COMPARATIVE RESEARCH ON TEACHER EDUCATION

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Preface

For researchers investigating deeper meanings of social changes in Central-Eastern European countries, it is essential to study jointly the history of nations living together in this area, their social problems and, most importantly, the educational dilemmas of the present. In reality, this CEE comparative thinking not only contributes to the self-reflexive interpretation of social processes but also calls attention to a specific direction of international collaboration that was ignored by many after the change of the political system following 1989. By now, it has become evident that for a better understanding of our own condition, we should think together with people living in similar social and economic circumstances instead of looking at our reflection in the mirror of the West, which has a highly simplified idolized image in our minds and a thought system different from our own.

This is indeed not the first occasion in which the editors have supported the cooperation of educational researchers from this region. Their previous research studied the educational function of different churches and religions during this period of change. In this contribution, nearly all post-communist countries are represented by a study presenting the country-based interpretations of the investigated type of education to offer a chance to understand the uniqueness and the common features of faith-based institutions in this region. (Pusztai G. ed. 2008. Education and Church in Central- and Eastern-Europe at First glance. Debrecen: Center for Higher Education Research and Development, Pusztai G. ed. 2010. Religion and Higher Education in Central and Eastern Europe). With this study, the research group from Central-Eastern Europe also turned to current and crucial questions affecting educational research.

It is of primary importance to examine the position of teachers' communities, since all the post-socialist countries face the difficulties of the ideologically defenseless, politically imbued, low prestige status of teachers who are even divided due to economic envy. As a consequence, the lure of this profession is decreasing, a professional identity fails to evolve, teachers are unmotivated to obtain specialized knowledge or unwilling to self-train themselves and have a low social esteem. All these dangerous tendencies must be diagnosed and empirically researched, to avoid individual countries from considering them their own troubles or to be a whim of fate.

The present collection of studies is the first outcome of this common endeavor. The special value of the volume lies in its presenting studies that engage in dialogue with each other. After designating areas of research, the editors convinced the scholars from different countries to face the problematic issues in collaboration, thus a considerable part of the publication comprises comparative studies carried out by several countries.

Mária Czellér
reviewer

Teacher Education Systems and Social Context

Educational policy aspects of teacher education in Central Europe – the case of Hungary and Poland

MAREK WASIELEWSKI & ESZTER VARGA

Introduction

The analysis of policy changes and current working of teacher education of Central European countries is worth to start from different dates. In case of Hungary, there was the change of the political system in 1989/90., it was a correction of previously evolved – socialist – teacher education in the 1990s. However the basics of Polish teacher education had been formed more earlier, in 1950s. Moreover the Bologna process was a greater change in transformation of higher education in the new millennium for both countries: the teacher education had become two cycle type. Hardly the first students had graduated the governance of education had thought need of a new education reform again in Hungary. Since 2012, in Poland new provisions regulating teachers' education are binding. However, more comprehensive assessment of their functioning shall be only possible in few years. Thus, it can be said, systems of teacher education is still evolving, its summing up depends on the experience of next few years.

The development of the teacher education in the 1990s

Due to the space limitations, we intend to deal with the elementary and secondary school teacher education in this study, but in some cases it is not able to avoid other institutions of teacher education. The major changes in teacher education like structural and content ones as well, had already began in the last years of the 1980s. In the case of Hungary, the goals was separation of the teacher training and professional training, which would had been after the third year, and the maintaining of the dual track training and accomplishing the compulsory teaching practices in the fifth year.

The reform of the faculty of arts had begun in the spring of 1989 at the Eötvös L. University in Budapest. The notions of earlier years had been formalized, the main objectives are included it has to document the qualified teacher certification besides the general diploma, it has to re-establish the teacher training institutions for educational and organizational tasks, and has to make difference between the major and the minor subjects. From the spring of 1990 election and after the new government took office in the efforts of the faculty of arts reforms reflected the rejection of socialist practices, demands of the Western models up, which is important in shaping of the teacher education because of the impact on

rural universities, social and natural science faculties. The code system for each subjects had launched. The teacher training was seen as a special vocational training, in which anyone is permitted to participate who already had a degree in any major of the faculty, by which can work as a teacher. The universities of the country had joined these development reforms in the following year. The Ministry of Education approved the applying of the regulation in the Eötvös University of Budapest (ELTE) and pursuance of a unique experiment until come into effect of the Higher Education Act (Ladányi, 2008, pp. 149–182).

By this time the institutional framework of teacher education was widened, the Péter Pázmany Catholic University set up a teacher training institution in 1992 which had become the faculty of arts by 1993, as well as teacher training institution was set up theKároli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary, furthermore faculty of arts in Miskolc, and also a teacher training institution in the University of Veszprém. According to the Act LXXX of 1993 on Higher Education, adopted in July 1993, it was assigned a university and a college level of teacher education. The faculties of natural science had still maintained a dual track training in academic year of 1990/91., due to the faculty of arts reform faculties in Budapest from academic year of 1991/92., faculties of the rural areas from academic year of 1992/93, the single-major training became dominant. Recommendations were made for the transition to the two-cycle system, which was ultimately not feasible according to the ministry. The next step was that, has to develop the professional training, progressively integrate to the university level, it should be structured in both the college and university curriculum in that way an undergraduate degree requirements can build on the college degree requirements. In 1994, the ministerial conference accepted the submission about the introduction of teacher education at the university level, it was a transition in colleges as well. The Director-General of teacher training colleges resolution: has to start the five year term teacher training at the university level from the academic year of 1995/96., with providing adequate facilities (educational staff, financial conditions, legal framework). Subsequently, in the spring of 1995 according to a new proposal of the ministry, teacher training should be limited to teacher education modules (pedagogy, psychology and educational practice), but it means, it should be raised the level and quality of the subjects in colleges. (Ladányi, 2008, pp. 149–182.) In 1996, in light of this, the government made a decision, that to create the teacher education program and graduation requirements until 1997, taking into account the National Basic Curriculum. The regulation of teacher qualification requirements[1], consolidates and provide a strong organizational framework for the course content and form (Sáska, 2009, p. 350)

[1] 111/1997. (VI. 27) Korm. rendelet a tanári képesítés követelményeiről. [Governmental decree on required qualifications of teacher traning.] http://www.uni-miskolc.hu/~bolcsweb/page/szabalyzat/111-1997.htm.

Teacher training in Bologna-process

There were some changes in the training structure as a part of the Bologna process. The June 19th, 1999 the Education Ministers of twenty-nine European countries signed the Bologna Declaration, in which the European higher education leaders chose European cooperation in higher education by standardized higher education levels. There are basically two main cycles, the bachelor (undergraduate) and master (graduate) training based system. Access to the second cycle requires at least the successful completion of the first three years. The second cycle – with the practice of many European countries – should lead to a university degree or doctorate degree. The Higher Education Act[2] was geared to Bologna system which orders about teacher education (Nagy & Varga, 2006).

If the teacher training is going on number of higher education department, has to coordinate and establish a department for it, or set up a board which is determined by the Senate, to provide the work of instructions in various department, and the related practical training coordination. As the head of the department responsible for teacher training, and its ongoing coordination. The Government determines in the teacher training the majors of bachelor and master, as well as master general rules on specialization. The Minister of Education decrees training and outcome requirements of the teaching profession.

The most important requirement for teacher training is that, the teacher profession can be obtained at the master level. The first cycle of teacher education provides a mostly professional knowledge. With the acquired skills at bachelor level may be employed in the labor market. In the second cycle, any other field of specialization master course can be chosen, so who do not want to be a teacher can decide it at this stage. The pedagogical, psychological, methodological knowledge make up 150 credits. The purpose of career guidance, 10 credits of educational psychology have been inserted in bachelor training. A prerequisite of obtaining for the teacher qualification is a half-year related professional work experience. During the practice, a mentor teacher helps the student in the work place and process the experience in related seminars in the university or college. Documentation of teacher education is the portfolio and the thesis. The portfolio makes up the documents related to half year practice, and papers of pedagogical evaluating seminars. Three major training areas – where may be obtained teaching qualification in the first cycle – are designed by the regulation: the teacher of elementary level and kindergarten teacher training, teachers of special education, as well as instructor training. The Act allows of the teaching major accomplishment with any possession of the

[2] 2005. évi CXXXIX. törvény a felsőoktatásról. [ACT CXXXIX OF 2005 ON HIGHER EDUCATION] http://www.complex.hu/kzldat/t0500139.htm/t0500139.htm.

qualifications, thus it is possible for any graduates to obtain teacher qualification to their profession (eg. medical, legal) and teach their subjects. (Sági & Varga, 2011).

Debates surrounded teacher education

This new teacher training system is surrounded debates since its introduction. From the BA level, the students step out of the labor market, do not continue their studies at a higher level, a part of students change their mind during the initial training period, and choose another, non-teaching major at MA level. Thus, there is a strengthening students contra-selection like in the earlier period, and can be observed the low number of candidates in case of natural science courses, which forecasts the nightmares of serious teacher shortage in near future. Due to this phenomenon, the removal of the whole teacher education out of the Bologna system is recommended to remedy the decline interest in natural sciences by professionals of natural sciences. Other parts of two level teacher training provides reasons to debates. The main questionable area is the lack of quality skills, opponents say it is only a paper. And the same time there are some turmoil, which ensue from the extreme-paced growing enrollments and the simultaneous rapid structural changes (Soósné Faragó, 2010).

It has been going on a duel of the teacher training pedagogical-psychological and so-called professional components for long time (at both the instructors and at the level of accreditation bodies, who assess the training programs) (see Chapter 7).

The proponents of Bologna-based teacher training exactly argue that due to the teacher education is pushed to master level – the selection of pushing out a later age – the really zealous young people will apply, they appear only in the training. The latter are referred to many students participated the former, traditional university-level teacher training, who had known at the time of application or a short time after their admissions, do not want to have a job as a teacher. The "half-majored" form of training is many criticized as well. Opponents argue that it can occur that a school cannot provide the appropriate number of lessons for "rare" majored teachers, even in case of the two or three majored teachers. Another advantage of two cycle training program is that it can be serve as a parking place for unemployed people. Furthermore, it is proper to the jobs of required lower qualification needs, it can lead to decreasing of unemployment rate, thus it is a quality and financial improvement from this view-point (Sági & Varga, 2011).

Institutional system and financing of Hungarian teacher education

The teacher training in Hungary is characterized by considerable institutional fragmentation: in the middle of the 2000s 16 of 18 state universities, 10 of 13 state college continue teacher training. In these institutions study the 85% of the teacher candidates. In addition, two of five religious universities, in 3 of 22 religious college, 2 of 13 voluntary and private higher education institutions are going on teacher training programs. There are some institutions where occurs only one or two teacher training programs, but there are also some (typically universities of science), where 25 to 30 teacher majors (2006) (Nagy & Varga, 2006).

According to the application rate of the first two years, the first-place applications were more than 4000 who applied for any of teacher training programs. In the third most popular faculty were two college teacher training institution. Applications of 2008 and 2009 were already practicing teachers mostly. Half of them came from the 30–50 years old age groups. Because of this, the part time training was the dominant, 81% which was chosen by them (Brezsnyánszky, 2009, p. 345).

To the good quality of teacher training need some changes in financial conditions and the admission quotas need to be reduced, according to the professionals. Teacher education is a relatively low-cost form of higher education, makes up 32 % of all public training programs, and 30 % of the total training costs.(2004) (Kárpáti, 2008).

The main source of covering the costs (training and maintenance facility) is the normative financial system. The introduced legislation in 1996 was an additional normative paid for teacher training. In 1998, however, this additional source was ceased. The under-paid of training institutions has been little changed of years. The limited financing causes the cheaper solutions in the institutions: the large number of lectures will be cheaper in the small group seminars. Some of the important services need to be improved: the accessibility of digital educational materials, state of the art e-learning environment, software-based digital portfolio assessment (Kárpáti, 2008).

The main change related to higher education financing in the next few years was the training areas of the normative financial system had been continually transforming. The Higher Education Act of 2005 – which came into force in 2006 –, essentially determine the same elements of financing of higher education, based on the evolved practices of 2004–2005: training, scientific, and maintainers' aids and aid for each task (and student aid).

The newest Higher Education Act (2011)[3] determines the higher education financial system in the following way. The maintainers' aid for work of the higher education institutions. The Annual Budget Act determines the aid for higher education by the state. The system of this aid is determined by the Government. It can be given aid for the institutions of higher education by tenders and agreements. The aims to this aid: Providing the benefits for students; the training activities, scientific development; maintenance tasks; student sport; specific tasks for higher education, and financing of related institutions which is operating as public services: clinics, schools for teacher practices, other places for practices, libraries, archives, botanical gardens, farms. In shortly, in the support of whole higher education will be a one-fifth reduction through withdrawal 35 billion HUF in the next three years. These changes concern the teacher training system as well.

The new Act is transforming the student financing, there will be three type of student financing: state financed, part financed student and non-financed student who have to pay for own their study. Who chose the financed studies by the state, they have to make a contract, in which they declare that after their graduation they have to work two times of their study time in Hungary in the next twenty years. If they do not proceed in this way, they have to pay back the whole cost of their studies. The rates of non-financed quotas significant differ to the earlier years, the number of non-financed quotas are salient. For help the participations of teacher education, the Government created a scholarship which is seen as a motivation to obtain teacher qualification.[4]

The near future

October 4th, 2012 became public the new regulation about the teacher training in Hungary.[5] The new regulation – with reference to the Act CCIV of 2011 on National Higher Education – defines two types of teacher education: primary school teacher training for a 4+1 year period in case of two major, as well as a secondary school teacher training, with a duration of 5 + 1 years. In both cases, the last year for public education or adult education institute conducted a so-called "individual teaching practice" year. Worth to note that the developers of a new training concept

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3 2011. CCIV. 2011. évi CCIV. Törvény a nemzeti felsőoktatásról [Act CCIV of 2011 on National Higher Education] http://jogszabalykereso.mhk.hu/cgi_bin/njt_doc.cgi?docid=143567.581269.

4 Új ösztöndíj az osztatlan tanárképzésben résztvevőknek [New scholarship for participants in teacher education (2013) http://www.felvi.hu/felveteli/jelentkezes/aktualis/klebersberg_kepzesi_osztondij.

5 283/2012. (X. 4.) Korm. rendelet. a tanárképzés rendszeréről, a szakosodás rendjéről és a tanárszakok jegyzékéről [Governmental decree on the system of teacher training, the order of the specialization and teacher training courses list]

held individual school practice, and even raised from a half year to one year in duration (Pukánszky, 2012).

The new regulation transformed content of teacher education. The teacher preparation makes up 100 credits, 50 credits are the personal teaching practice of this. This 50 credits adds up to 40 credits and 8 credits on related tasks to the practice (4 credits pedagogy, 2x2 credits methodology), 28 credits pedagogy-psychology, 2x8 credits methodology, teaching practice 2x2 credits. Accomplishment of 30 credits is compulsory in each semester, these 8 credits, portfolio 2 credits. The new element of teacher preparation is the community practice, which is the prerequisite of the practice.[6]

Educational policy aspects of Polish teacher education – Teacher's educational system in the People's Republic of Poland

In case of Poland the situation is quite different. After the educational system reform of 1961, concept works were initiated that were aimed at changing the way of preparing teachers. As a consequence, in 1966 the recruitment to pedagogical secondary schools was suspended. Furthermore, two consecutive Higher Teacher Education Schools (WSP, Słupsk – 1962, Rzeszów – 1965) were established and since 1968, 7 three-years Teachers' Colleges (WSN) operating as first-level higher education establishments were brought into existence on the basis of Teacher Training College. They did not have a character of academic establishments; their aim was to prepare teachers for elementary schools or – upon supplementing education at two-year master's studies – for secondary schools (Krawcewicz, 1974, p. 49).

In compliance with provisions of the Act – Charter of Teachers' Rights and Duties (Ustawa z dnia 27 kwietnia 1972 roku) on educating teachers at a higher (master) level at the beginning of the 70s of a previous century, Teachers' Colleges (WSN) were transformed into Higher Teacher Education Schools (WSP). They changed educational system into two-levelled one: three-year vocational studies and then, two-year master's studies. In the years 1973-1974 several new establishments of this type were set up and uniform, four-years master's studies were introduced in all WSPs. Simultaneously, WSPs with longer traditions were incorporated into universities (Warsaw) or new universities were established on the grounds thereof (Gdańsk – 1970, Katowice – 1968, Szczecin – 1985).

[6] 8/2013. (I. 30.) EMMI rendelet a tanári felkészítés közös követelményeiről és az egyes tanárszakok képzési és kimeneti követelményeiről [Ministry of Human Resources' decree on the common requirements of teacher training and the requirements of each training and outcome]

Teacher Training College (SN), partly liquidated and partly transformed into higher teachers studies in 1970, was brought into existence again in the years of another demographic explosion, i.e. at the beginning of the 80s, in the 20th century (Podstawowe informacje, p. 4). In the years 1984-1992, on the basis of eight-year elementary school, a six-year education cycle ending with a matura exam was introduced for pre-school teachers-to-be. Secondary schools' graduates could obtain a teacher training collage's degree in the years 1984-1994 as a result of two-years educational cycle (three-years at weekend studies) – that was preparing early-years education, physical education, arts, music and design and technology teachers-to-be in elementary schools (Jung-Miklaszewska, 2003).

Until 1995, that is after the system changed, Pedagogical Technical Studies (PST) were still operating. They were preparing to work as a teacher of practical aspects of a given profession. Education was conducted in four-year cycle on the basis of a basic vocational school (graduates were passing a matura exam and then, they were obtaining a job title of an engineer) or two years – for vocational secondary schools' graduates; the latter ended their activity earlier, that is in 1993 (Kautz, 2011, p. 190).

Teacher's educational system in the Third Republic of Poland

Political, social and economic changes after the year 1989 connected with regaining full independence and changing the system from a so-called people's democracy to a free trade capitalist system required a reform of a whole educational system, also at a level of higher education. Therefore, it was also necessary to introduce changes in the teachers' educational system. It was also connected with Poland signing the Bologna Declaration in 1999 (Zdański, 2005, p. 15) and adjusting both, education and the scope of teacher's professional competences to the ones required in European Union's states (Wiłkomirska, 2007).

In the Third Republic of Poland not only reforms of educational system were conducted, but also the youth's educational aspirations increased and as a consequence, the number of students rose greatly. In an academic year 1990/91 there were 403 thousand of them, whereas, in the year 2007/08 – 1,937 thousand. It was accompanied by an unprecedented increase in the number of establishments: in the year 1992/93 there were 124 of them, and in the year 2010/11 – 470, including, respectively, 18 and 338 private ones. 12% of a total number of students were studying at pedagogical faculties, in over 120 establishments (Dane statystyczne, 2012). As a consequence, in the 90s of the 20th century, the (formal) level of teachers' education also significantly increased. In the year 1992/93 only 58.2% of them had higher education, whereas, in 2000, as many as 84.4% of teachers possessed a degree of a higher education establishment. In 2000, 6-years transitional

period for improving qualifications was established for teachers not having higher education and as a result, as of 2009, 97% of teachers had higher education. It was accompanied with a decrease in the number of teachers who finished SN, SWP, SNP and PST– to 1% in 2009, as well as the ones with post-secondary school and post-matura education – to 1.1%. Graduates of teacher training colleges or foreign languages teachers training colleges described below constituted approximately 0.6% of total amount of teachers (Nauczyciele, 2012).

After 1989, teachers' education in Poland was conducted in establishments described previously, such as: Pedagogical Technical College, Teacher Training College and Higher Teacher Education Schools, as well as in universities and other higher educational institutions. However, after few years, two first types of establishments were closed. The number of higher schools in Poland increased over three and a half times, which was accompanied with the increase in the WSP's status, some which were transformed into Pedagogical Academies or universities (among others, in 1994, Opole University was established). Since 1992, Teachers Training Colleges and Foreign Languages Teachers Training Colleges were being established and in the year 2010/11 there were 103 of them in total (Organizacja i finansowanie, 2012. p. 50). Their activity is being extinguished and last students will graduate from them in 2014.

Teachers Training College is a name applied with respect to units subject to the Ministry of National Education (and not to the Ministry of Science and Higher Education) that have been established since 1992 (Ustawa z dnia 7 września 1991 roku), where the educational cycle ended with a diploma exam or – if such was a student's decision - also with a bachelor exam in a higher education establishment. During three-years of free education, their task was to prepare teachers-to-be and professionally active pre-schools' teachers, elementary schools' teachers and other educational and upbringing institutions' teachers. Similar principles of operation applied to Foreign Languages Teacher Training Colleges (NKJO) – institutions that since 1990 have been preparing foreign languages teachers (above all, English, German and French) to work in elementary schools, lower-secondary schools and educational high schools (Rozporządzenie MEN z dnia 10 września 2002 roku).

Education in KN and NKJO is provided pursuant to teachers' educational standards (Rozporządzenie MEN z dnia 30 czerwca 2006), including: a) training within the scope of substantive preparation to teach a foreign language (foreign language practical training – at least 1,080 hours and philological subjects), b) pedagogical preparation – at least 360 hours, c) classes within the scope of other foreign language. Students are also obliged to do 150 hours of pedagogical practices, consisting of 105 hours of observation and 45 hours of conducting classes (Chołodowska, 2008, p. 4).

Already at the moment of establishing these institutions, it was assumed that they were going to have a transitional character connected with the necessity to supplement a temporary shortage of teaching personnel – primarily, foreign languages' teachers (which was greatly connected with a massive resignation from teaching Russian at schools of all levels to the benefit of western languages). A fundamental condition that had to be met in order to establish a college was a provision of scientific-didactic personnel in a higher school offering studies at teaching faculties. The patronage of the establishment included signing a contract regulating curriculum requirements, the mode of giving a bachelor title and conditions for continuing studies at a master's level in a given establishment. Since 1 October 2009 no more colleges have been established and last recruitment for previously existing took place in 2011. In 2014, education at colleges, which until that day shall be incorporated into the higher education system as a result of transformation or incorporation into the higher schools' structure, shall be extinguished (Kształcenie w kolegiach, 2009).

An increase in the requirements regarding teachers' qualifications (in Poland, there are neither certificates, nor exams that allow acting as a teacher) was reflected in the Minister of National Education and Sport's resolution of 7 September 2004. It stipulates that teachers' education can be provided for by higher schools within teaching specialisation at vocational studies, uniform master's studies, complementary master's studies and post-graduate studies, which amounted up to 458 in the year 2010/11 (Organizacja i finansowanie, 2012, p. 50). This provision was confirmed in the Teachers' Charter (Ustawa z dnia 26 stycznia 1982 roku), where under chapter 3, Article 9.1, point 1) it was stated that a teaching post can be occupied by a person, who: "has higher education with a proper pedagogical preparation or who has graduated from a teachers' training establishment and starts working at a position for which these qualifications are satisfactory".

Teacher's education at higher schools after the year 1989

After the year 1989, in Poland legal acts regulating teachers' education at higher schools were amended and supplemented numerous times. That is why, in the following part of the article the emphasis shall be put on teachers' professional preparation in the 21st century.

The Act of 27 July 2005 – Law on Higher Education (Ustawa z dnia 27 lipca 2005 roku) is a primary act regulating education in higher schools. Pursuant to this act, in Poland there are first level studies (bachelor or engineering), second level studies (complementary masters' studies) and uniform masters' studies, as well as doctorate studies and post-graduate studies. Whereas, there are two organisational forms of studies: full-time and part-time.

Teachers' education in higher schools is conducted on the basis of studies' plans and curricula that are passed by a council of a basic organisational unit running given faculty. Pursuant to Article 4a, section 2, point 4 the Act of 12 September 1990 r. on Higher Education (Ustawa z dnia 12 września 1990 roku) teachers' educational standards were defined in the Minister of National Education and Sport's resolution of 7 September 2004 (Rozporządzenie MENiS z dnia 7 września 2004 r) that replaced the only one year older Resolution of 23 September 2003. The implementation of an obligatory provision of vocational studies within two teaching specialisations – main and additional constituted a significant amendment in relation to previous solutions. Masters' studies – uniform or complementary – could be conducted within one or two specialisations (Zielińska, 2007, pp. 142–143).

In the aforementioned resolutions, groups of subjects, a minimal amount of hours for particular levels of studies and educational content for particular subjects provided for at studies were specified with regard to a teaching specialisation. Formal requirements, including educational standards for particular faculties, stipulated by the Ministry of National Education's Resolution of 18 April 2002 (Rozporządzenie MEN z dnia 18 kwietnia 2002 roku) were replaced with the Ministry of Science and Higher Education's Resolution of 12 July 2007r. (Rozporządzenie MNiSW z dnia 12 lipca 2007 roku). It obliged supplementing education within faculty with indicated pedagogical preparation subjects, education within information technology and foreign language as well as pedagogical practices. Taking requirements included in standards into consideration was aimed at providing a teaching specialisation's graduate with – apart from substantive knowledge – professional qualifications and preparation to teach a particular subject.

Graduates of teaching specialisation at first level studies obtained qualifications to teach in elementary schools and lower-secondary schools. Pursuant to Article 8, section 5 of the Law on Higher Education – they should be prepared to teach two subjects: main and additional (usually in similar areas). Masters' studies both, uniform and complementary could be conducted within one or two teaching specialisations. They also gave the rights to teach in secondary schools.

Pursuant to Article 8, section 6 of the Law on Higher Education, establishments could also educate teachers at post-graduate studies within the scope connected with offered faculties. Three educational scopes at post-graduate studies were enumerated: a) substantive preparation to teach a given subject, b) pedagogical preparation, c) preparation to work in special schools and special institutions.

The Institute of Public Affairs' researches, experts' and schools' headmasters' opinions indicated numerous shortages in professional preparation of teachers starting their career (Nauczyciele, 2012, p. 191; Wiłkomirska, 2005). They

were confirmed with the Supreme Audit Office's (NIK) researches from 2011, which proved numerous infringements on the part of establishments within the scope of teachers' education. It mainly referred to not complying with required number of hours and bad organisation of practices (Organizacja i finansowanie, 2012. 1, p. 14). Students surveyed by NIK drew attention to a not enough amount of practices and practical classes, a not enough amount of hours within psychological-pedagogical preparation, subject's methodology and voice emission (ibid., 13).

On 17 January 2012, a new Resolution of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education on educational standards for teachers-to-be professional preparation (Rozporządzenie MNiSW z dnia 17 stycznia 2012 roku) was announced. It specifies general as well as specific educational effects (concerning knowledge, skills, social competences, foreign languages and information technology knowledge, voice emission and health and safety at work). Furthermore, it presents a description of a process and organisation of education preparing to perform the profession of a teacher. This education was divided into five modules that shall be implemented at studies and post-graduate studies. The implementation of each module is to provide the same educational effects irrespectively of the type of studies.

First level studies are to prepare exclusively to act as a pre-school and elementary school teacher. Substantive preparation to perform the profession of a pre-school teacher and a teacher for grades 1-3 in elementary schools (1st educational stage) is realised at studies within the scope of pedagogy. 2nd level studies and uniform masters' studies are to entitle to take up a job at all types of schools and educational institutions.

First three modules are obligatory for all teachers-to-be. Module 1 includes substantive preparation to teach first subject – pursuant to the description of educational effects for realised faculty (with hours of classes attributed to the faculty and ECTS points). Module 2 is to provide for psychological-pedagogical preparation: general in the amount of 90 hours, to teach at a given educational stage – 60 hours and practices – 30 hours (in total 10 ECTS points). Module 3 includes didactical preparation, including didactics' basics – 30 hours, subject's didactics at a given educational stage – 90 hours and practices – 90 hours (15 ECTS). Modules 2 and 3 should be realised during at least three semesters, whereas, module 3 must be realised after completing module 2.

Two remaining modules are of an optional character. Module 4 completion gives students or graduates of studies preparing to work as a teacher rights to teach second subject, this module includes preparation within the substantive scope (as in module 1), subject's didactics – 60 hours and practices – 60 hours (10–15 ECTS). Furthermore, module 5 can be realised either after module 3 is completed, or simultaneously. It provides students or graduates of studies preparing to work as a

teacher, with education within the scope of a special pedagogy. It allows obtaining competences necessary to teach a specific subject in pre-schools, schools and special or integrated institutions within the scope relevant as to the preparation obtained during the realisation of modules 1, 2 and 3, in compliance with the type of students' disability or social maladjustment (one specialisation should be chosen out of: education and rehabilitation of persons with intellectual disability, the blind education, the deaf education, medical pedagogy or resocialization and sociotherapy). This module includes special psychological-pedagogical preparation - 140 hours, special didactics – 90 hours and practices – 120 hours, which corresponds with 25 ECTS points (Rozporządzenie MNiSW z dnia 17 stycznia 2012 roku, p. II-1 and 3).

Preparation to act as a teacher shall be also conducted within post-graduate studies. Module 4 completion shall give teachers the right to conduct classes from another subject. Graduates of studies providing for substantive preparation to teach a subject, who do not have a psychological-pedagogical and didactical preparation, can obtain the right so work as a teacher after completing modules 2 and 3. However, if they have only completed first level studies, then, they can only work in pre-schools and elementary schools. As far as module 5 is concerned, its completion allows teachers to obtain rights within special pedagogy (ibid., p. II-2 and 3).

Propositions for teachers' educational standards finally introduced in 2012 were strongly criticised at a draft level. It was indicated that the resolution draft is an example of a lack of awareness with regard to the essence and characteristic features of a teaching profession and that teachers' education takes place to some extend "by the way" of studying at a "proper" faculty. The following issues were underlined: a lack of care to provide for a high quality of education and focus on teaching visible in the provisions, not noticing the relation between preparing a teacher and the European Union's policy on establishing a European Education Area as well as lifelong learning and the way it works (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2011). Attention was drawn to a gap between teachers' education and requirements of a modern pedagogy, bureaucracy of standards, chaotic and incoherent assumptions and terminology, as well as to the domination of adaptation and reproductive purposes. The following issues were underlined in more details: strengthening a traditional didactical model, a gap between teachers' education and sociology and its narrow practical aspect, marginalization of care competences and deformation of social competences, omitting issues concerning the individualisation of an educational process (Klus-Stańska, 2011). In the resolution's proposal, the following issues were evident: a lack of clearly defined grounds within theoretical principles or even indication of required literature sources, atomisation of teachers' educational curriculum contents, as well as lowering the amount of hours devoted to

psychological-pedagogical education (Kwiatkowska, 2011). As a result, even propositions of new teachers' education conceptions appeared (Pawlak, 2011). A majority of these comments were not taken into consideration, or they were considered to much too little extent, which raises many doubts (Wypych-Stasiewicz, 2012).

Conclusion

In Poland, after the Second World War a separate model, which separates a research function characteristic for academic establishments from teachers' professional preparation in a form of a block of psychological-pedagogical subjects (commonly optional) was considered to be an optimal educational model. Sometimes, it lead to attempts to eliminate the latter from studies' curricula as well as to limiting the possibility to undertake and draw up diploma projects (bachelor, master) regarding subjects' didactics. Furthermore, students not always chose a teaching profession consciously, since they just wanted to obtain additional entitlements at a relatively small cost and, at the same time, to increase their prospective chances of finding a job. Moreover, demographic and economic conditions caused frequent deviations from this model, including teachers' education at a level of secondary schools. Since 2012, in Poland new provisions regulating teachers' education are binding. However, more comprehensive assessment of their functioning shall be only possible in few years.

By the observed changes in the development of teacher education over the last two decades in Hungary, suggest that this area is an important part of education policy-making. Teacher education is a complex area that is closely related to public education and its changes of content, and the same time also affects a significant part of the higher education, so the development of optimal working is determined by a number of factors. The educational policy makers are striving to maintain a balance between both the international and quality improvement, but sometimes the quality is more important by making decisions. How it will work the newest teacher training in individed form? This question can be answered depending on the experience of the next 6–7 years.

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Curricula and values in teacher training in Slovakia, Hungary and Czech Republic

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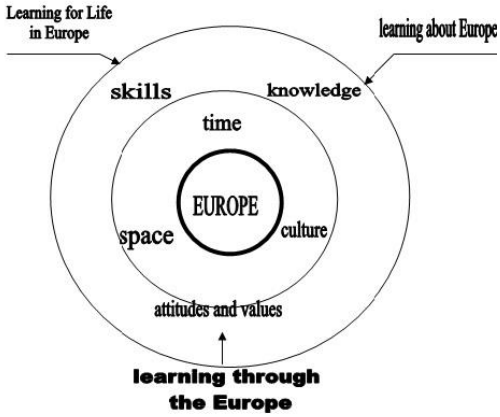
Situation in Slovakia and influence of the European Union

Teacher training in Slovakia as a member of European Union is mostly influenced by the European tendencies. The European values are inserted on the base of explanation of European dimension of understanding of Europe, as an association of time, space and culture and explanation of the context (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Europe as a complex of time, space, culture, and explanation of context



Source: Shennan, 1991, p. 27.

The main directions of the realisation of European dimension in education according to Jablonský, Matúšová, Kolibová (2012) is believed as the teaching about Europe, from Europe and for Europe. In the teaching process, not only the importance of knowledge is emphasised, but also of experience, comparison, critical evaluation, interaction and dialogue, standpoints and values, as well as culture in the European environment. The issue of European dimension in curricula and in the teacher training is included into the following educational fields.

Language and communication. This educational field develops the key competences for language communication, a more open approach to people; it enables mobility, study and work at home as well as in EU member states.

Human being and the society. This educational field is aimed at historical, geographic and social processes and phenomenon of life and world, past of one's nation and nations in Europe and the world, natural and social characteristics of one's own homeland and its regions. Content of the educational field is realized in the subjects such as History, Geography and Civics.

Arts and culture. This educational field develops subconscious parts of one's own identity, one's own cultural and historical conscience, respect of other cultures´ values, differences of various parts of culture (art, science, religion, sport) and their importance in the life of an individuality and the society. Content of this educational field is realised in the subject of arts and culture.

Human being and values. This educational field is concerned with building and cultivation of spiritual, mental and social aspect of young people, it supports their value orientation, respects of the individual, nature, pro-social attitude, social norms, attitudes and all-human values. Content of this educational field is realised in the subjects of Religious education[1] and psychological - social training.[2]

Multicultural education. Represents a cross-sectional topic, which reacts to the process of globalisation of the world and migration, therefore it supports acceptance of other cultures, mutual tolerance, cooperation, expression of various cultures and self-expression of their members. Content of this cross-sectional topic is included in the subject of History, Geography, Ethical education, and mostly in arts and culture, and partially in Mathematics (numeral sets) and Biology.

Implementing of Bologna system to teacher training in Slovakia from the academic year 2004/05

The years 2004 and 2005 were very important years for inserting of three stage Bologna university study programmes. Non-compulsory bachelor study was possible also in Czechoslovakia since 1990 and existence of shorter master study from 1996 in Slovak Republic. Up to 2004 these two kinds of university studies were not compulsory, but since 1. September 2005 there were only bachelor and magister study programmes in the teacher education.

The teacher training programmes of different school subjects in Slovakia are carried out 3 bachelor and study programmes[3]: Teacher training of academic subjects; Teacher training of professional subjects and practical preparing; Teacher training of art-educational subjects.

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1 Both are compulsory subjects
2 Compulsory subject
3 See www.akredkom.sk

Pre-primary and primary education which is in the field of study programme Pre-school and elementary Pedagogy is very complicated. Bachelor study programme is a combination of professional study with practical preparing for teaching in kindergarten, pedagogical assistant, lecturers in school clubs and also academic study with theoretical preparing for continuation in master study of teacher training of primary education or pre-school Pedagogy.

The compulsory structured teacher training programme has a negative value by academic community, for example the student of bachelor study of teacher training of secondary schools do not have any access for working in schools. The positions for this type of study are not created for lack of finance in Slovakia (teacher's assistant, pedagogical worker for school circles, school administrative-methodical worker, school library, school computer network, etc.)

Bachelor study programme has the name teacher training, but it does not bring the students the qualifications to be a teacher. Only the absolvent of magister study can be a teacher at primary and secondary school. Profile teacher subjects-subject didactics and practise was given into the magister study programme.

For this reason the tendency in future according the bad experience with divided bachelor and magister teacher training study programmes is return to non-structured connected teacher training not divided in bachelor and magister stage.

Proposes in improving of the teacher training

There is proposal in the study "Transformácia vysokoškolského vzdelávania učiteľov v kontexte reformy regionálneho školstva"[4] (Transformation of teacher education in the context of reform of the regional schooling) following proposals of the structure of teacher education. Primary and pre-primary educations stay to be included into Pre-school and Elementary Pedagogy, but there are proposed following opportunities: (1) Connect bachelor and master study into the standard length 5 year (Magister study); (2) 2-years magister study (for students, who have similar or different bachelor programme, is possible to propose 3-year magister programme). Teacher education for secondary schools is possible to organize in following ways: (1) Connect bachelor and magister study in standard length 5 year (Magister study) with two subject specializations; (2) Connect bachelor and magister study in standard length 4-5 year (Magister study) with one subject specialization for primary and secondary level and for vocational subjects; (3) 2-years magister programme with one subject specialization (for bachelor and magister students with

[4] Transformácia vysokoškolského vzdelávania učiteľov v kontexte reformy regionálneho školstva, Rozvojový projekt Ministerstva školstva, vedy, výskumu a športu SR. Retrieved from http://www.minedu.sk/data/att/1903.pdf

finished non-teacher similar study programme), (4) 3-years magister programme with one subject specialization (for bachelor and magister students with finished non-teacher study programme in the group 1.1 Education).

Situation in Hungary

Teacher-training has a different meaning in Hungary than in other countries. It does not contain the training of kindergarten-teachers and those primary-school teachers who are specialized in the teaching of 1–4 (or later 1–6) formers. The naming in Hungary refers to educators who teach subjects based on special studies and teachers who work in vocational education.

The content and requirements have been "tossing" in a dual-poled field since the change in the political situation (change of regime) in Hungary. On the one hand, the teacher-training was criticized that it did not train the participants for their teaching practice well. On the other hand, teachers or to be more precise the trainees' professional knowledge (i.e. knowledge related or in connection with the trainee's special field of studies) is weak. Throughout this critical axis a movement of the training contents from one direction to another depended on the abilities and actual interests of professional lobbyists'. This approach simplifies the actual situation since a lot of other factors influence the curriculum of teacher-training but the determined changes were decided in the "battle" of special studies/sciences and practical-training.

Curriculum of the Teacher-training in the Bologna-system

The Hungarian teacher-training was changed over to the Bologna-system by the 15/2006. regulation of the Ministry of Education with introducing the BA/BSc (3 years) + MA/MSc (2 years) structure. The change caused problems in the formal educational organization of teacher-training, although it did not have a negative effect on the contents of the training.

The new structure of teacher-training tried to balance between the traditions of Hungarian public education (suitable for teachers specialized in two subjects) and one of the basic points of the Bologna idea which is academic freedom. The result of this was widely criticized: students could not apply for teacher-training programs directly, because first they had to choose a BA/BSc (undergraduate) program and then choose a second subject from the third semester only which was called "teacher minor" (that they could study for only two years, one year less than their major). They could only be qualified teachers after finishing their MA studies while they had to attend more lessons on their former minor. This way the number of credits they had to fulfill was kind of balanced till the end of the master program (graduate).

Despite of this, those who are concerned in teacher-training feel that trainees' knowledge on their former minor is weaker than their major.

Some strategic innovations were introduced by the new system of education, all of them inducted major changes in the curriculum. Teacher-training became unified. Teaching qualification could be gained only after graduating from an MA program in one of the institutions of higher education. This led to the end of the separated way of training primary- and secondary-school teachers. All MA in teacher-training programs qualified trainees for teaching from 5 formers to secondary school-leavers. The training lasted for 11 semesters out of which the last term is a continuous teaching practice, which trainees can do in an institution of public education and with the help of a mentor-teacher and they can practice the whole process of school work. A portfolio was introduced as part of the practice in order to form development and self-reflection, this way the forming of teacher's behavior. The discussion and qualification of this material is part of the teacher-training's final examination. The thesis (teaching diploma) is a new element as well, which can be written only in the field of pedagogy that is linked to the school practice (earlier trainees could write their thesis papers on topics related more to disciplinary studies with a few connections to methodology). The training indicates the contents basically adjusting to the international standards of the teachers' competences and systems.

In the Bologna-system of teacher-training the pedagogical-psychological-methodological and practical trainings appeared on an unprecedented scale in Hungarian teacher education. Throughout the eleven semesters the trainees have to fulfill fifteen credits from the "teaching module" of the training and the continuous teaching practice in the last semester worth 30 credits. This way the amount of credits of the pedagogical-psychological module trainees have to fulfill had doubled not mentioning the teaching practice in the very last term.

The training institutions had the freedom to define the curricular frameworks if they could secure the appropriate development of teachers' competences which was determined in the training and outcome requirements. This resulted in a colorful range of subject systems and the training institutions of higher education formed a diverse teacher-preparing system.

The curriculum of the Bologna-system of teacher training consisted of the same parts just as the previous system however their connection to each other and their proportion within the training is different.

1. Pedagogical-psychological and practical knowledge. There are 10 credits during the six semesters of the BA program, contains professional self-knowledge, career motivation and communication development, history of education, social background of education, basic knowledge of the teaching profession. This

module is usually known as a career guidance module, which contains predominantly practical courses. Furthermore, there are 40 credits during the five semesters of the MA program, provides all the theoretical and practical background knowledge that is related to school work and the teaching profession. It consists of 21 psychological and pedagogical related fields of knowledge, dealing with the development of the teacher's self and the planning, organizing and evaluating of the process of teaching and learning, the social context of education and the national and European dimensions of it. This module is "the heart" of the Bologna curriculum, at least from the point of view of the training institutions.

2. Methodology that is ranked to the disciplinary training of the specialized field by the law. This means 7 credits by fields (majors), containing 2-3 courses. Within this frame, institutions have to solve the training of methodology, but the training of the whole planning process, the usage of the subject's infrastructure and equipment, the specific features of differentiated improvement, and the way how to form the development of teacher's self and how to make professional connections.
3. Teaching practice (three types are mentioned by the system). First, visiting schools, lessons, micro-teachings and other activities that aim to become acquainted with the pupils (mostly pedagogical-psychological activities), conflict-solving. These are usually related to a pedagogical or psychological course and mean a kind of a practice trainees can do within the university or in a practice school. Second, school-based teaching practice, while the trainees have to fulfill a 60-hour-long practice from both their subjects and contains a minimum of 15 individually taught lessons per subject. The rest part of the practice consists of visiting lessons, discussion of the lessons visited and other activities related to the special field of the subject the trainees are teaching. This kind of practice is done in training schools of the university. Third, continuous teaching practice in the last term. This is one of the most important parts of the Bologna-system of teacher training, which basically aims to prevent or at least decrease the (as according to scientific works/publications) so-called "praxis shock" of the beginner teachers. During the school-based practice the trainees besides teaching their two subjects with the help of their mentor teachers "taste" the whole pedagogical task system and can experience some extra-curricular activities such as study circles, holidays and celebrations, school trips, lessons with the form-teacher, teachers' working team, child protection, quality assurance and free-time activities. Apart from these, administration and organization are part of their practice as well. Besides, the integral part of the traineeship consists of meetings with representatives of professional

organizations, getting know their work and joining their everyday activities. During the continuous practice the trainees spend the major part of their time in the practice schools, but once a week or once in every two weeks they have to attend a follow-up seminar. This course is a kind of a group supervision, which gives an opportunity to trainees to share their experience and ideas with each other, to process and make things conscious and if it is necessary to ask their teachers and fellow-trainees for help.

Is teacher education practice-oriented?

The task of the MA in teacher training program is not limited to the training itself but it has to mediate the values linked to the teacher's role for the future teachers. These values are determined explicitly by the training programs as well. The majority of these are listed among those teaching competences that must be acquired. The teacher has to mediate the most important human and social values (democratic social values, special national traditions, European cultural and universal human values). The significance of cooperation, conflict-management, tolerance and empathy are repeatedly emphasized and the mediation of these values needs the teacher's personal example as well. The improving of sensibility of pre-service teachers concerning values is a task of the whole training process, but there are some specific seminars where the personality development is strongly emphasized (e.g. The Personality Development of the Teacher Candidate, Introduction to Education). We state that practice-based teacher education facilitates effectiveness of improving, because these values mean more than applicable theoretical knowledge.

On 15 November 2007 The European Council and the representatives of the member states accepted resolutions in accordance with the Lisbon Strategy (Ferenczi, 2004; Halász, 2002) to improve the quality of teacher education. The document reflects the realization, that teachers play a key role in becoming "the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth, with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion" (http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2007:300:0001:0002:EN:PDF)

Teaching, as described in the document, provides a service. The aim of this service is to help people realise their potential, develop individual skills and acquire key competencies which are necessary for a successful life. Well prepared teachers play a key role in this process. The document also emphasises the teachers' ability to manage the heterogeneity of students and problems arising from social differences. "Numerous social, cultural, economic and technological changes in society place new demands on the teaching profession and hasten the need for the development of

more competence-centred approaches to teaching, together with a greater emphasis on learning outcomes."[5]

The OECD TALIS 2007 research showed that teachers also feel that they have deficiencies in this area. The data also illustrates that cooperation among colleagues is absent from the Hungarian teachers' professional culture (Sági & Ercsei).

Research also shows that teaching methods are mostly influenced by the teachers' own experiences of the learning environment; by the way they had been taught (Golnhofer & Nahalka, 2001). If teachers are educated with a text book-centred approach, they will in turn use the same method to teach their students. The teachers' competence-centred approach can only develop if their training is conducted in this manner. It is a psychological fact that skills are only able to develop during an activity related to the given skill.

Teaching competencies should be improved during the training period, so that teachers could work at the highest efficiency even at the beginning of their carrier. In order to be able to achieve this, teacher education would need to be reformed to include greater student independence along with activities and learning methods requiring participation and cooperation. There is theoretical and research background available for the above proposal (ie. Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

Teacher education in Hungary has taken steps in this direction. Competency based approaches exist in the training and exam requirements; however these are not equally accented in the different subjects (Kotschy, 2011).

In the Bologna Process, the number of pedagogy, psychology and methodology practical classes and seminars has increased (e.g. "Introduction to Education", "The Personality Development of the Teacher Candidate"). It seems that these opportunities have not been fully explored, as at these seminars 'traditional' education took place. At most teacher training institutions the introduction of reforms has been attempted. These attempts show the personal dedication of the teacher only and are not indicators of the general direction of education at the given school (Kovács, 2011).

In the teacher education system, which is now not part of the Bologna Process, the amount of teaching practice has increased. However at the same time the number of disciplinary classes has also increased. It is important to ask if there is a methodological renewal taking place in teacher education, which enables experimental learning, the forming of views and the development of competencies.

[5] http://www.nefmi.gov.hu/europai-unio-oktatas/pedagogus-politika/tanarkepzes-080123

The post-Bologna system of teacher training

The teacher-training program which is going to be introduced from 2013 is trying to solve the errors of the Bologna-system with the total change of it and keeping its advantages. In the teacher-training the undivided (continuous) pre-Bologna system will be re-introduced, however the students will have the right at the end of the sixth semester to decide whether they choose the 4 year-long training (path) or the 5 year-long one. We do not have practical experience so far, we are familiar with the legal background only, but some essential differences transform the teacher-training curriculum (see the Training Program of the University of Debrecen: http://www.unideb.hu/portal/hu/node/3185).

The most important differences are the following. The four-year-long training of primary school teachers and the five-year-long training of secondary school teachers will be restored. The applicants will be accepted for a training that makes them specialized in two subjects. The psychological-pedagogical training will be halved, the university training will be 24–28 credits, but because of the undivided training this will be appear in the very beginning of the training and will be distributed equally. At the same time, the methodological training is somewhat bigger in amount, 8 credits per subject, and there is a major change in the approach that this system considers the methodology as part of the pedagogical-psychological module. The continuous school-based practice will be increased for 2 semesters, which serves the practice-oriented training.

The basic objective of teacher-training is the system of teachers' competences in the future as well. It is feared that the available amount of time and credits will not be enough for a deep preparation. The pedagogical-psychological module will be unified in content. There is no reason for the separated training of primary and secondary school teachers. In the case of methodological training this will be somewhat different. Among the four courses that are being planned to launch at least one will contain different content adjusting to the differences between the school-levels. The well-tried parts of the practical training – the different in-school and out-of-school practice, the portfolio, and the follow-up seminar (this will be doubled in time according to the plans) – will be kept. The concrete experiences are expected in 3-4 years.

Situation in the Czech Republic

Teacher Training at Czech Universities

The teaching profession is a profession which has a constant, non-changing purpose, but there is progress in its quality, scope, roles and mainly competences (Holoušková, 2008). Performance of the teaching profession presupposes

acquirement of a set of professional competences and within the current concept a teacher is perceived as a facilitator, as a specialist, who is able to recognize individual particularities of a child, and finally as a guide of a pupil on the way of relatively independent recognition of the outside world.

Teacher training in the Czech Republic takes place only at universities on dedicated faculties: faculties of education, arts, science, theology, physical education and sports, and the like. Since faculties of education are the most important ones in providing teacher training, as far as the amount of students and study fields are concerned, there is a list of them in the Attachment 1.

Teacher qualification can be gained in Bachelor's study programmes (e.g. study fields such as Teacher Training for Nursery Schools or Special Education for Preschool Childhood), in Master's study programmes, non-structured (e.g. Teacher Training for Primary Schools) or follow-up Master's programmes after three-year Bachelor's non-teaching programmes (e.g. Teacher Training in Technical Education and Information Technology for Upper and Lower Secondary Schools, Teacher Training in Science for Lower Secondary Schools or Teacher Training in Mathematics for Lower Secondary Schools). After passing a final state exam and obtaining a Master's degree (Mgr.), it is possible to pass a rigorous exam and obtain a doctorate (either PhDr., or RNDr. – according to specific teaching qualification). In case of teachers of technical subjects, training belongs to engineering study fields and is followed up by pedagogical studies provided by pedagogical faculties, eventually by universities already within the framework of engineering studies.

Teacher training is obviously not identical at all faculties, which is discussed by Průcha (2002) in his publication where he divides it into four components. (1) Training in specific subjects (teacher qualification subjects) – the training differs according to subjects which a student, future teacher, focuses on. (2) Pedagogical-psychological training – the training should provide common theoretical framework to students and should teach them also how to apply the acquired knowledge in practice. An important role in this process is played by subject didactics. This is also a reason why cooperation between subject didactics specialists, pedagogues and psychologists has been more and more emphasized recently. (3) Practical training (practising skills) – the training in specific subjects together with the pedagogical-psychological training should merge into a practical output which usually has the form of compulsory work experience of students. These three components (training in specific subjects, pedagogical-psychological and practical) should create a whole and the components should complement and enrich each other. (4) General introduction – usually the same for all students of a faculty.

Lukášová (2003) considers so called "hidden curriculum" to be important in pre-gradual training of future teachers. It involves everything that influences student

thinking and acting (e.g. educational methods used in teaching, atmosphere in a study group, relations in a group, etc.). According to Lukášová, the final decision-making about the proportion on pedagogical-psychological component in the future teacher training is based, among others, on a financial aspect – subsidies on students from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. For this reason, it often happens that the amount of practical seminars where students could solve model situations is reduced, because such forms of education are expensive.

Apart from that, "some faculties and universities are led by specialists who, without being completely aware of it, prioritize an academic model of teacher training which has been proved effective and has solidified according to them" (Lukášová, 2003).

Švec (2005) sees similar problems in the pedagogical training of future teachers. He emphasizes that a mere "academic concept of pedagogical training based on 'applying theoretical knowledge to practice' is not effective and often leads to students acquiring pedagogical knowledge on the level of remembering, but not being able to use it in real pedagogical situations".

Spilková (2004) supports such opinions by results of a survey carried out in 1998 in which participated 5500 teachers of primary schools who answered a question in a questionnaire organized by the Association of Primary Teachers 'what is their opinion on pre-gradual training of future teachers on pedagogical faculties'. It was found out the following: "They train specialists, not teachers; the students are focused on themselves, the matter of primary schools is not appealing to them, they do not pay enough attention to child psychology and relations teacher-pupil-parents... Future teachers are being well prepared regarding their specialization, but not regarding pedagogy, psychology, methodology and didactics, and there is not enough practical training. More time should be dedicated to special education and attention should be paid also to the work of a class teacher and team work."

On the basis of these findings, Spilková (2004) claims the following: "Pedagogical faculties must not only provide a teacher with necessary knowledge in fields of specialization, but also with the basic structure of professional competences, i.e. a set of qualification and personal requirements needed for successful performance of the profession."

Current Social Context of the Czech Tertiary Education

Nowadays, it is possible to observe two phenomena which the Czech education has been dealing with since 2005. The first one was an effort to "unify" tertiary education within the whole European Union. The second one is an increasingly discussed matter of financing Czech tertiary education, including science and

research. Both phenomena have had a strong influence on the development of universities during the last 5 years; some universities needed to take harsh and unpopular measures to be able not only to grow further and develop particular fields, but even to be able to maintain certain fields at all. Such measures were many times simply pragmatic and could have influenced the quality of the whole education system.

Thanks to the effort and endeavour of academic workers at Czech universities, this phenomenon has not manifested itself everywhere, but for further successful development, it is necessary to adjust certain traditional and modern ways of education so that they better correspond to student needs and that a required level and quality of education is guaranteed. What follows, is a more detailed description and an analysis of the two mentioned phenomena, focusing on reactions of Czech universities and consequences that resulted from these reactions.

The first phenomenon, influencing the existence of Czech universities during the past 5 years, resulted from the fact that the Czech Republic was one of the signatories of the Bologna Accords (European Higher Education Area, 1999) and was bound to compliance with the requirements following from the Bologna Process whose result was supposed to be a unified European Higher Education Area. Within this process, the Czech Republic started restructuring university study fields on the basis of the Berlin Communiqué (Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2003). The restructuring, consisting in creating two cycles of tertiary education, was supposed to start until 2005 at the latest, and in case of the Czech Republic it was fulfilled. It is clear that the restructuring of study fields did not always bring the desired effect; in some cases it was rather counterproductive, because there were not sufficient legislative and economic grounds. It concerns for example the majority of teacher training programmes and fields when a graduate with a Bachelor's degree does not have, according to the Education Act, the right to perform the function of a pedagogue (teacher), but only a function of a pedagogue assistant (Vašutová, 2004). Consequently, there is a question what importance this restructuring has in teacher training programmes and whether all declared reasons are truly important. However, it is necessary to admit that in some programmes, the restructuring has proved its usefulness and filled some problematic segments of the job market (knowledge management, nursing, etc.).

The second phenomenon which crucially influenced the development of Czech universities, especially in the period between 2008 and 2011, was the policy of financing, evaluating and stratification of Czech public universities formulated in "White Paper on Tertiary Education" (Matějů et al., 2009). The policy of the Czech Ministry of Education was not always transparent and caused a substantial reduction of financial means granted to public universities in the form of contribution for a

student. Some sources even state that in the period between 2006 and 2011, the amount reserved for the educational activity of Czech universities decreased almost by one fifth (Assembly of the Council of Higher Education Institutions: The reduction of financial means for universities is not acceptable, 2001). Universities were driven to this situation by offering not only more attractive study programmes and fields, but also by adjusting flexibly to the needs of the job market, because they started to be perceived as a part of public sector managed by political power. Other strategies reflecting the situation involved strategies emphasizing innovation, new technologies, and stress on performance and management accountability (Pol, 2007).

On the basis of these facts, a wide range of universities began to massively offer distance modes of study programmes, because one of the important factors of financing universities was the number of students, irrespectively of the mode of study (Rules for the Provision of Contributions and Subsidies to Czech Public Universities, 2006). If Czech public universities wanted to maintain both the quality and the scope of provided education, they started accreditation and implementation of distance modes of study, because these modes proved to be good in the past, not only in the Czech Republic.

Professional Qualities of a Teacher and Professional Standards

The profession of a teacher, which has its origins already in ancient history, does not have a written ethical code in most European countries, in contrast to other professions such as doctors, nurses or social workers. It is caused probably also by the fact that this profession has had moral character since its beginnings and its ethics stabilized during the development of the profession. Lately, there have been certain changes which consist mainly in changing the conception of a student. A pupil has become more of a teacher's peer and an active co-creator of education; also an image of a child has changed in international documents. A teacher must help a pupil to enter the world of adults in this changed situation and must perceive him/her simultaneously as a peer. This is also why being a teacher is one of the most difficult professions (Houloušová, 2008).

Koťa (2003) has attempted to compile a list of professional ethical requirements of an "ideal" teacher (knowing that no one is or can become a completely ideal one). A teacher should be fond of children and youth and should be able to communicate with them adequately; be well informed and have broad general knowledge; should have sufficient knowledge in his/her field of specialization; be flexible and adaptable, i.e. should be able to react quickly and adapt to changing situations when teaching; should also be consistent; be optimistic, friendly, mentally balanced, able to experience joy when teaching and transfer this to pupils; be an exemplar and an ideal model of behaviour in everyday roles; be able

to transfer theoretical knowledge to practice; be rigorous; be able to express himself/herself clearly and briefly; be open towards others and the outside world; be patient and persistent; be witty and be able to make fun of himself/herself; be sufficiently self-confident; undergo a large-scale training for the professional career, and among others, he/she should develop his/her hobbies and interests. This "complementary knowledge" enable a teacher to guide leisure activities of pupils and also to protect himself/herself from so called burnout syndrome, which is common for the teaching profession; be neat and take care of himself/herself adequately.

W. Brezinka (1996) mentions the following reasons why teachers need professional ethics (a set of professional moral norms). (1) Teachers have considerable freedom of choice when fulfilling the tasks of their profession. They need moral directives which help them to decide what the best is at a particular moment. (2) Teachers represent exemplars to follow for their pupils – regardless of whether teachers wish so or not. That is why there has always been a requirement for teachers to set a good example. (3) Teachers are the most important means available for fulfilling the tasks of the profession. They can fulfil their tasks only when they are respected and trusted by their pupils. Moral education can be successful only when teacher behaviour corresponds with his words. (4) It is hard to monitor professional work of teachers from outside. A society must rely on teachers that they will perform the necessary monitoring by themselves. The professional ethics which includes clear requirements for professional duties stands against risks of this profession (insufficient dedication, false friendliness with colleagues in order to hide insufficient performance and wrong behaviour of colleagues, etc.). (5) There are justified requirements placed upon teachers, but also exaggerated and unrealistic ones. It is necessary to differentiate among them to protect teachers. And for this reason, well-thought-out professional ethics is needed.

The above mentioned author suggests also general professional moral norms regarding the work of teachers and special norms regarding their approach to pupils:

1. Teachers must know the duties following from their profession. The basic duty is to teach and to help every pupil to grow personally and socially. A specific feature of the teaching profession is a substantial freedom in decision-making which requires the same level of responsibility. It is not only about free exercise of pedagogical freedom, but also about awareness of full responsibility for making choices and decisions.
2. Teachers must be fully dedicated to their profession. This norm does not mean that a teacher must perform his/her function to the detriment of his/her personal life, but that he/she tries to perform the professional tasks as well as possible.

3. Teachers are supposed to acquire and maintain a high level of professional competency. Their duty is to keep educating themselves constantly and to develop their professionalism in a cognitive, psychomotor and personal-character area. First, a teacher is supposed to master the knowledge and abilities that he/she passes to his/her pupils. Even though this norm speaks about the minimal level of knowledge, it does not mean that the minimum is sufficient. A teacher must be at least one step ahead of pupils. Pieces of knowledge of some pupils are nowadays above the standard and a teacher must maintain the ability to acquire and apply new pieces of knowledge so that he/she can lead a pupil to further cognition. Second, a teacher should strive to improve his/her pedagogical methods and take into consideration proved scientific findings. Improving the quality and especially innovation of methods always bring certain fears and risks of the unknown. The ethical approach in the teacher profession means that when using new methods, it is not experimenting, but relying on proved procedures. Last, teachers must strive to gain and improve those character features which are required by the profession. These are for example: a positive approach to pupils; self-discipline; patience; mental freshness; empathy with pupils regarding their inner world.
4. Teachers should care for the good of all pupils. However, sometimes, it is complicated to determine whether a teacher can recognize and decide what is good for a particular pupil. It is better to build upon a conception that no harm should be done to any pupil. Probably the most difficult task of the teaching profession is to respect pupils' rights as rights of individuals without harming the interests of the others. This rule should be applied within all of the following norms. First, a teacher should care about the physical good of his/her pupils and protect them against risks. Apart from the most basic rules of healthy growing up, psychology and healthy way of living, he/she should warn them about the dangers of unhealthy way of living (smoking, alcohol, drugs, etc.) and protect them this way. Second, a teacher should take care of mental health of his/her pupils. He/she acts on behalf of a school in mediating knowledge and skills and contributes to mental development of pupils. An important part of this norm is to stimulate personal and social development of pupils. Third, a teacher should help pupils to develop moral principles. Ethics of pupils stem from their families; a school and a teacher can only amend deformations in moral development of pupils. It is one of the most difficult tasks of a teacher. Last, a teacher should care for the mental good of pupils. This norm means that a teacher must respect the right of pupils and their parents to choose religion and a world view.

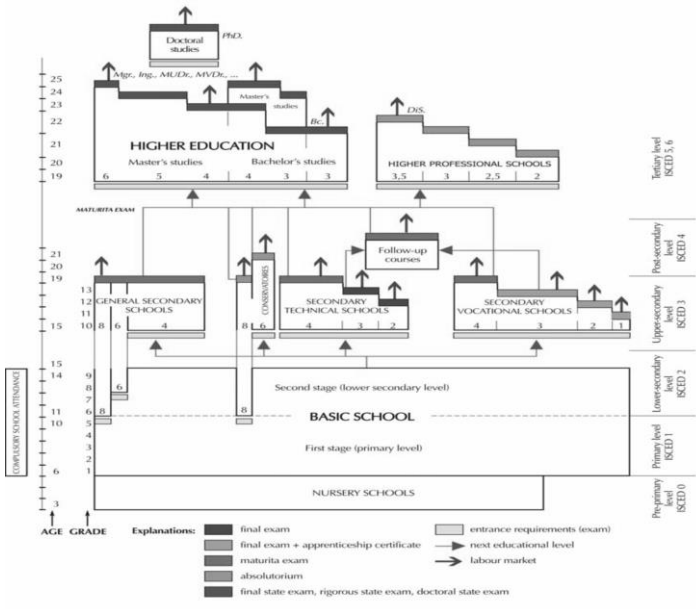
Apart from pupils, who are the main people involved in education, teachers are in touch with other peers, such as pupils' parents, a headmaster, inspectors, organizers and colleagues. There are also professional moral norms regulating

behaviour towards them which a teacher must respect. Moral norms of the teaching profession are not placed upon teachers externally; they should be in compliance with professional experience and conscience of every teacher. A person who takes the teaching profession seriously accepts the norms and follows them on the basis of his/her own belief. The content of the norms constituting the ethical code of a teacher should not tie him/her down, but should set limits which allow him/her to freely think, act, make decisions and express his/her feelings (Holoušová, Kropáč & Serafín, 2007).

An Overview of Some Teacher Training Study Fields Available in the Czech Republic

The education system of the Czech Republic comprises nursery schools, basic schools, secondary schools, conservatoires, language schools entitled to administer state language examinations and higher professional schools – all these institutions are codified by the Education Act. The act also covers institutions providing basic training in arts (as part of leisure activities) – basic arts schools. The education system also includes school facilities serving educational and other purposes that are subject to the Education Act, or possibly the act on institutional and protective educational care. The highest level of education within the education system is represented by higher education institutions, which are subject to the act on higher education institutions (Barták et. al., 2004).

Figure 2. The education system in the Czech Republic



Education in nursery schools, primary schools and lower and upper secondary schools follows the framework educational programmes, which are available at:

http://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/ramcovy-vzdelavaci-program-pro-predskolni-vzdelavani;

http://www.msmt.cz/vzdelavani/upraveny-ramcovy-vzdelavaci-program-pro-zakladni-vzdelavani?highlightWords=r%C3%A1mcov%C3%BD;

http://www.nuov.cz/ramcove-vzdelavaci-programy.

Education complying with the framework educational programmes set forth by the educational field is provided by, as it has been already mentioned, teachers trained at universities. Individual educational areas can be covered in various subjects, corresponding to teacher training and structure of study fields. The selection of some teacher training study fields available at Czech universities you can find in the Attachment 2.

Conclusions

We described in our contribution the feature and some problems in organisation of teacher education programmes in Slovakia, Hungary and Czech Republic. The development after 1989 in the examined countries was very complicated. In a nutshell, the one root is European integration and inserting of the Bologna system into the Slovak, Hungarian and Czech university teacher education programmes. We described the components of the teacher training systems and we assessed that values concerning teacher training are based on generally accepted European values and there are no appreciable differences among the Visegrad countries (e.g. democratic social values, special national traditions, European cultural and universal human values, cooperation, conflict-management, tolerance, empathy etc.). These are connected with teachers' professional standards. We emphasized the importance of the subject didactics but it has small and blocked development. Furthermore, we highlighted that effective teacher education and shaping is required throughout the practice during the training period.

Attachment

Attachment 1. Faculties of Education in the Czech Republic

Faculty of Education at Charles University in Prague: http://www.pedf.cuni.cz;

Faculty of Education at Palacký University in Olomouc: http://www.pdf.upol.cz;

Faculty of Education at Masaryk University in Brno: http://www.ped.muni.cz;

Pedagogical Faculty at University in Ostrava: http://pdf.osu.cz;

Pedagogical Faculty at University of South Bohemia in České Budějovice: http://www.pf.jcu.cz;

Faculty of Education at Hradec Králové University: http://www.uhk.cz/cs-cz/fakulty-a-pracoviste/pedagogicka-fakulta/zakladni-informace/Stranky/default.aspx;

Faculty of Education at University at West Bohemia in Pilsner: http://fpe.zcu.cz;

Faculty of Education at Jan Evangelista Purkyně University in Ústí nad Labem: http://pf.ujep.cz;

Faculty of Education at Technical University of Liberec: http://www.fp.tul.cz.

Attachment 2. Teacher training study fields available at Czech universities

For nursery schools

Teacher training for nursery schools

Special education for preschool childhood

For primary schools and lower secondary schools

Teacher training for primary schools

Teacher training in Mathematics for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in German Language for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Science and Environmental Studies for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Czech Language for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in English Language for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Technical Education and Information Technology for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in History for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Music Education for upper and lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Health Education for primary schools

Teacher training in Arts and Crafts for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Social Sciences and Civic Education for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Physics for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Chemistry for lower secondary schools

Teacher training in Geography for primary schools

Teacher training in Christian Education for primary schools

Teacher training in Russian Language for primary and language schools

For upper secondary schools

Teacher training in technical subjects for medical schools

Teacher training in Technical Education and Information Technology for upper secondary schools

Teacher training in Arts and Crafts for upper secondary schools

Teacher training in Social Science and Civic Education for upper secondary schools

Quality of the tertiary education in the Czech Republic is guaranteed by the Accreditation Commission (http://www.akreditacnikomise.cz) established by the Czech Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture (http://www.msmt.cz).

Attachment 3 - A Selection of Publications about the Teaching Profession in Czech Republic written by Czech authors

Coufalová, J. & Asztalos O. (2010). *Hledisko kvality v přípravě učitelů* [The Aspect of Quality in Teacher Training]. Pilsner: University of West Bohemia in Pilsner.

Dorotíková, S. (2003). *Profesní etika učitelství* [Professional Ethics in Teaching]. Prague: Charles University.

Helus, Z., Bravená, N. & Franclová, M. (2012). *Perspektivy učitelství* [Perspectives of Teaching]. Prague: Charles University.

Kohnová, J. & Trachtová, A. (2012). *Profesní rozvoj učitelů: konference: sborník anotací, program, seznam účastníků* [Professional Development of Teachers: conference: collection of annotations, program, a list of participants]. Prague: Charles University.

Lukášová-Kantorková H. (2004). *Příprava učitelů pro primární vzdělávání v ČR a budoucí plánování scénářů v Evropě* [Preparation of Teachers for Primary Education in the Czech Republic and Future Planning of Scenarios in Europe]. Ostrava: University of Ostrava.

Pařízek, V. (1988). *Učitel a jeho povolání: Analýza učitelské profese* [Teachers and Their Profession: An Analysis of the Teaching Profession]. Prague: SPN.

Podlahová, L. et al. (2012). *Učitel sekundární školy I.* [A Teacher at a Secondary School I.]. Brno: Paido.

Průcha, J. (2002). *Učitel: současné poznatky o profesi* [A Teacher: Up-to-Date Findings about the Profession]. Prague: Portál.

Řezníček, J. (2004). *Didaktika a učitelská etika v praxi* [Didactics and Ethics Guide Book to Teaching Practise for Students of the Faculty of Education]. Prague: Charles University.

Somr, M. et al. (2012). *Pedagogika pedagogů. Tradice a současnost učitelství* [Pedagogy of Pedagogues. The Tradition and the Present Situation of Teaching]. České Budějovice: University of South Bohemia.

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The ferrymen of music culture… Music teacher training concepts and facts from three Eastern countries of the EU

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Introduction

As Platon, the great Greek philosopher said: the arts can be very dangerous in the existing organization of a state because as they give the possibility of anarchy, they can be against the order of the society. The only form of art needed in the state is music. Music that goes to the soul of people, that can demonstrate the power of the leadership (e.g. ancient China), and is always a greatly important help for the political power to keep the society mentally directed. This philosophy demonstrates that music culture is a central human value, a highly individualistic form of communication, and has a great effect on the human intellect. As we can see throughout history, music has been a part of all major events of the society, a part of the religious liturgy; the living folklore demonstrates it in the present time as well. The only one condition necessary to create music is the musical sensibility and talent. The quality of the music culture mostly depends on the quality of the most talented artists and music teachers – who, as the ferrymen of music culture, pass music on from generation to generation.

For centuries the music teaching was not a part of the public school systems in the European countries (except some ancient ecclesiastic institutions), therefore the living practice for music learning was usually to find the most talented musician, who was paralelly a great composer and performer, and to learn as much from the master as possible. It was a spontaneous system that worked well as in ancient times "only the talented people studied music". (Czövek, 1979) Today's society discovers more children with musical sensitivity than in earlier times, and as a result the spontaneous teaching without an established school system is not enough for education. Therefore we need these "ferrymen", the well educated music teachers with high-level methods for music teaching, and to produce them we need well-organized music teacher training programs in higher education.

These raise an important question: who are the real ferrymen? Of course composers, gratest performers, and artists are also ferrymen, but music teachers have in a way an eternal life: they continue to live through their students' knowledge from generation to generation even after they are long gone. A well-organized school system is needed with a high level awareness and methods to preserve the music

culture of the past, to make it available, and to continue to pass it on to the younger talents.

In this paper three different examples can be found from three countries from the Middle-European region. We must note that this region used to be a part of the same culture as these states were parts of the Habsburg Empire. Through these exampl es we will explore the similarities and the differences of the present reality of music teacher training in Romania, Slovakia, and Hungary.

Music Teacher Training in Romania

To understand the music teacher training in Romania we first have to explore the structure of public music education, mainly the types of schools where the future teachers are going to teach. The recruitment resources are also need to be examined, as well as the institutional framework, and the problematic issues of the music teacher training and postgraduate studies. An insight into the currently available talent development programs is also included.

Music teaching in Romania has two main aspects. One is the compulsory public education and the other one is the optional vocational instruction. In public education music is taught from first to tenth grade (1^{st}-8^{th} grades - one class a week, 9^{th}-10^{th} grades - one class every other week). Within the vocational instruction there are two possibilities to study music: 1^{st} to 12^{th} grades in vocational art schools (where artistic education, mastering a musical instrument, or taking voice lessons free as it is parallel to the compulsory education) and in art schools (which are available for all ages however there is a tuition). Music teacher training prepares the students for teaching in the school types mentioned above.

The teachers teaching in vocational art schools graduate from musical instrument or canto university departments and also receive a degree in education. During their university years they also study psychology, pedagogy, didactics, and they do student teaching in canto and musical instruments. The theoretical subjects (solfeggio, music theory, harmony study, and music history) are taught by teachers who graduated with a degree in music education and also teach music in public education.

In Romania music teacher training started in the 1930's[1]. The standard requirements were developed in the 1950's at three conservatories[2] (Bucharest, Cluj-Napoca, and Iasi). In the 1960's three years long colleges were set up all over the

[1] 1930's Bucharest: 1931, Iasi: 1931, Cluj: 1933 (though in the latter town institutionalized music training started as early as 1819)

[2] The official name of musical art universities until 1989

country. In some of these offered music teacher training as well. The college degree allowed the graduate to teach in elementary and lower secondary schools (grades 1–8), while the conservatory degree licensed the music teacher to teach in high schools and universities.

"Music teacher and choir-master" was printed on the diploma of both the graduates from the music education department of the conservatories and the college music department graduates. In the institutions mentioned above the training was very thorough and serious as there were only few available spots for the many candidates at the entrance examinations. Only the best music high school graduates managed to pass these exams. Unfortunately their thorough training remained unexploited most of the time because in public education one lesson per week of music teaching did not offer too many opportunities to develop their knowledge. They would only be able to prove their abilities within the choir movement. By the end of the 70's and the beginning of the 80's the pedagogical colleges gradually wound up, being replaced by technical ones for engineers. In the 80's there was scarcely any music teacher training. Only a very small number of students graduated each year from the conservatories.

In 1986 The Teacher Training Department was set up within universities by ministerial order consisting of the teacher training and the teachers' postgraduate training.

Following the events of 1989, music teacher training got a new impulse. The number of departments and available spots in the existing institutions grew. New universities were established and music teacher training began at more locations.

The aspirations for the EU-accession and later the actual accession brought a wide range of changes and a much needed harmonization in higher education. During the previous two decade the structure of higher education changed, as well as the curriculum and the framework of teacher training, as the Romanian education system had to adjust to the requirements of the EU.

Starting with the 2005-2006 school year the Bologna system was adopted, which also meant changes in the education system of the teacher training institutions. The ministerial order 4343/2005, modified by orders 4316/2008[3], 3158/2010[4] and 3841/2012[5] stipulate the new structure of teacher training. According to these, in the training based on gradual development, the pedagogical training is parallel to the vocational one. The first 30 credits' pedagogical module

[3] http://www.upt.ro/pdf/legi/OMEdCT_nr._4316_03.06.2008.pdf (2005, 2008)
[4] http://www.edu.ro/index.php/legaldocs/13364 (2010)
[5] http://lege5.ro/Gratuit/gmytkojsgi/ordinul-nr-3841-2012-pentru-aprobarea-conditiilor-privind-organizarea-masterului-didactic (2012)

can be earned during the basic training and the second one can be obtained during the master training, however the latter compulsorily needs the former module.

The pedagogical degree obtained in the basic training qualifies for teaching in grades 1-8, whereas the second model qualifies for teaching in highschool. According to order 4316/2008 those who do not obtain the teacher training parallel to the vocational one, still have the option of obtaining it after graduation at the Teacher Training Department[6].

According to the Law of Education 1/2011, the teacher training goes as follows: the basic three-year training based on accredited curriculum is followed by a two-year master training in didactics, followed by a one-year school practice guided by a mentor teacher. This law has not been made effective yet. In September of 2012 a new ministerial order expanded the practice with two additional years. Thus, the institutional frameworks of the teacher training are still undecided and the solution remains a question. It has not been decided yet whether the Teacher Training Departments are to direct the teacher training parallel to master training or there will be a separate pedagogical master training.

The 2012 law emphasizes the importance of the pedagogical practice. After graduation from university, the period of practice is one year long and ends with a tenure exam. If the student fails the tenure exam the first time, he or she has a chance to retake it within five years from the beginning of the year of practice. Otherwise the teacher can only get a substitute teaching position in education and can earn only student teacher's salary. After passing the tenure[7] exam there are a lot of career changers.

The law stipulates the continuous training of teachers. In the teaching career the second and the first degrees bring professional, moral, and financial appreciation. You may take the second-degree exam four years after the tenure exam the earliest and after another four years the first-degree[8] exam. Besides these, the continuous professional development means compulsory further training. The law stipulates 90 credits to be obtained in a period of five years. However, there are issues with the system because the free trainings are scarce, the accreditation of the further training programs initiated by universities is slow and complicated, therefore no sanctions are applied for cancelling.

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6 Department for Didactic Personnel Training

7 Tenure exams have existed since the `50`s. One had to take this exam after three years of teaching. After the practice years one could work in the educational system only if this exam had been passed. In fact this exam validated the diploma. The role of the tenure exam remains the same today.

8 The degree exams in education also existed before 1989 and they have been preserved by the new Law of Education. One could take the second degree exam five years after the tenure exam, and after another five years one could take the first degree exam.

The highest level of post gradual education is the PhD training. The present modality of this training is problematic as most students also work full time – and if they live farther from the universities that offer PhD training[9], they are not able to attend the courses. The fact that PhD training, especially in music, costs a lot and many cannot afford the tuition unless they get a scholarship is also an obstacle. The PhD degree is also unattractive because in public education it is not financially rewarded. Moreover, the same is true for public universities.

Nowadays in Romania the new supply of teachers is a problem. It is a rather common situation that even for vacancies in famous central schools new teachers can hardly be found. The reason for why this happens on the one hand is that the teachers' salary is extremely low and for an entrant it does not even cover the household expenses. On the other hand this career has lost its prestige over time. In music teacher training the greatest problem is that there are no job possibilities because there demand for music lessons has decreased. The towns are full and in villages in a lower secondary school there are enough music classes only to provide halftime job at most, but usually even less. Nowadays choir or orchestra rehearsals are not included in the job description, therefore the teachers do these activities for free if they want to.

Considering these perspectives, relatively few students want to study music. Those who take the entrance examinations come mostly from music schools, religious schools offering more musical education, and from the still existing elementary school teacher training schools, seldom from theoretical highschools. Their musical training is generally good, but a cultural decay can be felt year by year. At the music pedagogy departments students studying musical instruments or canto may choose a module of instrument or canto, which includes the pedagogical practice of the instrument or canto. Obtaining this module enables them to teach musical instrument or canto at music school for grades 5-8. In music highschools only teachers with degrees in musical instruments or canto as main specialization can teach.

Although the law mentioned above emphasizes the professional practice, in university training this represents the greatest problem. There are no schools for practice. Practice can be done in schools where the headmaster supports this idea and makes a contract with the university. The good intentions of the headmaster are not always enough because it is uncertain that the teacher of that school teaches according to the views and methods taught by the university. This phenomenon makes the work of the university teacher in charge of the pedagogical practice difficult and has a negative impact on efficiency. The number of the hours of

[9] There is PhD training in Bucharest,Cluj-Napoca, and Iasi.

practice is low. Generally three, in case of very small groups of students they can teach five lessons throughout the one-year practice period. The practice leading teachers' job does not include time for preparing and discussing the lessons so he or she does these important activities voluntarily.

The beginner music teacher generally has to face the fact that in schools art subjects have no prestige. He can be successful and build up a career if he himself gains respect and appreciation for his subject. However this is only possible if he or she is prepared for such situations during the university studies. Usually most students get a degree in teaching by some kind of automatism. He or she knows what his or her job is in the classroom but he or she does not know what it is for. Music teachers might be very well prepared professionally, but the lack of awareness and of well-based views lead to teaching music without results. In teacher training these aspects should be seriously addressed. The law of education stipulates talent development and support for eminence. Students may attend through competition and applications professional programs at local or foreign universities, may apply for research scholarships, and they also have the possibility of speeding up their studies. For most of them the Erasmus program offers good opportunities for development, and there is a good chance for talent development through the activities of the vocational colleges (that many attend) because here a student can be guided by a mentor teacher for several years and the cooperation based on personal, responsible, and respectful relationship leads to the spectacular development of the talented students.

The teacher taking part in music teacher training considers that there are too many useless formal requirements while the possibilities for actual preparation are few, first of all regarding the pedagogical practice. Schools for practice are needed where the ideas and the methods of the teachers of that particular school coincide with those of the university teacher guiding the practice. Additionally, significantly more music lessons would be necessary so that the students could get an inside into the requirements and opportunities of the job in a school, as this is the only way they can start their career well-prepared, with an awareness and a clear view of what they are to do.

Educating Teachers of Music in Slovakia

In this part presents the pre-gradual and post-gradual education of teachers of music in Slovakia. It briefly outlines the reformation process in Slovakia including changes in academic training of music teachers for particular levels and types of schools. It also brings basic information on PhD study program Didactics of Music and shortly presents the system of continual education as a scope of further career growth of pedagogical employees.

Reformatory process in the Slovak school system after 1989

The reform of the education system in Slovakia was started by the social-political changes after 1989. The proposal for the first coherent conceptual reform of education was called *The Constantine Project* in 1994, but it was never implemented in practice. However, it became the groundwork for the *Proposal of the Conception of education development in SR* in 1999, also known as the *Millennium Project.* The government in December of 2001 approved the elaboration of this conceptual material called The National program of education in Slovakia. However, the new school system reform in Slovakia began on the 1st of September, 2008 when the newly approved *Law on Education*[10] was made effective in the first reform years at particular levels of education in accordance to the international ISCED[11] classification.

The most fundamental change is *"a two-level education system consisting of curricular legislations involved in state education programs*[12]*, with definition of the content and standards for particular levels in the frame of ISCED classification."*[13] The second level is represented by school education programs, enabling particular schools to create a school curriculum mainly to present their uniqueness, specializations, and regional peculiarities.

Despite the positive aspects, the new school reform also had some negative effects on the musical education subject. In the state education program for the primary and lower secondary level at elementary schools (ISCED 1, ISCED 2) as the highest legislative document musical education together with art education are a

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10 Law no. 245/2008 on education (the so-called school law) from 22nd May 2008

11 ISCED - International Standard Classification of Education
In Slovakia the order of education levels respecting the international standard classification of education (ISCED) is following1111
ISCED 0 pre-primary education (pre-school institutions)
ISCED 1 primary education (1st stage of basic education, years 1. – 4.)
ISCED 2 lower secondary education (2nd stage of basic education, years 5. – 9., or 1. – 4. at eight-year secondary grammar schools)
ISCED 3 upper secondary education (secondary grammar schools, high schools)
ISCED 4 post-secondary non-tertiary education
ISCED 5 first stage of tertiary education, levels 1 and 2
ISCED 6 second stage of tertiary education – PhD study
The length of compulsory education is from six to sixteen years, so a child is obliged to finish the primary and secondary education. Before entering primary school children must attend a so-called "zero class", called a pre-school preparation. Source: *Štátne vzdelávacie programy.* [State education programs]. 2013. Retrieved from http://www.minedu.sk/data/files/2602_metodika_mapovania_isced_podla_ dosiahnuteho_stupna_vzdelania.pdf

12 The state education program is the highest curricular document and defines compulsory content of education. In this national curriculum subjects are ordered in education areas.

13 Medňanská, I. (2010). *Systematika hudobnej pedagogiky* [Taxonomy of musical pedagogy]. (pp. 110–111). Prešov: Prešov University.

part of the *Art and culture* area, and according to *Framework curriculum* in 1st – 7th year of elementary school they have combined a one hour time devoted for these subjects guaranteed by the state. In the 8th and 9th year of elementary school (ISCED 2) the musical education (instead of the one hour attributed before the reform) became a part of the subject *Education by art*[14] as a subject integrating musical, fine art and dramatical art, aesthetic, and media education, and the one lesson was reduced to half an hour weekly. Another negative factor is the fact that besides the music education teachers, all who studied fine arts, aesthetic education, Slovak language and literature, or history are also fully qualified to teach this subject. Despite the protests of the music education community with supporting attitude of EAS[15], no change has been made so far.

Musical training of pre-primary and primary level teachers

In educating teachers of primary education in Slovakia as well as in the Czech Republic, Romania, and Italy, high school training (ISCED 3 education) is ending while in almost all EU countries the qualification required is at least ISCED 4 or ISCED 5[16]. Until recently the training of primary education teachers in Slovakia was realized at education faculties in the program *Teaching for the 1st level.* The new study program 1.1.5 *Pre-school and elementary pedagogy*[17] (which was started in the 2005/2006 school year) preserves the system of divided education of teachers (bachelor education – pre-primary level, master education – primary level), while in Europe the model of common training of pre-school and primary level teachers is more widespread.

In this new study program the musical training of pre-primary and primary education teachers is focused mainly practically on cultivation of singing ability, mastering the basics of classical musical instrument playing (usually piano) and playing children's musical instruments, developing skills to express music in motion

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14 Čarný, L. et al. (2009). *Štátny vzdelávací program – Výchova umením.* [State education program – Education by art]. Retrieved from http://www.statpedu.sk/files/documents/svp/2stzs/isced2/vzdelavacie_oblasti/vychova_umenim_isced2.pdf

15 European Association for Music in Schools

16 Kosová, B. (2006/2007). *Profesijný rast učiteliek materských škôl alebo prečo by mali mať vysokoškolské vzdelanie.* [Professional growth of nursery schools or why should they have university education.] (p.19). In Preschool education no.1, year LXI. Bratislava: Exprint.

17 In Slovakia program 1.1.5. Pre-school and elementary pedagogy can be studied at: Faculty of Education at Comenius University in Bratislava, Faculty of Education at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Faculty of Education at Trnava University in Trnava, Faculty of Education at Catholic University in Ružomberok, Pedagogical faculty at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica and at Faculty of Education at Prešov University in Prešov.

speech, ability to use with music the simple forms and means of creative Drama, music therapy, and organization of musical activities of children.

Training music teachers for general knowledge and elementary artistic schools

After 1989 faculties gained their own autonomy to create study plans where in addition to the profile of a graduate and need for content innovation, they based them on general knowledge school legislation, as well as on regional demands. In Slovakia the training of music teachers at general knowledge schools is done mostly at pedagogical faculties[18] in the field of *1.1.3 Teaching of artistic-educational and educational subjects* in bachelor and master study programs of *Teaching of musical art*, in combination with other humanistic, natural science, or social science subjects, based on the particular university. A masters study program graduate can apply as a qualified professional for musical education in school institutions and as a qualified teacher at lower secondary education level at elementary schools, teaching musical education in 1st– 4th year of eight-year grammar schools, and is capable of doing work in state administration, cultural and public education institutions, and at high schools.[19]

Qualification for educating pupils at elementary artistic schools can be gained after getting the so-called absolutorium – in other words after completing the higher two-year professional (pedagogical) post-graduate exam education. University training for music teachers at elementary artistic education can only be obtained at some pedagogical faculties in the field of *1.1.3 Teaching of artistic-educational and educational subjects* in one-subject bachelor and master study programs of *Teaching of musical art* (Faculty of Education at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra)[20], or needs a two-level two-subject study such as *Teaching of playing keyboard instruments combined with musical art; Teaching of singing combined with musical art; Teaching of church music combined with musical art* (Faculty of Education at Catholic University in Ružomberok)[21]. A graduate from the study program is prepared especially for teaching artistic subjects at elementary artistic schools (playing musical instrument, singing, and music theory), he or she is also

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[18] In Slovakia this program can be studied at: Faculty of Education at Comenius University in Bratislava, Faculty of Education at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Faculty of Human Sciences at Žilina University in Žilina, Faculty of Education at Catholic University in Ružomberok, Pedagogic faculty at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica and at Faculty of Education at Prešov University in Prešov.

[19] *Profil absolventa* [Profiles of graduates]. Retrieved from http://www.pf.ku.sk/index.php/studium/magisterske-programy/258-uitestvo-predmetu-hudobna-vychova-v-kombinacii.html

[20] *Profily absolventov* [Profiles of graduates]. Retrieved from http://www.kh.pf.ukf.sk/informacie/-pre-uchadzaov/novinky/138-profily-absolventov-uitestvo-hudobneho-umenia-bc

[21] *Magisterské študijné programy* [Master study programs]. Retrieved from http://www.pf.ku.sk/index.php/studium/magisterske-programy.html

qualified to teach music education at a lower secondary level of elementary schools (5^{th}– 9^{th} year) 1^{st}– 4^{th} year of eight-year grammar schools included, and is capable of doing work in state administration, and in cultural and public education institutions[22]. Successful study is conditioned (not necessarily) by preceding graduation from conservatory.

PhD study program 1.1.10 Didactics of music

The PhD study program 1.1.10 Didactics of music represents the third level of academic study and is a direct follow-up mainly to the master study program *Teaching of Musical Art.* The PhD studies can be completed as a full-time study (3 years) or part-time study (5 years) and the program consists of a studying portion, completed by dissertation examination, and a scientific part when students undertake scientific and research based tasks and projects in the field of didactics of music. The scientific part of the study is finished by the defense of the dissertation thesis and being awarded with a scientific degree PhD.

With this degree, the graduate is able to do a number of highly qualified professions: they can work as a teacher of didactics focused on the didactics of musical education at pedagogical faculties, find work as a researcher and methodical worker in didactics of musical education for departmental research-development and methodical workplaces, work as a conceptual program worker for state administration in the school system and public education. He or she can also professionally lead methodical centres for teaching musical education, co-operate on preparation of the curriculum, methodical guides and school books of musical education[23].

There are three training departments with accredited PhD study in Slovakia: at Faculty of Education at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Faculty of Education at Catholic University in Ružomberok and at Pedagogical faculty at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica.

The system of continual education and career progress of pedagogical employees

As a result of the new understanding of teacher's professionalism, due mainly to the shift from the orientation of minimal teachers' competences to the orientation of the model of wide spread teacher's professionalism, several changes appeared regarding standardization and professionalization of teacher's place. The position of a teacher and the system of his or her further career progress is defined in *Law no.*

[22] *Profil absolventa* [Profile of a graduate]. Retrieved from http://www.pf.ku.sk /index.php/studium/magisterske-programy/72-pedagogicka-fakulta-mgr/333-hudobna-vychova-spev.html

[23] *Profil absolventa* [Profile of a graduate]. Retrieved from http://www.pf.ku.sk /component/content/article/327.html

317/2009on pedagogical employees and professional employees, valid since the 11th of November, 2009.

A teacher makes a career progress by undergoing particular study programs accredited by the Ministry of Education SR in the frame of continual education. A music teacher can take part in actualization, innovation, and specialization education.[24] *"Each of this type of continual study has an exactly determined number of lessons divided into presence and distance lessons with exactly specified amount of credits. Credits are set for the amount of lessons and form of finishing. Teacher gets them after completing the education program in the form of a certificate. Teacher chooses from the offer of education programs in accordance with his approbation and education subjects."*[25] After gaining 60 credits the pedagogical employee can apply for the 1st or 2nd attestation exams. After reaching the 2nd attestation the process of career progress ends.[26]

Conclusion

Since the 1990s Slovakia has been a member of many international organizations and institutions (EAS, EMU, EMCY, EPTA, ESTA, Orff-Schulwerk Forum, and others), with which it co-operates through the Slovak Music Teachers Association and its individual sections. Issues of musical education are often the topics of international musical-pedagogical conferences and seminars that regularly take place in academic settings.

The Music Teacher Training System in Hungary

Teaching music has an important role in Hungarian education. In the primary and secondary educational system – which is still based on the Kodály concept– it has the main objective to give musical experience and to build an audience that understands and appreciates music. Already in kindergarten, children have regular singing time and skill development in a playful way, which prepares them and lays down the foundations for for music education and classes in primary school (Erős, 2008).

In Hungary there are two separate forms of musical education: one of which is the normal training system and the professional, vocational training system. In the institutions that have a general curriculum (primary school, vocational school, trade

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[24] *Zákon č. 317/2009 o pedagogických zamestnancoch a odborných zamestnancoch...* § 37-42 [Law no. 317/2009 on pedagogical employees and Professional employees... § 37-42]. Retrieved from http://www.zakonypreludi.sk/zz/2009-317

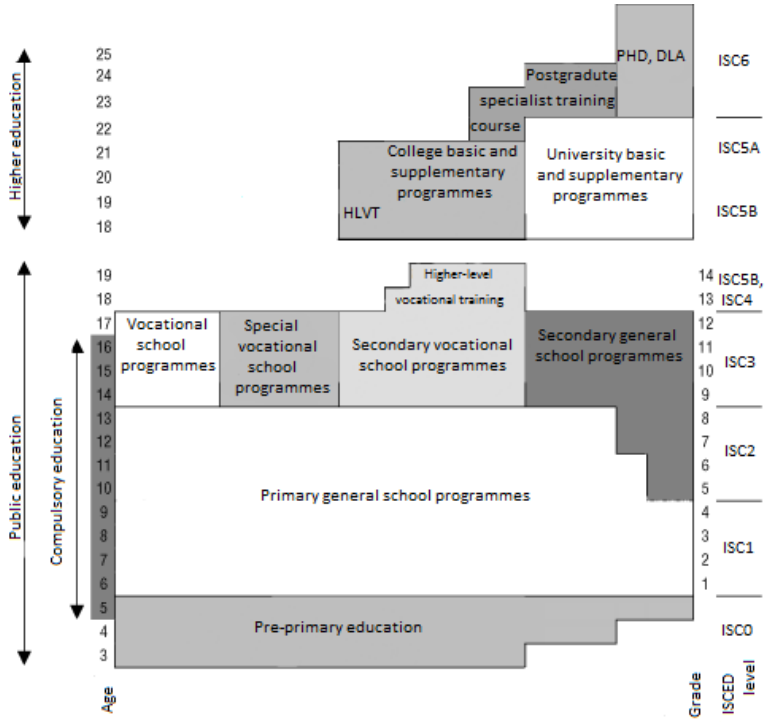
[25] Medňanská, I. (2013). *Komparácia kontinuálneho vzdelávania učiteľov hudby a vedeckej prípravy v doktorandskom štúdiu.* [Comparison of continual education of music teachers and scientific preparation during a PhD Study]. (p. 16) In Musica et educatio IV. Ružomberok: Verbum, Publisher of Catholic University

[26] *Zákon č. 317/2009 o pedagogických zamestnancoch a odborných zamestnancoch...* § 49 [Law no. 317/2009 on pedagogical employees and Professional employees... § 49]

school and secondary school) students take part in music lessons according to the number of classes determined by the school curriculum. There are some institutions where music training is present at an advanced level. The professional training category includes music school training, intermediate and advanced level art schools and musical trade schools.

In primary school every student is required to learn music. According to the new (2013) educational scheme[27] in the up going system 2 music lessons will be introduced (instead of 1) ain lower grades while in the upper grades the 1 per week will stay, however in the previous forms of the current specialised music classes, in the syllables of those classes that give advanced level training (they have different numbers of lessons in different years, prescribed by law) they have 3-4 music classes and 2 choir rehearsals. Additionally, primary school students can learn music or play a musical instrument in music schools or in those schools that qualify as basic education for arts institution. In these institutions it is not compulsory to learn music, but this is an option that students can choose to learn to play a musical instrument individually and they can attend common solfeggio lessons, but they also have to pay a tuition fee for music lessons.

Figure 1. The System of Education in Hungary:



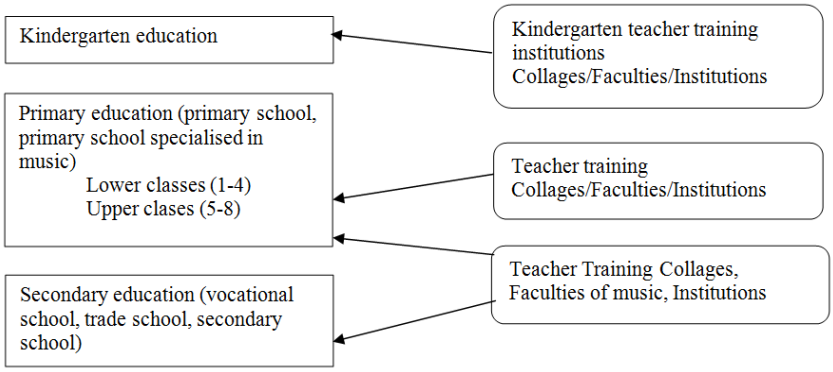
Source: http://www.ofi.hu/tudastar/iskolarendszerek/isced-oktatas-egyseges

[27] http://kerettanterv.ofi.hu/

In the Hungarian education system secondary-level educational institutions are the followings: secondary schools, trade schools, and vocational schools. Music education is required for all students in one class per week, usually for the first two years. There are also advanced level trainings in specialised classes in secondary schools where they learn music in a higher number of music classes (usually 2) throughout all four years of their education. Students studying in secondary schools can also take a GCSE in music.

The musical vocational training is a uniquely Hungarian and valuable form of training, which provides music training for students harmonizing separate fields of education. During the training general educational subjects are taught, students also take part in individual instrumental lessons and in group classes (for example: solfeggio, music theory, music literature, folk music, chamber music and choir). At the end of their studies students take school leaving exams and professional final exam according to the general and musical requirements. The different levels of training and the places of training of teachers' who can be employed can be seen on the figure 2. below.

Figure 2. Places of training of teachers



(Source: own chart)

The Institutionalisation of Music Teacher Training Before the Regime Change

The music teacher training in Hungary started in the National Conservatory, which provided the highest level of music training in the middle of the 19th century. The institution working under this name from 1840 had the right for decades to give its best students a certificate that allowed them to teach music.[28] The Academy of Music

[28] Tari, L., Iványi-Papp, M., Sz. Farkas, M., Solymosi Tari, E. & Gulyásné Somogyi, K. (2005). *A Nemzeti Zenede* [National Conservatory]. Budapest: Liszt Ferenc Zeneművészeti Egyetem Budapesti Tanárképző Intézete.

founded in 1875 launched an advanced level of training only in a few majors[29], which became complete after the turn of the century including all orchestral instruments. The music teacher training started only in 1890 at the Academy of Music and was fully established in two decades – including instruments taught, private singing, as well as training music teachers for secondary schools and teacher training schools.[30] Those musician who were already active as teachers had to take a so called qualifying/certification exam at the Academy of Music, and from the beginning of the 1920s onwards only this institution could give out "certified music teacher" qualification. The teachers who came out of the Academy of Music became leading teachers of music schools and conservatories in Budapest and in big cities in the country. In the next period there was a three-level musician training at the Academy of Music (preparatory – academic –artist training classes). In 1952 an educational reform ceased this program and instead they made a five-year long college program to earn an artist teacher degree.[31] In 1966 the structure of training changed for music teachers, so from this time on their training worked countrywide as a department of Liszt Ferenc Academy of Music's Institution of Music Teacher Training Institution.[32]

The training time for the music teachers was three years, while the other teacher candidates studied for four years. Besides the Academy of Music six other institutions had music teacher training: Budapest, Győr, Debrecen, Szeged, Miskolc, and Pécs. The changes of 1966 and the extension of the music school network had a positive impact, as in the following years both the number of music school students and teachers rose. From 1971 the university level training was launched at the Academy of Music, later in 1980 Debrecen and then in 1983 Szeged got the permission for the university level training.

The Music Training System since the 1990s

From the 1990s onwards there have been basically two levels of music teacher training in Hungary: a five-year university training and a four-year college training. The Academy of Music has remained the main institution. The National Committee of Accreditation started the accreditation of higher educational institutions in 1996, and the musical higher education was also part of this accreditation process (Kozma & Rébay, 2005). At this time the process of starting independent Hungarian music

[29] piano and composition (1875), singing and organ (1882), violin (1884), cello (1886)

[30] Szerző, K. (1977). Mihalovich Ödön a Zeneakadémia élén [Mihalovich Ödön head of the Academy of Music] In J. Ujfalussy, (Ed.), *A Liszt Ferenc Zeneművészeti Főiskola 100 éve*. (p. 107–129). Budapest: Zeneműkiadó.

[31] http://www.zeneakademia.hu/a_liszt_ferenc_zenemuveszeti_egyetemrol222/tortenet_hires_regi_tanitvanyok/tortenet_fontosabb_allomasok/az_utolso_50_ev

[32] http://www.uni-miskolc.hu/~bbziweb/index.php/features/template-framework/15- demo/about-joomla/192-az-intezet-tortenete-3

training institutions began and as a result the departments in Győr and Miskolc became independent from the Academy of Music. The department in Győr was integrated into the Széchényi István College[33], while the department in Miskolc was integrated into the University of Miskolc and the Bartók Béla Musical Institution of the University of Miskolc was established[34]. This process did not stop and in the following years departments in Szeged, Pécs, and Debrecen were integrated into the local universities. In Szeged until 2000 it was one of the founding institutions of the Higher Educational Fellowship in Szeged, and later it worked as one of the Faculties of the University of Szeged, then it gained its present form in 2003 as the Musical Institution of the University of Szeged[35]. The University of Pécs's Faculty of Music and Visual Arts is unique in the country because since 1996 the different fields of art training have been present both in music and also in visual arts[36]. The Faculty of Music became an independent institution of the University of Debrecen in 2006.

The university level training could be continued in two institutions besides the Academy of Music, namely in Debrecen and Szeged (Duffek, 2009). So all together there are six cities in our country where music and music teacher training exist: Budapest, Debrecen, Szeged, Győr, Pécs and Miskolc.[37]

School Music Teacher Training

The second trend is the school music teacher training which has a wider network. Its important locations are the following cities from the past 40-80 years, which have a successful past as Teacher Training Collages, which used to have two-major trainings Szeged, Eger, Nyíregyháza, Pécs, Szombathely and Budapest (ELTE Teacher Training Institution). University level secondary school teacher training is working in three locations (Academy of Music, Debrecen, Pécs) at present (Duffek, 2009).

The Bologna System in the Hungarian Music Teacher Training

Music

The training structure gained its final form: three years of BA training, followed by a two-year of MA training, and there is also the option for a three-year PhD training. The accreditation of the BA training started in 2006 and the first classes were

[33] http://zene.sze.hu/koszonto

[34] http://www.uni-miskolc.hu/~bbziweb/index.php/features/template-framework/15-demo/about-joomla/192-az-intezet-tortenete-3

[35] http://www.music.u-szeged.hu/karunkrol/kar-tortenete-100819/szte-zenemuveszeti-kar

[36] http://www.art.pte.hu/menu/43

[37] The Liszt Academy of Music (Budapest); Faculty of Music of the University of Debrecen; Music Department of the University of Szeged; Varga Tibor Institute of Musical Art (Győr); Faculty of Music and Visual Arts University of Pécs; Bartók Béla Institute of Music of the University of Miskolc

launched in 2007. The training program offers the *Musical Creative Arts and Musicology*,[38] and *Performance*[39] BA majors. During the three-year BA training students have to complete a 10 credit psychology-pedagogy training, which is the requirement for applying to the master training, but it does not give students the right to teach with a BA degree. Following this the musical MA training was accredited at Liszt Ferenc Academy of Music in 2007, and at the universities of Debrecen, Pécs, and Szeged in 2008.

In 2010 the MA training took two directions, the *Performance* MA major and the *Music Teacher* MA major. After finishing the MA training the music teacher candidates conclude their studies with a six-month teacher training practice under a mentor teacher during which they visit classes of their mentor teacher and also teach a given number of lessons. At the end of the term they give a final lesson where they show what they have learned during their practice.

It was an important question how those with the performer MA major could do their teacher training practice as most of those teachers who teach in musical vocational school are regularly performing artists as well. To solve this problem they come up with the idea of supplementary teacher training, which gives the opportunity for students to do a 60 credit pedagogy training to get their artist teacher degree.

The specialised trainings makes it possible for those music teachers who got their degree in previous systems to get their qualification in a shorter time in those fields they teach.

School Music Teacher Training

The Bologna system brought about a new definition, based on which music teacher training on a master level became part of the *Art subject area*. Music training on a BA level became a track of the school music teacher training which terminology appeared in the BA system for the first time. In the previous systems the college-level teacher training students always had two majors, one of these being music. The Bologna system ceased this two major system and instead of pairing it with other subjects, it became possible to have a minor and a major. Through new system students can do a 50-credit module training in pedagogy track that entitles them to continue their studies in MA teachers' training. The successful entrance exam they can get a music teacher degree after taking part in the MA teacher training.

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[38] music theory, composition, musicology, electronic music media art http://www.felvi.hu/felveteli/szakok_kepzesek

[39] instrumental majors (classical, folk, jazz), singing (opera, folk, jazz), orchestral and choral conducting, church music – organ, church music - choral conducting

Teachers' Training Colleges

Teachers' training colleges train such experts in pedagogy during 8 terms who in theory have well-founded knowledge, skills, and capabilities to teach any subject in 1st to 4th grades in primary schools, and in 5th and 6th grade they can teach children in their chosen field of special studies (literacy). Music is one of these chosen fields. Students also take part in a professional practice. In the practical part of training they learn about modern knowledge, methods, strategies of educating children and also about how to develop the children's personalities. Additionally, they can put in practice what they have learned at school, which helps the development of teaching skills and competences.

The System of Undivided Teachers' Training

In 2013 there was another change in music teacher training. The undivided teacher training system offers of 4+1 year studies (for primary school teachers) and 5+1 and 3+2+1 year studies (for secondary school teachers). At the end of the training there is a full year of practice for the teacher trainees that used to be for one term in music teacher training. Spending a full year in the school system means that they have a chance to peek into the everyday life of the institutions, and it also provides an opportunity to get to know longer-term pedagogical processes which all add up to a useful package of experiences and advice for an entrant. This training structure shows some similarities with the university and college level training that existed before the Bologna system. In the music teacher training the basic and intermediate trainings are separated, mainly because of the appropriate level of professional training for musical vocational school teachers.

Summary

In Hungary the music teacher training system shows a constant change and renewal, which on the one hand follows the international trends (e.g. Bologna), and on the other hand it adapts to the other higher teacher training system, which helps the mobility of students between institutions (e.g. credit recognition system). Our music teaching is framed by a unified system from the basics to the higher levels, which is due to the well-founded multi level music teacher training system and the teacher training practices connected to them. It is encouraging that besides the decreasing lesson numbers and appreciation, there are still teachers and students who not only

believe what Zoltán Kodály said but also give it on to others: "Without music there is no complete person."[40]

Final conclusions

Let us draw some conclusions after reading the essays. We can determine that in all three countries the teacher training in schools the developed the most in the 20th century, and they continue the development in the present time. This proves to be true when we look at the methods or the schools. There are similar and different ways of thinking. Behind the written words there is a latent problem with the compatibility of these music teacher training systems and the western countries' music education. (The picture is very colourful: music school means a higher educational institution, e.g. in Bloomington, USA, but in Hungary it is an elementary level music school, or the conservatory means a secondary music school e.g. in Hungary since 60-70 years, but the highest level in Paris or Moscow, the Academy means the top level music school e.g. in Hungary, Slovakia, and Romania, but sometimes it is only a private, simple music school elsewhere…) The musical talent needs a continuous direction in every period of human life, so the first question is this continuous development, and the second is the school system. This is one of the reasons for the differences between the Western and Eastern music teaching systems (e.g. in some western countries there are no secondary music schools). Of course, the other reason is the historical educational systems in the different countries. However there is one thing that is the same in every systems: music education needs teachers who can continuously develop the musical talent, who have the abilities to approach the different children of all ages or young musicians, and who are open to integrate the most recent changes in the musical language.

The three essays demonstrate that the music teacher training systems also have variability. (E.g. teacher training system changed into Bologna system in 2007, but after some years of operation it was reorganized into an undivided system in Hungary.) The different systems do not necessarily mean a difference in quality; they are different ways to reach the same target. We can conclude that the concepts we have now in our countries bring good results as the feedback shows from the world's musical life. However, it does not mean, that we do not need to learn from also successful western systems, such as the Suzuki-, Orff-, Dalcroze- systems. It should be noted that the compatibility of the content of teachers training is very important because we should not miss the final target: to give an up-to-date knowledge to the

[40] Kodály, Z. (1958/1964). Közönségnevelés. In Bónis, F. (Ed.) *Visszatekintés.* [= In Retrospect] (collection of writings, speeches, including the thesis for the doctoral degree). Vol. I. p. 318. (Vols. I-II: 1964, Vol. III: 1989 - in Hungarian). Budapest: Zeneműkiadó.

students, to help future music teachers to be able to integrate music culture form all around the globalized world that seems to become smaller and smaller and feels like a great family in need of the music teachers – the ferrymen…

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The prestige and social construction of the teacher profession in three countries

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Introduction

The public perception of the teacher (image) is strongly related to the expectations that society has toward the professional group, this, in turn is connected with the understanding of the teacher's function and role. Here we can quote B. Śliwerski who asks if "the teaching profession can be considered a profession. Referring to the research of A.C. Ornstein and D.U. Levine, he states that this social class unfortunately does not meet the expectations of a professional group. In the very rich literature on professions (see its analysis e.g. MacDonald, 1995; Kleisz, 2005; Nagy, 2008; Formádi, 2011) the definition and the original meaning of "profession" – vocation – was a word that meant high prestige occupations. Functionalist profession theories, independent from the various definitions and viewpoints, refer to three components: knowledge, abilities and skills required to be a profession, to the method of their transferring them, the norms ruling their activity and the professional organizations providing these norms. How can these criteria prevail in teacher professions? Regarding the knowledge and abilities required by professions a relative consensus can be found – cognitive knowledge, skills and abilities together with applied methods significantly undergird the framework of public education.

They are often formed, ruled and maintained by different interests (decisions, curricula and documents which articulate them) and by the interests and decisions related to education policy. The institutional system of transferring the knowledge necessary for the professions also has a century-old history. Norms on how to perform professional tasks, the Code of Ethics of the profession and the effectiveness of the professional organizations maintaining the norms of the performance of profession has had a smaller effect on the profession than for example those of the medical or legal professional organizations that have high prestige. Partly because of this and partly because of the issue of defining the knowledge and abilities necessary for working in the profession, teacher professions are categorized as semi-professions by several writers (Etzioni, 1969).

While characterizing the semi-professions Etzioni used the attribute-list model and emphasized the following attributes: training shorter than 5 years, less specialized knowledge and set of abilities, the stress is on communication of knowledge and not on its application, with less emphasis on the creation of

knowledge. There is weaker professional autonomy and professional authority is confronted by external social control where the performance is put under extensive testing and the social legitimacy of the profession rests on a weak base. The code of ethics of the profession is vague and inconsistent; the professional field is less related to the privileged social communication's sphere and to the question of life and death. Etzioni differentiated the following semi-professions: nurses, social workers, librarians, teachers, and pharmacists (Etzioni, 1969).

It should be noted that Etzioni's controversial interpretation was developed in connection with a high proportion of women. Etzioni explicitly stated that real professions are all male professions. His lower judgment of the semi-professions - because they are mainly done by women – plays a significant role. According to Etzioni the attributes of typical female activities are characteristic of semi-professions and that women's judgment is not formed by the professional skills but by traditional roles. The original thought has been preserved and transformed into the semi-profession status mainly for the caring professions where the name itself refers to the caring, and helping, for example the nursing role of women (Etzioni, 1969).

The Polish pedeutological literature claims that regarding the teaching profession, apart from knowledge and competence, terms such as mission, passion and vocation are of great significance (Kwiatkowski, 2008). Discussing differences between teaching and other professions, Stefan M. Kwiatkowski indicates attitudes that are perceived as psychophysical components. "A full system of features comprises sensorimotor skills, abilities (to do something) and personality traits. It is these traits that in fact distinguish teachers from other professions. Whereas willingness to continuous learning is generally highly appreciated by the vast majority of employers, from the teacher's perspective it is essential to regard this profession in categories of vocation, mission and above-average passion. The personality traits, therefore, are the basic hallmarks of the teacher; the desirable characteristics in the teaching profession" (Kwiatkowski, 2008, pp. 27–28). The willingness to learn continuously is very important, as the specific character of the profession allows us to claim that no teacher is fully prepared to work after gaining qualifications. Obtaining a professional qualification is possible, according to R. Kwaśnica only regarding professions which depend on relatively repetitive and predictable tasks, and which require technical skills. "Considering, though, the teaching profession in terms of full professional preparation is at variance with its essence. (...) The required competences are always essentially unready, always insufficient, incessantly in motion, under development, constantly demanding change" (Kwaśnica, 1994, p. 10). Students are affected by the teacher's whole being, by the type of people they are, and thus preparation for this role must be a

continuous, holistic and processual part of their personal development. "Teacher education – regardless of who it is aimed at – whether it is candidates for this profession, novices or already experienced practitioners - always supports their personal development and should include: a.) types of competences which are to be developed b.) a logical background of this development and c.) the expertise level of these teachers to whom it is addressed" (Kwaśnica, 1994, p. 15).

According to R. Kwaśnica, the teaching profession requires paying attention to what is decisive in its unique character, that is, to practical and moral competences (interpretative, moral, and communicative) and not to technical ones (normative, methodical, executive) (Kwaśnica, 1994, p. 21). The scope of technical expertise used in pedagogical work is therefore limited to the possibility of projecting and organising the process of educating, teaching but not upbringing (Śliwerski, 2006).

Teachers in Hungarian research

Hungarian research on the teacher's situation shows that the most often examined topics of empirical research are in connection with the recruitment of teachers into the professions, feminization and its prestige. Research on teacher professions – the usage of plural is justifiable, as in most countries we cannot talk about a unified teacher profession, rather about hierarchically structured professions – together with the outlined phenomena, deal with the competency, knowledge and personalities, as well as with teacher roles and the tasks of teachers and schools.

Because of the identified features of the Hungarian research, the emphasis of this study is on the teachers' prestige. The first part concentrates on a secondary analysis of the national research in connection with this topic. The second part was to see if those questions that were important to researchers about teachers' professions would surface in the opinions, thinking, and expectations of prospective teachers themselves. The part of the research focusing on students with an education major is suitable to compare with professional statements and previous research. This is why the structure of this study differs from the norm, in that the results of the teacher research are analyzed first by placing them into conceptual frameworks of international profession research – and then the students' opinions about teacher professions are examined. This type of approach is appropriate for comparing the results of the Hungarian teacher research and the prospective teachers with an education major; furthermore it can also be grounded in a conceptual framework.

The prestige of teachers' professions can be formed by several things. Based upon the international literature and the analysis of the research one of the major figures in the Hungarian teachers' research emphasize the interaction of the factors

that form prestige (Nagy, 1994). In this way it is important to highlight the granularity and hierarchy of the educational system of certain countries, since the prestige of the teachers' profession will be significantly different according to the place occupied by the school rating in the educational system. The effect of education policy is very important in the macro-level connections, that is, the structure formed by the educational policies, the connection between the institutions and the agents in the educational system, and whether or not there is a difference at each level and institutional type. As a result of educational policy, important differences develop between the institution types and the levels of the education, such that important differences prevail with respect to certain teachers' professions (Nagy, 1994, pp. 11–16).

The "feminization" of teacher professions significantly influences their prestige (Deák & Nagy, 1998; Mártonfi, 1998; Nagy, 2001a; Papp, 2001; Székely et al., 1998; Vágó, 1998). However, no causal connection has been found between feminization and the decrease of the prestige in the professions. It is not the mass appearance of women that decreases the prestige of the profession, rather it is that the status and income deteriorated earlier and men started to choose different professions. The increase in the rate of women in higher education is a function of "replacing" the professional positions given up by men.

An important connection seems to prevail between available income and social prestige as shown by the Hungarian research over decades (Nagy, 2001a, 2001b). In 1938, compared with the monthly average income of factory workers, high school teachers earned 3.9 times more, while elementary school teachers earned 2.4 times more (Nagy, 2001c, p. 83). Thus, high school teachers belonged to the mid-range, while elementary school teachers belonged to the lower groups. In the Socialist countries of Eastern Europe, as a result of the political changes in 1946 to 1948, the income of professions requiring degrees decreased radically. In 1957 even the best paid heads of departments earned only 2.7 times more than the average income of factory workers (Nagy, 2001c, p. 83), high school teachers got only 1.1 times more, while elementary school teachers got 0.9 times more, which means they earned less than factory workers. These income positions did not change and even at the end of the 90's, primarily with respect to the average income of elementary school teachers, a significant failure could be seen when comparing them with professionals with a degree working in financial fields.

During the last decades, teachers' income has had a significant effect on both teachers' self-image and on the connection between real and expected incomes and social appreciation (Ferge & Háber, 2001). In the 1960's and 70's the different professional groups of teachers put the level of their income between 2.44 and 3.39 on a seven-point scale, while the expected fair income was put between 4.60 and

5.04, or between 1.5 to 2 times more than their real income. Although their rated social appreciation was between 3.11 and 3.79 on the seven-point scale, they expected the fair level of their social appreciation to be between 4.16 and 5.95 (Ferge & Háber, 2001, p. 25.). In summary, teachers during socialism had a low income and only a little bit higher social appreciation, but their expectations for greater social appreciation was higher.

The long-term effect of the process is shown by the fact that even in 1998, using the rate of teachers' salary based on the ratio of GDP per capita, teachers earned less than in other countries (for kindergarten teachers it was 0.52, for elementary school teachers 0.68 and for high school teachers 0.72. The value would be 1.0 if it were equal with the per capita GDP – Nagy, 2001c, p. 86). Taking the OECD countries into consideration, if we look at teachers with 15 years of experience, the situation is similar as well. Hungarian teachers belong to the low-income group in international comparisons (Nagy, 2001b, p. 63). This increased more in the several-decade-long process: low teacher incomes decreased the status of the teachers' professions and its prestige, which resulted in a serious "gap" between the social and financial appreciation of certain professions. In the 90's this gap was significant for elementary and later for high school teachers, although it was also seen for doctors as well to a lesser degree (Nagy, 2001a, p. 110), income data in case of groups having degree: Sugár, 1998, p. 317). In later sections of this paper the weakening effect of the income position will be referred to as one of the two processes that lead to de-professionalization.

As proof of the long-term effects, the judgment of teachers in the 70's of their self-image and their prestige changed very little by the late 90's (Szabó, 1998, pp. 150–151). When ranking the eleven potential intellectual professions, teachers and headmasters ranked themselves in the last place (the ranking was the following: high school teacher, elementary school teacher, kindergarten teacher). The interviewed adult respondents (representing public opinion) had a similar view of prestige for kindergarten teachers but they placed elementary and high school teachers in the mid-range. Thus, not only does the factor of amount of income of the teachers form their social prestige, it influences their own perception of their status as teachers. "Lay" public opinion is formed by how divided it sees the groups of teachers with results showing that they do see it divided. The rank and type of the schools are the basis of prestige for the teacher' professions. In addition, the social recruitment of teachers to certain school types and levels is significantly different. Thus, the hierarchy of the school system and social prestige are also related to the perceived social group affiliation – and they have serious social historical roots. For example, high school teachers were considered to be gentlemen in Hungary between the two world wars. "Lay" public opinion may be shaped by other factors as well, such as

the transforming of the inner world of schools, changing educational methods, and the alteration of the parent's relationship with the school and with the teachers.

These processes go together with a low estimate of their own prestige, which leads to the loss of status for teachers' professions and as a result to de-professionalization. The last feature is the consequence of several factors. Contradictions of the professionalization of teachers' professions play an important role, an example of such a factor would be the role of certain abilities like being charismatic, which cannot be developed in students during the educational process. It is partly connected to the method by which the knowledge and abilities needed for the profession can be transferred or if they can be transferred at all. During the professionalization analysis, Tibor Kuczi says that it is the personality that is the bearer of the teacher's work and not the intangible skills (Kuczi, 2001).

Utilizing another approach, Gábor Fodor arrives at a similar conclusion (Fodor, 2001); how can the characteristics of a "good teacher" be developed during teacher training or can these skills be passed on during training? The elements of the list of a "good teacher's" characteristics appear in the profession and role perception as well and include the following: strict, authoritative, consistent, serious, distant, demanding, aloof, irrevocable, educated, predictable, conservative. The research results of Ildikó Szabó show that the profession and role perception of "lay" people (adults) and teachers (what the laity expect from teachers' professions) are basically such expectations that their transmission can be fitted to the present structure and method of the training (Szabó, 1998). The problems of the transfer of the expected abilities and skills question the effectiveness of professionalization, which is a typical de-professionalization phenomenon. The same research into the structure of the teachers' self-image concerning expected characteristics of teachers verifies that the characteristics – like love of children, skills for cooperation, firm values, self-knowledge, determination – are not really professionalizable professional characteristics.

Taking the above mentioned into consideration, it can be said that the skills, abilities and characteristics necessary to teachers' professions are difficult to determine and even harder to be transferred during training, therefore strengthening the phenomenon of semi-professions and the de-professionalization processes. The literature suggests that this is due primarily to the changing situation of the professions and the different reactions of clients as they both decrease the autonomy and power of professions (Fónai, 2012; Pusztai & Fónai, 2012). In addition it must be pointed out that inclusion of the "masses" studying in higher education has decreased the "rarity-value" of the diploma and has also contributed to the decrease of the status of professions. De-professionalization can lead to proletarianization. An important condition for it (beyond the new requirements of clients and the high

status given by "rarity") is the influence of big organizations that decreases the autonomy of professions as it treats the members of professions primarily as employees (Haug, 1973; Kleisz, 2002, 2005; Oppenheimer, 1973).

Determinants of the Teacher's Social Image in Polish Society

Social expectations for teachers are related to competences (confirmed by their professional promotion) and not only to qualifications (confirmed by diploma of higher education). Speaking about social expectations for teachers and their role we must emphasize that these are especially connected to the competences required from the beginning of their career path. It means that teachers are expected to have all of the skills and competences at the very start of their work experience despite the fact that they practically have been given no opportunity to acquire them. Because of some elements of the teaching profession's unique character (specific personality traits, variety of professional tasks, competences (which are to be) "effective now"), it belongs to a group of few impossibles, where tasks exceed the possibility of their accomplishment. It is, however, the same kind of tasks that are formed for the whole population, not only teachers (Kwiatkowski, 2008, p. 28; Lewowicki, 1994, pp. 79–81).

The dissonance between social requirements and abilities to meet them has many aspects. There are social, organizational and subjective factors related to the selection of candidates, the quality of their education and (in)ability to fulfill the role requirements, as the demands are irrelevant to real (subjective, organizational) possibilities of meeting them (Murawska, 2009, p. 278). Hence, a question arises: what is the cause of the above?

According to S.M. Kwiatkowski, one of the causes is regarding an inclusive occupational group as an exclusive one. Teachers, due to common access to their profession form an inclusive group. Easy accessibility to the group, however, is not conducive to the creation of professional identity either within the group or in the individual dimension. Therefore automatic and thoughtless perception of teachers as an exclusive group leads to an equally automatic and thoughtless act of assigning to them tasks that are beyond their capabilities. In other words, tasks aimed at a carefully selected group are performed by a group to which access is free, when the requirement of a higher education diploma does not pose a serious obstacle and personality traits are not verified in any way. Perhaps this classic mistake of assigning tasks to a particular social group has its origins in an unconscious transfer of responsibility. In this case, it is a transfer of a broadly understood fulfillment of educational tasks from the whole society to one of its groups. It is related mainly to parents, who due to their professional careers are unable to devote enough time to their children and therefore feel discomfort which manifests itself in a sense of guilt.

In order to reduce this feeling they transfer their responsibility to the teacher (Kwiatkowski, 2008).

The explanation of the sources of the mentioned dissonance may be based on the social impact theories (Aronson, 1997). These are the theories which make the adaptation to the social impact dependent on the strength, directness and size of a group. According to this theory, the conformity (in this case an attempt to fit a socially desirable image of an ideal teacher) increases in direct proportion to the growth of social pressure and the directness of formulating expectations. Therefore teachers are under social pressure which depends precisely on a transfer of responsibility for the child's education to the educational system (Kwiatkowski, 2008, p. 29).

The perception of the social role of the teacher is, apart from a decreasing level of parental involvement in educational processes, influenced by increasing pathology in family and other social environments as well as by a caricaturistic and contrasting image of the teacher presented by the mass media (Murawska, 2009, p. 276). An analysis of this image (advertisements, entertainment programmes, the Internet) presents the teacher as terrorized by students, helpless against their reprehensible behaviour, avoiding students, humiliated, frightened, detesting students, school and their own job. Furthermore the portrayed teacher is a low income earner, helpless in life, a person of a low social status, dull, uninteresting, associated with everything that is overwhelming, not essential and boring. In mass media, the teacher is often depicted as a ruthless, autocratic person, indifferent to children's behaviour, aggressive, handling private affairs at work, not fulfilling his duties properly.[1]

The research conducted by K. Appelt (2005) provides very interesting information, e.g. children who enter education have an image of the teacher associated with educational work. Other studies on classroom communication (Wawrzyniak-Beszterda, 2002) show that "students do not want to talk to teachers, and the teacher's role is limited only to the typical educational activities. If students allow the possibility of talking to them, they discuss only school-related topics. They perceive the teacher as a socially incompetent person" (Waszyńska & Woźniak, 2010, p. 39). Whereas social competence is, in fact, the main success factor in this profession. Ch. Day is convinced that "teachers are role models in schools where understanding is more important than knowledge, where personal development is a priority, and where the person is in the centre of attention (Day, 2004, p. 284). What also influences the public perception of teaching is the fact that the profession is a subject to numerous legal regulations, which are not always coherent, and often

[1] Based on private, not published research.

even exclusionary. "Changes in the authority of the Ministry of Education every few years result in the appearance of extreme, opposing approaches to the role fulfillment beginning with the idea of setting it free, through creative fulfillment, to the lack of confidence, rigor and top-down control. Continuous controls and monitoring of the teacher's work made the public think that the persons practicing this profession are not trustworthy" (Śliwerski, 2006).

The dissonance between high expectations and the inability to meet them results in professional burnout. The research made by A. Nalaskowski on the teachers from Polish provinces, reveals a very sad image of the profession, where up to 66% of teachers with less than a 10-year work experience are already showing symptoms of burnout. This is well illustrated by the following: (1) teachers themselves do not perceive their profession as held in high regard, nor is it valuable for them. Up to 84% of them are dissatisfied or even disappointed with their occupation. (2) 70% of teachers ascribe failure in life to the profession they practise. 58% of teachers under 40 years old would change their job or education, 35% of those under 30 would not change anything. (3) 78% of teachers doubt their own parental competence, how are they supposed to bring up other children? (4) Up to 67% of respondents do not prepare for work, 12% do it only once a week, 10% twice a week, 6% three times, 4% four times a week, and their presence at school is both temporary and dictated by necessity, giving them no satisfaction. (5) Furthermore, life in the countryside is boring and provides no opportunities to participate in cultural life. Teachers do not intend to engage in the local community's life and thus they create a social vacuum in the relations between school and the local environment. 69% of respondents do not like the place where they live and work, and for another 12% it is not important (Nalaskowski, 1997).

In this context, it may be surprising that according to the opinion polls, the teaching profession is rated very high. B. Śliwerski refers to the surveys from 1996, according to which teachers are at the 2nd place (28% of responses) in the ranking of the most prestigious professions (right after doctors: 68%, ahead of lawyers – 19%, armed forces officers – 14%, TV presenters – 10%, police officers – 6%, businessmen, engineers – 5% and politicians – 3%). However, when asked whether they would choose this profession for their own children, only 7% of respondents gave a positive answer (Śliwerski, 2006).

We can learn about the attitude towards the teaching profession in Poland from the data published by CBOS[2] (Centre for Public Opinion Research) in its November survey. The results make it quite clear that it is appreciated. The vast

[2] The research "Current problems and events" (270) conducted between 8 – 17 Nov 2012 on a representative group of more than 952 randomly selected adults in Poland. Wizerunek nauczyciela, www.cbos.pl/SPISKOM.POL/2012/K_173_12.PDF

majority of the respondents perceive this profession as stressful (86%), very responsible (83%) and difficult (74%). Responses concerning the public image of this occupation are not so homogeneous, but, in general, indicate that it is held in high regard.

Two-thirds of the respondents (68%) believe that teachers have high qualifications and are willing to improve them, more than a half of respondents (55%) think that the job gives them a lot of satisfaction. More than two-fifths (43%) believe that teachers have a sense of vocation, and only a group half this size (21%) thinks the opposite. Although opinions are strongly divided when it comes to whether the profession is held in high regard- more than one-third of the respondents (36%) say that it is indeed highly regarded and exactly the same percentage (36%) disagree with this opinion. However, to confirm whether the occupation is held in high regard, a projection question was asked, about the opinion on performing this job in the future by the respondents' children. In fact, the majority – more than a half of the respondents (54%) would not want their children to become teachers, and one-third (34%) approve of the idea.

Therefore a certain inconsistency in opinions is revealed. On the one hand, the profession is perceived positively, on the other hand, the respondents would not like their children to perform the job.

Social construction of teacher image in Slovak society

The financial crisis has hit most economies. The situation is the same in Slovakia, where according to the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic we had 13.5 % unemployed in 2011. Before the crisis, this number was 9.6%.[3] The financial crisis has affected the economy of the country, but mostly it affects people's lives. Finance is one side of the coin, the other is social status and the perception of different professions associated with general recognition and respect.

"The salary is not enough to live on." "Our salary is lower than the wages of a worker." "People do not respect teachers; public education is failing to fulfill its role." These are the main reasons why on 13th of September 2012, employees of the educational sector in Slovakia protested in the streets of their cities, and then began to strike on 26th of November 2012, which the media described as the biggest strike since 2003. Teaching and non-teaching staff in kindergartens, primary and secondary schools engaged in the strike in various parts of Slovakia.

The economic situation in Slovakia and the strike of teachers filled pages of Slovak newspapers before the start of the strike and for weeks afterwards. Photos of protesting teachers, students and their supporters, short and extended reports,

[3] http://portal.statistics.sk/showdoc.do?docid=1801

comments on the situation could be seen in all the newspapers. Editors published interviews with representatives of various organizations and teachers themselves, opinion polls so the general public got the chance to express their opinion on the situation in the education sector. Various statements and articles presented different statistics that reflected the vision of reality. The teachers' strike was a theme of many caricatures as well.

While some supported the strike (according to surveys agency Focus, 60% of the population of the Slovak public), others talked about unwise and unreasonable demands in times of crisis. There were voices against the protest. The director of the Institute INEKO, Peter Goliáš, claimed that after the government acceded to the demands of striking doctors, showed the public that fencing not only in a verbal form, but via protests in the streets everyone can achieve their demands.[4] The respected commentator of the daily SME, Peter Schutz, wrote a commentary published on the front page with the headline: "We all earn little"[5]. Later the daily expressed its disagreement with the strike. They said that the salaries that teachers were now asking for and why today's children remain at home instead of going to school, will pay just these kids. The inappropriate timing was criticized by the general public in the short polls which newspapers published. People mentioned that there were many financially starving professions in Slovakia.[6] In general many articles were expressing sympathy with the strike. The teachers on strike were supported by a higher percentage of citizens, which had a doubtlessly negative impact on the preferences of the current government. After the election, the ruling party SMER was supported by 50% of the population, at the time of teacher's strike, this number shrank to 38%.[7] Students showed strong support for their protesting teachers, joining them on the streets with banners and slogans expressing their support. The conference of Slovak Bishops challenged the people to be more interested in the education process and so to contribute to the increase of the quality and to show respect for the teaching profession, which is difficult because of children's aggressive behaviour, and also because instead of quality, the emphasis is put on quantity, teachers must handle a lot of paper work as well.[8] Despite public support, the government remained by its promises.

Participation in a strike deprived teachers of some of their wages, which was really difficult for most of them, so they preferred not to be involved in the strike or to participate for a shorter period. They thought that their money would be

4 http://komentare.sme.sk/c/6618767/ucitelom-viac-ale-bez-strajku.html
5 http://komentare.sme.sk/c/6617533/vsetci-zarabame-malo.html
6 http://www.sme.sk/c/6617656/anketa-aky-je-vas-nazor-na-strajk-ucitelov.html
7 http://m.hnonline.sk/c3-58831000-kw0000_d-ucitelom-uz-staci-menej
8 http://www.kbs.sk/obsah/sekcia/h/dokumenty-a-vyhlasenia/p/dokumenty-konferencie-biskupov-slovenska/c/list-stalej-rady-konferencie-biskupov-slovenska-o-poslani-ucitela

reimbursed during the strike, but they were wrong. "When the media reported that wages could not be refunded through rewards, they decided not to participate. Many would not even have money for rent."[9] The average wage was 855 euros in Slovakia in 2012 in the national economy. Slovak teachers earn only 45% of the average wage paid to other full-time employees in Slovakia who have a university education, a comparison which puts Slovakia at the bottom of a ranking used by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). The average ratio in OECD countries is 85%. The salary obviously reflects the overall economic strength of the country and Slovakia is rated the euro zone's second poorest country. The numbers are still insufficient for employees of the educational sector in comparison in Austria; incoming teachers monthly payrolls are about 2,235 euros. In Germany, young teachers earn more, up to 3,307 euros a month. Teachers in Slovakia earn an average of 687 euros a month.[10]

During the biggest strike since 2003 the teaching and non-teaching staff wanted to achieve higher salaries and to highlight how bad the situation was in Slovakia's education sector. The strike could involve about 70% of teachers and other educational staff, and according to the school union 93% employees involved from region Košice.[11] So most primary and secondary schools in Slovakia had remained closed which directly affected students and their parents. School children stayed with their older siblings, grandparents, or even alone at home during the strike. The government tried to find alternatives during these days. Different sport and leisure activities were organized by leisure centres and religious institutions. Parents of children younger than 10 years were eligible for state benefit if they stayed at home with a child. The strike raised tensions. According to some opinions, teachers were intimidated into not supporting the strike otherwise they would lose their job. According to a newspaper, a certain teacher from the Art School in Bratislava was dismissed for his participation in the strike, the school denied it.[12]

Finally the union strike committee decided to interrupt the strike, officially because of continuing negotiations with the government. Protesters did not agree despite lower salaries which they should get during the strike. Negotiations between the school union and the Slovak government remained only at the level of commitments. The government promised to fund education at the level of 6 % in

[9] http://www.sme.sk/c/6636416/ucitel-zo-skoly-ma-prepustili-pre-strajk.html
[10] http://www.rozhlas.sk/spravy/Porovnanie-platov-ucitelov-v-SR-a-v-zahranici?l=1&i=46086&p=247
[11] http://spravy.pravda.sk/domace/clanok/251967-strajk-ucitelov-neodvratil-ani-kazimir-zapoji-sa-70-percent-skol/
[12] http://www.sme.sk/c/6636416/ucitel-zo-skoly-ma-prepustili-pre-strajk.html

2020.[13] Teachers' salaries should be increased by 5%, despite the fact that teachers required 10%.[14] Dušan Čaplovič, the Minister of Education noted that this proposal was generous in times of crisis.[15]

Poor financial evaluation of people working in the education sector was one problem and reason why the schools were closed and teachers claimed their rights. Another reason why theyfought for a better evaluation and better conditions was to remind the government and members of the public of the current disrespectful state of employees of the educational sector. It is known that nowadays children do not respect teachers or even their parents, even though teachers do not only educate children but together with the parents raise them.

Many officials spoke about the need to reform education. They encourage parents and citizens to improve the attitude to this profession. Slovak teachers also have a university education degree, but their diploma is at least appreciated in the developed world. 94.2% of our teachers have university education,[16] the Ministry of Education requires the necessary qualifications. But in order to meet the required number of working hours they must also teach subjects in which they are not certificated. In Slovakia, there is a lack of qualified foreign language teachers. Ministry statistics say that we have 17.6% uncertified high school teachers in this subject. Information and communication technology in Slovak schools are taught by teachers 11.1% of whom do not have necessary qualifications.[17] There are voices that say that the quality of our teachers is low. The best students decide to study law, computer science or medicine. The Faculty of Education accepts poorer candidates. Many of those who decided for a better paid job would like to learn, but poor social status, disinterest of children and parents, as well as low income make them choose something else. In Slovakia there are only 3% of teachers aged 25 years, and we have 16% of teachers aged between 40-54 years.[18]

The Minister of Education tries to solve the situation by the education model he took from Finland, where the situation is much better. "Teaching is among the three to five most popular occupations, it is just law and medicine that attract more interest. The explanation is not money; teachers' salaries are only slightly above average. Compared to other university-educated people they are even slightly lower"[19], Mr Leo Pahkin from the Finnish National Board of Education assessed the situation. The government sees the possibility of improving the quality by the reduction of the number of teachers. Finally demographic indicators were showing a

[13] http://www.rozhlas.sk/radio-slovensko/spravy/Reakcie-skolskych-organizacii-na-spravu-o-stave- a-buducnosti-skolstva?l=2&i=62443&p=5
[14] http://www.sme.sk/c/6628987/fico-ucitelom-nevyhovel-vlada-im-schvalila-pat-percent.html
[15] http://hnonline.sk/slovensko/c1-58769060-zacina-sa-najvacsi-strajk-zavrie-vacsinu-skol
[16] http://www.uips.sk/prehlady-skol/statisticka-rocenka---suhrnne-tabulky
[17] http://www.uips.sk/prehlady-skol/statisticka-rocenka---suhrnne-tabulky
[18] http://www.uips.sk/prehlady-skol/statisticka-rocenka---suhrnne-tabulky
[19] http://www.noveskolstvo.sk/article.php?732

declining birth rate. However, since 2002 it has been growing again and demographers predict that the number of first-year students will grow till 2017.[20] Analysts reject this so called rationalization of the school network, which should fuse schools and release teachers and then finally raise the payments.[21]

Whether this is the road that the Slovak education system will go is currently unclear, what is certain is that the situation should be solved immediately. The strike reported with such interest by Slovak papers did not bring the expected results, but at least it pointed out the limitations of Slovak education which is becoming unsustainable and requires fundamental reforms. The changes should raise the quality of education, ensure adequate social status and payments for teachers and so create a well-educated society which can develop farther.

The prestige of prospective teachers in Hungary

As shown in the previous sections about national and international teacher research, the more general status of the teacher professions and its prestige, which is highly correlated, are low. The resulting loss of status characterizes the de-professionalization of the teacher professions very well. It is a most interesting question how prospective teachers with an education major perceive the situation of the teacher professions and how they perceive the prestige of the profession. Two research studies examined how the prestige of teacher professions reflects on the way university students see the prestige of their future profession.

The data from two research studies are reported here. One of them is the DETEP (Gift Attendance Program of the Debrecen University). The program started in 2000 with the goal of supporting students with tutorial help, scholarships and other professional possibilities. As the admission process of the program changed significantly in 2009, only the data from the first period (2002–2008) are reported here. In this period 3,183 students were assessed in the second level and 304 of them were prospective teachers with an education major and the data referring to them are reported here (Márton et al., 2006).

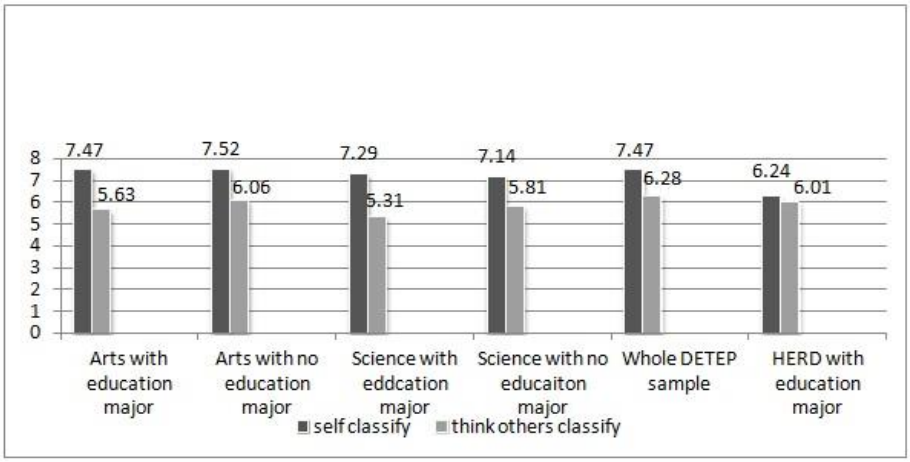
The other data include the results from a HURO-HERD research project that studied prospective teachers with an education major. Three universities participated in this international research, the Debrecen University, the University of Oradea and Partium Christian University. One of the elements of the project was a research questionnaire involving students of the three universities. It consisted of questions about the educational history of the students, their expectations about the university, their value systems and their family background. For students with an education

[20] http://komentare.sme.sk/c/6618759/prepustat-ci-neprepustat-ucitelov.html
[21] http://rozhlas.sk/vyhladavanie/Rokovania-medzi-vladou-a-skolskymi-odborarmi-budu-pokracovat-?l=1&c=0&i=52556&p=1&q=1

major – students placed themselves in this category – a block of questions referring to the teacher profession was included. It partly corresponds to a similar question block on the other survey, so the results of the two research studies can be compared to a certain extent. The number of students completing self-administered questionnaire was 1,471, and among them 283 were education majors (55 were planning to add an education minor to their major).

In judging the prestige of their own major the expectation was that their rankings[22] would be based on the ranking developed within the university, which is closely connected to the prestige of those professions and linked to the chosen majors. Furthermore, the rankings are formed by mutual perceptions, stereotypes and prejudices (Figure 1.).

Figure 1. The ranking of the students by themselves and others on a 10-point scale



Source: Detep, 2002-2008., HERD, 2012

There is a general trend that students perceive their majors to be evaluated lower than they would evaluate them (Fónai, Márton & Ceglédi, 2011). This might be the result of a perception that others do not know about their major and this is why they evaluate them lower. With the professions where the social prestige of the professions is low, students think this is the reason of others' low ranking. At the same time even if they think that although the prestige of the chosen profession is really low or moderate, the major itself is difficult and the education is of good quality thus there are only few students who evaluate themselves and their majors low. Their opinion can be summarized like this: only those who are inside (the

[22] The rankings essentially show the prestige of the particular majors, common knowledge about and acceptance of them.

majors themselves) can evaluate the situation of the major in a real way – those outside that major can only see it through stereotypes; a typical group-sociological phenomenon.

The justification for others ranking the major of the students at certain levels is in some cases similar to the opinion of the students themselves. Common justification and interpretation is that others do not know the major, and the major is difficult or fashionable. There are significant differences in the justification of prestige, utilizable knowledge, and good career possibilities. The DETEP sample students, independently from whether or not they are an education major, evaluate their majors higher than the HERD sample students who are education majors. This explanation may be related to the selection process in that only the upper fifth of the students had a chance to get to the Gift Attendance program. Consequently, the evaluation of their own status is connected not only to the major and to the status of the connecting profession, but also to their own individual position/selection. With regards to the university career only brighter students can get into the Gift Attendance Program so the difference might be expected.

It can be supported by the fact that in the external evaluation of their own major (and the associated profession) there are no significant differences between the sample students of DETEP and the HERD students with an education major. The ranking by the students with an education major concerning the prestige of the major shows the effect of the semi-profession and de-professionalization process in both the internal and external (perceived and assumed) evaluation and the differences of the two samples. This corresponds to our expectation that the financial situation of the students of the Gift Attendance Program is more favorable than the financial situation of the HERD students with education major, which corresponds to the (sub) sample of population.

The reasons given for ranking show interesting results but can be examined only on the DETEP sample and the DETEP students with an education major subsample. Let’s see first the reasons for the ranking of their own major (Table 1., Table 2.)

Table 1. Why do you rank your major here? Reasons for their own prestige ratings (answers given to open questions – the first 15 statements – Percentage that the statement is given)

	Faculty of Arts students with education major	*Faculty of Arts students with no education major*	*Faculty of Sciences students with education major*	*Faculty of Sciences students with no education major*	*Total sample*
Utilizable knowledge	8.5	12.3	14.4	15.6	14.6
Don't know	7.5	10.3	18.3	13.7	13.3
Difficult major	10.0	8.3	15.4	16.1	13.0
Fashionable major	13.0	7.8	20.2	15.2	10.9
High level	12.5	12.7	7.7	9.0	10.2
Average major	11.5	3.9	7.7	8.8	9.9
High demand major	14.5	5.9	9.6	10.7	9.3
Good employment opportunities	5.0	7.4	2.9	7.9	9.1
High requirements	8.5	11.3	4.8	8.4	9.0
Low level	9.5	10.3	20.0	9.6	7.7
The prestige of the profession is high	7.0	9.8	2.9	4.5	7.2
Quality education	9.0	4.9	11.5	7.9	7.0
High prestige	9.5	8.8	16.3	7.5	6.7
Recognized professors	18.5	7.8	7.7	6.4	5.7
Underestimated major	4.0	8.8	4.8	3.6	5.2

Source: DETEP 2002-2008

Table 2. Why do you rank your major based upon what others think about it (external judgment) (answers given to open questions – the first 15 statements – Percentage that the statement is given)

	Faculty of Arts students with education major	*Faculty of Arts students with no education major*	*Faculty of Sciences students with education major*	*Faculty of Sciences students with no education major*	*Total sample*
Do not know	11.5	23.0	21.2	27.8	21.3
Difficult major	12.5	12.3	24.0	15.8	16.0
Underestimated major	13.5	12.7	9.6	8.8	10.2
High prestige	13.5	5.4	18.3	10.7	8.7
Low prestige	14.5	7.4	19.2	13.9	8.5
Fashionable major	7.5	1.5	16.3	7.1	7.6
Average status	7.0	4.9	5.8	7.7	7.4
Utilizable knowledge	7.0	7.4	13.5	6.4	6.9
High level	6.5	9.8	12.5	6.5	6.4
High demand major	6.0	3.9	6.7	4.7	5.9
High requirements	4.0	10.3	1.0	2.6	5.7
Stereotypes	4.5	2.9	9.6	8.6	5.6
Low level	7.5	4.9	11.5	5.8	5.0
Good job opportunities	4.0	3.9	1.9	4.5	4.2
The prestige of the profession is high	2.5	5.9	1.0	3.9	4.1

Source: DETEP 2002-2008

The prevailing, essential differences between the places of own ranking and the (assumed) place ranking by others can only be partly explained by the perceived external devaluation of majors and professions – one of its manifestations is the mutual ranking. If the difference between the rankings is explained by the situation of the potential professions (that is, the stereotypes and beliefs about the certain professions and their situations) then it can be said that the ranking of students with an education major signifies that there was a loss of status that happened during the last decade in the teacher professions.

A typical incongruence can be seen in the justification of certain rankings and between the two rankings. The self-image of the students of Faculty of Arts can be characterized by a more coherent justification regarding their own major's level, as they emphasize utilizable knowledge, the demand for the majors and high-level education. However, even in this case serious incongruence can be seen: they simultaneously perceive that others evaluate their majors low or high prestige and low level indicating a link to the ambivalent interpretation of the major and profession and the essential difference between the certain majors. The self-image of students who do not have an education major in the Faculty of Arts is also incongruent because they justify the ranking of their majors with ambivalent opinions (fashionable, average, high requirement, misjudged). In their case the perception of the external evaluation seems to be more coherent with the emphasis on high requirements. The self-image of the students with an education major is a bipolar self-image: together with the high standard and requirements (it is more typical) the low level also appears.

The bi-polar image is a warning sign. The question is what is the cause? However, this research has not been able to answer this question. We only have speculative conclusions: (1) more motivated students with better grades feel the problems of the recent years in science teachers' training; (2) the decrease of students' interest; (3) the drastic reduction in the number of students who can be accepted, which is likely to break the field of science students with education and without an education major into two groups: a more talented group with good performance and a group that performs weaker. Students without an education major in the Faculty of Sciences have a more coherent self-image. They see their majors as difficult ones, which give them a better opportunity to get a job. At the same time, they felt that the rankings given by others do not take this difficulty into consideration enough with too much stereotyping.

Conclusion

What is the solution to the dissonance between the social expectations for teachers and their abilities to meet these? First, a solution seems to be simply making the demands realistic, i.e.: reducing social expectations for teachers. It means indicating that there are other entities responsible for the educational process apart from

teachers (Kwiatkowski, 2008, p. 30). In this context, it is essential to maintain a balance between social demands and the working conditions in which teachers are to meet them (Aleksander, Bauman & Rutkowiak, 1991). Secondly, a redefinition of the teacher's role is needed. Nowadays the traditional role of the teacher as "info-tube", as an expert with a monopoly on the truth about the world and life, willing to "give" ready-made scenarios for successful realisations of lifelong careers, has already become obsolete and needs a prompt redefinition taking into account social needs and demands. Contemporary students need teachers who "understand them, are able to provide them with a safe environment, who offer them a critical and friendly approach to knowledge" (Day, 2004, p. 275). On the labour market, there is a great demand for highly educated, motivated employees, able to take advantage both of a greater autonomy and their own skills and competences, but also ready for continuous improvement and – if necessary – to retrain or react flexibly to the needs/economic situation of the market. This twofold solution is a great challenge for the educational system nowadays (Murawska, 2009, p. 272).

In the study on the basis of a secondary analysis of the national research referring to teachers, two major issues were highlighted (a) the status and prestige of teachers and (b) belonging to the middle-class and to intellectuals. The research clearly confirms the statements from the literature concerning semi-professions and de-professionalization. The status of teachers in general is deteriorating on the basis of several indicators, more specifically relative income, and social prestige. This loss of status is confirmed by the fact that teachers are recruited from lower and lower status social groups, which significantly contributes to the belief that teachers come from the lower-middle class and middle class. The contradicting social situation of teachers is shown by the strong incongruence between the knowledge needed for the professions, the income they can earn and the possible professional career and prestige. These dissonant, ambivalent elements reoccur in the profession-image of students as well. Potential teachers think about their profession without illusions but also without positive attraction.

The social situation of Polish and Slovak teachers is very similar to Hungarian teachers. E.g. the poor financial evaluation of teachers can cause the process of the de-professionalization of this profession, and can reduce the status and prestige of this profession. Although this tension between the professional career and the prestige could lead to the fact that in spite of the unfavorable (income) position the teachers could live an "intellectual" life. However, according to the empirical research results, students themselves see that their possibilities do not let them live an intellectual life. The "middle-class" problem also appears in elements of research referring to the way of life, cultural habits and cultural consumption of teachers. The connection to the "intellectuals" is problematic. Therefore, following

the examination of social prestige, the problems of belonging to the middle class and being an intellectual seems to be worth examining among students with an education major.

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Present Students in Teacher Education

Parallelism and differences in recruitment for teacher training in Hungary and Poland

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It is not easy to receive overall knowledge about students in teacher training. Statistical data are hardly suitable to do it and there is also the problem of interpreting this little information: since a teacher's degree is well convertible on the labour market, the students in teacher training and the teachers of the future are not the same – at least in Hungary. Many of the students in the teacher education have never wanted to be a teacher.

We summarize in this study the most important experience regarding the recruitment for teacher training in Hungary, and give some information about the Polish situation based on the experience of Academy of Ignatium in Lublin. Sometimes their survey verifies the Hungarian processes and sometimes it refers to differences. Our study, based on information collected by various methods, is meant to be thought-provoking, and only as the first step in understanding the processes in teacher education in our East-Central European Region.

Changes of student numbers in teacher training in Hungary[1]

In Hungary, there were radical changes after 1990 in the educational field, just like in the political, economical and social structure. The most significant ones involved the decentralization of the governance of education and increased school autonomy. The expansion of education was parallel with these, although partly independent from them, and together these changes totally reshaped the earlier graduation structure: the value of high graduation levels and the high level education programs increased significantly, and the economical changes also modified the ranking of the prestige of different vocations. Therefore the situation of teacher training also has thoroughly changed. Teachers used to work mostly in the public sector, where the salaries did not follow those in the private sector, meanwhile teachers had to work hard, and had more responsibility than earlier because of increasing school autonomy. Though the expansion of higher education slowed down within a few years after the millennium, the number of state-aided places were stable, while the number of students graduating on secondary level decreased – because of demographic reasons. As a result, the social devaluation of the teacher's profession

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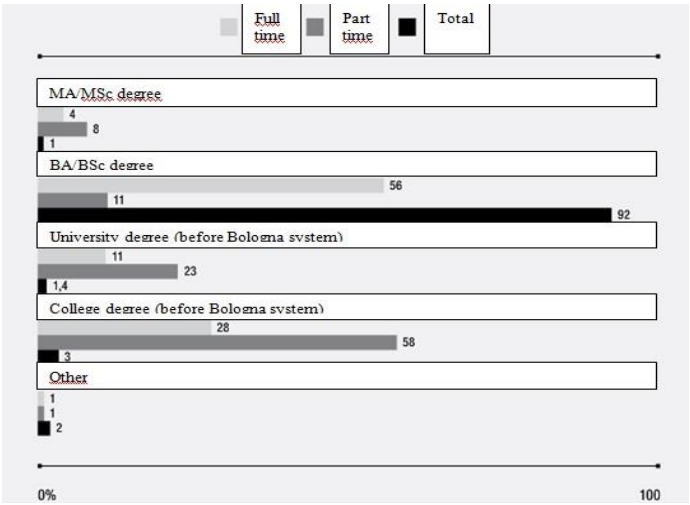
accelerated and new students came from secondary education with weaker and weaker graduation results and later most of them left the teacher profession. Also nowadays, the best students rather choose other professions, and they can do it, because due to the expansion of higher education they find enough places at other faculties (Kozma, 2004; Polónyi, 2000).

The number of students in teacher education has decreased since 2005/2006, partly because due to the newly introduced Bologna system, the first 3 years of the education are not a part of teacher education, and partly because fewer and fewer students are choosing this profession.

In the Bologna system, which was introduced in 2007 and discontinued in teacher training in 2013, students have to learn mainly professional subjects of their fields on BA/BSc level, and teacher profession subjects on MA/MSc level. It is possible to do full-time or part-time courses in teacher education. Younger students study mainly in full-time BA/BSc courses, most of them coming directly from secondary grammar schools or secondary vocational schools. Their average age is 24. Older students participate mostly in part-time courses, so the average age in these courses is 36. They are mainly teachers who graduated earlier in teacher training colleges and wanted to get a 'university (MA/MSc) degree'. In both groups women were overrepresented, their proportion reached 75%. The level of degree influenced partly teaching possibilities (a MA/MSC degree is necessary to teach on level ISCED 3), and partly – until 2013 – the official salaries. We summarize in the next chart, who participated in teacher training education.

Chart 1. Proportion of students in teacher training by level in full time and in part time courses



Source: Jancsák, 2011a

The social background of students in teacher training

Some youth sociology researches done in recent years (Bauer & Szabó, 2005, 2009) show that the number of students having low-educated parents has decreased in higher education. At the same time, the proportion of students with highly educated parents has increased. This trend can be observed in teacher education, too. More than half of full-time teacher education students have parents with a degree. (Jancsák, 2011a).[2]

The first socialization patterns come from the family, that is why the parents' background is important. It has a very significant importance that 67% of the students in full-time teacher education have at least one teacher parent, and this proportion is 62% in the part-time courses. In both groups the parents are mainly class teachers on level ISCED 1 (36 and 36% respectively), the others are teachers on level ISCED 2 (27 and 30%) or ISCED 3 teachers (27 and 13%).

Most teacher education students came from the Central Region of Hungary (where about one third of the total population lives). The young population living in the Northwest Region (Nyugat-Dunántúl), where the labour market situation is the best except for the Central Region, were the least likely to choose the teacher profession. The students in part-time courses show a significant variance by residence compared to those in full-time courses. They are coming in a lower number from the Central Region, but more from the Southern and the Northern Regions. This means that the inhabitants of regions with a bad labour market situation tend to think of a teaching career to a greater extent than the inhabitants of regions with a good situation. The latter ones, mainly in the Central Region that has the best situation, want to get a degree, but they do not necessarily want to teach. One-quarter of the students are studying in their city of residence. This means that teacher training education is not a good investment: learning in another city is expensive and it may not be worth it. There is no significant difference in this respect between full-time and part-time students.

Receiving a degree is tied to having a language exam, but taking a language exam is a great challenge for many students (many of them do not get the degree or get it only many years later because of this). The language skills of teacher training students is similarly good: full-time students speak at least one foreign language by their own admission, in most cases English language, and ¾ of them have at least one, and 42% two intermediate or higher level language certificate. This rate is somewhat lower among part-time students. The second important foreign language is German.

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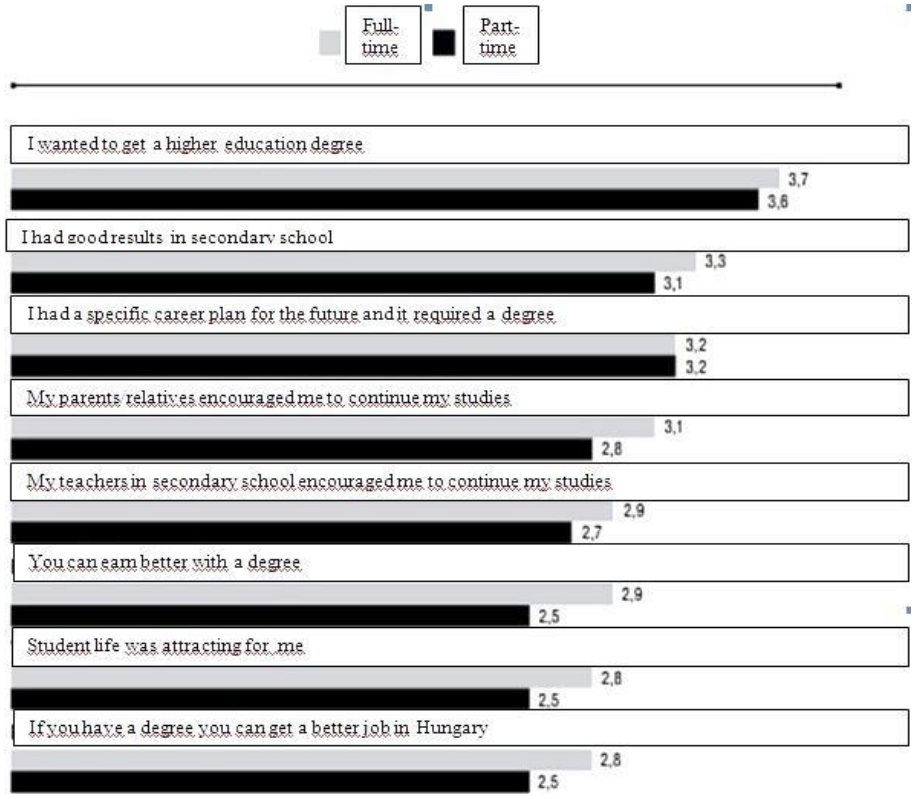
[2] This research and the additional empirical data were based on a survey of the Institute of Educational Research and Development in 2011. 1,211 people were asked from 19 different faculties of 12 different teacher educational institutions (universities and colleges) all over Hungary.

Students' goals and values

Students entering higher education do not have a clear conception about their future – according to an old teacher education research. What attracts them might be (Kozma, 2004; Nagy, 2001): an interest in the disciplines; affection for children; supply of universities and colleges and the student's way of life.

All this has changed within a decade. In 2011, the primary motivation for 78% of students was to get a degree, 53% of them had a concrete career plan in the future, but 46% of students did not mention (only) aims, but a reason: they had chosen the university because of 'their good results in secondary school'. The recommendation of parents and teachers was also a strong motivation for them to choose the teacher education. The detailed results are shown in chart 2.

Chart 2. Motives for continuing education after secondary school (1 – the matter of choice less cost, 4 – the matter of choice much cost), average figures



(Source: Jancsák, 2011b)

Based on a value research, we can say the students in teacher education have mostly individual aims, connected to a secure life and good social connections. The most important value is the *safety of the (future) family*, *love and happiness* and *inner harmony*. Non-material values take first priority. Students like the following postmodern values: *creativity*, *interesting life* and *variable life*. At the other end of the value range are the traditional values (*the role of nation*, *belief*) and material values (*wealth*, *power*). There is no significant difference in priorites for full-time and part-time students. These results about values of teacher training students are similar to those in other surveys, like a survey on national level (Bauer & Szabó, 2005, 2009).

Based on several value orientation surveys, students can be ordered into different value groups. The social backgrounds of these groups are different as well, each group has a different character according to gender, residence type and the family's intellectual or pedagogical background. Female students – in contrast to males – have a specific character: they like material values least of all, but they like so called universal values (e.g.: happiness, family security, pacific world etc.). There is not a very big difference between students according to their residence, but those living in small villages do prefer traditional values, while those living in Budapest, material values. There are similar differences according to parents' background: students with less educated parents (*first generation of intellectuals*) rather like universal and traditional values, meanwhile those with highly educated parents prefer postmodern values. There is a difference between religious and non-religious students. The previous ones like traditional values and the latter ones postmodern and material values (Jancsák, 2011b).

Directed recruitment of teacher training/profession[3]

To meet the needs presented by the project, the authors conducted a research among undergraduate students at the Academy of Ignatianum who had just started to study. The date of the research was the beginning of October 2012. The researchers used an electronic survey and the size of the sample was 95.

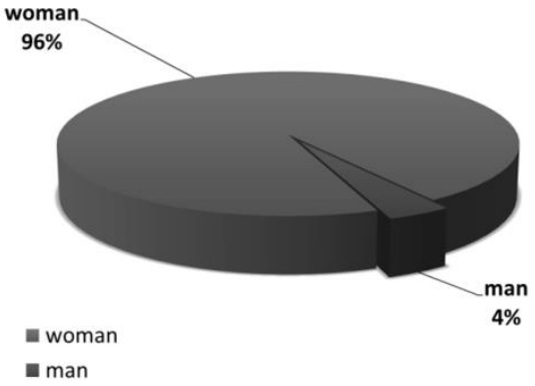
The profile of the candidate to the teacher profession has been recently changing in Poland. Nowadays, in the era of information, the labour market needs more and more professional technical workers and consequently the number of teachers is getting smaller. According to statistical data, many young Polish citizens – both from the large cities and towns – have mainly chosen educational institutions of a high professional level and courses connected to electronics and law. Facing a demographic minority and the fact that many higher education institutions are

[3] The authors: dr Irena Pulak, dr Aneta Kamińska, dr Marta Prucnal

connected to the labour market, the best institutions in higher education have to know what their prospective students expect from higher education to adjust their educational offer to their needs.

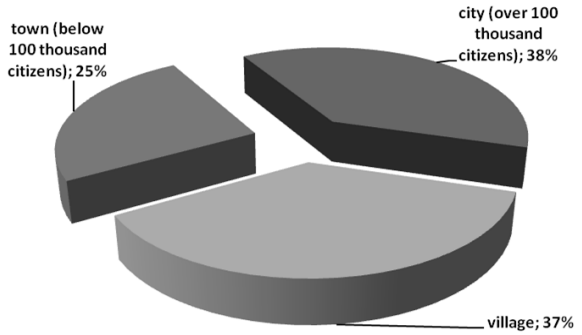
According to the authors' research, the great majority, 96 % of candidates to the teacher profession are women, while men constitute a minority – 4%.

Chart 3. The gender



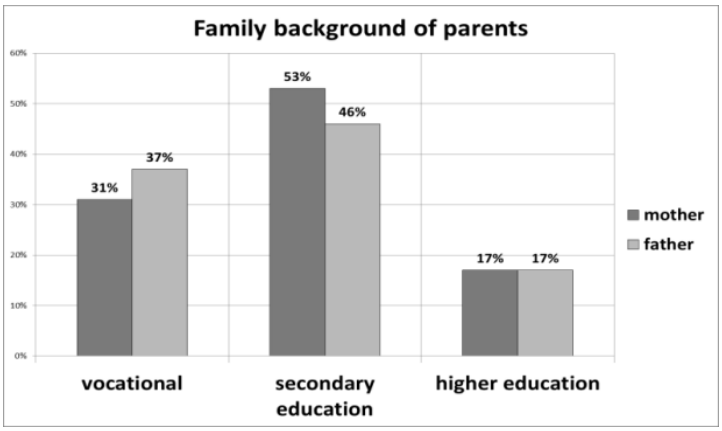
Most of our students are from cities over 100 thousand citizens – 38%, and villages – 37%, fewer come from cities with less than 100 thousand citizens.

Chart 4. The place of living



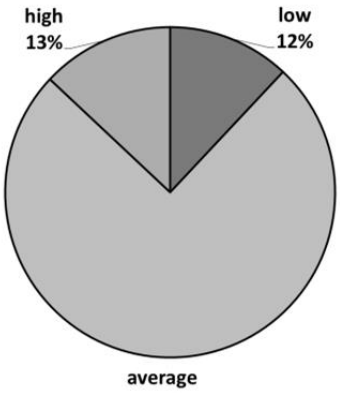
As for their family background, we asked the students some questions about the level of education of their parents and the family's economic status. Most of their parents have a general secondary education graduation: mother 53 % and father 46 %, fewer of their parents had completed only vocational education: mothers 31% and fathers 37% and only 17 % of both genders have a degree.

Chart 5. Graduation level of parents



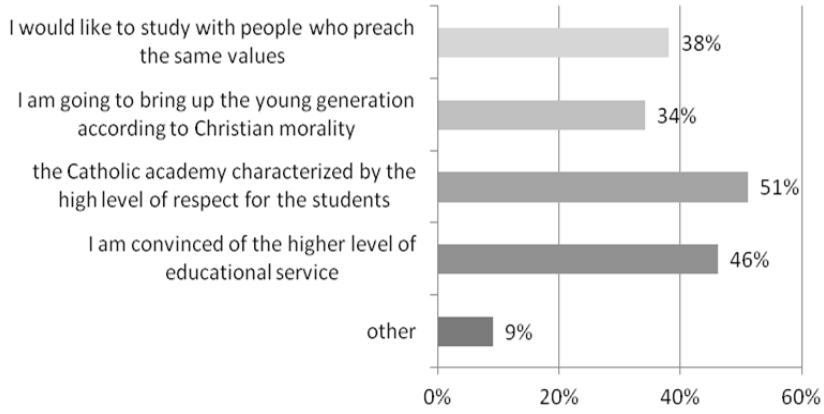
Most students – 75 % of them declared that their family's economic status is average, 13% said that it is high and 12% that it is low.

Chart 6. The financial status of family



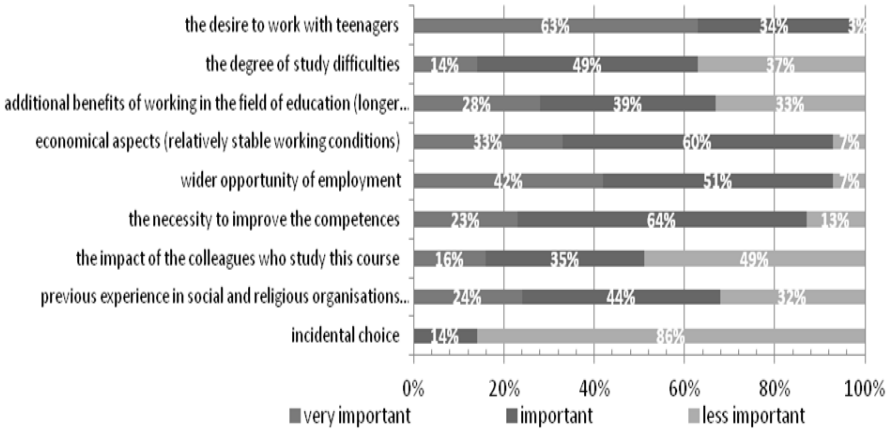
Nearly half of the students, 51% answered that they had never enrolled to another higher educational institution. The Academy of Ignatianum is a Catholic institution and the authors found the question about the motivation to choose that kind of institution very important. The research has depicted that the most significant motive of the students was the fact that they found the Catholic academy one that respects their dignity and needs – 51 %, subsequently 46 % of them are convinced that the level of teaching at the Catholic higher educational institution is very high, 38 % admitted that they want to study with colleagues that proclaim the same values, 34 % of them had chosen the Catholic institution to bring up children and teenagers according to Catholic values, 9 % had other motives.

Chart 7. The motive to choose the Catholic higher educational institution.



According to the "motives range of studies", students show the desire to work with teenagers (63 %). The level of difficulty was important for them when they had chosen the educational studies course (49%), the fact of having extra benefits such as longer holidays, is quite important. The economic aspects such as relatively stable working conditions (60%), wider opportunity of employment (51%) and the necessity to improve the competences are also significant factors for most students.

Chart 8. The motives range of studies.



To conclude, candidates to the teacher profession come from a family of average economic status. Most of their parents are not intellectuals, that is, they do not have a degree. Half of them planned to go to other higher educational institutions. The most important factor for them to choose the Catholic academy was connected to being convinced of its high level of teaching and treating the students very well from

a pedagogical point of view. The candidates had decided to study a pedagogical course because they wanted to work with teenagers, improve their competences, have quite stable work with some additional employment opportunities, and some extra benefits such as longer holidays.

Conclusions

Though we have had a restricted possibility to compare teacher training students living in Hungary and in Poland, we can say profession is a very important thing for most of them in both countries. It is also important for them to be among their peers, which is a peer pressure of attending a higher institution, but its importance is smaller in Ignatium in Lublin than in Hungary. It is interesting that students in teacher education in Hungary have a better social background than students in Lublin. In our interpretation, this means that Polish students use teacher training to step up in social hierarchy, while Hungarian students choose teacher training because they have a teacher family background and a calling for this profession, or they want to have a degree, any degree, to get a job, any job later. These facts show that teacher prestige is somewhat higher in Poland (at least among the students of Ignatium in Lublin) than in Hungary.

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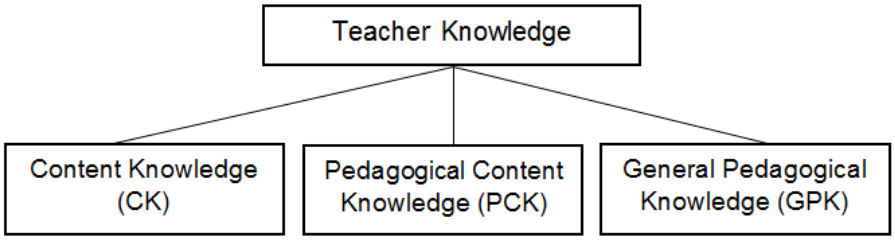
Pedagogical knowledge of prospective teachers. An international comparison. Results and implications of TEDS-M[1]

ULRIKE STADLER-ALTMANN[2]

1. Theoretical and Empirical Background

Researchers identify and distinguish three domains of teacher knowledge (see Blömeke, 2002; Baumert & Kunter, 2006): content knowledge (CK); pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) and general pedagogical knowledge (GPK).

Figure 1. System of the Teacher Knowledge.



Source: own figure.

It still remains an open question as to what exactly is meant by the term general pedagogical knowledge (GPK) and what this knowledge domain incorporates.A standardized collection of interdisciplinary pedagogical knowledge of teachers in international comparisons and with high numbers of cases depicts a fairly new field of research.

Initial approaches are only available from MT21. Based on the international comparative study "Mathematics Teaching in the 21st century" (MT21) (Blömeke, Kaiser & Lehmann, 2008; Schmidt, Tatto, Bankov et al., 2007), we know a lot about the specific content knowledge of prospective teachers. But we know nearly nothing about their pedagogical knowledge.

Other studies (see Baer, Dörr, Fraefel et al. 2007; Grossman, 2005; Schulte, Bögeholz & Watermann, 2008) focus on regional issues and draw on a smaller number of cases. The majority of studies collects pedagogical knowledge via self-reports (e.g. Abs, Döbrich, Vögele & Klieme, 2005; Gehrmann, 2007; Oser & Oelkers, 2001; Schubarth & Pohlenz, 2006).

The process of collecting pedagogical knowledge in a standardized way making an international comparison possible poses great challenges, due to the fact

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[1] Based on: Blömeke S., Kaiser, G., Lehmann, R. (2010) (Hrsg.), TEDS-M 2008 - Professionelle Kompetenz und Lerngelegenheiten angehender Mathematiklehrkräfte für die Sekundarstufe I im internationalen Vergleich. Münster: Waxmann.

[2] Many thanks to Sebastian Schein for his help in translation and corrections.

that on the one hand, it's less structured than knowledge of maths or other subjects (Clarke, 2003; Mullis, Martin & Foy, 2008) or other subjects, while on the other hand, pedagogical knowledge is more influenced by the individuals' cultures than knowledge of maths (Blömeke & Paine, 2009; Hopmann & Riquarts, 1995; Westbury, 1995). Moreover, the lack of sufficient evidence in teacher training research renders the differentiation between knowledge and belief regarding some aspects of teaching competence problematic. In this sense, Larson (1977) correctly speaks of the "uncertain, science of pedagogy" (1977, p. 184).

Additionally, a precise differentiation between pedagogical knowledge and knowledge about teaching methodology is difficult as well. While contents of pedagogical teacher training, such as the social and moral development of children and adolescents or strategies of classroom management, do not necessarily have to be regarded in a subject-specific way, other generic contents, such as the models of general didactics or pedagogical-psychological theories of learning, manifest themselves in subject-specific contexts.

Discussions about the reform of teacher education are often dominated by evaluative rather than evidence-based statements (Ball, Thames & Phelps, 2008). What teachers are supposed to know at the end of their training remains relatively vague. If reforms are expected to be successful, this question should be answered empirically in relation to practical requirements. Thus, emanating from and under the direction of the German TEDS-M team, the three TEDS-M participant countries Germany, Taiwan and the USA decided to develop a respective test component (König & Blömeke, 2007). As with the high-quality collection of subject-based knowledge, this project alsoaims at collecting the pedagogical knowledge of prospective teachers.

All over the globe, the curricula of teacher training feature both pedagogical aims and therewith corresponding learning offerings, which almost everywhere also represent an obligatory component of teacher training (Schmidt et al.,2007), even if the extent, the item or the labeling of pedagogical learning opportunities,vary. Even within Germany, the *corollary nature of educational studies* with its academic structure can be sharply distinguished from the advanced seminar offered during the second phase of teacher training, which is, as a rule, structured in accordance with practical school training. If the effectiveness of teacher training is to be evaluated, the learning opportunities as well as the learning results have to be collected.

Following Shulman's assumptions (1987), pedagogical knowledge is comprised of generic knowledge about the cognitive and social-moral development of students, about classroom management, about assessment of performance as well as about the school-theoretic context of education. Maths - as well as other- teachers combine this knowledge with their individual knowledge about content and subject didactics in concrete classroom situations (Bromme, 1992; McDonald, 1992).

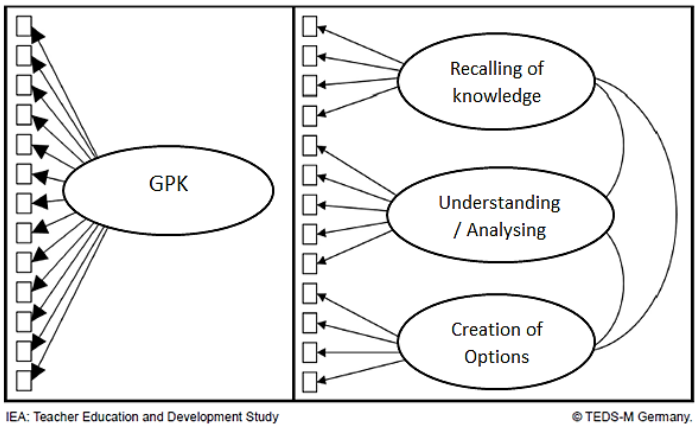
This is illustrated by Lampert (2001) with the following example: "When I am teaching fifth-grade mathematics, for example, I teach a mathematical idea or procedure to a student while also teaching that student to be civil to classmates and to me, to complete the tasks assigned, and to think of herself orhimself and everyone in the class as capable of learning, no matter what their gender, race, or parents' income." (Lampert, 2001, p. 2).

2. Illustration to TEDS-M

The TEDS-M Test is based on teaching-centered definition of pedagogical knowledge. Thereby, the consensus that teaching is one of the most central tasks of teachers is taken into account (Arnold, Sandfuchs & Wiechmann, 2006; Baumert & Kunter, 2006; Bromme, 1992).

The standardized collection of prospective teachers' pedagogical knowledge means breaking new grounds for empirical educational research. As Blömeke and König points out (see Blömeke & König, 2010) it also has a great importance in the current debates on reforms in teacher training TEDS-M 2008 is the first international comparative study vagy the first study making international comparison possible with representative samples, which is devoted to the collection and shaping of this domain of knowledge.

Figure 2. Categories for the General Pedagogical Knowledge.



Source: Blömeke & König, 2010, p. 259, 261.

Occupational challenges – the structure of classroom activities and teaching, dealing with heterogeneity, classroom management, motivation as well as assessment of performance – form the content areas which are operationalized with test tasks in TEDS – M 2008. At the same time, these tasks picture different requirements of teachers, such as the recalling of knowledge, understanding/analyzing and the generation/creation of options for action.

39 test tasks were deployed in the TEDS-M Test for teachers in grade five to ten. Out of those, 20 test tasks featured an open ended format, whereas 19 featured a closed one. In terms of content areas, an emphasis is given to classroom management and motivation (16 tasks) while the structuring of lessons is represented with only five items. In terms of the dimensions of cognitive processing, the emphasis is put on understanding and analyzing (23 tasks). Memorizing and creating are covered with 8 test tasks each (see Blömeke & König 2010).

Figure 3. Arrangement of Test-Items.

	Aufgabenformat		Kognitive Prozesse			
Inhaltsdimension	ge-schlossen	offen	erinnern	verstehen/ analysieren	kreieren	Gesamt
Umgang mit Heterogenität	2/1 a)	6/5/1 b)	2/1 a)	5/4/1 b)	1/0 a)	8/7/2 b)
Strukturierung von Unterricht	2/0 a)	3/1 a)	1/1 a)	3/0 a)	1/0 a)	5/1 a)
Klassenführung und Motivation	10/1 a)	6/0 a)	1/0 a)	10/1 a)	5/0 a)	16/1 a)
Leistungsbeurteilung	5/4/0 b)	5/1 a)	4/0 a)	5/4/0 b)	1/1 a)	10/9/1 b)
Gesamt	19/18/2 b)	20/19/3 b)	8/2 a)	23/21/1 b)	8/1 a)	39/37/5 b)

a) Deutschland und USA/Taiwan; b) Deutschland/USA/Taiwan

IEA: Teacher Education and Development Study © TEDS-M Germany.

Source: Blömeke & König, 2010, p. 250.

In order to apply such high number of test tasks, a *Balanced Incomplete Block* (BIB)-Design (Adams & Wu, 2002; Davier, Carstensen & Davier, 2006) with three booklets was used in the sample of TEDS-M 2008 for teachers in grade five to ten. To illustrate the empirical testing, here are some items:

Figure 4. Item – "Phase Modules".

Phasenmodelle von Unterricht stellen ein Grundgerüst dar, nach dem Unterricht strukturiert werden kann.

a) Nennen Sie die zentralen Phasen eines üblichen Unterrichtsverlaufs.

b) Nennen Sie die Funktion der jeweiligen Phase.

a) Name der Phase:	b) Funktion der Phase:

a) Name der Phase:	b) Funktion der Phase:
Einstieg	*Motivation Themenpräsentation*
Problemstellung	*SuS verdeutlichen sich das Problem, sodass jeder es versteht*
Erabeitungsphase	*SuS gehen dem Problem „auf die Spur". Hier kann ganz differenziert gearbeitet werden.*
Sicherungsphase	*Die Lösung wird präsentiert. Jeder kann die Lösung übernehmen – mögliche Diskussion nötig*
Anwendung/Transfer	*Die Lösung wird bei weiteren Aufgaben benötigt, Relevanz der Lösung transparent*

IEA: Teacher Education and Development Study © TEDS-M Germany.

Source: Blömek & König, 2010, p. 252.

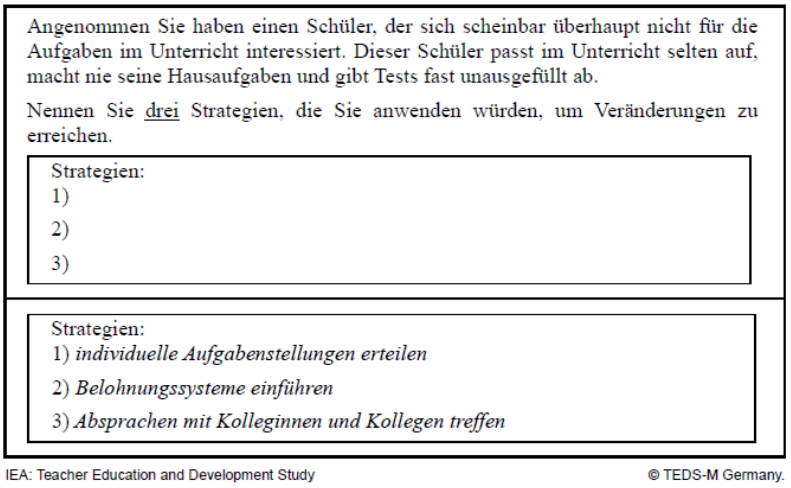
Task/Item-translation: Phase Modules of lessons represent a scaffold according to which lesson can be structured.

a) *Please name the central phases of an ordinary lesson*.

b) *Please name the function of the respective phase*.

And below you can see some of the answers given (fig. 4) by students for Phase Modules of lessons, which students could findfigure 5.

Figure 5. Item – "Strategies".



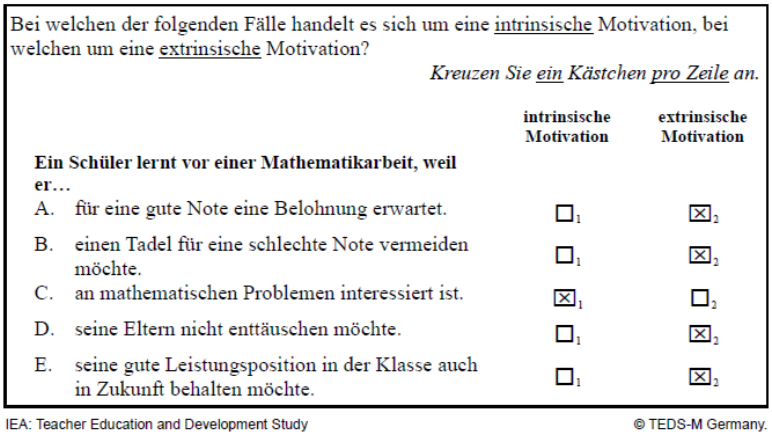
Source: Blömeke & König, 2010, p. 253.

Task/Item-translation: Imagine you have a student who apparently shows no interest in the lesson's tasks. This student rarely pays attention, never does his/her homework and hands almost blank tests in.

"Please come up with three strategies, which you would apply to change this situation."

And below the item there are some solutions (Figure 5) for strategies, which students could find.

Figure. 6: Item – "Knowledge".



Bei welchen der folgenden Fälle handelt es sich um eine intrinsische Motivation, bei welchen um eine extrinsische Motivation?

Kreuzen Sie ein Kästchen pro Zeile an.

	intrinsische Motivation	extrinsische Motivation
Ein Schüler lernt vor einer Mathematikarbeit, weil er…		
A. für eine gute Note eine Belohnung erwartet.	☐1	☒2
B. einen Tadel für eine schlechte Note vermeiden möchte.	☐1	☒2
C. an mathematischen Problemen interessiert ist.	☒1	☐2
D. seine Eltern nicht enttäuschen möchte.	☐1	☒2
E. seine gute Leistungsposition in der Klasse auch in Zukunft behalten möchte.	☐1	☒2

IEA: Teacher Education and Development Study © TEDS-M Germany.

Source: Blömeke & König, 2010, p. 254.

Task/Item-translation: Which of these cases can be explained by intrinsic motivation, which with extrinsic motivation?

A student studies for a math test, because he…

a) expects a reward for a good grade.

b) seeks to avoid a reproach for a bad grade.

c) is interested in mathematical problems.

d) doesn't want to disappoint his parents.

e) intends to secure his performance-based position in class also in future.

In these examples of items you see the structure of the empirical testing: on the one hand some knowledge about teaching and on the other hand the theoretical background.

3. Results

3.1. Results for the Test-Design

To begin with, it can be stated that the assumed dimensions of pedagogical knowledge are empirically stable. The postulated content areas as well as the cognitive requirements can be properly depicted empirically in order to draw an international comparison between Germany, the USA and Taiwan. In terms of reliability, within the sub-dimensions of *measuring the pedagogical knowledge*, one has to lower one's sights for the sub-dimension *creating* as well as in relation to the results of Taiwanese teachers, due to the fact that low item counts were deployed in each case (see Blömeke & König, 2010). I'm going to attachthe descriptive depiction of prospective teachers' achieved pedagogical knowledge within the math teacher training program for Sekundarstufe I.

3.2. Results for the General Pedagogical Knowledge

In the following figures you see selected results of the general pedagogical knowledge after teacher qualification, after the specific teacher training courses in Germany, Taiwan and the U.S.A. For the detailed description of the samples see Blömeke, Lehmann & Suhl (2010). By comparing Germany, Taiwan and the U.S.A., countries representing a specific educational tradition within Western Europe, the English-speaking area or Eastern Asia are selected.

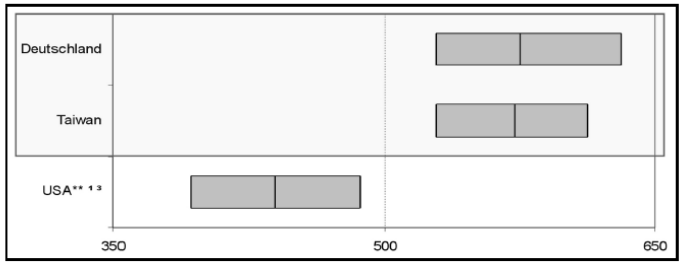
Figure 7. General Pedagogical Knowledge – National Level.

	M	SE	SD
Deutschland	**576**	**4,9**	**85**
Taiwan	572	3,2	52
International	500	2,2	100
USA** 1 3	440	3,0	66

** Hochschulen in staatlicher Trägerschaft

1 kombinierte Rücklaufquote < 75%
3 substanzieller Anteil fehlender Werte

IEA: Teacher Education and Development Study



Source: Blömeke & König, 2010, p. 263–264.

On each analytical level, the first step provides an overview based on the total score of pedagogical knowledge. Afterwards, the content areas of TEDS-M 2008 such as the structuring of lessons, dealing with heterogeneity, classroom management, motivation as well as assessment of performances respectively the three cognitive requirements of generating knowledge/being creative are put into focus.

The comparisons aim at a precise description of the respective population based on defined population parameters (e.g. differences in average score) and by means of representative samples. The *Expected-a-posteriori*-estimate (de Ayala, 1995; Rost, 1996) provides an undistorted description of these parameters.

Differences in terms of general pedagogical knowledge between the USA, Germany and Taiwan:

Looking at the results, the huge difference in performance between these three countries becomes apparent. Whereas math teachers from Taiwan possess

pedagogical knowledge which, on average, is more than one standard deviation above the three countries' average score, German teachers possess pedagogical knowledge which is at least slightly one standard deviation above the average. In contrast to this, the pedagogical knowledge of prospective teachers from the US is located almost one standard deviation below the average score.

This result is of great significance for several reasons. On the one hand, the good performances of Taiwanese teachers can be understood as an indicator for the high international validity of the pedagogy test. This is due to the fact that the cultural and structural parameters of teacher training in Taiwan are in many ways different from those in Germany. Apparently, though, it has been managed to develop a test which both meets the European and East Asian traditions. The deviation of results within Germany is significantly higher than in Taiwan and in the U.S.A.. Presumably, this can be ascribed to several reasons. Given the fact that the teacher training in Taiwan is highly regulated, steadier performances can in part be achieved. Likewise, the fact that in the Taiwan testing only relatively few items were used has to be considered in the interpretation of the results. It is possible that the variance in the U.S.A. is restricted by the fact that on the one hand, only public universities participated in TEDS-M 2008 and that on the other hand, a substantial amount of missing data can be observed (see Blömeke & König 2010).

Figure 8. General Pedagogical Knowledge – National Training Courses.

Ausbildungsgang	M	SE	SD
DEU 1-10 SPE(2)	585	7,6	80
DEU 5-13 SPE(2)	575	5,4	87
TWN 7-9 SPEcc	572	3,2	52
DEU 5-10 SPE(2)	568	7,5	86
USA 6-12 SPEcc** [1 3]	441	5,6	66
USA 4-9 SPEcc** [1 3]	439	5,0	60

** Hochschulen in staatlicher Trägerschaft

1 kombinierte Rücklaufquote < 75%
3 substanzieller Anteil fehlender Werte

Die Hervorhebung durch Einrahmung nicht signifikant verschiedener Ausbildungsgänge bezieht sich auf DEU 1-10 SPE(2).
DEU: Deutschland, TWN: Taiwan, USA: USA;
1-10, 4-9, 5-10, 5-13, 6-12, 7-9: Spannweite der zu unterrichtenden Jahrgangsstufen;
SPEcc, SPE(2): Ausbildung als Fachlehrkraft für Mathematik in grundständiger Form (cc) bzw. mit einem weiteren Unterrichtsfach (2).

IEA: Teacher Education and Development Study

Source: Blömeke & König 2010, p. 269.

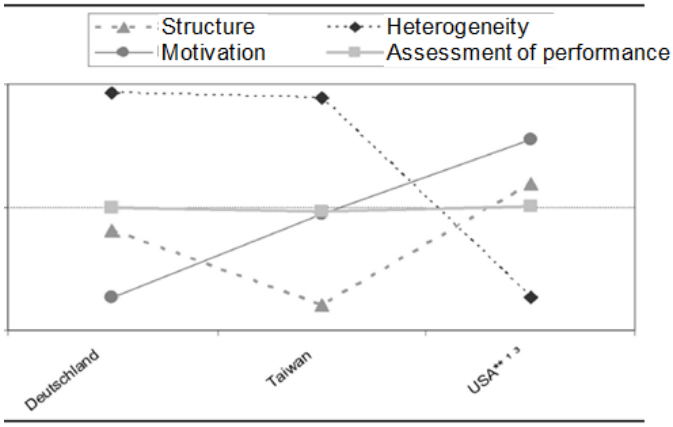
In Germany, three different types of training courses lead to a license for teaching maths in Sekundarstufe I: the level overarching teaching degree for primary and secondary schools (DEU 1-10 SPE (2)), a degree solely for Sekundarstufe I (DEU 5-10 SPE (2)) and the level overarching teaching degree for Sekundarstufe I and II (DEU 5-13 SPE (2)).In the U.S.A., two types of training courses with a significant number of cases exist: the basic Bachelor's degree for teaching at Middle Schools

(USA 4-9 SPEcc) and the basic Bachelor's degree for teaching at Middle Schools and High Schools (USA 6-12 SPEcc).

In Taiwan, only one training course provides a license for teaching maths in Sekundarstufe I, which there is comprised of classes 7 to 9 (TWN 7-9 SPEcc). The training program for Sekundarstufe II is separated from that.

Nominally, the best pedagogical performances are achieved in German primary and secondary school teaching degrees whereas the weakest performances are achieved in the degree which is designed solely for Sekundarstufe I. However, the differences cannot be ensured in relation to any other training course in Germany or to the one in Taiwan by means of statistical inference. Within the USA, no significant difference between the training courses can be detected, either.

Figure 9. General Pedagogical Knowledge – Dimensions.



Source: Blömeke/König 2010, p. 270.

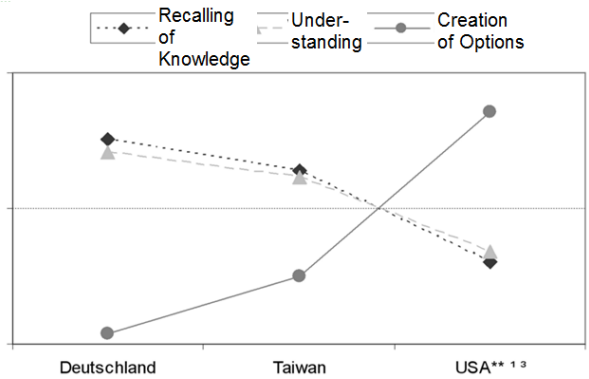
Differences with respect to country and training course: In Germany and Taiwan, the prospective teachers possess a relatively extensive pedagogical knowledge in relation to dealing with heterogeneity, whereas prospective teachers in the U.S.A. exhibit a relative weakness in this field. Due to the fact that maths teachers from Germany and Taiwan, on average, show higher test performances in pedagogy compared to those from the U.S.A., it can be deduced that this dimension seems to differentiate extremely well.

When looking at the strengths and weaknesses in relation to the respective training course, it becomes apparent that in Germany, the prospective secondary school teachers possess a relatively balanced profile of knowledge. The strength in dealing with heterogeneity, which was detected at the Federate State level, is only featured by teachers whose licenses for teaching maths extends to class 10, namely the prospective teachers for primary and secondary schools as well as for those degrees directed solely at teachers for Sekundarstufe I. On the one hand, this

difference could be explained by processes of self-selection during the second phase of teacher training, which is separately absolved by prospective teachers for Gymnasium.

Structurally comparable to the German results, the test performances of prospective teachers for Middle Schools and High Schools in the area of dealing with heterogeneity turn out relatively weaker. While prospective teachers for Middle schools don't show particular strengths in this field, they don't show significant weaknesses either.Here, too, effects of self-regulation processes can be at work due to the reason that the awareness of the former is possibly less developed which thus leads to the fact that less of appropriate learning facilities were used.On the other hand, those could also have been set up differently. In the light of high cultural and performance-based diversity of American High Schools, this result is at least remarkable. For reasons of clarification, further examinations based for example on curricular analysis, have to be conducted.

Figure 10. General Pedagogical Knowledge – Cognitive Skills.



Source: Blömeke & König 2010, p. 272.

In this illustration, the knowledge profile of the three sub-dimensions of a teacher's cognitive requirements is shown. At national level, the inverse profile of performances among prospective maths teachers for Sekundarstufe I in Germany and Taiwan as well as in the U.S.A. becomes apparent. In Germany and Taiwan, the relative strengths lie in the remembrance of terms and concepts as well as in the understanding and analysis of profession-specific situations, whereas a significant weakness becomes prominent in relation to the requirement of creating courses of action. In reverse, the situation is different in the USA, where teachers possess respective strength in the latter field.

With regard to Taiwan and the USA, these results markedly mirror the discussions about cultural differences between East-Asian and Western-oriented countries. As proved by numerous empirical studies, higher individualism goes hand

in hand with being more creative. Upon other things, the innovative nature of US companies can be explained by this ("when a thousand flowers bloom"). In reverse, the strength of East-Asian countries is explained by their immense commitment to learning. Despite the fact that the development of courses of action, measured with the cognitive requirement of creating, is not fully congruent with "creativity", these cultural differences also seem to manifest themselves in the teacher training for Sekundarstufe-I and the prospective maths teachers' pedagogical profile of knowledge.

This cultural-psychological approach masks the fact, though, that in cognitive-psychology, the recalling of knowledge and the ability to both understand and analyze situations are at least partially seen as a prerequisite for generating courses of action. This finding could also serve as an explanation for the fact that US-teachers on average are lagging behind those from Taiwan and Germany. The cultural and traditional creativity would lack a solid cognitive knowledge base in this explanatory approach. For a long time, critics of the US educational system have pointed towards these problems, which they explain by the influence of pragmatism. Due to the, on average, rather weak maths performances by students (Mullis et al., 2008; OECD, 2007) middle school and high school teachers, reforms of the US school and teacher training in the field of maths thus aim at strengthening the knowledge base without weakening creativity and innovation (Zhao, 2005).

The German maths teachers' resultselude from the dichotomy described here, though. With regard of the Hofstede-Index, Germany can also be portrayed as a highly-individualistic country without the teachers having to display a respective performance specification in their pedagogical knowledge. In contrast, their strengths in the dimensions remembering and understanding/analyzing as well as their weaknesses in the field of creating are more prominent than in the Taiwanese profile. Apparently, the systematic knowledge acquisition is in focus during German teacher training, which holds also true for the Referendariat.

Thereby, the German teachers' pedagogical profile structurally corresponds to German students' maths performances specification, as for example shown in the PISA studies (Prenzel et al., 2007). Due to fact that maths and pedagogy represent two totally different domains of knowledge, a fundamental culturally-conditioned pattern is potentially at work here. In contrast to the reforms in the U.S.A., the task would be to boost creativity without interfering with the systematic acquisition of knowledge.

Figure 11.General Pedagogical Knowledge – Connections.

	General Pedagogical Knowledge with …			
	Content pedagogical Knowledge (Didactics for Mathmatics)		**Content Knowledge** (Subject-based Knowledge: Math.)	
Ausbildungsgang	**r**	**SE**	**r**	**SE**
DEU 1-10 SPE(2)	**0,39**	**0,14**	**0,54**	**0,12**
DEU 5-10 SPE(2)	**0,34**	**0,07**	**0,33**	**0,08**
USA 6-12 SPEcc** 1 3	0,28	0,07	0,30	0,08
DEU 5-13 SPE(2)	**0,26**	**0,07**	**0,22**	**0,05**
USA 4-9 SPEcc** 1 3	0,15	0,06	0,18	0,06
TWN 7-9 SPE	0,14	0,07	0,11	0,07

** Hochschulen in staatlicher Trägerschaft

1 kombinierte Rücklaufquote < 75%
3 substanzieller Anteil fehlender Werte

Für die Legende zu den Kurzbezeichnungen der Ausbildungsgänge nach Land, Spannweite der zu unterrichtenden Klassen und Organisationsform siehe Tabelle 10.2.

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Source: Blömeke & König 2010, p. 275.

Once considering the Federal State Level, in Germany, the expected medium correlation was detected between the pedagogical knowledge and the knowledge of math-didactics. Both in the U.S.A.and Taiwan, the correlation was lower. For Taiwan, the lower item-count has to be regarded, though.

Once the training courses are considered in a next stepit becomes apparent that for Germany, the correlation within the teaching degree for Gymnasium is lower than those for the teaching degrees for Sekundarstufe I. The latter is in turn lower than the level-overarchingteaching degree for primary and Sekundarstufe I.

Due to the relatively high standard error, this tendency cannot be secured by statistical inference. The interpretation would be backed up by the low correlation in Taiwan, where the teacher training for Sekundarstufe I is a one-subject-training with a very high coverage of subject and subject-didactical learning facilities (Blömeke et al., 2010). The non-significant tendency within the differences between the two training courses in the USA does not fit to this pattern of interpretation, though.

4. Implications

As illustrated by this presentation, it is indeed possible to empirically analyze a domain of knowledge, which is difficult to be proved by indicators. It needs to be regarded, though, that pedagogical knowledge is operationalized here in terms of content domains and cognitive approaching. Thus, no statement can be made about pedagogical ability. The fundamental question whether pedagogical knowledge significantly effects pedagogical ability remains still open.

Moreover, the fact that cultural differences do not become visible to the expected extent might be interesting for your discussion. Thus, it can be deduced that the form of teacher training has far more influences on the pedagogical knowledge. This could provide an explanation for the manifested characteristics in

Germany and Taiwan in contrast to the U.S.A. Further research in this field is missing, though.

At the same time, only hints exist in relation to the question of learning facilities that can build up and deepen pedagogical knowledge. As shown by Sigrid Blömeke and her team in TEDS-M, a close interlocking between theoretical- and practical phases seems to be successful.

In the continuative study TEDS-FU, no changes in pedagogical knowledge during the first years of practice were witnessed. However, first results currently exist only for Germany – unfortunately, corresponding analyses in the TEDS-countries remain to be done.

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The role of social networks in the wellbeing of teacher education students. Analysis of the campus contacts of teacher education students from two countries[1]

GABRIELLA PUSZTAI, KLÁRA KOVÁCS & KATALIN KARDOS

Maintaining the mental wellbeing of teachers is one of the key elements of a well functioning educational system. Research shows that teachers in general experience lower job satisfaction and poorer mental health than those with other highly stressful professions, most likely because teachers tend to doubt the meaningfulness of their work (Travers & Cooper, 1993, 2012). How do TE students find meaning in their future work? What does meaningful work mean for a teacher? "That the individual believes is making the world a better place"? (Wrzesniewski, 2011, p. 47) The ambiguity of teacher status was found to be the main negative factor when it comes to the mental wellbeing of teachers in CEE countries where the perception of the teachers' prestige seemed especially obscure. Additionally to the overall loss of prestige of the teaching profession in society, the authority of teachers has decreased because during Communism for decades schools and many professions were perceived as broadcasters of the totalitarian ideology. This might be a partly the cause that during the last few decades the professional self-esteem became lower in Central and Eastern European countries. After the political transformation it was not obvious enough in the eyes of the public that the contribution of the educational system is very important in the sustainable development of economy and in addition, the government's neoliberal economic approach suggested that it is appropriate to deprive the financial resources from public institutions and public services. As a result of the factors listed above, teacher education students also share the unfavorable view of their future status in comparison to their counterparts (Pusztai & Fónai, 2012). The aim of this study is to explore the effects of some social factors, which could contribute to supporting a more stable mental health of students in teacher education. We assume that teacher education (TE) students' contacts, level of religiosity, and advanced level of physical activity can function as protective factors from mental disorders. The theoretical background for our analysis is built on two pillars: the first pillar is the positive educational sociology, which focuses on investigating the protective factors that contribute to the professional well-being of students and future teachers (Sebbins, 2009; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

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The second pillar is based on work of Astin, Tinto, Pascarella and Terenzini, who stated that students' institutional integration has strong effect on student commitment to their higher education studies. The mental health status is considered as an important predictor of professional commitment in this paper.

Students' networks

Even though in the last century most research findings confirmed the hypothesis that schools and teachers are incabable to moderate the social inequalities of students and peer context, recent research highlighted the importance of teacher professionals and the preparation to the teacher profession in this matter (Bassett, 2011; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Our research center started to focus on the institutional conditions of the TE students' preparation, which seem to have significant effect on future professional identity (Pusztai & Fónai, 2012).

Researching the institutional contribution to the progress of students has made it clear that it is not primarily the structural and infrastructural conditions of a higher education institution that effectively support the success of the students. Instead, it is the interactional field of force offered by the institution that backs up the progress of the students. The structural-infrastructural elements proved to be mere variables in passing on professional competence to students (Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Factors, such as the intra- and intergenerational social context of students are the extremely powerful components of the campus environment. Tinto (1993) believes that the student's integration into the community of an institution is a major predictor of the individual's success. In his comprehensive model he analyzed the students' involvement and participation in their formal, learning and informal social systems. Researchers claim that the integration into these systems significantly influences the performance of a student, so much so that the student may finally be detached from their attachment to the outside world. According to his theory, a student will be integrated into the system to the degree they are able to share the norms and values of their peers and meet the formal and informal requirements of the institution. As the student's integration improves, so will their commitment to the objective of their studies, their future profession, and their institution. All these factors may have a positive effect on their performance, while the lack of integration may lead to the person's marginalization, departure to another institution, or dropout.

As a result of the special self-selection going on in TE, the number of nontraditional students is growing in teacher education (Pusztai, 2011). Usually nontraditional students are defined as students from lower status, female, and older students. However, it is worth to pay attention to the interactional dimension of the nontraditional concept. While researchers lack a shared understanding of the

characteristics of nontraditional teacher education students, they all emphasized the extensive life experiences and multiple commitments of nontraditional students (Eifler & Potthoff, 1998). When we studied TE students, we pointed out that they are different from the other students not only in terms of social status, age, and gender, but it is also important to note their unique interactional dimension, which has a significant impact on their professional preparation (Pusztai, 2012; Pusztai & Fónai, 2012). In an earlier study we concluded that with respect to the fulfillment of academic objectives, it was more useful for a learning community to be organized on the basis of value homophily, which crossed beyond the borders of status homophily, and thus low-status students were able to benefit from the community's resources (Pusztai, 2006, 2009). Status homophily is based on similar social and demographic features, while value homophily is based on shared values and convictions.

It was revealed in former studies that only two-thirds of students studying to be teachers intend to practice their chosen profession, and TE students who are willing to work in the most disadvantaged regions were strongly underrepresented (Jancsák, 2012a). In our study we pointed out that there is a well-defined group of students who are committed to the teaching profession despite the rather low level of social appreciation of the job. However, in 2010 they seemed to be integrated into the intergenerational world of their respective institution to a lesser degree than other students, and they also seemed to have a significantly different value-system (Pusztai, 2012).

In our study we emphasize that the world of teachers needs attention for several reasons. It is worth to mention a separate analysis by the national higher education research: partly because of the large number of students, and also because some of them have stayed in the educational system as a new generation of professionals. This teacher supply, due to the increasing role expectations, plays an increasingly important role in the educational tasks. It provides reference groups and also mediation of social norms and values to the younger generations. The values of prospective teachers greatly influence the values of the younger generations. While examining the values of teacher education students, it appeared that their values have a traditional character; especially among students majoring in religion (Pusztai, 2012). The recent periodic tests showed that the commitment to the teaching profession is confirmed by the traditional value orientation of religiosity (Jancsák, 2012b). This result is interesting because religious student groups had been kept out of the teaching profession during the long period of communist rule.

Following a large-scale study conducted in 2012, it was found that every fifth person out of students preparing for a teaching career went to a denominational

secondary school or high school, although the percentage of those who went to a religious school is no more than 10% in other fields of study. In Romania and Ukraine, among the Hungarian ethnic minority the number of those who studied in denominational schools is extremely high (Pusztai, 2012). The studies indicate that religious students are the ones who would mostly choose the teaching profession wich is assocated with low prestige and provides a low salary in the post communist countries.

A regional research has shown that career commitment of teachers is simultaneously increasing with the level of worship activity. Teaching as a profession can be defined in many cases as a helper profession, and the involvement in a religious community and voluntary membership strengthen the formation of the helper attitude (Jancsák, 2012b).

Students' health and wellbeing

In 1986 WHO said that health is "a resource for everyday life, not the objective of living. Health is a positive concept emphasizing social and personal resources, as well as physical capacities." Additionally, the term mental health describes either the level of cognitive or emotional well-being or the absence of mental disorder. According to the World Health Organization, mental health is "a state of well-being in which the individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community". However, despite of the official definitions, the term mental health and the question of whether or not an individual is 'mentally well' remain a subjective assessment.

According to a significant literature review, being physically active contributes to the social, emotional, psychological, and physical well-being of the individual. Sport helps to develop not only healthy physical shape but also good social life competence (e.g. social, cooperative, problem-solving skills, exploring a variety of communities, peer roles, etc.) (Gordon & Caltabiano, 1996; Greenleaf et al., 2009; Serbu, 1997; Taliaferro et al., 2010). These promote healthy choices, pro-social behavior, and overall well-being (Kort-Butler & Hagewen, 2011). Thus, being physically active can be considered as a protective factor for the individual from mental disorders, depression symptoms, social problems, as the development of physical fitness leads to greater body satisfaction (Frost & McKelvie, 2005), which contributes to being happy and satisfied with life.

University students especially the assessment of prospective teachers are a priority target population in health psychology research, because teachers are important role models for students. According to earlier research results, the

physical education teachers have the biggest influence on the development of children's healthy lifestyles as they encourage them to regularly do sports (Ménesi et al., 2013). However, the adaptation of social learning theory on health-behavior Pikó and Keresztes (2007) found that teachers, and overall, schools can have an impact on students' health behavior in adolescence, even if their role is not the most important. According to the examination of teacher candidates' health, health behavior (as well as exercise habits) is very important, as the university is the last opportunity to learn the basic elements of a healthy lifestyle in the framework of formal school system. In forms of a variety of prevention programs it is possible to provide assistance to develop a healthy lifestyle (e.g. Williams Life Skills Training) (Keresztes et al., 2013). According to conclusions of a Hungarian research (Bodóczky, 1993) the busy schedule of teacher candidates is not conductive for recreation and the physical training of these students is not enough for health care, and proportion of addictions has also increased. The elements of health lifestyle are well known among teacher education students; however, these remain mostly on a theoretical level. Rajki (1996) explored the characteristics of lifestyle and motor skills of kindergarten teacher candidates and found that the health behavior of students has not significantly changed. On the other hand, the importance and prestige of Physical Education has not increased among students despite of the alternative programs, and these have no positive effect on students' exercise habits. Bertók and his colleagues (2011) examined the effects of environmental and psychosocial factors on physical education students in Hungary, Romania, and Spain and compared the indicators of their physical and mental state. According to research results more Spanish students considered their health status as "good" than Romanian and Hungarian students. Spanish students also considered themselves much more balanced and mentally positive than Hungarian students. Despite of the higher amount of exercise and the better self-rated physical and mental health status of Spanish teacher candidates, significantly more Hungarian students said that it is important to do sports regularly. In light of these, it is shocking that only the 56% of students exercise regularly, and one-fifth of students are not physically active at all. Regularly exercising students have better physical functions and health conditions, but they are also more prone to suffer from physical pain as a result of an injury. Students who are encouraged by their parents and professors have better physical and mental health, they tend to have more vim and think more positively.

Concepts and variables

The teacher education students' mental health is one of the key questions in professional socialization. The preservation balance between these three pillars of health may be the key to a happy, well-balanced life (i.e. higher levels of subjective

well-being). We suggested that subjective well-being and stable social networks could build professional self-confidence and identity. That is why our HERD study aimed to examine the key elements of the teachers' health behavior (the exercise habits), the self-reported health status (as physical well-being), mental status (as mental well-being) and the level of subjective wellbeing; We examined the differences between teacher education students and other students based on the levels of feeling healthy, depressed, practicing in intense sports, and subjective well-being. We divided the education students into two groups: teacher candidates for level ISCED 0-1 (kindergartens and elementary schools) and for level ISCED (2-3) (primary and high schools) and compared them with students who are not preparing to be teachers.

Research area, data

In order to test these relationships we used the data collected in 2012 within the research project called "Higher Education for Social Cohesion – Cooperative Research and Development in a Cross-border area (HERD)". A representative sample of bachelor and master degree students integrated in regular full-time education within nine universities in the five counties at the Hungarian-Romanian-Ukrainian cross-border region was designed. Sampling was made by stratified cluster and stepwise methods in order to ensure representativeness. In this study we will use comparatively the data collected in Romania (n=1296) and Hungary (n=1323).

Self-rated health and mental status was measured by a single yes-no question "I feel healthy" and "I feel often moody, depressed". Subjective evaluation of health is one of the most reliable predictor of objective health status and mortality (Kopp & Martos, 2011), therefore, it is an important factor that should be taken into consideration when we examine the determinants of subjective wellbeing. The concept of subjective well-being was measured with two dimensions: the satisfaction with life and the sense of happiness. The level of physical activity was measured by the question of how often did the students exercise for at least 45 minutes in the last months (besides the mandatory physical education classes at the university). We linearly transformed "subjective wellbeing" and "practicing intense sport" to a scale from 0 (minimum) and 100 (maximum), as we also did in our previous work (Baltaescu & Kovács, 2012).

We built a complex index to measure religiosity of students, which contains the individual religiosity (frequency of praying) and church attendance (frequency of churchgoing), than we converted this index to a dummy variable: religious under and above the average (0-1). We composed several variables to investigate student integration: 1. multiplicity of peer contacts inside the campus; 2. multiplicity of

student-faculty contacts; 3. voluntary membership on campus (except religious and sport community membership); 4. common peer values on campus, and 5. course attendance (0 low integrated - 1 high integrated). While investigating the effects of religiosity, level of exercise (1 min. once a week, 0 less frequently), religious and sport community memberships (0 no, 1 yes) and integration of teacher education students' mental health status, we also made logistic regression, controlling the social-demographic background of students (gender (0 female, 1 male), residence of settlement in age 14 (0 county, 1 city), objective material status (0 under the average, 1 above the average), parents' educational level (secondary school graduation and lower 0, high school graduation and higher 1).

Academic and social integration of TE Students

When we studied the general and specific higher educational value orientation system of students studying in teacher education for ISCED 0-1 and 2-3 levels from an international comparative perspective, we pointed out that the TE students are different from other students in terms of their cultural background and social status. An important element of their value system was a traditional way of thinking and religiousness. They bring these values from their original community, and further develop them through their new connections during their years in higher education (Pusztai, 2012). Recent research carried out among teacher education students revealed that commitment to the teaching profession is reinforced by a traditional value system, religiousness and voluntary work in one or more organizations (Jancsák, 2012b). The student body of the disadvantaged region of Hungary is predominantly post materialistic and individualistic, and in this environment students preparing to be kindergarten teachers and teachers may only achieve partial cultural integration and embeddedness (Pusztai, 2012).

In our former (2010) research we revealed a relative intergenerational isolation of TE students (Pusztai, 2012), while in recent (2012) survey we found that they have more extensive intergenerational networks on campus than the other students. Through our analysis of the structure of the network connections, we observed that TE students have extremely rich connections with their lecturers and professors, much richer than other students. TE students demand a lot more intensive attention from their teachers than other students and they tend to wish to discuss several kinds of topics. These issues are "professional" in a broader sense, reaching beyond the specific skills and competences of the students' chosen discipline.

Table 1. Quantity of students' intergenerational ties within campus community (averages).

	Hungary	*Romania*	*Ukraine*
Not in teacher education	2,42	4,29	3,90
TE for ISCED 0-1	3,65	4,87	4,50
TE for ISCED 3-4	4,00	4,62	4,63
N=	1295	1323	109

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2727) The level of significance: p=0,000.

We investigated students who are committed to be teachers and found that they seek the popular pleasures of student life to a somewhat lesser degree than other students do. Instead, they spend their time studying and striving to find a job that would mean social progress and elevation for them (Pusztai, 2011). They also spend more time with consumption of high culture reading and they are more engaged in learning activities.

Table 2. Weekly time spent with consumption of high culture in different student group (hours, averages).

	Library ***	*Clssical concert* ***	*Theatre* **	*Museum* **	*Multiplex* ***	*Cinema* **
not in TE	3,53	1,59	1,98	2,04	2,65	2,09
TE for ISCED 0-1	3,85	2,01	2,15	2,19	2,47	1,94
TE for ISCED 3-4	3,68	2,07	2,10	2,11	2,28	1,84
Total	3,60	1,69	2,02	2,07	2,60	2,05

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619)The level of significance is marked with ***: p<0,000, **: p<0,01, *: p<0,05.

In addition to the functional analysis of friendships of TE students, a number of free time activities and participation in voluntary organizations were also involved in the analyses. Our purpose with that was to find out whether centrifugal or centripetal forces influence students in their integration into their own institution. Free time activities done with fellow students (chatting, light entertainment, high culture, sports programs, concerts, attending religious events, excursions, and community building on the Internet) are considered as centripetal, whereas the activities done in the company of someone not related to the university are regarded as centrifugal forces. The teacher education students have been found to be less interested in activities spent with their peers and more interested in high culture and religious events. Additionally, the functional analysis of group memberships of TE students showed that strong centrifugal forces influence students by their own institutions. When we analyzed the extra- and intra-campus directions of the connections, we

found that external social connections were powerful. TE students in a much higher proportion than other students seem to seek but not be able to find enough opportunities to work in research groups, to join talent care programs, or to be active in other extracurricular and civil activities on campus.

Table 3. Real and desired membership in intra- and extra-campus (cultural, scientific, research) groups in 2012 (number of groups, averages).

	member in internal groups **	*member in external groups* ***	*wish to be member* ***
Not in TE	1,89	1,89	3,35
TE for ISCED 0-1	2,03	2,50	4,79
TE for ISCED 3-4	,86	1,36	4,44
Total	1,86	1,97	3,68

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619) The level of significance is marked with ***: p<0,000, **: p<0,01, *: p<0,05.

Why is it important? Recent changes in higher education and the increasing diversity of the student population turned the scientific interest towards the HE students and communities. According to several former researches of the inter- and intergenerational embeddedness into the campus-society can encourage student achievement and retention. Astin, Tinto, Pascarella and Terenzini stated that students' institutional integration has a strong effect on student achievement in Higher Education. According to Tinto, external connections (and time spent there) weaken the student persistence and good achievement, and strong internal relationships are useful for study career (Astin, 1993; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Tinto, 1993; Pusztai, 2011). We checked this effect of campus integration on several achievement indicators, and it was proved that it is a kind of social capital in HE (Pusztai, 2011). We searched for special achievement indicators that are expressive among TE students, and it seems to us that optimistic disposition toward usefulness of higher education studies and commitment to be a teacher is associated with their integration. We revealed that when the special network expectations of TE students are met, TE students feel themselves more successful and find their studies more meaningful.

Table 4. Association between students' integration in campus and their optimistic disposition toward usefulness of HE studies and (2012, averages).

	integrated intergenerationally	*not integrated integenerationally* *	*integrated inside voluntary groups* *	*not in inside voluntary groups*
Not in TE	3,33	3,14	3,23	3,21
TE for ISCED 0-1	3,43	3,23	3,40	3,30
TE for ISCED 3-4	3,39	2,96	3,26	3,19
Total	3,36	3,14	3,27	3,22

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619) The level of significance is marked with * (p<0,05).

Religiosity of TE Students

The study on TE students measured the individualistic and collective dimensions and revealed highly intensive practice of religion. Overall, three-quarters of the teacher candidates say that they belong to a denomination, mostly to a Roman Catholic, Orthodox, or Protestant church. Nearly 30% of future teachers say that they do not belong to any religious group. Half of the students in other majors do not belong to any denominations.

Table 5. Self-reported classification of religious identity students with different majors.

	TE for ISCED 0-1	*TE for ISCED 3-4*	Not in teacher education
I'm am religious, I follow the teachings of the Church.	*38, 9%*	*33, 1%*	*21, 9%*
I'm religious in my own way.	*46, 7%*	*43, 5%*	*44, 6%*
I cannot tell if I'm religious or not.	*5, 4%*	*8, 9%*	*9, 8%*
I'm not religious.	*6, 8%*	*9, 7%*	*17, 3%*
I'm definitely not religious, I have another belief.	*2, 2%*	*4, 8%*	*6, 3%*
N=	*432*	*125*	*2062*

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619) The level of significance: p=0,000.

Several other issues exist beyond belonging to a denomination that are relevant in the sociological study of religion. One of them is religious self-reports, which verify whether the individual considers him or herself religious or not. Individual religiosity was measured by five categories (which are the followings: I'm am religious, I follow the teachings of the Church, I'm religious in my own way, I can not tell if I'm religious or not, I'm not religious as well as I'm definitely not religious, I have another belief). There is a significant difference between TE students and students in other majors regarding to the individual religiosity. A

significant percentage of TE students identify themselves religious according to the teachings of a Church and religious according to their own way. One third of the other students are not religious or are not certain, and only one fifth of them follow the teachings of a church. Several studies have pointed out, for example, that religion promotes social integration at the university and religion can stimulate one to achieve more and to be persistent in reaching aims (Pusztai, 2009, 2011).

Table 6. Frequency of praying of students with different majors.

	TE for ISCED 0-1	*TE for ISCED 3-4*	*Not in teacher education*
Several times a day	**26, 6%**	16, 1%	14, 8%
Once a day	**31, 7%**	**27, 4%**	23, 6%
Several times a week	**12, 8%**	12, 9%	9, 4%
Once a week	4, 1%	**6, 5%**	**5, 4%**
Several times a month	6, 8%	8, 1%	8, 8%
On high holidays	9, 2%	9, 7%	**13, 3%**
Never	8, 2%	19, 4%	**24, 7%**
N=	432	125	2062

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619) The level of significance: p=0,000.

Praying is a less restricted form of practicing a religion. While testing the frequency of prayer, we found that there is also a significant difference between experienced teachers and those involved in other trainings. There is a very high ratio of the TE students who is practicing religion. It stands out that more than 50% of the teacher major students pray at least once a day, while less than 40% of the other students do the same. Three third of the future kindergarten teachers and primary teachers, and nearly two third of those who are studying to be a teachers are practicing religion. Most students with other majors only pray on the more significant religious holidays or never.

Table 7. Frequency of church attendance of students with different majors.

	TE for ISCED 0-1	*TE for ISCED 3-4*	*Not in teacher education*
Never	9, 2%	14, 6%	25, 1%
Once a year	8, 5%	11, 4%	15, 2%
On high holidays	23%	18, 7%	27%
Some occasions a month	22, 5%	18, 7%	11, 7%
Once a week	20, 1%	26%	13%
Several times a week	16, 7%	10, 6%	8, 1%
N=	432	125	2062

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619) The level of significance: p=0,000.

During the academic career community memberships is highly important (Pusztai, 2009). The obtained stable relationships encourage the students' sustained high

performance. It holds them back from self-destructive or risky behavior. Participants in teacher education and other students regarded the frequency of church attendance highly significant. For more than 50% of TE students go to church at least once a week, and several times per month. For other students, over 50% of them never attend church and less then one third attend church on a regular basis. The practice of religion, frequency of church attendance, the depth of the religiousness of individuals show that a person's commitment to the teachings of the Church, and in the centre of this is the popularity of the social and communal responsibility for the younger age groups. These aspects can support young people in their decision of choosing a helper profession.

Mental and physical health of TE students

A lesser percentage of TE students feel moody, depressed in comparison to other students. Appropriate 10 percent of teacher candidates feel symptoms of depression, while almost 15 percent of all other students responded with yes to the question.

Table 8. Proportion of students with different majors who feel depressed or healthy.

	Does regularly any sports?	*Feeling Healthy*	*Sig.*
TES ISCED	Yes	32,9%	N. s.
TES ISCED	Yes	54,5%	N. s.
Other	Yes	60,6%	0,001*

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619)The level of significance is marked with * (p<0,05).

The situation of related to self-evaluation of health status is much worst. More than half of all not teacher students feel healthy, while only 48 percent of prospective teachers of ISCED 2-3 would consider themselves healthy. The smallest number was found in the case of prospective teachers of ISCED 0-1, only one third of these students said that they fell healthy. The concept of depression is so stigmatized, so the students feel they cannot admit it, even if they feel depressed. But feeling not healthy could be a hidden symptom of depression, so we can conclude that teacher candidates are not well in terms of their health.

Table 9. Average of level subjective well-being and frequency intense sport among TE-student groups.

	Subjective wellbeing (0-100)	*Practicing intense sport (0-100)*
TES ISCED 0-1	71,3	54
TES ISCED 2-3	71,5	45,5
Other students	70,9	56
Sig.	N. S.	0,002*

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619) The level of significance is marked with * (p<0,05).

Teacher education students for ISCED 0-1 do sports on average (but not so regularly, only 2-3 times a month!), while TE students for ISCED 2-3 much less frequently, approximately only once a month, which is considered to be insufficient to preserve the health. The differences in the level of subjective wellbeing between the student groups were not significant. It is true that in general physically active people feel healthy, however, teacher candidates of ISCED 0-1 do sports more regularly, yet view their health status pessimistically.

Table 10. Frequency of students with different majors who feel healthy and do sport regularly (%). Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619).

	Does regularly any sports?	*Feeling Healthy*	*Sig.*
TES ISCED 0-1	Yes	32,9%	N. s.
TES ISCED 2-3	Yes	54,5%	N. s.
Other Students	Yes	60,6%	0,001*

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619) The level of significance is marked with * ($p<0,05$).

Based on these results we look at the percentage of sporty students who feel healthy. We consider sporty students those who do a sport minimum several times a month. Four-fifth of the other students feel healthy , however, in the case of sporty teacher candidates for ISCED 2-3 50 percent and for ISCED 0-1 one-third of them would consider themselves healthy, despite of the fact that they do sports more frequently.

Effects of religiosity, sport and integration on TE students' mental well-being

We intended to compare the impacts of the factors investigated above of the students' mental health. According to the results of the logistic regression, we can see that only religiosity affects the mental state of health of TE students in the observed countries, if we control the traditional social-cultural background variables. Students with lower level of religiosity have twice as much chance to feel depressed than students with higher level of religiosity. Therefore, we can conclude that religiosity can be considered a protective factor against mental disorders in the case of teacher education students as well. This supports previous result of Hungarostudy research, which demonstrated the positive impact of religiosity on mental wellbeing. Compared with consume culture, religiosity offers opportunities for positive goals beyond the individual's own interests. The religious moral principles supported self-identity, which is the basis of forming a positive quality of life, and the assessment of supporting relationships and social roles (Kopp et al. 2004).

Table 11. Effects of sport activity, religiosity, integration and social background on students' mental state of health, logistic regression coefficients.

	Exp. B	*Sig.*
Sport activity	,577	,100
Religiosity	,468	,028
Religious community membership	1,084	,828
Sport community membership	1,840	,101
Student Integration	1,124	,714
Gender	1,450	,325
Parents' level of education	1,004	,990
Objective material status	1,060	,866
Residence settlement	,812	,514

Source: HERD 2012 (N=2619).

Conclusions

TE students are a very special and important group in European higher education, because they will become reference groups for the future young generations, and also mediation in the social norms and values. We regard their mental health and the notion of meaningful higher education studies as pronouncedly important. Students' attitudes towards study aims and mental health suspected to be in connection with campus integration and free time activities. According to our findings, TE students have extremely rich connections with their lecturers and have more extensive intergenerational networks than the students with other majors, whereas their intergenerational networks are asymmetric. Teacher education students spend less of their free time with their peers. Their external social connections were more powerful and strong centrifugal forces influence them. In comparison to other students, TE students do not find enough opportunities to choose from the intra-campus supply that they would like to join, such as research groups, talent care programs or civil groups. The most important internal connections of TE students are from the religious networks and activities. We revealed that the more integrated TE students are in their preferred networks, the more optimistic is their disposition toward usefulness of higher education studies.

According to the results of the investigation of students' mental health, we can conclude that TE students have a better mental status compared to their counterparts: every tenth student feels symptoms of depression compared to other students (the ratio is almost 15 percent in this case). However, the situation is much better in the case of physical health: less than one third of TE students of ISCED 0-1 level feel healthy compared to other students (55%). However, TE students of ISCED 0-1 do sports more regularly than TE students of ISCED 2-3, and they feel less healthy. We found a significant relationship between sport and physical well-

being solely in the case of other students: they do sports and feel healthy in the largest percentage. Based on the results of logistic regression we found that only religiosity has the unique and positive impact on mental health of TE students: Students with lower level of religiosity have twice as much chance to feel depressed than students with a higher level of religiosity.

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Future professional plans of students in teacher education

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1. Introduction

Recent researches underscore the importance of good teachers in ensuring the quality of an educational system (Mourshed & Barber, 2007; Mourshed, Chijioke & Barber, 2010). At the same time we can see that pre-service teachers have poorer academic performance and less interest in PhD studies than other students in most European countries. This phenomenon seems to be related to the feminization of the teaching profession. For instance, obtaining a higher academic degree is typically a masculine career strategy; when female students and employees try to enhance their cultural capital, they tend to choose courses on the same level of education, instead of innovative doctoral training and researches.

Table 1. Proportion of women among teachers (%)

	2010			2011			2012		
	Primary	Secondary	Tot.	Primary	Secondary	Tot.	Primary	Secondary	Tot.
Hungary	95.9	64.8	76	96.1	64.8	75.9	95.9	64.5	75.6
Poland	83.8	66.4	72.4	83.7	66.6	72.5	83.7	66.3	72.7
Slovak R.	89.3	70.4	75.4	89.2	71.5	75.8	89.3	71.6	75.5
OECD av.	80.5	53.7	66.1	81.5	56	66.6	82	56.3	66.6

Source: Education at a Glance, 2010, 2011, 2012

All over Europe there is a strong stereotypical idea that the teaching profession is more suitable for women. But in many cases there are no differences among pre-service teachers by gender: important values are helping others, caring for people and the usefulness of work (for both men and women). When we examined the future professional and private plans of students in teacher training, these issues were common points in our country studies both in Hungary, in Poland and in the Slovak Republic.[1]

[1] The part of the study relating to private plans of Hungarian students was supported by the János Bolyai Research Scholarship of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences.

2. The case of Hungary

2.1. Professional plans of students in teacher education

In Hungary, one of the most important questions in relation to future professional plans of students in teacher education is whether or not they want to teach. In the framework of a study made in 2002, teachers who had graduated in 1990, were interviewed again. The results showed that 29 from the 46 people remained in the teaching profession, and 79 percent of them had already been thinking of leaving their position. The reasons are low salary and wrong school climate. Burn-out can occur early in the career of starter teachers. Men are significantly more exposed to the risk of burn-out and depersonalization. Good relationship with significant figures – colleagues, parents, children – is the most important protective factor. However, according to the results, relational work is difficult and problematic for teachers in many cases (Holecz, 2006).

Another study shows that secondary school students who are less talented and expect lower potential earnings choose college teacher education programs. These less talented students are more likely to stay in the teaching profession. According to this study, the gender of a student had a significant effect on choosing teacher training and over 60 percent of male graduates did not remain in the teaching profession (Varga, 2007).

The latest study of CHERD-Hungary, Partium Christian University and University of Oradea shows that only 2.9 percent of students in teacher training do not want to teach. There is a significantly higher proportion of uncertain students who do not know yet whether they want to teach or try to find a job in other areas. There was a significantly greater proportion of males in this group.

Table 2. Professional plans by gender (%)

	Definitely wants to teach	Only if they cannot find another job
Females	54.7	45.3
Males	33.8	66.2

Source: HERD 2012, N=292, significance = 0.003

Females prefer to teach in primary school: almost half of all male students plan to work in a secondary school or in higher education. It seems that female students are more wary of secondary scools than male students of primary schools although men can expect more role conflicts in primary schools according to the literature.

Table 3. Preferred school level by gender (%)

	Wants to work in a primary school	Wants to work in a secondary school or in higher education
Females	74	26
Males	52.2	47.8

Source: HERD 2012, N=292, significance = 0.001

Both men and women would like to work in "elite" schools but they choose small village schools too. 40 percent of students do not want to work with children with special needs. Gender differences only appear with regard to preference of schools maintained by a church or a foundation: male students are slightly more likely to want to work in these schools than female students, although the differences are not significant (significance = 0.078).

Another important area in relation to future professional plans of students in teacher education concerns the type of further training and courses they want to take part in. The cases of Germany and Scandinavia show that the involvement of teachers in doctoral training, researches and and curriculum innovation (Kárpáti, 2008) will improve the quality of education. But the teaching profession itself shows feminine charasteristics. Obtaining a higher academic degree is typically a masculine career strategy; when female students and employees try to enhance their cultural capital, they tend to choose courses on the same level of education, instead of innovative doctoral training and researches (Fényes, 2009).

According to "Graduate Follow-up Research 2010"[2], women and men wish to take part in professional development and master's degree courses at the same rates. Although relatively few think of attending PhD courses, an even larger male dominance can be seen here: 5.8 percent plan to acquire a PhD degree as opposed to 1.3 percent of the women. This is not influenced by the number of degrees one has at that time: two-thirds of those who have just received their first degree are planning to complete postgraduate studies. What is important, however, is whether the course the given person has completed is considered to be feminine or masculine: 80 percent of those planning PhD studies come from the engineering and natural science fields, and those who graduated in feminine studies – especially social educators and kindergarten teachers – prefer postgraduate specialization programs (Kovács, 2012).

[2] Study analyzes data from the "Graduate Follow-up Research 2010", a Hungarian national survey. The survey examines those higher education students who completed their undergraduate or graduate studies in 2007. The sample size was = 4 511, and of this number 738 people have a teaching qualification.

Table 4. Teachers' aspirations for further learning according to gender (%)

	Yes		No	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Master's degree courses	11.6	8.3	88.4	91.7
PhD courses	5.8	1.3	94.2	98.7

Significance in the case of PhD courses = 0.001

The HERD study mentioned above suggests that students are relatively satisfied with their training – more than 80 percent –, including theoretical and practical preparation and scientific knowledge transfer. There are no gender differences in this area. Males and females plan to participate in subsequent in-service trainings and/or possible future MA/Msc education in almos equal numbers.

However, according to previous researches, just as the academic career is far more important for males (Fényes, 2009), so the future PhD program is significantly more important for men.

Table 5. Teachers' aspirations for further learning according to gender (%)

	Plan PhD course	Not plan PhD course
Females	33.5	66.5
Males	50.0	50.0

Source: HERD 2012, N=292, significance = 0.044

2.2. Private plans of students in teacher education

When studying the plans of students in teacher education, we also deal with the question whether can we know something about their private plans: what their plans are for their own life, how they can comply, and match the professional and private life visions. This is a rarely studied area among students, even more rarely studied among students in teacher education.

Gender-related problems like discrimination in the labor market, the balance between work and private life, or the career path after starting a family are perceptible during the university years. Traditional feminine roles are particularly difficult to bring into harmony with a career now, as high numbers of better and better qualified women appear in the world of paid work. Women dominate further education: in the member states of the European Union, there is an average of 124 female students to 100 male students, and the increase is continual. In the first decade of the 21st century, the average increase was approximately 10 percent (Key Data on Education in Europe 2012, p. 84).

Preparing youth for gender roles is a very important task and mission, and the program named "family life education" can play a major role in it. This kind of education appears already in kindergarten and in elementary school, and during this process the children get to know themselves and each other, they are able to communicate, the corresponding behavior according to gender roles will develop. If family life education is integrated into teacher training in higher education, it implements a dual purpose: on the one hand, students will benefit in their own lives from all that they had learned in this subject, on the other hand, they will be able to transfer the knowledge and competencies to future generations.

According to the definition of Brillinger and Brundage (1989), the aim of family life education is to develop interpersonal connections, to present human relations enriched by education, as all these reinforce family bonds. The authors approach the issue from the aspect of adult education, including teacher education, and they find it important to induce changes in the knowledge, attitudes and competences of grown-up people. They specify five areas in the subject of family life education. The first is family planning, preparation for the parental roles. The second deals with developing parental skills, including the care of children with various disabilities. The third is extending the financial and management skills of the parents. The fourth is the terrain of factors influencing parental roles: media, society, financial circumstances. The last one is taking care of the welfare and education of the child (Brillinger & Brundage, 1989, p. 123).

In Northern and Western Europe, developing competences in relation to family life has been implemented as independent school subjects, e.g. interpersonal relationships, marriage education, parent education, human sexuality, family and consumer education. In Hungary, churches, NGOs and educational institutions run by churches have offered educational and consulting work in connection with relationship and family. From the school year of 2013/2014, the National Curriculum also has to contain education to family life as a subject to be taught and developed at school, incorporating traditional family values. The educational purposes appear in the curricula, the methodology and extracurricular school activities.

The results of the researches show that among Hungarian young people, a strong partnership and starting a family are a priority, but similarly to the trend in Europe, these events take place at a later lifestage. In our regional research we remarked that students try to comply private life and career in their future plans (Engler, 2012). Men and women with degrees are more concerned with the issue because they enter the labour market at an older age, and it requires a longer existential preparation and a longer period of gathering experience.

In the previously presented database named HERD the rate of students in teacher training who are already married is under 10 per cent, but 53 per cent of

unmarried students are living in a lasting partner relationship. Table 5 shows the shared vision of these students.

Table 6. Plans for the future among students in teacher education with a lasting relationship (%)

	Male	Female	Total
They definitely want to get married.	38	60	55.6
They are not sure about marriage, but stay together for the long term.	17.2	21.7	20.8
They won't stay together for long term.	20.7	0.9	4.9
They have not thought about it.	17.2	15.7	16
Other	6.9	1.7	2.8

Source: HERD 2012, N=144, significance = 0.000

More than half of the students are sure about getting married, and a further 20 per cent are confident that their present partner relationship will be a long-term one. Women appear to be more confident, they seem to require the secure background. It is probably important for women to balance their professional and private lives at the beginning of their career.

Table 7. Conditions of having children

Having children depends on…	Male	Female	Total
appropriate partner	88.7	89.6	89.4
marriage*	48.1	70	76.5
preparedness for parenthood	61.1	73	68.4
workplace	64.2	66.5	66
own flat*	48.1	61	58.3
optimal age	37.7	43.7	42.5
family support system	42.6	32.2	34.4
assistance of parents	37	28.8	30.5
reaching the top of the career	20.4	14.3	26.5
accomplished experience without children (e.g. journeys, entertainment)	27.5	23.8	24.5
own car	22.5	17.5	18.4

Source: HERD 2012, N=144, * p=0.025; 0.027

The most important conditions of having children are the appropriate partner and being married (Table 7). Hungarian society is characterized by conservative thinking, according to researches people are family-centered and prefer marriage to cohabitation. Here again we can see that marriage is more important for female students, and they insist on the safe family background (own flat). Preparation for parenthood is very prominent with both genders, which underscores the importance of family life education.

3. The case of the Slovak Republic

3.1. Issues of the teaching profession

To be able to analyze plans of students of the teaching profession, it is important first to characterize the state of the teaching profession in Slovakia. After a certain professional autonomy in the second half of the 20th century, when a full pre-graduate preparation was introduced and the social status of a teacher upgraded, since the 1970's we can perceive a period of de-professionalisation, or a crisis of the teaching profession. And since the 1990's especially highly developed countries have undergone a period of neo-professionalism, that is, they have taken steps toward an increased status of the teaching profession (Kosová at al., 2012). The situation in Slovakia is very similar to the state of democratic countries in the 1990's, when the internal and external symptoms of the teaching profession crisis reached their highest peak (Kotásek, 2003). In spite of the decreased interest in teacher positions in lower and higher secondary education, we still see a steady interest in positions in pre-primary and primary education; however, the external crisis of the teaching profession significantly determines the way students of the teaching profession see their future. The most important factors of the crisis include:

(1) Ageing of the teacher collectives. Teachers over 50 years represent 25.5 percent in primary schools; 37.9 percent in lower secondary schools and 33.6 percent in higher secondary schools.[3]

(2) Feminization of the teaching profession. Within OECD, Slovakia has the highest rate of women in teacher positions at all levels of schools: 75.4 percent (EU average is 69.2 percent). Women occupy pre-primary teacher positions in 99.9 percent cases. There is only one country above that – Ireland - with 100 percent rate. Concerning primary level, in 2009 women occupied 89.2 percent of the positions. Again, only a few countries had a higher rate (Russia, Czech Republic, Slovenia, Hungary, Italy, Estonia, Brasil.)[4]

(3) Lack of qualified teachers. According to the international survey TALIS (2008) which studied teachers of lower secondary schools, 31 percent of schools in Slovakia show a lack of qualified teachers; namely 35.2 percent of primary schools and 19.5 percent of eight-year secondary schools.[5]

[3] http://www.oecd.org/education/school/educationataglance2011oecdindicators.htm
[4] As above
[5] http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27/medzinarodne_merania/talis/publikacie/TALIS-web.pdf. (15.10.2013)

(4) Low salary. Slovakia has the lowest teacher salaries out of all OECD countries, and also the lowest salaries compared to other professions requiring a university degree.[6]

(5) Low attractiveness of the profession. As mentioned earlier, this is manifested by a lower interest of students in teaching profession studies, especially for secondary education, and by an increased drain of teachers, mainly those of younger age.

(6) High demands posed on teachers, caused by a radical boom of knowledge, science and technology, by changes within the child population, by parents'expectations, etc.; yet without proper health or social incentives.

These symptoms are deeply related with the internal symptoms of the crisis, which are more grave, as they affect the personality of a teacher, deepening the crisis from within and preventing the change. Professor Beata Kosova, who has been studying the history and perspectives of teacher education for a couple of years, categorizes them as follows:

(1) Resignation, helplessness, up to the point of burn-out caused by the extreme boost of new knowledge and stressing speed of education (Kosová, 2005).

(2) Routine, hopelessness and passive resistance to changes. The reform which was proclaimed 19 years ago has still not taken place, innovations have been hindered by bureaucratic obstacles; innovative enthusiasm developed in the early 90's thanks to international projects faded out after the year 2000; the long-awaited reform declared by School act in 2008 cannot be realized without the reform of the curriculum (Kosová & Porubský, 2011). Teachers have ceased to believe in a positive change and are overloaded with bureaucratic agenda.

(3) Unpreparedness of teachers for individualisation of education. Teachers are very often helpless in facing specific educational problems and the increase of social, multicultural and special-pedagogical heterogenity of students. In the TALIS study, this was marked by Slovak teachers of all categories as the most critical problem of their work.[7]

(4) Inner incompetence (mostly of his/her own) to accept the change as an inevitable part of the profession. Due to the expansion of information and communication technologies, students are able to access new and fresh information and surpass school textbooks. Teachers then have to face the pressure, because students become bored and teachers are not able to accept the

[6] As above

[7] http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27/medzinarodne_merania/talis/publikacie/TALIS-web.pdf, p. 59.

change as a part of their profession, which usually is a condition of a school (Kosová, 2005).

(5) Feeling of insecurity and fear of losing the job. This is mostly connected to often contradictory statutes of the Ministry of Education, often made in a hurry. Above all it concerns the transfer of primary schools management under the of towns and villages which frequently creates situations where the school is managed by the local mayor who is less educated than the teacher or school director (Kosová, 2006).

(6) Finding it very hard to accept the low prestige of the teaching profession (Kosová, 2005). Teachers perceive indifference and a lack of interest from society. Demoralised, they are then unable to defend their rights and when a conflict with a parent occurs, they are unable to provide arguments with regard to the interests of the child. Teachers find this very hard to bear and they consider their prestige even lower than students and parents do (Búgelová & Baňasová, 2003). According to the TALIS study, as much as 65 percent of Slovak teachers think that society does not show respect to teachers. Hard coping with the low prestige can be seen also in the results of the international comparison of the self-esteem index of teachers, which shows the Slovak teachers' self-esteem to be significantly lower than the average of 24 countries, mainly members of OECD that took part in TALIS.[8]

3.2. Results of the survey

All these factors considerably influence plans of students of the teaching profession. Some of the factors are perceived more than others, that is why we decided to do a survey focused on the plans of students of the teaching profession. It covered 122 students of the teaching profession, out of which 109 were women (89 percent) and 13 men (11 percent). Concerning the age, the largest group was represented by students between 18 and 21 (77 percent), then those between 22 and 24 (21 percent) and around 2 percent of the respondents were of 25 years or older. The students came from various regions of Slovakia: 36 percent from East Slovakia, 50 percent from Middle Slovakia and 13 percent from West Slovakia. The tool we used was a questionnaire. The first question we asked had to do with the motivation for their study specialization and profession.

[8] http://www.nucem.sk/documents//27/medzinarodne_merania/talis/publikacie/TALIS-web.pdf, p.66

Table 8. Motivation for choosing their study specialization

		N	%
A	the proximity of the university to my home	16	13
B	thinking that this study specialization was easy	2	2
C	thinking that as a teacher I will have a job	15	12
D	it was my dream	30	25
E	I was good in this subject matter	40	33
F	my friend applied for the same	4	3
G	it was a backup in case I would not be accepted anywhere else	5	4
H	other	10	8
	total	122	100

The highest number (33 percent) said they felt competent in said subject (e.g. biology, chemistry, etc.) Around 25 percent of students said it was their dream. Interestingly, 13 percent said they chose the study specialization due to the close proximity of the university to their home and 12 percent stated that they considered teaching a good profession for finding a job.

There is a couple of determinants that influence students' decisions. We wanted to know who influenced them to choose the teaching profession.

Table 9. Were you influenced by someone to choose the teaching profession?

		N	%
A	parents	23	18.85
B	friends	16	13.11
C	nobody	76	62.30
D	other	7	5.74
	total	122	100.00

As the table shows, 62.30 percent did not feel influenced by anybody. Quite a lot of them – 18.85 percent were influenced by their parents, and 13.11 percent by their friends. We did not go into detail as to how exactly they were influenced.

The next question focused on their plans after the graduation. We asked them if they wanted to remain in the profession. Only 52 percent of students expressed full consent. 12 percent did not know at all, and 3 percent responded negatively.

Table 10. Do you want to stay in this profession after you graduate?

		N	%
A	Yes, for sure	64	52
B	Probably yes	40	33
C	I do not know	15	12
D	Rather not	1	1
E	Certainly not	2	2
	Total	122	100

Our next question asked what students considered important after the graduation with regard to job and family. Most of them (61 percent) want to find a job first, and then found a family.

Table 11. What would you like to do after graduation?

		N	%
A	Have family and then find a job	23	19
B	Find a job and then have family	74	61
C	My job will not be influenced by family matters	8	7
D	I do not know	6	5
E	Further study of something else	1	1
F	Other	10	8
	Total	122	100

We were also interested in their plans to undertake further educational courses after graduation. Most of them did not know. 18.85 percent expressed the need to do some further courses and 13.9 percent thought it would not be necessary.

A similar question focused on the need of further/lifelong education of a teacher. 72 percent agreed that lifelong education was necessary, 13 percent did not know and 10 percent thought it was not necessary.

Table 12. Is it important to continue with life-long studying after you graduate?

		N	%
A	Yes, sure	41	34
B	Probably yes	53	43
C	I do not know	16	13
D	Maybe not	10	8
E	Certainly not	2	2
	Total	122	100

One of the questions focused on the worries of students after graduation. The fear of unemployment was expressed by 65 percent of the students, while 11 percent fear they will not know how to teach.

Table 13. What are your worries after graduation?

		N	%
A	I will be unemployed	79	65
B	I will not know how to teach	14	11
C	Teaching will not be interesting for me	5	4
D	Teaching will not cover my living expenses	17	14
E	Other	7	6
	Total	122	100

We also asked what they were looking forward to after graduation. Most of them are looking forward to working with children and students, whereas 11 percent to the stable income.

Table 14. After graduation, what are you looking forward to?

		N	%
A	Working with children and students	96	79
B	Stable income	14	11
C	I do not know	4	3
D	No need to study anymore	3	2
E	Other	5	4
	Total	122	100

The last question returned to choosing the teaching profession. We asked the students why they had decided to become a teacher. The responses tried to elicit if the students see it as their vocation, have talent for it or they think they like the profession.

Table 15. Why have you decided to be a teacher?

		N	%
A	I have talents for this	18	15
B	I think it is my vocation	51	42
C	I do not know	6	5
D	I like this job	50	41
E	Other	2	2
	Total	127	100

The observations and discussions with students show that the motivation for the specific field within the teaching profession (e.g. biology, geography, etc.) can sometimes be different. While talent and interest are main motives for studying a specific subject combination (e.g. biology + chemistry), pre-primary and primary specializations have their own motives: full-time students believe they will like working with children and they consider studying not that hard.Students are motivated rather by unemployment, dissatisfaction with their present job or the need to make use of free time during maternity leave. Women who have simple jobs like cleaning, hairstyling, beautifying, or are unemployed, tend to think they could easily find a better paid teaching job at the pre-primary or primary school in their hometown. Since they are often mothers, they think they will easily handle the children at school.

4. The case of Poland

The work of teachers, although seemingly stable, has many unpredictable elements. Therefore, the question is, can we talk about being fully prepared for the teaching profession. Is this preparedness not in fact a contradiction with the essence of the teacher's job? Thus, the competences needed by the teacher have by their very nature a propensity towards unreadiness and inadequacy; they are always in flux, in development, and consequently constantly require change (Kwaśnica, 1994). Preparation for the work of a teacher should therefore include education, further study and improvement. Education means the granting of professional qualifications to the candidates for employment as a teacher. Further study includes the supplementation of professional qualifications. Improvement is understood as the enrichment and updating of qualifications and skills, and sometimes going beyond them, and their expansion (Kwaśnica, 2004). It should be noted that the preparation of a student to work as a teacher should include the preparation to take up professional tasks on the one hand, and a very important preparation for professional and personal development on the other (Kwiatkowska, 2008).

The present study is one of the results of the project Teacher Education Central European Research Network concerning the future professional plans of teacher education students. It was prepared based on the results of a survey conducted among the students of the Jesuit University Ignatianum in Krakow. The survey was conducted in March 2013, and comprised a group of 107 students. They were all students (at the time at Ignatianum) pursuing their last year of studies for their first degree (bachelor's degree) in pedagogy, specializing in preschool and elementary school education. The participants were full-time (43 percent) and part-time students (57 percent).

The aim of the study was to investigate future career plans of teacher education students. In order to present a complete picture of the issue, the following research problems were identified: (1) reasons for choosing the teaching faculty; (2) prevailing mechanisms for developing professional qualifications among students; (3) student opinion concerning the prospects of their career as a teacher.

4.1. Reasons for choosing the teaching faculty of the respondents

Motivation is most often understood as a state of readiness of an individual to involve in a particular activity (or cease it), in order to achieve any desired goal. Motivation is also a complex of psychological and physiological processes, triggered by need, which determine a basis for behaviour and action undertaken by individuals, as well as their changes. Motivation is connected to the phenomenon of motivational processes which lead the behaviour of individuals towards the achievement of specific states of things relevant to them, and which direct the performance of certain activities so as to lead to intended results concerning the changes in external conditions, changes in a person, changes in one's own position (Pietroń & Pyszczek, 2007; Reykowski, 1985; Słownik psychologiczny, 1985).

As for the decision to undertake studies at the teaching faculty, the students participating in the research pointed to the dominance of the motive of a subject character (arising from interest in the person of the pupil/student, who is the subject of teaching and educational interactions). This is confirmed by the fact that 92 percent of the respondents pointed to 'desire to work with children' as the main factor in choosing the teaching faculty. Subsequently, the respondents gave reasons of a personal nature: 'a vocation for the teaching profession' – 41 percent of the students; 'opportunity for personal development' – 25 percent; 'personal experience in working with the younger generation' – 22 percent; 'additional benefits of working in education (e.g., longer holidays)' – 21 percent; 'personal pedagogical talent' – 20 percent; 'chance' – 12 percent. Most of the motives pointed to by the respondents may be treated as positive, giving hope for a mature shaping of their

identity as a good teacher. At the same time, the fact that 12 percent of the respondents chose this type of study by chance is rather disturbing.

Another element that has been tested is the current attitudes of students towards their chosen field of study. A significant number of respondents, as many 83 percent, are satisfied with their choice. However, what may be worrying is the fact that 7 percent of respondents, despite being dissatisfied with the choice, still plan to complete their studies in this field. Another 7 percent of students have difficulty in assessing this factor, and 2 percent are satisfied with the choice, because studies are interesting, but they plan to change their discipline as they believe that the teaching profession is not for them.

The completion of the studies of the teaching profile does not imply that in the future the students will work in this profession, which was also confirmed by the obtained results: 71 percent of respondents intend to work as teachers, 5 percent do not want to take up employment, while 24 percent do not know yet.

Consequently, what becomes cognitively interesting is the reasons for taking up employment as a teacher after graduation. The motivation of the respondents is similar to the reasons for undertaking the studies, as 77 percent 'want to work with children', 32 percent of the students have discovered their vocation for the teaching profession and want to fulfill this vocation in their life, 22 percent perceive the profession as an opportunity for personal development, while 20 percent of the respondents have also discovered their inner pedagogical talent. For 13 percent of the respondents, another decisive factor in deciding to become a teacher is additional benefits of working in education. Thus, in this area the dominant motivation is the subject motivation, and secondly there are personal motives (occurring most widely).

4.2. Methods of improving student professional qualification and their determinants by respondents

The requirement of lifelong learning is dictated by the fast pace of the development of science and technology, the changes taking place on the regional and global scale. In fact, every occupation places high demands, arising from the requirements of contemporaneity, which is characterized by high specialization and the need for specialists. These factors make the person develop constantly, broaden knowledge, skills, obtain new qualifications, become more perfect (Kacprzak, 2006). The trends described above are noticed by the students participating in the study.

For 65 percent of students undertaking full-time education, qualification courses turned out to be the best way for professional development during their studies. The students polled most often chose the courses for holiday camp teachers, the courses for games leader and a first aid course. A high percentage of young

people (48 percent) also participated in training sessions and workshops. 63 percent of students can also boast of voluntary work experience. 18 percent of the part-time students engage in work, mostly in kindergartens, but also in nurseries and community centers. Only 4 percent of full-time students can boast of professional work in education.

The need to supplement and extend skills after graduation is perceived by 83 percent of the studied population. The motives for taking the decision to improve their professional qualifications are as follows: one's own personal development (68 percent), increased employment opportunities (64 percent), each additional skill may become useful some time in the future (50 percent), self-satisfaction (30 percent). It is worth noting that one person (1 percent) explains the need to improve skills as a factor for helping children.

The students surveyed were asked to list the forms of education they intend to take up after graduation. First place in terms of number of indications was gathered by second cycle studies (Master's degree). This answer was chosen by 81 percent of the respondents, which can be explained by the fact that the study group consisted of people pursuing the first cycle of studies (bachelor's degree). About a third of the respondents (31 percent) intend to participate in further courses, workshops and trainings in the area of pre-school and early school education. Among the possible forms of education there were also postgraduate studies. The desire to follow them was declared by 23 percent of the respondents, most of whom chose speech therapy.

The dominant direction of self-development of the population surveyed turned out to be the pursuit of their own interests (64 percent), nearly a half of them (44 percent) perceive the ways of their self-development in the reading of literature. Personal development is an important factor for 40 percent of the respondents, and about one third (32 percent) do sports. A relatively low percentage of students focus on the development of spiritual life (17 percent), and only 19 percent of them choose to study academic literature and professional journals as a way of personal development.

The answers to the question of involvement in an activity, current or past, divided the researched group. Over half of the students (59 percent) undertaking full-time education was or had been involved in volunteering, while the declaration of voluntary activities was reported by only 20 percent of the respondents doing part-time studies. For this research group the most frequent response was the lack of any voluntary activity – 51 percent. The following responses were indicated by a small percentage of part-time students: active within the student council (13 percent), Student Chaplaincy (3 percent), or holiday camps. This data indicates a small percentage in the total sample of the respondents following part-time study mode who engaged in personal activity. However, full-time students, in addition to

the above-mentioned volunteer work, participated in the Student Chaplaincy (20 percent), Scouting (13 percent), student academic circle (9 percent). However, even within this research group, 26 percent of these young people do not undertake any form of activity.

4.3. Prospects for work as a teacher by respondents

The way from the decision to start studying, or rather to choose the direction of education, to obtaining a satisfactory job, can be very long. Therefore, it is important to plan it in order to feel satisfied with the action one has taken when one receives the diploma.

The majority of respondents plan to continue to study and work simultaneously directly after graduating. The role of a working person while still studying was chosen by 66 percent of the students. This decision seems to be dictated by the conditions on the labour market, in particular the attitude of employers who value professional development of their employees. Those who intend to work without continuing education represent 23 percent of all respondents. By far the lowest proportion comprises people who have not yet planned their careers after graduation (11 percent).

The respondents would see themselves most willingly as nursery school workers. This type of institution has been designated as a planned workplace by 57 percent of the studied population. The second position in terms of popularity is held by schools (36 percent), whilst 20 percent of students plan to lead their own economic activity in the education sector in the future. It can be assumed that the decision to open one's own educational institution is due to the difficult situation on the job market. Graduates of a teaching faculty would be willing to work in line with their qualifications, which, unfortunately, is not always possible.

Students' expectations concerning future employment have shown little differences between full-time and part-time students. For full-time students the most important issue was 'decent' pay – 76 percent of indications. For part-time student respondents salary is also important – 57 percent indications, but the most important issue was a nice and friendly atmosphere at work (59 percent).

The most popular forms of job search are announcements published on the Internet (70 percent). Data show that students know and appreciate the possiblities given by modern means of communication. However, the use of public information sources does not guarantee employability, hence 63 percent of the respondents express their willingness for direct contact with a chosen workplace. More than half of the studied group (54 percent) count on the assistance of their family in finding employment, while 37 percent of the students would lean on job placement offices.

Taking into account the specificity of the teacher's work and the uniqueness of each educational situation, preparation for the teaching profession should involve the whole person. Preparation for the work of a teacher is a process that always remains in development and we cannot prepare for it just once (Kwaśnica, 2004). The challenges faced by the teacher require taking into consideration the multi-dimensionality of education and preparation for this career. It seems necessary to also consider the technological, as well as the personal and functional aspects of teacher education (Dróżka, 2004).

The students surveyed are not optimistic when it comes to finding a job after graduation, but they judge the possiblities of finding satisfying work at an average level. They perceive the need for further education and professional development which is necessary in this profession. The results obtained are optimistic from this perspective, pointing to professional vocational direction of the students, since 75 percent of the respondents see the need to supplement their education after graduation, while only 5 percent do not see the need, and 20 percent consider it difficult to determine at this point. Thus, it can be concluded that the surveyed students recognize the need for continual training and professional development, which is an indispensable element of the work of a creative teacher.

5. Conclusions

The aim of our study was to provide an overview of the plans of students who take part in teacher training. We attempted to outline the professional and the private plans of students in three countries. The international comparison cannot be complete because this part of teacher researching is less well studied in Hungary, in Slovakia and also in Poland. We used the results of the availabe researches in each of these countries. These examinations are different, therefore the comparison is not complete. We plan to work out a common survey to examine the students from the same aspects.

Based on the available results, it can be established that professional future plans are closely related to students' academic performance and their motivation to work as a teacher. Problems typical of all Europe are also displayed in the Slovak Republic, in Hungary and in Poland. We can talk about the crisis of the teaching profession in Slovakia, but we can also see the negative self-selection and the uncertanity about the future in Hungary. A quarter of Polish students are afraid that they will not find a job after graduation. In spite of these facts we can see that many students would like to work with children, feel talented and want to do useful work.

Students typically considered it important to continue studying in the future. However, many of them would prefer to work at lower school levels, and they do

not want to take part in PhD courses. Now the teaching profession has a low status in most European countries and consequently teacher training is not a real choice for talented students: the teaching profession should be seen as an academic career, and future researches will have to explore what is required to achieve this.

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Training and professional support of teachers in culturally and religiously diversified environments

ANIELA RÓŻAŃSKA & ANDREA BORDÁS

Introduction

The intense and fast changes in the sphere of culture and social life are leading to an increased importance of the ability to function well in a multicultural environment. Problems and dilemmas of multiculturalism create new challenges for educators, for teachers; these challenges ask for new competences as well as for an awareness of one's own identity; a proper attitude towards one's own culture along with the respect of the culture of others. Contemporary school becomes a meeting place for people from various cultural traditions and diverse (or even conflicting) religious communities, and different social backgrounds. Schools and teachers should prepare the young generation for life in a pluralistic environment.

We would like to start this paper with some reflections concerning the situation of the teacher in a multicultural background and to present some of the demands and particular conditions of this work. Then we will present some procedures and schemes characteristic of the university training of teachers and some new tasks and objectives achieved in the multicultural and intercultural training of teachers in the regions of Cieszyn Silesia, Poland, and Transylvania, Romania. Finally we will present a viable possibility for multicultural education, where students participating in teacher training and teenagers together learn what it means to live in a multicultural society.

Both areas presented can be characterized by a specific cultural diversity, where historical processes, including different cultures, play an important role in everyday life. These are regions where multiculturalism, multi-faith and even multilingualism create the specific dimension and where these representatives of different cultures and religions live together, cooperate with one another even if sometimes the relations between two different cultures are framed by conflicts.

Poland in general does not have many locations with distinct cultural diversity, either ethnic or religious. But there are a few: Cieszyn Silesia is one of these. It is an area on the border between Poland and the Czech Republic and a model of cohabitation for many generations characterized by tolerance and reciprocal understanding. The region of Polish and Belarussian borderland bears similar traits of multicultural and multi-faith area with its centre at the University of Białystok and the region of Kaszuby with its centre at the University of Gdańsk.

Both these university centres organise research and instruction on multicultural and inter-cultural education.

In contrast, Romania is a place of cultural diversity, according to Census 2011: 11.1% of the population belongs to one of twenty-two registered national minorities living in Romania, and 13.5% belongs to a confession other than the official orthodox faith (Institutul Național de Statistică, 2011). Culturally, the most diverse regions in Romania, due to their history, are Transylvania and Banat. Both are multicultural, multilingual and multi-confessional regions, the first with the largest multicultural higher educational institution: Babeș–Bolyai University in Cluj with 3 teaching languages (Romanian, Hungarian, German), and some others, such as the University of Medicine and Pharmacy of Târgu Mureș, University of Arts Târgu Mureș. In spite of the existence of other research institutions in the Eastern and Southern parts of Romania interested in the issue at hand, multiculturalism is studied and researched much more intensively in Transylvania (for example at Babeș–Bolyai University in Cluj, the Romanian Institute for Research on National Minorities, the Resource Centre for Ethnocultural Diversity) and in Banat (at the Intercultural Institute of Timisoara). In Romania, multiculturalism is understood in most cases as being multi-ethnic or multilingual, because these are the most conflicting sides of multiculturalism. Most Romanian social and educational sciences faculties are interested in multicultural researches, projects, and have already developed some programmes for multicultural or intercultural education in the last twenty years.

However, some social changes that have happened lately in Western Europe shine a spotlight on the issue of culturally diverse societies. Nowadays we can meet almost everywhere some people of foreign culture or background and from various traditions which are clearly different from our own set of religious beliefs. It is the result of migration, of looking for new working opportunities or of a simple journey to discover new places. This multiculturalism and multi-religiosity has become a part of a new phenomenon essential for most European countries, regions and local communities and it has become a part of everyday life experience. Our society is increasingly and primarily influenced by the changes in the area of living in a world diversified by other cultures. Ignoring these foreign cultures, European debate has embraced a pluralistic view, where all the different cultures are considered as possibilities to enrich the whole society. For many people it is important to be able to deal with this new situation and to find a way to exist in this multicultural setting.

Multiculturalism and interculturalism – definitions and understanding

In Europe, there has been a long debate about multiculturalism and interculturalism since the early seventies. In their research paper, Ivasiuc–Koreck and Kővári (2010)

present the way the European Union's public, social and educational policies have influenced the changes in understanding multiculturalism and multicultural education. In fact, in the attention of this debate led by different policy-actors till 1984, the most serious event remains the migration of some non-European peoples. From 1984 there is a paradigm shift, speaking about the positive effects *of the integration of these people* into the *majority of the nation*. This affirmation introduces the issue of intercultural dialogue in education and the necessity of introducing this theme in initial and continuous teacher training. The changes in 1989 opened a new forum for multicultural discussion: Central and Eastern Europe have been traditionally (due to their hectic history) much more multicultural societies. From 1997, the EU introduced an educational policy based on the idea of Education for Democratic Citizenship. This includes the strategy of stressing intercultural education in the member states' educational policy, which emerged in Tool on Teacher Training for Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education (Gollob, Huddleston, Krapf et al., [2004] 2007), published in and translated to different languages.

At the same time, the problem of Romany minority comes into consideration more and more often, detecting a lot of problems in integrating this specific cultural minority group, mainly because of intercultural *communication* problems with this group in many of the member countries. But this time the concept of multiculturalism is more often used in Romanian minority policies *debates according to* higher educational institutional development[1] of national minorities, especially Hungarian and German minority and as an antithesis of an autonomous Hungarian higher educational institution in Hungarian discourses (Horváth, 2002). 2008 was declared the Year of Intercultural Dialogue, in this sense signatories had to promote tolerance and intercultural dialogue using education as the most powerful tool to change attitudes in order to familiarize society with the enriching effects of minority groups who keep their identities within the majority society. These policy changes have their reflections in the scientific dialogue about multicultural and intercultural education in all of Europe.

Traditionally multiculturalism has been understood as: *"Co-existence in the same dimension (or in its proximity without any clear distinction; or in the situation of an aspiration to occupy the same dimension) of two or more social groups of different distinct cultural traits: appearance, language, religious denomination and value hierarchy which contribute toward preserving of distinctiveness with diverse outcomes"* (Golka 1997, pp. 54–55).

[1] The idea of a multicultural higher educational institution, the Petőfi-Schiller University, has been imposed by the government as a possible solution to the Hungarian minority's demand for a larger higher educational system acceptable for Hungarian speaking students.

Thus understood, this definition by Marian Golka does not point at the dynamics or the activity or even at the quantity or quality of interactions or definitive forms of contacts and therefore does not imply cooperation or interactions between communities, or even their having common tasks and objectives. However, it underlines and stresses the differences and results of these diversities. Apprehending and emphasizing the differences may result in various consequences and may not always lead to conscious actions within the dimensions of social communication and value exchange. Multiculturalism such as pluriculturalism has a static dimension, which does not permit real dialogue between the cultures (Rey, 1999), and strengthens the differences of cultural identities.

Contemporary multiculturalism as defined by Pole Jerzy Nikitorowicz is directed towards the creation of multicultural societies and becomes the dynamics of co-occurrence of diversity of a different character (Nikitorowicz, 2012, pp. 16). This definition implies some reactions and inter-actions between participants. In fact, in the European scholarly community (Rey, 1999) as well as in the Romanian (Cozma, 2001; Cucoș, 2000; Plugaru & Pavalache, 2007) and Hungarian (Cs. Czachesz, 2007; Torgyik, 2005) educational arenas, it is used as intercultural education because it emphasises the interactions, the openness, the reciprocity and solidarity between different cultural groups. Intercultural education is a process which helps the dialogue between cultural communities with different backgrounds without them losing their identities.

Educational institutions should take notice and analyse multiculturalism in the process towards the multicultural society and consider the process as: 1. a permanent social phenomenon – an empirical problem; it is the existence in a specific society of cultural diversity and its character; 2. a phenomenon of identity – a problem of consciousness, it is a self-definition of belonging to one or many cultures, respect of their norms, values and sanctions and the anticipation of internal conflicts and finding some possible solutions; 3. an ideological phenomenon – a problem of norms and values, it is the defining and accepting of ethical and moral obligations in relation to our own culture and other cultures, supporting voices offering opinions in the system of formal/informal education, organisations, societies and foundations; all these with an objective of mutual cooperation, education to peace, creating and realising some definite ideas like for example cultural indifferentism, dialogue, tolerance or political correctness; 4. an educational phenomenon – a problem of attitudes and educational activities, it is the establishment of an educational system directed toward the initiative and realisation of multicultural dialogue through the implementation of projects and programmes which create attitudes of openness, understanding, and cooperation with other cultures, the experience of cultural otherness and our sensitivity to this culture and through the undertaking of actions

which eliminate some stereotypes and prejudices, jingoism and xenophobia (Nikitorowicz, 2012, p. 17).

I. Albulescu (2008) presents the civic spirit which supposes the integration of minority groups in the society. This means a change in recognising the plurality of ethnic, religious, cultural, racial and sexual identities. Only this condition of civic spirit could promote equality among groups, freedom within each of them and materialization of difference in social, economic and political life.

Self-creating multicultural societies are those which perceive and integrate multiculturalism in given aspects of a social, educational, ideological and identity phenomenon. In this sense, multiculturalism is a special challenge for educational institutions, especially for schools which ought to respond to the dynamics ongoing in a multicultural society, perceive them as essential educational problems, and therefore, through the implementation of programmes and projects, support people in the process of better understanding themselves, comprehending their own culture and appreciating others and their culture, as well as of creating the attitude of reverence of otherness and sustaining mutual co-operation in order to realize values like tolerance, dialogue and collaboration.

Multicultural and intercultural education presents a huge theme from the perspective of reinforcing national (and in most of the cases also confessional) identity and possibilities of establishment of regional development through maintaining national/confessional minority identity in the process of building the minority/confessional tertiary and higher educational system (Ábrahám, 2011; Belényi, Flóra & Szolár 2011, Belényi, Flóra & Szolár 2012; Kozma, 2010; Kozma, 2011; Nowak, 2010; Pusztai, 2010; Szolár, 2010). There was a set of papers that dealt with multiculturalism from the point of view of the role of church-related education (Pusztai, 2008). These papers consider national, confessional education as an alternative tool of developing personal and social identities, social cohesion. We can say these are representatives of the multicultural, not the intercultural education perspective, because they are much more concerned with the differences between national, confessional cultures and education than with the dialogue between them. Although dealing with special minority cultures problems, they do not even mention multicultural or intercultural education as a possible way of transforming culturally divided society into an intercultural social reality.

The situation of a teacher working in a multicultural setting

The way in which schools and teachers perform their duties in a multicultural, borderland environment – where the presence of different cultures, nations and ethnic groups is visible and socially important and where multicultural ideas clash

within participants of education – makes it necessary to clarify these new roles and tasks of educational institutions and to specify and create the new competences of teachers. Through multilayer activities, teachers fulfil the needs of their students. They must be aware of specific needs coming from the particularity of the multicultural environment, cultural heritage, traditions and values of specific culture groups and they have a special task to complete, linked to their belonging to a specific ethnic group and keeping of their own cultural identity, of cultivating traditions and also respecting the cultural otherness of other people and groups living in a multicultural environment[2].

Therefore there arises a need to thoroughly prepare teachers to undertake tasks and activities within regional and intercultural education[3]. Universities which train teachers, educational institutions and organisations supporting the activities of teachers working in a multicultural setting should acquire some knowledge about needs, expectations and problems which they may face in their professional lives. The first task for educators is acquiring a knowledge of competences which support teachers in a multicultural and diversified environment; this knowledge should support, develop, and sensitize teachers regarding their strengths and weaknesses.

The realisation of the tasks of multicultural education helping teachers to acquire competences, aptitudes and values necessary for work in a multicultural and diversified environment should focus on: (1) creating positive reactions and communicative skills in situations of differences and conflict; (2) an ability to communicate on the basis of dialogue (most importantly empathy, respect, tolerance to differences, being open to learning and knowing); (3) sensitivity to otherness, to other cultures and their specific values and patterns which enrich general culture; (4) sensitivity to the needs of other people; (5) Creating an awareness of cultural equality of all cultures in a multicultural society; (6) Eliminating the feeling of superiority, nationalism, ethno-centrism, prejudice, or tendencies to exoticism, xenophobia and stereotyping; (7) Awareness of one's own cultural identity, increased self-esteem and self-acceptation; (8) Familiarising with and understanding of others/foreigners as necessary neighbours; (9) Introduction to perceive 'I' from the perspective of the other as something enriching and not threatening or adverse. (Nikitorowicz, 2002, p. 42; Ogrodzka & Mazur 2008, p. 27).

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[2] Questions concerning the situation of teachers working in multicultural environments have been undertaken by many Polish authors who did research on culture and education on the borderland; they are gathered by the Society of Supporting of Multicultural Education (Stowarzyszenie Wspierania Edukacji Międzykulturowej). Further, detailed information on questions concerning the teacher is presented in publications of: Gajdzica 2011, p. 112–150; Jasiński & Lewowicki, 2004; Lewowicki, Ogrodzka, Mazur, Szczurek & Boruta, 2008.

[3] The importance of such preparation is stressed by Professor Tadeusz Lewowicki in his publications; he is an author of theoretical and methodological foundation of intercultural pedagogy and intercultural education. See: Lewowicki, 2006, p. 261–270. and 2007.

Furthermore there is one thing that plays an important role in a multicultural environment and it is the individual qualities of the person with his/her character, talents, world-view and attitudes.

All these are linked with everyday clashes of values, conflicts of attitudes and norms. For teachers it is important to be aware of the way they communicate with the outside environment/world. Communication barriers may impede the process of education. The teacher as a role model should be aware of his/her mode of communication with the outside world and present some linguistic perfection, typical and suitable set of manners with proper visual, auricular, and kinetic characteristics acceptable for pupils. This leads to effective interpersonal communication between the teacher and the pupil. In a culturally diverse milieu this is of particular importance because the specific ability to form contacts involves social and intercultural dimensions; and the required quality of communication is the transgress meeting of the other to know him better and be able to communicate successfully (Suchodolska, 2008, p. 69–72).

Teachers should realise the model of communication based on the dialogue which is directed towards mutual understanding, enriching, and cultivation of otherness as a chance to preserve personal development. Educators in some didactic and educational situations should try to overcome some barriers of communication code and help to create attitudes which are open to otherness (Nikitorowicz, 2005, p. 221).

Multiculturalism and related issues raise some new challenges for teachers; the demands of additional competences and a new awareness – the awareness of their own identity, emotions, culture inheritance, sets of stereotypes and practiced attitudes and values. These challenges are important tasks, essential for each teacher but they become especially important when the school or classroom turns into a place where people from different cultures, religions, and social backgrounds meet.

University education of teachers and intercultural education

Professor Jerzy Nikitorowicz, who conducted a full-depth study of multiculturalism in the North-Eastern part of Poland defines intercultural education as "the whole of mutual influences and effects of individuals, groups, institutions, organisations, associations, and unions which facilitate such human development which aims at man's becoming fully aware and creative member of family, local, regional, religious, national, continental, cultural, global, or planetary community and which enable man's active self-fulfilment and unique, lasting identity and unlikeness." (Nikitorowicz, 2003, p. 44–45). Intercultural education assumes that the desire to learn about one's own culture and to keep one's own identity will create attitudes of

openness to, understanding of, and respect for other cultures, which is the prerequisite of intercultural dialogue. Professor Lewowicki, the author of theoretical fundamentals of intercultural education underlines that in multicultural education various activities may be characterised by ideas like accommodation, assimilation or opposition whereas in intercultural education the main accent should be on cooperative actions. It ought to favour popularisation of new attitudes towards Others i.e. people and cultures, and to serve as familiarisation with cultures other than their own, as well as enhance the mutual enrichment of cultures, approximation and the creation of a common set of values; attitudes of tolerance and acceptance of otherness (Lewowicki 2000, p. 33 and 2000, p. 161).

Intercultural education is an important element of teacher training. It has been made a priority for academics in Poland and the need for such training of teachers ready to deal with multiculturalism has been visible everywhere. Scientific research of multicultural and intercultural education has been conducted since the 1990s by a group of scholars from all over Poland gathered in the Free Assembly of Research of Culture and Education on the Borderland (1994)[4], and since 2008 by the Society of Supporting Intercultural Education[5]. There are university centres where much research has been published and the leading universities in this area are: University of Białystok, University of Gdańsk, University of Silesia in Katowice (Faculty of Education in Cieszyn), University of Opole, to mention but few. At these universities some new original conceptions and educational programmes have been created which comprise multiculturalism and intercultural education; they also provide post graduate courses of regional education, for example, the famous post graduate university course of Kaszub minority language at the University of Gdańsk.

We would like to concentrate on the presentation of education for future teachers realised at The University of Silesia and especially at the Faculty of Ethnology and Education in Cieszyn. At the Cieszyn university centre the research on culture and education on the Czech-Polish borderland and questions related to multicultural education have been conducted since the 1990s in the Department of General Pedagogy supervised by Professor Tadeusz Lewowicki. The research concerned partial description of youth and juveniles of Polish minority from the Czech Republic such as dimensions of personality, hierarchy of values, aspirations, national identity. Later research covered young people and children on both sides of the Polish and Czech borderland and dealt with huge problems of multiculturalism of the region and other problems of multicultural and intercultural education to make

[4] Free Assembly of Research of Culture and Education of the Borderland (Społeczny Zespół Badań Kultury i Oświaty Pogranicza) began in 1994 at the initiative of professor Tadeusz Lewowickiego.

[5] The Society of Supporting Intercultural Education (Stowarzyszenie Wspierania Edukacji Międzykulturowej) was registered and started its activities on 30th September 2008.

the large picture of the study.[6] The collected materials of the research became a basis to introduce and lead university programmes of multicultural education. In 2002 a specialisation of multicultural and intercultural education began. At The Faculty of Ethnology and Education in Cieszyn, in pedagogy, in specializations of primary school education and pre-school education and social service pedagogy; within intramural and non-intramural studies, the following subjects have been introduced (since 2002)[7]: (1) multicultural and intercultural education (as required subjects); (2) a block of faculty subjects from this area: axiology of multicultural and intercultural education, socialization, school education, identity, religions in multicultural societies[8].

Multicultural and intercultural education as a university subject not only provides students and future teachers with useful knowledge about cultural diversities (both local and world-wide) but also prepares them for a dialogue and a dialogue interaction with other cultures and religions. Students prepare projects preparing them for educational situations supporting the creation of personal identities which stand against stereotypes, prejudices; or they prepare local scale educational programmes related to local culture or local multiculturalism in order to learn some skills necessary for being able to evaluate the results of their educational activities.

The subject of axiology of multicultural and intercultural education enables students of pedagogy to acquire axiological competences necessary for working in a multicultural society. Students also prepare didactical projects about the formation of axiological competences of pupils, and the creation of axiological and educational situations which serve to define and develop the identity of a person. Students develop pupils' competences for tolerance, dialogue and transgress behaviour. Since 2007, also within the post-graduate study of Primary and Pre-school Education specialisation, the subject of intercultural education with methodology course has been introduced. The comprehensive literature suitable for the subject of intercultural education is based on publications by lecturers and members of the Department of General Pedagogy, who in the publishing series of "Intercultural Education" have already issued 55 volumes since 1991[9].

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6 Detailed review of achievements and results of research undertaken by the Department of General Pedagogy at Cieszyn university and other university centres may be found in publication aje Alina Szczurek-Boruta w pracy: *Szkolnictwo wyższe a teoria, modele badań i praktyka edukacji międzykulturowej*. (Szczurek & Boruta, 2011, p. 153–203).

7 Before the introduction of intercultural education as a university subject in the 1990s university lecturers presented problems of multiculturalism and interculturalism within their specific subjects such as general pedagogy, comparative pedagogy or social pedagogy.

8 Authors of programmes and projects are academics who run lectures, projects and practices; they are from the Section of General Pedagogy.

9 http://www.weinoe.us.edu.pl/content/weinoe/5-serie-wydawnicze

In January of 2004 there arose a new initiative of students' association of intercultural education which is a positive effect of university intercultural education. Activities of the association include discussion meetings, debates and lectures or conferences focused on getting to know each other.

In Romania in most of universities there are some optional courses mainly in teacher training programmes, which aim to make students conscious of the theme of multicultural society and intercultural education. Nicoleta Chioncel and Tomina Săveanu (2006) present an optional course of the initial teacher training programme at the University of Oradea, where the participants (3 to 5 students in a group) have to conduct and present a research on multiculturalism or intercultural education. Maria-Tereza Pirău (2006) presents a collection of good practices that could be used in university or secondary school settings for developing a positive attitude toward minorities and intercultural education. We also find qualitative research based on focus groups about intercultural educational projects made by secondary teachers and their pupils in order to facilitate civil involvement (Hatos & Chioncel, 2006). We can also find similar programmes at almost every university in Transylvanian cities (Timisoara, Arad, Cluj-Napoca, Baia-Mare). Although these programmes existed, they were just individual or institutional initiatives, not parts of a conscious strategic development of teacher training from the perspective of intercultural education. There are no real researches on the efficiency of these programmes.

In 2007, the Romanian government, compelled by the European Union, released for the first time an order about cultural diversity and multicultural dimensions in education. This was the starting point for the development of a new school subject: multicultural education. Since 2008 it has been possible for pupils learning in secondary schools to be introduced to multicultural education issues in school time as an optional subject. Although in the students' book for this optional subject multicultural education is understood as a possibility of sharing some information about Romania's ethnic minorities, it was the first and undoubtedly big step in raising the awareness of the cultural diversity of Romanian society, and a way of acceptance of cultural pluralism. In some Transylvanian counties, where the research was carried out, researchers found a high level of teachers' discriminative attitude merely regarding to the pupils coming from the Romany community and the values of the majority sustaining school dominance. Despite the lack of funds and the breakdown of the monitoring system, a strong communication began on this issue between school practicipans, social scientists and government representatives (Ivasiuc, Koreck & Kővári, 2010). Naturally there has been a greater interest in intercultural education training programmes for teachers since 2008.

We have to mention the non-formal possibility of intercultural education represented by the Yuppi-Camp. As a non-governmental, non-institutional initiative

of some Hungarian youth volunteers united in the Association Yuppi Camping Motion, they have adopted since 2011 the Hungarian model of therapeutic recreation (Bátor Tábor, risen from the Serious Fun Children's Network in Barretstown, Ireland, founded by Paul Newman) and have developed a special intercultural view[10] (from 2012) by inviting to their camp Transylvanian Romanian and Hungarian teenagers with diabetes in order that they learn to deal with their disease. The teenagers have a week full of thumping but accurate programmes. While playing, talking and experiencing together they get to know each other's culture and language. The volunteers (exactly 77, of which 37 re-joined the camp the following year), among whom we can find some students of teacher training programmes and also practice teachers (16% of the volunteers), can also learn about multiculturalism, exercise their Romanian speaking skills and practically assist in a real intercultural educational process. There is a chance of possible future cooperation between Partium Christian University's Teacher Training Institute and the Association Yuppi Camping Motion.

Conclusions

The training of teachers in intercultural education offers a chance to significantly extend their professional capacity, which may be applied in different fields. The intercultural education of teachers seems to be a necessity for the young generation that lives in a culturally diverse environment; this education also supports the respect for the person's own essence of identity: the person's home, family and beliefs.

This intercultural education agrees with the pillars of contemporary education expressed by J. Delors' Report whose objective, *to learn in order to live together* (Delors 1998), has become a fundamental truth.

Contemporary man tends to have a lesser understanding of others, of people who are drastically different from him/her. Contemporary man dreadfully needs the peaceful co-existence, exchange and co-operation. Intercultural education as a transcultural process of mutual learning has become a fundamental, necessary pillar of life-long education in personal and social dimensions.

[10] Probably not fortuitously the first international Bátor Tábor was organized in 2008, in the The Year of the Intercultural Dialogue in Europe. Up to that point, Bátor Tábor admitted children with different chronic diseases from Central and Eastern Europe, mainly from Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Poland and Italy.

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