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Editors-in-Chief

TORSTEN HUSEN
University of Stockholm, Sweden

T. NEVILLE POSTLETHWAITE
University of Hamburg, FRG

Faculté de Psychologie et des
Sciences de l'Éducation
UNITE DE DOCUMENTATION
Université de Liège, B-32
S-4000 LIÈGE
TEL. 041/56 20 27 - Fax 041/56 20 44



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J. Withall

Teacher Education: Concepts

Teacher education or teacher development can be considered in three phases: preservice, induction, and inservice. The three phases are now considered as parts of a continuous process (see *Induction of Beginning Teachers; Inservice Teacher Education*).

While the education of professionals like medical doctors, engineers, and agronomists, is to a great extent basically similar all over the world, the nature of teacher education, often limited to teacher training, is strongly dependent on the level of economic development and the social context. Furthermore, it is deeply influenced by the local culture and history. That is why one can find in the contemporary world the full range of institutionalized teacher-education schemes or programs that developed throughout the

history of humankind, from no specific preparation at all to sophisticated university education.

This is a nearly perfect instance of a situation that cannot be understood and interpreted without some historical background.

1. Historical Perspective

While compulsory schooling is a twentieth century phenomenon, generalized school education mainly goes back to the nineteenth century in the West. In the past, instruction was linked with socioeconomic status (SES), the majority of peasants, artisans, and other "small people" learned their skills on the job, while the educated minority in power was privately instructed in the line of its social function. Religious education, certainly the most widespread, was again limited for the majority to inculcation of beliefs and rules. With the joint philosophical influence of eighteenth century Enlightenment (to know has a moral value) and the growing pressure of the emerging Industrial Revolution (to know has an economic value), this situation changed.

During the nineteenth century, the structure of our modern school systems developed, strictly parallel to the social order of the time. Primary schools were mainly for the lower-class and for lower-middle-class children; they were schools for the "people" and their teachers were also of lower social origin. The lower-secondary schools (middle schools) educated future middle-class members who needed knowledge and skills for civil servant service, clerical jobs, and commerce. Hence the practical orientation of these schools was entrusted to non-university-trained teachers (mostly coming from the middle class). At the beginning of the twentieth century, vocational schools, of very low status too, were strictly separated from general education. Finally, grammar schools—called "learned schools" (*Gelehrtschule*) in Germany because they prepared for university education—were entrusted to university-trained teachers.

The future kindergarten or nursery school appeared in the nineteenth century first under the name of asylum—that is, a place where poor preschool children found shelter while the mother was at work. (The Italian cradle school is still called *asilo nido* today.) For several decades, the women in charge of an "asylum" had no specific education and often lacked any basic instruction. Their qualification was about the same as today's car park attendants and their job was somehow similar: they watched parked children.

The evolution of primary-school teacher training is also striking. Until the beginning of the nineteenth century, education could be provided in elementary schools by anyone who had a certain command of reading, writing and arithmetic (the so-called three R's). Similar situations could still be observed in some parts of the world not so long ago. Soon after

1800, however, appeared. The Austrian *Normalseminar*. The institution, but weeks or more given in a model (p. 7), and called a pedagogical course. German *Lehrerbildung* either varied a great deal; however, the became normal parallel was seen in many West European countries, *normal, scuola normale*. It must be emphasized that "normal school" methods: experiments showed how they were given when the job.

At the beginning especially under the *Waisenhäuser* the autonomous over Prussia, to the modern world.

Typically, a *Lehrer* open to pupils had a three-year boarding school (De Vroede 1990) the curriculum content and skills practice. Any philosophical or scientific (Minister von *Lehrer* primary-school teachers had to educate religion and social three R's needed by progressive a significant enrichment curriculum (De the study of psychology).

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1800, however, specific training institutions appeared. They were based on the eighteenth century Austrian *Normalschule* and the German *Lehrerseminar*. The *Normalschule* was not an independent institution, but consisted of a short course of a few weeks or months for teachers or aspirant teachers, given in a model elementary school (De Vroede 1981 p. 7), and called *Normalschule* because of the pedagogical courses given there. The eighteenth century German *Lehrerseminar* was not an independent institution either, and the curriculum of the "seminars" varied a great deal from place to place. It was, however, the model of the *Schullehrerseminar* that became normative in the nineteenth century and its parallel was surprisingly to be called "normal school" in many Western countries (*école normale, escuela normal, scuola normale, normal-skolan*).

It must be emphasized that the eighteenth century "normal schools" were essentially training in teaching methods: experienced primary-school teachers showed how they taught; something akin to recipes were given which were then tried and imitated on the job.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, especially under the influence of Francke and Niemeier (*Waisenhaus* in Halle, Germany), the model of the autonomous seminar appeared and spread first over Prussia, to be soon imitated in the whole Western world.

Typically, a *Lehrerseminar* or "normal school" was open to pupils having completed primary school: it had a three-year theoretical and practical curriculum, a boarding school system, and its own practice school (De Vroede 1981 p. 7). The basic components of the curriculum were: religious and moral education, content and skills to be taught later on, and teaching practice. Any "learned" instruction—be it philosophic or scientific—was avoided and even forbidden (Minister von Raumer's order, Berlin, 1856). Primary-school teachers were lower-class members who had to educate lower-class children in the respect of religion and social order and equip them with the three R's needed for work. Hard fights were fought by progressive educators like Diesterweg to obtain a significant enrichment of the general education curriculum (De Landsheere 1967) and, even later, the study of psychology and theoretical pedagogy.

From an administrative point of view, the typical normal school was part of the primary-school system; it had the status of a lower-vocational school. A teacher certificate was practically equivalent to a lower-secondary school certificate; consequently it did not give access to college or university. This situation was still common in many countries in the middle of the twentieth century.

There were of course some exceptions to this pattern. For instance, in about 1840, a rich curriculum including Latin and high-level general education were adopted by some English and Welsh

training colleges (Alexander 1979) but were soon pushed down to elementary level.

Some nineteenth-century United States normal schools were of the German type (Massachusetts), while in Wisconsin, they were conceived as "multi-purpose" educational institutions and were in fact the original public secondary schools (Herbst 1979).

The situation was totally different for grammar-school teachers or the equivalent: they would have a full college education in a field of specialization and some, mostly philosophically oriented, introduction to psychology and pedagogy. Teaching skills and methods occupied little place, if any, in their preparation. Again, this situation can still be found in many countries today.

As for university professors, they would have resented as a sort of insult any obligation to study educational theory and practice. A reaction that has far from completely disappeared yet.

This background information should help clarify why giving paradigmatic value to teacher education systems as they exist in England and Wales, in the United States, and in some other countries would be misleading. In these countries, teacher education is of college level and all primary- or secondary-school teachers have at least bachelor degrees. Even then, there are still doubts and debate about the optimal solution: autonomous teachers colleges, or university-integrated teacher education, or—as in some cases in England and Wales—close cooperation between teacher colleges and university. As for internship or its equivalent, there is also much discussion about its length, its nature, and its best time within the training process.

But before these questions are discussed further, the dimensions of the teacher education problem must be remembered. Wherever—that is nearly everywhere now—generalized schooling exists, many thousands of teachers are immediately needed. This is the quantitative dimension. Furthermore, how can most developing countries afford to college-train enough teachers while most of them cannot afford the few dozens or hundreds of university-trained professionals they need in medicine, engineering, agriculture, finance, administration, and so on?

2. Normative View

How can teacher education be conceived in the light of the present advancement of social sciences? (see *Teaching: Definitions*).

A first distinction must be made between initial and further training. A second distinction is between teachers who choose this vocation as their first and only career, and others who either acquire a rich experience in a craft or a profession before turning to the teaching profession. It is obvious that educating a college-aged future teacher or a mature adult already

possessing much experience will call for different approaches.

While, in many countries, putting kindergarten, elementary-secondary, and vocational-school teachers on the same footing would have been considered as sheer utopia a few years ago, a trend towards unification of the status of all members of the teaching profession can now be observed. The perspective generally adopted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is typical in this regard: "All structural differences between teacher categories must be abolished. Most teacher unions or associations want, for all teachers, an initial education of the same duration (at least four years at postsecondary level)" (Enderwitz 1974).

2.1 Principles

The trend is universal: in future, all teachers will enjoy higher education. This is implied by another trend: in all developed countries, basic or fundamental education for all tends to include completion of high school. This extension of general education and the retardation of a vocational specialization are needed in a very rapidly changing culture.

For psychological, educational, socioeconomic, and strategic reasons, all teachers of the future should have university status. The psychological and educational justifications of this principle will be analyzed with the presentation of the curriculum. Socio-economic and strategic reasons only are discussed here.

In many countries, only the senior-high-school teachers hold a full university degree and are paid accordingly. As a consequence, and especially where provision is made to help access for the gifted to higher education, only the less gifted choose the preprimary- or primary-school career. This situation differs radically from the past when the summit of ambition for most bright lower-class children was becoming a primary-school teacher. This explains why Western Europe primary schools for about a century (roughly 1840 to 1940) were staffed by elite teachers.

Today, while the crucial impact of the first years of schooling is acknowledged, the qualification of the teachers responsible for the lower-school levels is rather low in many countries. There are, of course, some individual or local exceptions, but this phenomenon definitely exists. Even when equal basic salary is granted to all teachers, a difference of prestige—and consequently of attraction—remains between training in colleges and universities. Research shows that the schools of education are far from being the first choice of high-achieving secondary-school students. As a conclusion, real professionalization of the teacher is not only a qualification need (as will be discussed later) but also a necessary recruitment strategy.

The foundation of university education is also gen-

eral education. The faster knowledge advances, the less valid is a narrowly conceived initial education. That is why at university level also, initial teacher education should be primarily focused on laws, basic principles, understanding of processes, skill learning, as well as research methods and techniques in the field of study and in the related fields. More specialized knowledge would be gained as a sort of illustration of more universal approaches and as something needed for practice. The place of field work and internship should be more important than in the past.

This does not mean that specialized knowledge can be superficial; on the contrary, to make general and high-level specialized education possible, curriculum reform will be needed in many universities where advanced and encyclopedic education still remain synonymous (see *Curriculum Reform*).

Teacher education should normally comprise general education, specific subject mastery, strong psychological background (including educational psychology), and good command of instructional methods and techniques in the broad sense of these terms. Not only are all those components rapidly advancing, but they also represent such a learning load that a four- or five-year university curriculum cannot suffice. This is why initial teacher education must now be conceived in direct relation to further education.

The model (Frey 1971) portrayed in Fig. 1 illustrates the way teacher education as a whole can be conceived. Frey's model shows how, after completion of two year's full-time university theoretical studies, teaching practice begins and gradually increases, from 10 percent to 90 percent of the working time. During the remainder of a teacher's career, 10 percent of the time is devoted to further education. Another main characteristic of this model is the continuity between initial and further education.

2.2 The Curriculum

Any teacher education should always come back to four basic questions and should offer opportunities to pose them in a great variety of educational situations:

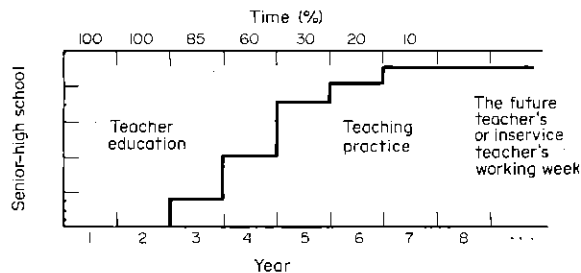


Figure 1
Teacher education model^a

^a Source: Frey (1971)

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The components of egorized under the h specific subject maste and secondary-school educational theory and p

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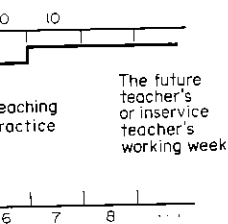
Of course, general ed

edge advances, the initial education. Also, initial teacher education focused on laws, basic sciences, skill learning, and techniques in the fields. More specialized as a sort of illustration of field work and more important than in the past. Specialized knowledge can be used to make general and possible, curriculum in universities where education still remain (form).

They normally comprise general subject mastery, strong educational and instructional components rapidly changing such a learning university curriculum and teacher education in relation to further

as shown in Fig. 1 illustration as a whole can be seen how, after commencing university theoretical beginnings and gradually increasing percent of the work of a teacher's career, to further education. If this model is the further education.

They always come back to offer opportunities to educational situations:



What are the objectives of education? How do the objectives vary from individual to individual? How can the objectives be achieved? How does one know that they are achieved?

All the components of teacher education should help in answering these questions and are thus to be learned in an integrated, interdisciplinary curriculum, building upon life experience. It must be stressed that future teachers will be able to make their pupils independent in learning and in everyday life only if they too enjoy the same independence during their training. Lasting learning only occurs if the learner solves meaningful problems and to that purpose feels the need to appropriate the curriculum content. As long as content learning is an objective in itself, it does not influence field behavior. That is why psychological and educational theory learned by the students just to pass their examinations have so little influence on actual teaching practice.

The components of teacher education can be categorized under the headings of general education, specific subject mastery for preprimary-, primary-, and secondary-school teachers, psychology, and educational theory and practice.

(a) *General education*. This is understood as the set of knowledge, skills, and affective and psychomotor behaviors learned to contribute to a harmonious development of an individual in a given environment. The individual must learn to understand his or her environment, to modify it, to analyze it critically, and this not only to his or her benefit, but also to the benefit of society.

In this perspective, it is hardly thinkable that the level of general education should vary among teachers according to the school levels. For instance, what could justify a poorer command of the mother tongue by preprimary teachers than by high-school teachers? If a difference were acceptable, and considering the critical influence of preschool development, the strong side should benefit the younger pupils.

General education is no formalistic encyclopedism but a critical discovery and acquisition of meaningful factual knowledge, of principles and methods in the domains of health, science, literature, aesthetics, philosophy, politics, and ethics. It includes the development of higher cognitive skills, of ability to communicate, to obtain information, to work independently and in groups, to socialize, and so on.

It is also knowledge and understanding of the way of life of others. Teachers have to educate children coming from different social backgrounds and even from foreign cultures. Unfortunately, many teachers have never really left the school environment: as soon as they ceased to be students, they became educators. Except for their own family background, they have, as a consequence, no experience of life in a factory, in business, of social contexts differing much from their own.

Of course, general education must continue after

university graduation and cannot and should not be standardized. But its level should be high for all.

(b) *Specific subject mastery*. In the nineteenth century, full university specialized education was deemed necessary for grammar-school teachers, while content learning could be limited for primary-school teachers to what they had to teach.

As Woodring (1957 p. 71) puts it, the ideal teacher for a self-contained classroom of elementary-school children "would be possessed of an impossible combination of virtues": masterly understanding of the learning process; ability to arouse and sustain the interest of children from a wide variety of social, economic, and intellectual backgrounds; capability of effective communication with children of IQ's ranging from 50 to 150 or higher; scholarly knowledge of varied school subjects; warm, sympathetic personality; mastery of clinical psychologist skills; ability to establish cordial working relations with colleagues; and an ability to cooperate effectively with parents. Of course, few people can play so many roles effectively. Teams of professionals helped by aides and technicians are needed.

Specific aspects of preprimary-, primary-, and secondary-school teacher education will now be examined; also the case of individuals coming to teaching after practicing another vocation.

Considering the critical importance of the early development, it can be said that the most decisive battle for equality of opportunities and democratization of education is to be won at preschool level. Some of the main tasks of the preprimary teacher are:

- (i) to create an affective climate providing security;
- (ii) to create favorable situations for cognitive, affective (including aesthetic), and psychomotor development;
- (iii) to enrich the social experience of the child;
- (iv) to enrich the cultural background of the child;
- (v) to promote language development;
- (vi) to help in acquiring the basic concepts of time, space, and quantity;
- (vii) to foster readiness for primary instruction;
- (viii) to help the family in its educational task.

That is why the study at university level of developmental and clinical psychology can be considered as a prerequisite. Special room must also be made for the study of psycholinguistics, and of the foundations of mathematics.

As for primary teachers, it seems that two types of primary teachers should be distinguished: for the age group 5 to 8 and for the group beyond age 8. The first group is at the transition of preprimary and

primary education, and for that reason should be nongraded. The teachers should have practically the same preparation as the preprimary teachers plus a high-level training in the teaching of reading and writing, in oral communication, mathematics instruction, and in diagnostic and remedial techniques (see *Early Childhood Education, Teacher Education for*).

The education of teachers for the age group 8 to 12 or 8 to 15 or 16 should be conceived in a team perspective. This is justified by the fact that, contrary to old beliefs, high-quality teaching of elements requires advanced knowledge of the subject. For instance, before teaching arithmetic basic skills, the teacher must be aware of the nature and content of more advanced mathematics to prepare for its acquisition. Similarly, it is not acceptable that early foreign language teaching could be the duty of teachers with superficial, or even incorrect command of the language. That is why future teachers for this age group should major in one of following: (a) mother tongue and history; (b) mathematics (including computer technology) and physics; (c) natural sciences and geography; (d) art; (e) one of the following: foreign language, music, physical education.

The case of high-school teachers can now easily be dealt with. While the preparation of junior-high-school teachers has been sketched above, senior-high-school teachers would major in one subject and have a much stronger training in psychology and education than they have had so far.

How can education be conceived for people who become full- or part-time teachers after several years of practice of teaching in another field, or other jobs or professions? There is no reason why their teacher education should be poorer than the education of "first career teachers." But it is also obvious that the members of the first category are more mature people, and have, in many cases, a rich social experience on which it is possible to capitalize. In this case, a tailor-made teacher education program should be defined in close cooperation with the "student." The credit system common in Anglo-Saxon countries appears here as the most satisfying and efficient solution. The individualized curriculum to be mastered within certain time limits, but at individual pace, would normally include wherever needed: (i) general education; (ii) development of the expression and communication skills; (iii) psychology and educational theory and practice; (iv) eventually more advanced subject matter study in an instructional perspective.

(c) *Psychology and education study.* Knowledge of the laws of behavior, of learning processes, of development, and of the ways of guiding it, is a prerequisite of education. Furthermore, an active introduction to experimental psychology should help understanding of learning processes and prepare teachers to be critical consumers of psychological research data.

Ethological and participant observation is the key; using tests and other evaluation techniques, it will continuously swing between qualitative and quantitative analysis. Cultural anthropology will help in interpreting socially bound behavior. Introduction to group dynamics should also be a part of the teacher training. It must be emphasized that the study of psychology will influence and enlighten teaching behavior only if it is grounded in personal experience, and in participation in situations in which the individual is involved and in which he or she feels concerned.

The main psychological aspects of the teacher's intervention are:

- (i) Self-expression—to avoid censorship of expression of feelings sometimes creating earnest internal tension, the learner must be able to express problems and feelings, and become tolerant to the feelings of others.
- (ii) Empathy—to learn to understand the others, to accept them as they are.
- (iii) Positive perception of others while developing positive self-image.
- (iv) Feedback—informing others of the reactions of self to their behavior.
- (v) Autonomy, including tolerance of, and positive reaction to, aggression and negative evaluation from others.

Like medicine, teaching is an art and a science (see *Teaching: Art or Science?*). Pedagogy is the set of theories and rules governing teaching practice. With the quick development of educational theory in the twentieth century a growing number of specific disciplines have emerged and piled up instead of integrating functionally: philosophy of education, educational foundations, history of education, teaching methods, comparative education, educational psychology, sociology of education, technology of education, measurement and evaluation, educational planning, and so on. Studying all these (important) subjects in a sort of encyclopedic mosaic has had little impact on teaching theory and practice. There is a growing tendency to stress the total structure. To that effect, the training strategy is the thematic approach or the educational project method.

In this integrated perspective, the field of education can be structured in three domains: (i) foundations of education, integrating philosophy, history, sociology, and comparative education; (ii) empirical research and development—research methods, measurement, evaluation; (iii) applied education—teaching methods, technology, and internship.

Before possibly modifying it, education is first the expression of a society trying to conserve, and to reproduce itself. The ends and aims of education that

are the keystone of the... primarily the expres... and values. Underst... nate in other times... standing of the pres... essary coherence b... practice should be... educational foundati...

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Opportunity should... nomothetic approach... approach and discover... other.

3. Applied Education

Applied education is u... and actions develop... pendent learning.

After philosophizing... is now to run school o... making decisions and... the many pupils and st... This is the purpose of... human experience and... edge is not available to... and now.

Curriculum develop... part of applied educat... trained to prepare the... the stages of curriculum... ing objectives, selecting... ences, choosing the app... room organization, ga... necessary material, and... mative and summative e... *Summative Evaluation*).

Practice in laboratory... a very important role in...

are the keystone of the whole educational system are primarily the expression of the dominant ideology and values. Understanding why some values dominate in other times or in other places helps understanding of the present situation. Showing the necessary coherence between aims and educational practice should be the main role of the study of educational foundations.

There is today a growing consensus on the need for teachers to be regular innovative agents and thus regular consumers of research and development products, and also to be themselves associates or agents of research and development.

It is now more and more clearly recognized that the only efficient way to educate the future consumer of research and development data is by the introduction actively, in a nonsuperficial way, to research and development methods and techniques, including the necessary statistical concepts. It seems that an efficient way to do this is to offer a minimum research framework and then have the future or inservice teachers participate in a modest but genuine research project: from the formulation of the rationale and the definition of the problem and formulation of the hypothesis to the conclusion, through the choice of a research design, the choice or the construction of the necessary instruments, the field work, the data analysis, and interpretation (see *Teachers as Researchers*).

Opportunity should also be given to contrast this nomothetic approach with the anthropological approach and discover how both supplement each other.

3. Applied Education

Applied education is understood as the set of studies and actions developed for instruction and independent learning.

After philosophizing and researching, the problem is now to run school on a day-to-day basis, that is, making decisions and fostering the development of the many pupils and students in the school system. This is the purpose of teaching methods founded on human experience and intuition, if scientific knowledge is not available to solve problems arising here and now.

Curriculum development and evaluation are also part of applied education and teachers should be trained to prepare the instructional activities along the stages of curriculum development, that is: defining objectives, selecting content of learning experiences, choosing the appropriate method and classroom organization, gathering or developing the necessary material, and making decisions about formative and summative evaluation (see *Formative and Summative Evaluation*).

Practice in laboratory schools and internship play a very important role in teacher education. In this

regard, many systems exist: they go from gradual familiarization with the school context and increasing instructional practice, to systems where future teachers are first immersed into schools for several weeks or months before being given any specific training.

There is no clear evidence of the superiority of any system. The most important thing is that educational theory relies on field observation and teaching practice, and that observation and practice are analyzed in the light of theory.

It is now generally accepted that microteaching is an efficient training technique. It should develop in three stages:

- (a) analytical instructional training—small group animation, practice of specific skills, critical observation of teaching behavior;
- (b) self-evaluation of teaching session;
- (c) initiating microsituations of problem solving and cooperative research in the classroom (see *Microteaching: Conceptual and Theoretical Bases; Peer Evaluation of Teaching; Self-evaluation of Teaching*).

The Frey model introduced above shows how teaching practice takes a growing part in teacher education.

An often neglected aspect of practice and internship is the school level at which it is to take place. Of course, the choice of the level or type of school for which the future teacher specially prepares must be made. It seems, however, that some teaching practice or, at least, observation at other levels fosters a better understanding of the teacher role and of the corresponding curriculum development.

4. General Versus Competency-based Teacher Education

The type of teacher education described so far is general or empirical; this commonsense or idealistic curriculum seems to work. However, in most instances, a direct relationship between that sort of knowledge and teacher effectiveness is difficult, if not impossible to demonstrate.

Competency-based teacher education is a reaction against this vagueness. Such a program specifies the competencies to be demonstrated by the student, and makes explicit the criteria to be applied in assessing the student's competencies. The word competency is here taken in the broad sense of knowledge, attitudes, skills, and "behaviors that facilitate intellectual, social, emotional, and physical growth in children" (Weber 1972). At the conclusion of such a program, the critical success criterion is not the achievement on essay or oral examination, but mainly the student's ability to do the job for which he or she is preparing.

Definite advantages of this approach are: functional learning, clarity of objectives, easiness of modular individualized instruction, and a more objective evaluation. The danger of this system is that it can be rather mechanistic, that its content and construct validity is not easy to establish; furthermore, it can be feared that in a rapidly changing culture, the teacher could lack flexibility and transfer ability in new unexpected educational situations.

There is so far no clear answer to this debate. Since "competency" can also be flexibility, creativity, critical spirit, the difficulty just mentioned could be overcome. However, it is hard to imagine that, for instance, flexibility could be developed in one or a few learning units; it should rather be fostered in all, as one of the components also including creativity, critical thinking, and so on (which could bring us back to the general approach) (see *Competency-based Teacher Education*).

5. Inservice Education

The need for further education during a teacher's entire career has been recognized. For teachers who have enjoyed an education of good quality, further education can be limited to reading the disseminated information, to periodical seminars, short refresher courses and, of course, postgraduate study (see *Inservice Teacher Education*).

There are cases, however, where the teacher's education has become obsolete (at least to a significant extent) or has practically never existed in certain aspects deemed important for their job. Examples of such situations are the introduction of a "new mathematics" curriculum when teachers have never studied it themselves, or the introduction of teachers to educational research methods and techniques when they had no place in the initial training program. In such a case, further teacher training is often called "recycling" (see *Teacher Recycling*).

6. Conclusion

Enjoying the same social status and prestige as all those who eminently serve society, today's or tomorrow's teacher must be a professional, whose educational program and level should be more and more comparable with the physician's education. The teaching profession must unify: we would not dream of less education or less pay for pediatricians than for doctors who look after adults.

The teaching profession has and will keep having its "generalists" and its "specialists." Most "generalists" will probably be entrusted the education of younger pupils; with time, their role may appear so crucial for the future of humanity and society that they may become the most distinguished members of the profession.

See also: Inservice Teacher Education; Microteaching: Conceptual and Theoretical Bases; Competency-based Teacher Education

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G. De Landsheere

Teacher Expectations and Instruction

"Teacher expectation," "self-fulfilling prophecy," and "teacher faith" are terms associated with the hypothesis that teachers create realities commensurate with their perceptions of students. The corollary is that the learner, in turn, makes his or her other reality—a reality substantially grounded in the reality of the teacher. This describes the mediating mechanisms that potentially bring about these expectancy phenomena. It is suggested that teachers act on their perceptions about individuals so as to provide differential treatment to them, and that such treatment can interact with pupil self-expectations to produce expected outcomes.

A landmark study by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) stimulated both interest and controversy when they announced to the educational world, findings that pupils mirror teachers' expectations in their school performance. The researchers submitted to elementary teachers a list of randomly selected "academic bloomers" who were given an intelligence test, ostensibly to norm the test. According to the researchers, this externally imposed information

induced expectancy turn, were reflected in intellectual gains in "academic bloomers" children.

Publication of this study with immediate effect in the educational community but met with some concerns were raised.

The concept of teacher expectancy has generated volumes of research. Good (1974), Braun (1974), and others have continued the concept, but with controversy. The concept, while of practical implications in classroom dynamics in classroom management.

While investigation has provided considerable evidence concerning the phenomenon in experimental and social interaction, it should bear in mind that some interpretations since the first, whether or not naturally induced motivation. It is reasonable to expect that induced expectancies affect results of some of the results, partly because they have self-generated expectancy performance in relation to the social environment of the intellectual scale, of children.

Perhaps, the most interesting expectancy context should be a social dyad involving two noninteracting conditions. Research suggests a similar effect on children. This which might develop involve: (a) teachers' academic ability; (b) their own abilities; and (c) combined expectations.

The purpose of the study in detail, the processes of classroom interaction. For example, Cooper (1979), Brophy (1980).

1. The General Teaching

The mediating mechanism (teacher's) beliefs and expectations can be realized in different ways, conceptualized as a cyclic sequence.