her inner values are, what his/her attitude towards people, life and work is.' In the first letter Grzegorzewska says that 'the greater kindness a man has to others, the deeper care about them, the deeper sense of responsibility for his/her work, he/she will leave the deeper mark on the lives of children' (and those among whom and for whom he/she works). She puts the hypothesis according to which the goodness of the teacher determines the goodness in the world and in the life of every human being ('the better the teacher, the better the world and the life of every human being'). Goodness of a man Grzegorzewska considered to be the greatest and the most essential value which should characterize every teacher, educator and pedagogue (The ninth letter). She has also written that to be a good teacher, you should try to get to know personally each person with whom and for whom you work, you must know and understand the living conditions and the environment in which the person lives and which form them' (The eighth letter). You have to integrate with the environment of those who you take care of. You are to take care not only of the conditions of their development but also of the conditions of their daily lives. Only following this path, a teacher can understand the meaning of his/her work, and thus the meaning of his/her own life (The fifth letter).

In the case of pedagogical studies, the sex of the candidate does not play any role. To work with a person (a child, an adult and an elderly person, a healthy person, an ill person and a disabled person) both women and men are needed. In the pedagogical profession, gender diversity is very valuable. It allows us to offer a wide range of our skills and interpersonal characteristics, so different, and therefore so filling up between themselves. Being a Catholic university, Jesuits University Ignatianum, in addition to the content included in the program of the studies, offers a wide range of spiritual formation in the context of Ignatian spirituality. In preparing for the teaching profession, the University draws attention primarily on raising awareness of other people, their needs, desires and problems. A person wishing to study at our university should be aware of the values that make up the Christian spirituality, especially in the context of Ignatius of Loyola education. We believe that the mere bookish knowledge is not enough to meet the man who needs our help. Equally important to know the truth about who the other man is, how great his value and dignity is regardless of external circumstances in which he/she is to live.

'My Friend, you know very well that in order to do something valuable, you have to be someone internally, you need to have your own life, your own world, you need a strong foundation of beliefs – you need to believe strongly in something and

do something with your whole heart – you have to be yourself! Because if you are to give, you have to have something to give – if you are to give much – you need to have much. Only then you have the strength to act, the strength to wake values in others and the strength to help them in their development. To have a lot, my Friend, you have to get those resources in a variety of experiences. But in order to get them, you need to understand the need of having them and you have to want them with your whole heart. Otherwise, nothing will help, neither any courses, any institutes, any books nor libraries, you can learn a lot from them but if you do not experience them, if you do not reconsider and do not assimilate them, then this achievement will be as the encyclopedia from which you only receive messages but you cannot utilize fully the value of it neither in your work nor in your life [...]. If you want to enter the ranks of us, to struggle to rebuild human and moral values - you have to be rich yourself internally and you have to use your inner wealth everywhere and always in case of such a need.’ (M. Grzegorzewska, ‘Letters to a young teacher’, The eleventh letter.)

## **Methodology**

Motives that influence the choice of research issues are always related to the subject of research or people or events, for which you want to perform a study and formulate specific regularities laws and theories. Clarification of the object of study is an important prerequisite for the attainment of the investigator to research (Pilch, 2004, p. 1016).

“Generally, the object of study is that what focuses the attention, or is the object of human cognition and activity. Therefore, it is the basic idea, the premise, the theme or the content” (Pilch, 2004, p. 1016).

Determining the object of research is to answer the question “what?” – That is, what the specific process, a problem, a phenomenon associated with a selected group in terms of education, training, assistance will be object of study. In addition, the subject of study differentiates the research model, which was adopted by the researcher, the nature of research and the use of specific test methods (Pilch, 2004, p. 1017). A.W. Maszke claims that the object of study is “any objects, things and events and processes to which they are subject and in relation to which we formulate research questions” (Maszke, 2004, p. 44).

The subject of the research of that article is the motivation of the students to choose the pedagogical course. Objective studies by M. Guziuk is a desire to increase their knowledge about people, things or phenomena that are the subject of research inquiry. The aim of the research is so real scientific knowledge of existing social reality and the description of the selected issue, fact or phenomenon” (Guziuk, 2005, p. 29).

According to W. Zaczyński the aim of the study “determine the aims of the researchers” (Zaczyński, 1995, p. 24). The object of the research of that project is to assess the motivation of the students to undertake the pedagogical course, and thus the teaching profession. According to M. Łobockia research problem is “generally a question which defines the purpose of the examination precisely and at the same time reveals the gap in existing knowledge of the subject. The research problem is usually detailing the purposes of research, allows precise awareness of what is really going to explore (Łobocki, 2003, p. 21). The main problem of that article is: What is the motivation of the students to choose studying the pedagogical course in Catholic university?

There are some specific problems that arise from the main problem: (1) was the decision of choosing the teaching faculty influenced by the desire to work with children and young people? (2) Was the decision of choosing teaching faculty affected by close family members or friends who work as a teacher? (3) Was the decision of choosing the teaching faculty influenced by the opinion of friends who are studying or have studied this course? (4) Was the decision of choosing the teaching faculty affected by the past experience of the respondents in social, charitable and religious minorities, such as scouting, religious communities or volunteering? (5) Was the decision of choosing the teaching faculty affected by economic factors associated with the teaching profession? (6) Was the decision of choosing the teaching faculty dictated by the desire to obtain additional perks associated with the teaching career, such as more free time compared to working in a large corporation or a company? (7) Are the respondents already working in education or institutions associated with it? (8) Have the respondents chosen a Catholic university to educate children and young people in the spirit of Christian values? (9) Do respondents positively assess the quality of education offered by Catholic universities?

A necessary condition for solving the research problems formulated to choose the right ways to conduct research. Frequently referred to as methods or techniques recommended in the research study (Łobocki, 2003, p. 27).

For the preparation of this study, we used diagnostic survey methods. It is a way of pooling expertise, having educational value, about social phenomena, opinions and views of the community's elected representatives, where there is a community studied (Pilch & Bauman, 2010, p. 80). The authors state that the surveys include “social phenomena of vital importance for education, also states of awareness, opinions and views of certain communities, the rise of the studied phenomena, their trends and intensity (Pilch & Bauman, 2010, p. 80). A.W. Maszke research technique is defined as “a set of concrete actions performed according to certain rules, which resulted in the obtained materials and information necessary for further examination (Maszke, 2004, p. 205). “The technique used in the presented

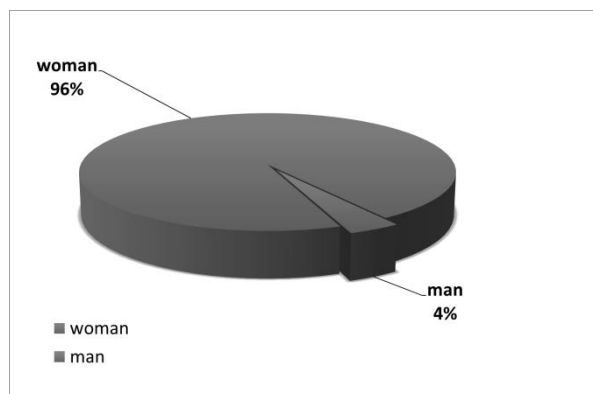
work is the survey. According to T. Pilch and T. Bauman survey is “a technique involving the collection of information usually completed independently by the special test questionnaires generally a high degree of standardization in the presence or absence of the interviewer often (Pilch & Bauman, 2010, p. 96). However, a questionnaire is a research tool, serving and obtaining data which is defined as an object used to implement the selected research techniques.

To the purpose of the project TECERN – “Teacher Education Central European Research Network” – the authors have made the research among the candidates and undergraduate students from Jesuit University Ignatianum in Cracow that have already started studying the first year. The research used an online survey which was available from September 2013 to October 2013. There were 95 filled surveys. The research group included candidates and first year students of the pedagogical faculties on daily and extramural studies at the Jesuit University Ignatianum in Cracow.

## Research results

The motivation of the candidate to the teacher profession has been recently changing. Nowadays, the labour market needs more professional workers. However, the number of subsequent teachers is getting smaller. According to the statistics, many young Polish citizens both from the large cities and towns have chosen the vocational high educational institutions and course connected to electronic course and law. Facing the demographic minority and the fact that many higher education institutions are connected to the labour market, the pedagogical higher institutions have to know what the prospective students expect from them to adjust their educational offers.

**Figure 1.** The gender



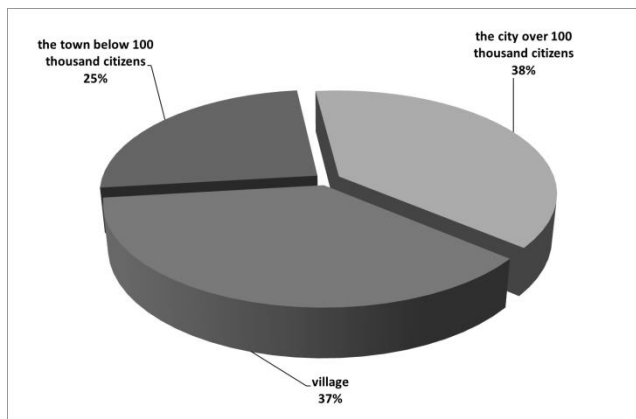
Source: own research.

This is not favorable situation for education system in Poland. A clear predominance of women among teachers at all levels of school education is seen as a negative

phenomenon, but it affects many countries in Europe and the world (Rots, Sabbe & Aelterman, 2002).

Most of respondents are from cities over 100 thousands citizens – 38% and villages 37% less of them come from the cities below 100 thousands citizens (chart 2). According to the data the place of living of the candidates was not significant.

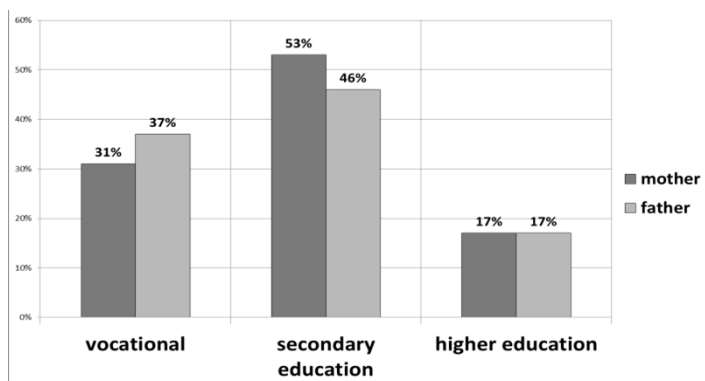
**Figure 2.** The place of living



Source: own research.

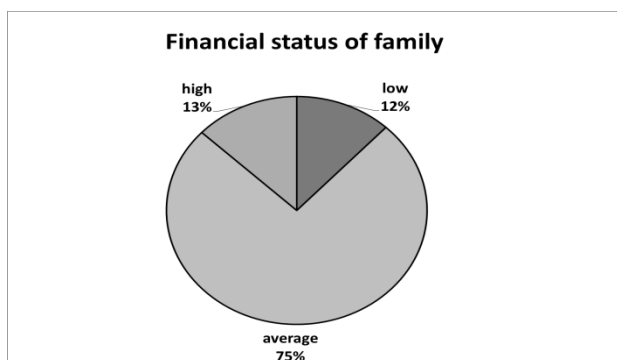
As for their family background, we have asked the students some questions about the level of education of their parents and their economical status. Most their parents have completed the general secondary education: mother 53 % and father 46 %, less of their parents have completed vocational education: mothers 31% and fathers 37%, only 17 % of both of them graduated from the higher education.

**Figure 3.** The family background of parents.



Source: own research.

Most respondents – 75 % - declared that their families economic status is average, 13% said that it is high and 12% that it is rather low.

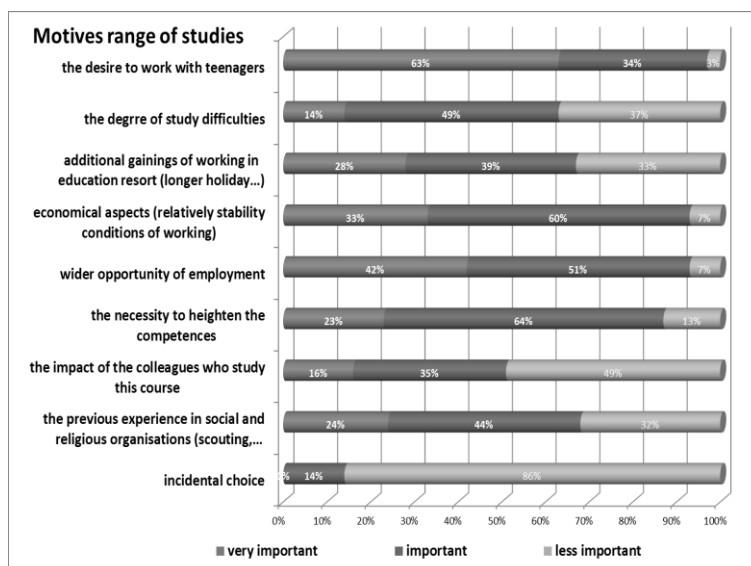
**Figure 4.** The financial status of families.

Source: own research

The data presented in Figure 3 and 4 indicate that the respondents are from the lower middle class. They might have chosen that profession to obtain some financial stability. As for the respondents whose parents graduated from the universities and high schools, they may decide to be teachers because they want to hold the social status that they parents have.

### The motivation of choosing the teacher course

Figure 5 presents a summary of responses on themes that guided them in choosing the teaching training.

**Figure 5.** The motives of studies

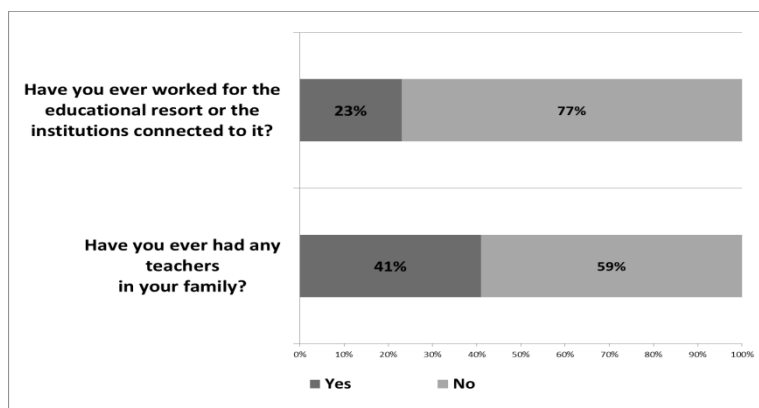
Source: own research.

**Table 1.** The motives range of studies.

Motives	Percent
The desire to work with children and teenagers	97%
Economical aspects (relatively stabile working conditions)	93%
Wider opportunity of employment	93%
The necessity to develop the competences	87%
The previous experience in social and religious organizations (scouting, voluntary service)	68%
Additional gainings of working in education resort (longer holiday...)	67%
The degree of study difficulties	63%
The impact of the colleagues who study this course	51%
Incidental choice	14%

Source: own research.

According to the data, one of the reason of their choice is the desire to work with children and youth. This is definitely a positive thing because candidates perceive teaching profession in the context of a social vocation and mission. Moreover, other important factors influencing the decision on the selection of studies by the respondents are wider opportunity of employment (42% of people found it very important factor and 51 per stand) and the economic aspects as relatively stable working conditions (as much as 33% of saw this as a very important factor, and 60% for the major). The respondents also wanted to develop their competences (87%). The rate of change in the modern world will need continuous training to update their knowledge and skills to meet the demands of the modern labor market. The level of difficulty was important for them when they had chosen the educational studies course (63%), the fact of having extra gainings as longer holidays (67%), is quite important too. More than half of the respondents (51%) said that their colleagues that studied that course have had an impact on their choice.

**Figure 6.** Connection with education.

Source: own research.

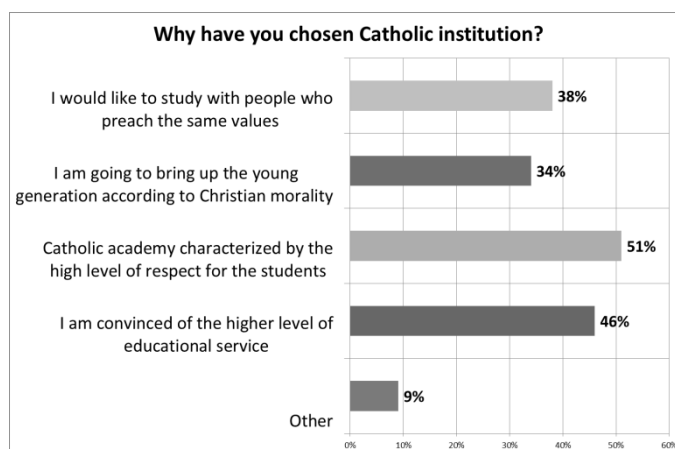
The survey also asked the candidates about their previous educational links with education. Quite a high percentage of people which in my family are teachers (41%)

leads to the conclusion that this is an important element which influences the motivation for choosing the field of study. Some of respondents (23%) admitted that they have had some previous experience on working in the educational institutions.

### **The motives of choosing a Catholic university**

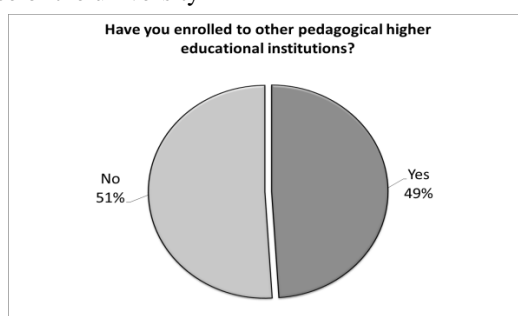
Jesuit University of Philosophy and Education Ignatianum in Krakow is a Catholic higher educational institution that's why the authors found the question about the motivation to choose that kind of institution very important. The research has depicted that the most significant motive of the students was the fact that the Catholic academy might respect they dignity and needs - 51 %, subsequently 46 % of them are convinced that the level of teaching in the Catholic higher educational institution is very high, 38 % admitted that they want to study with colleagues that confess the same values, 34 % of them have chosen the Catholic institution to bring up the children and teenagers according to Catholic values, 9 % have other motives (Figure 6).

**Figure 7.** The motive to choose the Catholic higher educational institution.



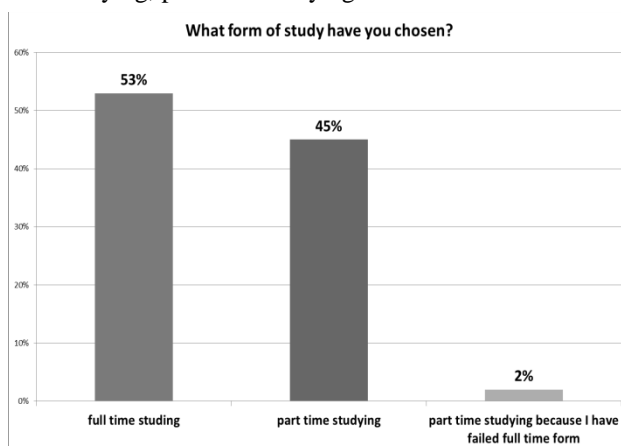
Source: own research.

**Figure 8.** The choice of the university



Source: own research.

Nearly half of the respondents – 51% answered that they have never enrolled to other higher educational institutions.

**Figure 9.** Full time studying, part time studying

Source: own research.

Most respondents wanted to study both full-time and part-time. Only a very small group of respondents agreed that the choice of a part-time study because they have failed full time form.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, the candidates of the teacher profession come from the family of average economic status. Most of their parents are not professionals that graduated from universities or other higher educational institutions. Half of them planned to go to the other higher educational institutions. The most important factor for them to choose the Catholic academy was connected to the conviction of its high level of teaching in that educational institution. The candidates have decided to study a pedagogical course because they wanted to work with the children and teenagers, raise their competences, have quite stable work with some additional opportunities to employ and some extra gainings such as longer holiday.

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# MATILD SÁGI & KÁLMÁN ERCSEI

## Who is willing to be a teacher? Causal factors of bachelors choosing teacher education

### 1. Introduction

The results of international comparative studies show that of the factors that may be influenced by education policy, the educational performance of students is mainly determined by the quality of the teacher work (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain, 2005; Rockoff, 2004; Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Vignoles, Levacic, Walker et al., 2000; Wössmann & West, 2002, 2006), and for a good performance of the educational system, the joint realization of three factors is required: (1) the right people should become teachers; (2) they should become effective teachers through education, and (3) the system should ensure every child the highest quality education possible (Barber & Mourshed, 2007). The PISA survey in 2009 had similar conclusions, which explored the characteristics of the most successful education systems (OECD, 2010) based on the international student competence assessment.

Thus, for the improvement of students' achievement and of the quality of education there need to be talented, well trained teachers in schools, and the best quality teachers stay on the teacher track for a long term. The first condition in this respect is attracting capable and motivated students, who also show interest in this career, and after the successful completion of their training, the employment of students in this profession. Attracting talented, appropriate candidates to this career and keeping them on this track has become more and more difficult, and we can observe an increasing teacher shortage in many countries. If there are no highly qualified candidates on the labour market, schools are forced to select from those available, or to delegate not appropriately qualified teachers to teach in classes. School systems struggling with teacher shortage are often forced to employ teachers with poor teacher education achievement (Eurostat, 2012; OECD, 2004).

In many countries, beside the low number of newly qualified teachers, the aptitude and motivation of some teacher candidates is also a problem. The teacher education programmes are often considered by candidates as a second or third option, especially in the case of candidates with weaker performances. The low performance rates of the education programmes are also considered a problem. This, in turn, leads to the fact that the actual number of graduates who start teaching falls short of the expectations (OECD, 2004).

Although in Hungary there is no teacher shortage, we can observe a decrease in the number of students involved in teacher education and of diplomas issued in the Hungarian teacher education since 2005, due to the decline of interest in this career (Sági & Varga, 2011; Veroszta, 2012). Due to the low prestige of this career, a negative self-selection effect seems to prevail, which influences interest in the teaching profession and the process of being employed in this career. Among the people showing an interest in teacher education, there is more likely to find candidates who have a poor high school achievement, and of teacher education graduates, those who achieved a weaker performance during their training are more likely to choose the teaching profession (Ercsei, 2011; Varga, 2007).

Varga examined the characteristics of students who apply for teacher education, of those employed in a teaching career and of those who stay on this track in the long run, using a causal model-series, based on the data of the large sample, representative survey among high school graduates conducted by her in the year 2000, as well as on the data of the follow-up study of full-time graduates conducted by FIDÉV (Young Graduates' Career Investigation) in the years 1998 and 1999. According to the results of her survey, in case of the ones who apply for higher education at university (MA) level, there was no difference in skills between those who chose teacher education and those who opted for other training programmes. However, she noticed a difference with candidates graduating from college (BA level): the poorer a candidate's achievement, the greater the chance that he/she would choose teacher education (Varga, 2007).

Ercsei's analysis (2011), based on the questionnaire survey of the undergraduate students involved in full time education (BA/BSc-level) conducted in the year 2011 – a database that represents the basis of the present analysis also – examined (through contingency tables and chi-square tests) the intention of choosing master's level teacher education based on earlier educational achievement, family background and field of education. The analysis showed that the interest in teacher education is significantly higher among students of humanities compared to students in science-oriented specializations. As far as family background is concerned (parents' educational level, occupational elite in the family, teacher in the family) we noticed a significant correlation between the highest educational level completed by the mother and the intention of further education. In the case of students who intended to apply for a non-teacher education at master's level, there was a higher rate of parents with tertiary education than in the case of those who planned to apply for a master's degree in education. Although this context is valid for students both in humanities and science, there were differences in terms of proportions. There is a slightly bigger proportion of students in humanities specialization who intend to continue their education in teacher training, than those not planning a teacher education. But in case of students with excellent academic performances in science specialization the proportion of students who were not planning to continue their

studies in teacher education was higher. In both fields the achievements of those who do not intend to apply for a master's level teacher education were better in comparison to the ones applying for teacher training. The analysis of contingency tables show that the choice of further education is affected in both fields of study by negative self-selection, which proved to be stronger with science-oriented students (Ercsei, 2011).

This study is based on the data of the survey conducted among the regular BA-level students, examining the further education and career ideas of the students, by applying a multivariate causal model series. Our main research question is the following: What factors influence students in bachelor's level education when choosing to continue their studies in a teacher or non-teacher degree programme at master's level?

## **2. Hypotheses**

We analyze the process of transition from bachelor to master level higher education, focusing on the differences in the selection of teacher and non-teacher tracks in Hungary. We pay particular attention to the impact of three explanatory factor groups of (1) family background (parents' educational level, occupational transmittance); (2) previous professional and academic performance and (3) the effect of early career decision-making.

Our main hypothesis is that choosing the teacher track is strongly affected by negative self-selection: students who are weaker in secondary school and at bachelor-level will more likely choose the teacher track of master level education. According to our hypothesis, with the introduction of the three-cycled higher education, the (negative) effect of self-selection appears in a more stratified, more specific way. The young students in BA level higher education have better insight into the social processes, the characteristics of the labour market, they have a more defined image of the opportunities, career tracks ensured by certain professions than high school graduates. During the selection (or non-selection) of master's degree programs- of the main direction of professional training that will determine future opportunities – young students take into consideration the opportunities offered on the labour market by a certain qualification programme. From this point of view there are substantially different possibilities for students in natural sciences, technical sciences and humanities specializations. Currently the market highly appreciates the technical/science professional qualifications -graduates in these fields are promised higher basic salaries, and, especially, more perspectives in the career. The natural science teacher, as a career choice, should compete with those mentioned above. This intense competitive pressure cannot be felt in the humanities field of study, students of the humanities are not offered similar good job opportunities. Consequently, our main hypothesis is that negative self-selection is

stronger among students of technical-oriented specializations than among students of the humanities.

Our second hypothesis focuses on the influence of family background. We assume family background does not have a direct effect on the transition from BA to MA level higher education, because these effects prevailed in earlier decisions (after graduating high school the fact of participation or non-participation in higher education). BA level students form such a selected layer of youth, where family background as a main selection impact has already taken place. Moreover, at the time of selecting a master's level education, the youth were – at least partially – detached, became independent from their parents, so decreased parental influence can be assumed to age as well.

Our third hypothesis focuses on early career decision-making, on the effect of early commitment to a profession/career. We assume that if a young student is committed to a profession in high school already, this choice will be less influenced by later experience and the student will stand by his/her original choice.

The fourth hypothesis refers to the effects of demographics and, within this factor, the effects of the gender of students. We assume that women (girls) are more likely to choose the teaching profession than men. However, we suppose that choosing the teaching career is not influenced by regional and settlement effects.

### **3. Data and Methods**

The analysis is based on the database of a survey conducted in 2011 among the regular BA-level students in Hungary. A two-stage stratified proportional sampling process was applied. In the first stage higher education institutions were selected, while in the second stage BA level students in sampled higher educational institutes were selected into the sample. Students were selected by a simple stratified proportional random sampling method, according to specializations. The survey was realized by a self-completed questionnaire in the educational institutions – except for one institution. (At the last institution the questionnaire was completed online through the institution's educational system.) We excluded from the analysis the cases in which any of the involved (dependent or explanatory) variables was missing. Thus, the final number of valid cases was 1014.

According to our hypothesis, different social and environmental factors influence the choice of sciences or humanities specializations within higher education. Certain qualifications and skills prove to be profitable in the labour market, so students who are committed to these qualifications compare qualifications indicative of market returns with teacher education during their final decision-making in higher education. Typically, these kinds of skills are based on science undergraduate courses/professions. After the completion of the humanities undergraduate education there are very few competitors – the demand for

BA-students is low. In these cases, therefore, the choice of the teacher profession may result in a labor market security.

Consequently, we took into account the following decision-making situations in our analysis: (1) students of BA (humanities track), who intend to continue their further studies in teacher education at the MA-level; (2) students of BSc (science track), who intend to continue their further studies in teacher education at the MA-level; (3) students of BA (humanities track), who intend to continue their further studies in non-teacher education at the MA-level; (4) students of BSc (science track) who intend to continue their further studies in non-teacher education at the MA-level; (5) students participating in undergraduate education (both humanities and science tracks) who have no intention of further education.

Beside the usual descriptive analyses, multinomial logit model series were applied for disclosing direct causal effects of students' intention towards their further tertiary education. Our dependent variable refers to the above-mentioned combination of the main track of initial tertiary education of humanities (BA) or science/technical tracks (BSC) and that of teacher or non-teacher track of MA in which the 5<sup>th</sup> case (no intention of further education) was considered as a reference category.

Variables as explanatory factors were included into the model series as follows: (1) earlier educational proficiency: foreign language skills, advanced level final exam in secondary school, admission scores for higher education and marks of the last BA semester; (2) the effect of family background: higher education level of parents and presence of teaching profession among close relatives; (3) early career decision making: asked directly in the questionnaire and recoded into three categories of a) early commitment to teaching profession, b) early commitment to non-teaching profession and c) no early commitment as a reference category; (4) or measuring demographical effects, gender, type of home settlement (city-town-village) and region.

#### **4. Characteristics of students with intention to continue their study in teacher and non-teacher education track**

##### **4.1. Intentions of BA (humanities) and BSc (science-technology) students to continue their education at MA level**

Our results show that the overwhelming majority (81%) of students in full-time undergraduate education would like to continue their studies at master's level after the completion of BA-level education. Among those who started their studies in 2007 or before, but had not completed them by the spring of 2011, this rate is slightly lower, but three-quarters of these students also expressed their intention to continue their studies at MA level.

Overall, there were no significant differences between the further study intentions of BA (humanities) and BSc (science-technology) students – in both groups of students the proportion of those who intend to continue their education exceeded 80%. However, there was a significant difference as to whether or not they wish to continue their studies in teacher or non-teacher master level education. Teacher education at master's level is more popular among BA (humanities) students than among BSc (science) students. Every other BA student would like to continue his/her studies in teacher education at master level, while his rate is only 25% among BSc (science-technology) students. There are other differences with regard to whether students are within the "normal" time frame or postponing their studies. Students in humanities at bachelor's level postponing their studies plan their further studies in teacher education at a lower rate than the average, they rather intend to finish their studies after the completion of bachelor's level education.

In contrast, BSc (science-technology) students who are postponing their studies don't give up their intention to continue education in MA level, but they move from the direction of non-teacher education towards teacher degree programs. Consequently, they are more likely to intend to continue their studies in teacher education at master's level than the average BSc student (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Further education plans of BA/BSc-level full-time students; controlled by the year of commencement of training (Spring 2011).

	Further education intention				Total	N
	Year of bachelor's level education commencement	Plan to continue their studies in teacher education at master's level	Plan to continue their studies in non-teacher education at master's level	No plans to continue their education at master's level		
<b>Students in humanities at bachelor's level:</b>	2007 or earlier	41.3%	30.2%	28.6%	100%	63
	2008	53.6%	26.0%	20.4%	100%	181
	2009	52.4%	30.2%	17.3%	100%	248
	<i>Total humanities</i>	<i>51.4%</i>	<i>28.7%</i>	<i>19.9%</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>492</i>
<b>Students in science at bachelor's level:</b>	2007 or earlier	30.0%	48.2%	21.8%	100%	110
	2008	23.8%	60.8%	15.5%	100%	181
	2009	24.2%	58.4%	17.3%	100%	231
	<i>Total science</i>	<i>25.3%</i>	<i>57.1%</i>	<i>17.6%</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>522</i>
<b>Students in humanities and science at bachelor's level together:</b>	2007 or earlier	34.1%	41.6%	24.3%	100%	173
	2008	38.6%	43.5%	17.9%	100%	363
	2009	38.9%	43.9%	17.2%	100%	478
	<i>Total humanities and science</i>	<i>38.0%</i>	<i>43.4%</i>	<i>18.6%</i>	<i>100%</i>	<i>1014</i>

#### 4.2. Earlier educational achievement and aspirations for further education

The delay of the study period has several possible causes. Besides individual performance differences, the period of study may be affected by some individual decisions which aim the elongation of the student status, and it is a well-known fact that completion of bachelor's studies within the "normal" timeframe shows significant specialization-specific characteristics.

We can draw more accurate conclusions comparing the admission score and the intention of further studies of the students. According to our descriptive analysis, the existence or non-existence of intention to further MA level education is of crucial importance. Students who did not want to continue their education had significantly lower entrance scores to the tertiary education than those who chose to continue their studies after the bachelor's level education. However, there is a significant difference in the intention to apply for a teacher or a non-teacher master's degree between undergraduate students in humanities and in science according to their admission score. Among BA (humanities) students, the average entrance score of those aiming at a master's degree in teacher education is slightly higher than those who intend to continue their studies in a non-teacher education master's programme. In case of BSc (science-technology) students there emerges the image of a strong adverse selection. Undergraduate students in natural sciences, who wish to continue their studies in teacher education at master's level have a significantly lower average admission score (302) than those who want to attend a non-teacher master's programme (323) – in fact, it is even lower than the score of those who do not want to continue their education at all (303) (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Average admission score of BA/BSc-level full-time students according to their further education plans.

	Average admission score	N	Standard deviation
Undergraduate BA students who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	360.3	253	89.209
Undergraduate BA students who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	351.7	141	105.792
Undergraduate BSc students who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	302.7	133	116.190
Undergraduate BSc students who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	323.6	298	110.659
Students with no plans to continue education at master's level	303.8	189	110.028
Total	330.2	1014	107.958

Source: own table. Analysis of variance, significance level: 0,000.

We obtain similar results if we analyze the educational achievement during the bachelor's level education with regard to the intention of further education. The

educational performance of students in science-oriented specializations is poorer in general than that of students of humanities, thus the simple comparison of academic achievement of students of humanities and science would not be useful, however, an analysis of these features within the fields of study led to significant results. There is no significant correlation between the academic performance of students in humanities and their intention to further study in teacher/non-teacher education at master's level. Academic achievement of BSc (science/technology) students who intend to continue their studies in teacher track, however, differs significantly from that of students with non-teacher track intentions. The academic performance of BSc students who expressed their intentions of further study in teacher education, is significantly worse than that of students willing to continue studies in non-teacher track of MA. We can hardly find any outstanding academic performance among BSc students who are going to continue their study in teacher track of MA, while 8% of them produced only satisfactory results so far (Table 3).

**Table 3.** The distribution of the current academic performance of BA/BSc regular students by their further education intention, %.

	Distribution of academic achievement, %				Total	
	<i>Very good</i>	<i>Good</i>	<i>Medium</i>	<i>Satisfactory</i>		
BA (humanities) students who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	20.2	50.6	26.1	3.2	100	253
BA (humanities) students who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	22.0	51.8	24.1	2.1	100	141
BSc (science/technologies) students who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	3.8	38.3	49.6	8.3	100	133
BSc (science/technologies) students who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	12.4	35.8	48.2	3.7	100	298
BA/BSc students with no plans to continue education at master's level	5.8	35.4	47.6	11.1	100	189
Total	13.3	42.0	39.4	5.3	100	1014

Source: own table. Significance level of Chi-square statistics: 0,000.

The analysis of correlation between foreign language skills and further MA-level study intention led to similar results. A quarter of BA (humanities) students who are willing to attend a teacher degree programme do not have at least an intermediate level state certification of any foreign language skills; and 42% of BSc students who are willing to continue their studies at teacher track of master's level education do not have a foreign language certificate (Table 4).

**Table 4.** The distribution of documented language proficiency of BA/BSc-level education, full-time students according to further education plans, %.

	Language Skills Distribution, %				
	<i>Hold at least intermediate level state certification of English language skills</i>	<i>Hold an intermediate/advanced level language certificate in another foreign language</i>	<i>Do not hold an intermediate level state language certificate</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>N</i>
Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	58.5	17.0	24.5	100	253
Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	69.0	19.7	11.3	100	141
Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	43.9	13.6	42.4	100	133
Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	52.7	14.1	33.2	100	298
Students with no plans to continue education at master's level	46.8	16.0	37.2	100	189
Total	54.2	15.9	29.9	100	1014

Source: own table. Significance level of Chi-square statistics: 0,000.

Certainly, there is a strong correlation between the admission score, the earlier academic achievement and the language proficiency: the proportion of students admitted with higher scores, holding a language certificate is higher and they have better grades at the university as well. Our results show that in humanities

specializations this interrelation is weaker and in science-oriented specializations it is stronger. The effect of the cross-correlation influencing factors will be filtered later, during the multivariate causal analysis.

#### 4.3. Educational level of parents

Half of the students come from intellectual families – 29% of students have parents who both hold an academic degree, one quarter of students have one parent with a higher education degree. We found that in the case of both humanities and science specializations there was a low representation of students willing to continue their studies at master's level teacher education and a high representation of students in non-teacher education tracks where both parents hold a higher education degree. However, it cannot be asserted that the teacher education at master's level would be the typical way of becoming a first generation professional: over half (57%) of the students in humanities planning a teacher education and nearly half (43%) of the students of science specializations planning a teacher education have at least one higher educated parent (Table 5).

**Table 5.** The distribution of the highest education of parents of BA/BSc-level education, full-time students according to further education plans, %.

	Educational level of parents, %				
	<i>Both are graduates</i>	<i>One graduate</i>	<i>None graduate</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>N</i>
Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	27.3	30.0	42.7	100	253
Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	36.9	27.0	36.2	100	141
Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	21.2	22.0	56.8	100	133
Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	30.9	25.5	43.6	100	298
Students with no plans to continue education at master's level	28.7	21.3	50.0	100	189
Total	29.2	25.6	45.3	100	1014

Source: own table. Significance level of Chi-square statistics: 0,018.

#### 4.4. Occupational transmittance and the impact of early career decision-making on teacher career selection

We found no significant correlation between the teacher family background (either one of their parents or in the extended family) and the plans of further studies in a teacher education at master's level. However, early career decision-making strongly affects the plans of further studies in teacher education at master's level. Three

quarters of students who had decided already in high school to become a teacher remained by their decision later on and wanted to continue their studies in teacher education at master's level. It should be noted that the impact of early choices of non-teacher tracks is pretty strong, but "only" in a two-thirds ratio (Table 6).

Overall, 30% of bachelor's level students had made the decision to become a teacher already in high school, 42% of them committed to other professions in high school and little more than a quarter (28%) of students had no definite idea of a career in high school. As a result of stable commitment to early career decision-making, more than half of students (in humanities at bachelor's level 57%, in science at bachelor's level 60%) willing to continue their studies at teacher education at master's level had decided in high school to become a teacher.

**Table 6.** The relationship between early career decision-making and future plans.

	Further education plans of BA/BSc-level education, full-time students depending on whether they had a definite idea in high school of what they wanted to be or not						
<i>Did they have a definite idea in high school of what they wanted to be?</i>	<i>Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level</i>	<i>Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level</i>	<i>Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level</i>	<i>Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level</i>	<i>Students with no plans to continue education at master's level</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>N</i>
Yes, teacher	47.7	26.5	9.6	5.0	11.3	100	302
Yes, non-teacher	14.0	7.7	16.8	43.8	17.7	100	429
There was no definite idea	16.9	7.0	14.4	33.8	27.8	100	283
Total	24.8	13.1	14.0	29.5	18.6	100	1014

Source: own table. Significance level of Chi-square statistics: 0,000.

#### 4.5. Demographic and regional characteristics

It is well known that women are significantly overrepresented in the BA (humanities) track of higher education, while the proportion of women and men in science-oriented specializations are approximately the same (small surplus of women). No any additional correlation could be found between gender and the plans of teacher or non-teacher education tracks of students at master's level. Thus, the data do not support the general idea that female students majoring in natural sciences prefer the teacher track as compared to male students. Similarly, settlement type of parents show no statistically significant relationship to whether the students

would like to continue their studies in teacher or non-teacher track of MA education and our data show no significant regional differences either.

## **5. Causal factors of choosing teacher and non-teacher track of education at master's level**

In our analysis of the process of transition from bachelor to master level higher education, focusing on the differences in the selection of teacher and non-teacher tracks in Hungary, multinomial logistic regression model series were applied for controlling multi-collinearity of explanatory variables. Our dependent variable refers to the combination of the main track of initial BA education: humanities or science/technical tracks and the further education intention of the student: teacher or non-teacher, with the reference category of no intention of further education. Gradually, we included more and more explanatory variables in the models, thus tested the stability of the effects of the previous models. During the tabular presentation of results we only show the exponential values of the regression coefficients of at least 0.05 (5%) significance level. These are odds ratios, which indicate to what extent it is more likely that a student of a certain explanatory variable value (e.g. of excellent academic performance) compared to the ones in the reference category (e.g. satisfactory academic performance) has further education aspirations belonging to a certain value of the dependent variable (e.g. master's level teacher education in humanities field), rather than not wanting to continue studies after BA/BSc-level completion.

### **5.1. Effect of earlier academic achievement**

In the first model only variables related to education (admission score, average categories of the last academic achievement obtained during undergraduate education, foreign language skills corresponding to at least intermediate-level language certificate, as well as the presence or absence of advanced high school final exams) were included as explanatory factors (see Table 7).

According to our findings, if we consider jointly the admission score acquired when entering BA/BSc level education and the academic achievements in the course of higher education, the admission score impact is minimized (humanities specialization) and fully distributed (science specializations).

Our analysis reveals that in the humanities track of higher education, the decision of finishing tertiary level education at BA level versus continuing it at MA level seems to be a dividing line. Students with good grades tend to target the non-teacher master's programmes, less outstanding students choose teacher education at master's level, whereas students with weaker achievement don't want to continue their education at MA level. A prominent student majoring in humanities is 54 times more likely to continue his/her education in a non-teacher master's programme than

to finish his/her higher education, while in the case of selecting teacher education at master's level the corresponding odds ratio is only half of the mentioned value – but even in this case it is 25 times more.

Aspirations of further education for science-oriented students at bachelor's level are influenced in a different way. If someone has outstanding academic performance in a science-oriented specialization at bachelor's level, it is very likely that he/she will prefer a non-teacher education at master's level, rather than complete higher education after the BA/BSc level qualification. (Without standing students the corresponding odds ratio shows a value of 15, but even with good and medium students the odds ratio has a value of 6). At the same time in BSc education no significant correlation could be found between academic achievement and the choice of a teacher track of MA level education programme – compared to those who do not want to continue their education. Students in science-oriented specialization at bachelor's level who have lower academic achievement are almost equally likely not to want to continue their education, rather than continue studies in teacher education at master's level.

Language skills and advanced high school final exams affect only the further study plans of undergraduates in humanities – plans related to non-teacher education master's degree are more heavily influenced than aspirations for teacher education.

The explanatory power of our first model – in which admission score and earlier educational achievement are involved as explanatory factors – is not very strong (16%), thus, the selection of either teacher or non-teacher education at master's level is only slightly affected by educational achievement (Table 7).

**Table 7.** The effect of earlier academic performance of BA/BSc level education, full-time students on their further education aspirations. Multinomial logit model for exponential coefficients of 0.05 significance.

	Further education aspirations *			
	Humanities - teacher	Science -teacher	Humanities - non-teacher	Science - non- teacher
	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)
Intercept				
Admission score	1.006		1.004	
Earlier achievement: excellent	25.664		54.590	15.476
Earlier achievement: good	9.917		22.044	6.350
Earlier achievement: average				6.617
Earlier achievement: satisfactory (ref)				
Language certificate: English (as well)			4.985	
Language certificate: just another			5.338	
Language certificate: no (ref)				
Advanced high school final exams: Yes	2.672		4.329	

Source: own table. \* Reference category: no further education intention. Pseudo R<sup>2</sup> (Nagelkerke): 0.162

## 5.2. The joint effect of family background and earlier academic achievement

Including the family background characteristics of the students (parents' educational level, existence or non-existence of teacher parents/relatives) into our model as explanatory factor in addition to academic performance increases the explanatory power of the model only slightly (from 16% to 18%).

Our results suggest that in the case of our second model, which considers the joint effects of academic achievement and family background, neither the parents' highest level of education, nor occupational inheritance has a significant effect on intentions to continue studies in teacher education at master's level – neither with undergraduate students in humanities, nor with students in science-oriented specialization. (There is an exception in the case of students in science-oriented specialization at bachelor's level, who have teacher relatives in the extended family). The effects of the family background described in the descriptive statistics have influence through academic achievement – the children of parents with a higher education degree learn better in the BA/BSc-level education, and those who learn better are less likely to choose the teacher track (Table 8).

**Table 8.** The joint effects of earlier academic performance and family background on further education aspirations of BA/BSc-level education, full-time students. Multinomial logit regression model for exponential coefficients of 0.05 significance.

	Further education aspirations *			
	Humanities -teacher	Science - teacher	Humanities - non- teacher	Science - non-teacher
	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)
Intercept				
Admission score	1.004			
Earlier achievement: excellent	9.333		13.385	5.806
Earlier achievement: good	4.268		6.245	2.991
Earlier achievement: medium	1.859			3.113
Earlier achievement: satisfactory (ref)				
Language certificate: English (as well)			2.461	
Language certificate: just another			2.319	
Language certificate: no (ref)				
Advanced high school final exams: Yes	1.710		2.386	
Advanced high school final exams: no (ref)				
Parents: both tertiary				
Parents: one tertiary				
Parents: none tertiary (ref)				
Teacher: parent				
Teacher: only in the extended family		1.794		

Source: own table. \* Reference category: no further education intention. Pseudo  $R^2$  (Nagelkerke): 0.181.

### 5.3. The effect of early career decision-making

The third model of our multivariate analysis points out – more strongly than the descriptive statistics – the importance of early career decision-making regarding the teaching profession. Besides the consideration of academic achievement and family background, the involvement of early career aspiration variables into the third multinomial regression model series resulted in the doubling of the explanatory power of the model, which now shows a value of 39 % (Table 9).

Those who decided already in high school to become a teacher are six times more likely to continue their studies in a master's level teacher education than those who did not make such a decision in high school. In the case of selecting science-oriented teacher degree programmes, this effect is stronger: those who had already decided in high school to become teachers of science specialization are nine times more likely to continue their studies in master's-level teacher education than those who did not make such a decision in high school.

Early career choices of the non-teacher tracks seem to be less steady: the early career plans of those BA students who preferred non-teacher profession do not have a (significant) effect on application plans for a master's degree programme. This effect among BSc students is even smaller: those who already decided in high school to apply for a non-teacher career in a scientific field of study are 1.8 times more likely to continue their studies in a non-teacher education at master's level than those who did not make such a decision in high school. However, those who already decided in high school to choose a non-teacher career in a scientific field of study are one-third as likely to plan later (yet) a teacher education at master's level as to complete their education after BA/BSc level graduation.

The effect of early career choices does not eliminate, only slightly moderates the direction and extent of effects of the academic performance previously described, and it influences the effect of family background only to the extent to eliminate the impact of a teacher relative – appearing before as an exception – with relation to the education plans of BSc students to continue their studies in master's level teacher education (Table 9).

**Table 9.** The joint effects of earlier academic performance, family background and early career decision-making on further education aspirations of BA/BSc-level education, full-time students. Multinomial logit regression model for exponential coefficients of 0.05 level significance.

	Further education aspirations *			
	Humanities - teacher	Science - teacher	Humanities - non-teacher	Science - non- teacher
	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)
Intercept				

	Further education aspirations *			
	Humanities - teacher	Science - teacher	Humanities - non-teacher	Science - non- teacher
	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)
Admission score	1.004			
Earlier achievement: excellent	7.378		11.974	5.219
Earlier achievement: good	3.822		5.614	2.586
Earlier achievement: medium				2.641
Earlier achievement: satisfactory (ref)				
Language certificate: English (as well)			2.553	
Language certificate: just another			2.340	
Language certificate: no (ref)				
Advanced high school final exams: Yes	1.686		2.337	
Advanced high school final exams: no (ref)				
Parents: both tertiary				
Parents: one tertiary				
Parents: none tertiary (ref)				
Teacher: parent				
Teacher: only in the extended family				
Teacher: none in the family				
Early career choice: yes, teacher	6.102	9.379		0.318
Early career choice: yes, non-teacher				1.767
Early career choice: no (ref)				

Source: own table. \* Reference category: no further education intention. Pseudo  $R^2$  (Nagelkerke): 0.386.

#### 5.4. The effects of demographic factors

In our final model which is considered a complete model of our modelseries, in addition to the previous explanatory factors, we also analyzed the impact of settlement type of parents and of students' gender. The explanatory power of our final model is 42% – which could be considered fairly high.

Our analysis shows that further study aspirations in a teacher degree programme are not influenced by the gender of students (neither with BA, nor with BSc students) in general. Therefore this analysis did not support our fourth hypothesis that female BA/BSc students are more likely to choose the teacher tracks than male students. The fact that more females choose the teaching profession than

males is already determined during the early career aspiration and during the selection (or non-selection) of the humanities field of study at bachelor's level. However, data show that in one case the student's gender still has an effect on further education aspiration: if a male student applies for a bachelor-level humanities education and he did not have a determined career idea in high school, then he is 50% lesslikely to continue his studies in a non-teacher education at master's level after BAlevel graduation than to decide not pursuing further education.

According to our results, subsequent education aspirations of students in humanities at bachelor's level (BA) are not affected by the size of the parents' settlement or the region within the country. However, these factors have a significant influence on BSc (science track) students. If the effects of all other factors are controlled, the mere fact that a BSc student is from Budapest, Northern Hungary, Southern Great Plain or from the West-Transdanubian Region (as compared to coming from Southern Transdanubia), diminishes to one third the likelihood of orientation towards a science track of teacher education at master's level, as opposed to the decision of pursuing no further education, and taking a chance on the labour market afterBA/BSc graduation.

The inclusion of demographic factors as explanatory variables did not significantly affect the impact of the factors already involved in the earlier models with relation to the further education aspirations of undergraduate students (Table 10).

**Table 10.** Complete model: the joint effects of earlier academic performance, family background, early career decision-making and of demographic and settlement factors on the further education aspirations of BA/BSc-level education, full-time students. Multinomial logit regression model for exponential coefficients of 0,05 level significance.

	Further education aspirations*			
	Humanities - teacher	Science - teacher	Humanities - non- teacher	Science - non- teacher
	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)
Intercept				
Admission score	1.004		1.002	5.060
Earlier achievement: excellent	7.236		12.655	2.591
Earlier achievement: good	3.788		6.124	2.575
Earlier achievement: medium				

	Further education aspirations*			
	Humanities - teacher	Science - teacher	Humanities - non- teacher	Science - non- teacher
	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)
Earlier achievement: satisfactory (ref)				
Language certificate: English (as well)			2.453	
Language certificate: just another			2.315	
Language certificate: no (ref)				
Advanced high school final exams: Yes	1.714		2.407	
Advanced high school final exams: no (ref)				
Parents: both tertiary				
Parents: one tertiary			1.817	
Parents: none tertiary (ref)				
Teacher: parent				
Teacher: only in the extended family				
Teacher: none in the family				0.296
Early career choice: yes, teacher	5.749	8.740		1.693
Early career choice: yes, non-teacher				
Early career choice: none (ref)				
Gender: male			0.584	
Gender: female (ref)				
Type of settlement: Budapest		0.309		
Type of settlement: big city				
Type of settlement: town				
Type of settlement: village (ref)				
Region: Northern Hungary		0.363		
Region: Northern Great Plain				
Region: Southern Great Plain		0.346		
Region: Central Hungary				

	Further education aspirations*			
	Humanities - teacher	Science - teacher	Humanities - non- teacher	Science - non- teacher
	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)	Exp (B)
Region: Central Transdanubia				
Region: West-Transdanubia		0.314		
Region: Southern Transdanubia (ref)				

Source: own table. \* Reference category: no further education intention. Pseudo  $R^2$  (Nagelkerke): 0.420.

## 6.Summary

Our paper aimed to analyze the process of transition from bachelor to master level higher education, focusing on the differences in the selection of teacher and non-teacher tracks in Hungary. We investigated the effects of explanatory factors of (1) family background; (2) earlier educational-professional performance and (3) the effect of early career decision-making. Besides the usual descriptive analyses, multinomial logit model series were applied for disclosing causal relationships.

Our research findings supported our hypothesis that the future career orientation of students in humanities, and in science-oriented specializations is affected in different ways and to varying degrees by educational, social and demographic factors. Our main hypothesis – namely that after the completion of bachelor's level education, choosing the teacher track at master's level is strongly affected by negative self-selection mechanisms depending on educational achievements- was strongly supported by the analysis. Undergraduate students in humanities with worst academic performance do not continue education, and the ones with the best achievements are mainly oriented towards a non-teacher education at master's level, whereas students with weaker performances target the MA-level teacher degree programmes. Among science-oriented undergraduate students this negative self-selection mechanism is even more pronounced: students with good educational achievements are typically oriented towards non-teacher education at master's level, while students with poorer grades are almost equally likely to apply for a teacher training programme, or else they end their higher education at a lower level.

The analysis also confirmed our second hypothesis concerning the impact of family background. Researches on the reproduction of educational inequality found that the higher the selection age, the weaker the effect of family background on educational decision. Consequently, our second hypothesis was that no parental

effect could be traced on the educational decision-making of BA graduates in the two-stage (BA-MA) system, where selection age moved into students' early twenties. Our analysis showed that in the case of aspiring for the second stage of a higher education in a three-cycle system, the direct effects of family background no longer apply, because undergraduate students represent such a specific segment of their class, where the process of selection according to family background has already taken place.

We found that early commitment to the teaching profession had an important role in the career choice. If a young student already committed to a profession in high school, his/her choice is less influenced by later experience, the student will stand by his/her original choice. Thus, the most effective way to attract the most talented students to the teacher track is to attain an early commitment to the teaching profession.

Last but not least, our fourth hypothesis concerning the effect of gender on the choice of teacher education at MA-level was not supported by the analysis. We can explain this result by the earlier gender-specific selection concerning BA-level education: female students are more likely to choose BA courses at the humanities, male students are more likely to choose technical tracks, but after that choice has been made, mechanisms for both genders are similar.

## Appendix

**Table A1.** Basic distribution of variables of the model series.

<b>DEPENDENT VARIABLE:</b>		<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
Further education intention	Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	253	25.0
	Undergraduate students of BA who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	132	13.1
	Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in teacher education at master's level	141	13.9
	Undergraduate students of BSc who plan to continue studies in non-teacher education at master's level	298	29.4
	Students with no plans to continue education at master's level	189	18.6
<b>EXPLANATORY FACTORS:</b>			
Admission score	Scores between: 0-480 points	-	-
Previous achievement	Excellent	134	13.3

*Who is willing to be a teacher? ...*

in tertiary education (self-assessed BA/BSc scores) 4-grade scaled derived by recoding the top two categories (outstanding - 5 and excellent – 4 ) of the 5-grade-scale	Good	426	42.1
	Medium	398	39.3
	Satisfactory (ref. cat.)	54	5.4
Teacher in the family	Among parents	274	27.1
	Only in the extended family	382	37.7
	None (ref. cat.)	357	35.2
Parents' highest level of education (derived from the highest level of education of both parents)	Both tertiary	295	29.1
	One of them tertiary	259	25.6
	None (ref. cat.)	458	45.2
Early career choice: did he/she have a definite idea during secondary education studies regarding his/her future career?	Yes, teacher	302	29.8
	Yes, non-teacher	428	42.3
	No definite choice (ref. cat.)	283	27.9
Language proficiency	Language proficiency in English (at intermediate or advanced level with exam or at native level without exam)	549	54.2
	Language proficiency in another foreign language (at intermediate or advanced level with exam or at native level without exam)	161	15.9
	Language proficiency below intermediate level (ref. cat.)	303	29.9
Did she/he take an advanced high school final exam in any subject?	Yes	692	68.2
	No (ref. cat.)	322	31.8
Gender	Male	409	40.4
	Female (ref. cat.)	604	59.6
Type of settlement	Budapest	181	17.9
	County seats and other major cities	243	24.0
	Other towns	332	32.8
	Villages (ref. cat.)	255	25.2
Region	Northern Hungary	132	13.1
	Northern Great Plain	164	16.2
	Southern Great Plain	162	16.0
	Central Hungary	286	28.2
	Central Transdanubia	89	8.9
	West-Transdanubia	81	8.0
	Southern Transdanubia (ref. cat.)	97	9.6
Total		1014	100

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