JISTE

Teacher Education in a New Millennium: Linking Local Action with Global Perspectives

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JISTE is an official, refereed publication of ISTE. The goal of ISTE is to publish six to eight articles in each issue. Using the Seminar theme, articles in the first issue of each volume are based on papers presented at the previous seminar. Articles in the second issue are non-thematic. Points of view and opinions are those of the individual authors and are not necessarily those of ISTE. Published manuscripts are the property of JISTE. Permission to reproduce must be requested from the editor.

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Catherine Sinclair
Helen Woodward
Judy Thistleton-Martin

Book Review

Churukian, G. A. & Lock, C. R. (2000) International Narratives on
Becoming a Teacher Educator: Pathways to a Profession
Lewiston, NY: The Edwin Mellen Press
Reviewed by Warren Halloway

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George A. Churukian & Corey R. Lock

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Secretary General's Message

Guiding and controlling research in schools (or any educational institution) is an important concern for teachers, school principals, educators, and educational authorities. Most members of the teaching profession believe that the quality of our praxis will be improved if informed by research findings. Access to schools and the learning-teaching domain is therefore essential and should not be taken for granted. I believe that appropriate policy to guide and control such access needs to address three questions: what is the nature of the research; what safeguards are in place; and, so what?

The nature of a research proposal should reveal the probity, value, purpose and significance of the research. The proposal should also be placed in the context of the existing state of knowledge in the field. The methodologies to be used should be fully explained and justified in terms of validity and reliability. Proposals should also indicate the scope of the research including the time, effort and expense required. Researchers need to carefully consider the extent of the demands they make on students, teachers and schools.

The safeguards employed should guarantee the welfare of students, teachers and schools, and include assurances of confidentiality and participants' freedom to withdraw at any time. A university which sponsors research needs to develop a code of ethical practice and apply it rigorously to all research projects. Because most educational research deals directly with people, often with children, researchers must always show care and sensitivity of the highest order.

Finally, the credibility of educational research will be tested by the profession and the community by answering the question: so what? Research findings should be made known to practitioners and the concerned community in understandable terms. Careful record keeping and reporting back to participants and concerned authorities is necessary to retain goodwill and future access. Nor

should research undertaken to satisfy a personal, academic goal be seen as an end in itself. Ultimately researchers need to remember that their access to schools is a privilege and a great responsibility.

I believe that ISTE members share these concerns and their reports published in JISTE reflect such ideals. Congratulations to the authors and editorial team for Volume 5 Number 1. It is a pleasure to thank George Churukian for his scholarly and sustained efforts over four years as he steps down as the Foundation Editor of JISTE. On behalf of ISTE I also extend a warm welcome to Corey Lock as our new Editor and assure him of our enthusiastic support. We can do this best by sending Corey our manuscripts and encouraging our ISTE colleagues to do the same.

Warren Halloway

Editor's Message

Finally, this edition made it to press. Putting out a journal is hard work that takes enormous energies and resources. Without George Churukian's continued assistance and support this issue would not exist. Nevertheless it is her and we are very proud of its appearance.

The content of this issue captures some of the most interesting and provocative ideas that were presented at the ISTE annual meeting in Maryland last April. The articles demonstrate the wide range of research and conceptual interests of ISTE members. Ahmad Al-Bustan and George Churukian open the issue with a description of the state teacher education in Kuwait. This piece set the tome for the upcoming meeting in Kuwait City. Rest of the issue presents some of the best papers from the Maryland meeting. Judy Kuechle describes interesting and new ideas about assessment practices. Marta Luz Sesson de Castro provides some insights into the everyday practice of elementary school principals in Brazil. Leke Tambo describes recent changes in teacher education programs in Cameroon. Lotte Rahbek Schou wrestles with important dilemmas regarding democracy and education. Catherine Sinclair and Helen Woodward demonstrate how mentoring can improve teacher practice.

We think there is much here to think about and reflect on as teacher educators.

Corey R. Lock

Education in Kuwait

Ahmed A. Al-Bustan
George A. Churukian

This paper briefly describes the evolution of the Kuwait education system including higher education and teacher education. A portion of the paper is devoted to the effects of the invasion and occupation and how these events have affected the children in Kuwait. The paper will conclude with education in Kuwait, nine years after the end of the war.

Introduction and History

The State of Kuwait contains about 6,900 square miles and is approximately the size of the State of New Jersey. It is situated at the head of the Arabian Gulf. Iraq to the north and west, Saudi Arabia to the south, and the Arabian Gulf on the east mark the boundaries of the country. The landscape is flat desert.

The origin of the State of Kuwait dates to the beginning of the eighteenth century when a number of families of the Anizah tribe migrated to the shores of the Arabian Gulf from the interior of the Arabian Peninsula. In 1756, the settlers appointed a Sheikh from the Al-Sabah family as their ruler.

Kuwait gained independence on June 19, 1961. Prior to independence, the State was a British Protectorate. This can be misleading, for Kuwait has always governed itself. The British provided protection from outside forces.

The government is a constitutional monarchy, ruled by the Al-Sabah Family. The present government consists of fifteen ministers. Legislative power is vested in the National Assembly,

which is comprised of fifty members who are elected for a period of four years.

On August 2, 1990, Saddam Hussein of Iraq launched an invasion of Kuwait. Iraqi soldiers and tanks swept over the border of Kuwait. In a quick bloody battle the State of Kuwait was occupied and fully controlled by the Iraqi government. Seven months later, on February 26, 1991, the allied forces liberated Kuwait and the country became independent again.

The population of Kuwait prior to the invasion was estimated to be 2.1 million. Large minorities of Palestinians, Egyptians, Iraqis, and other Arab nationals together with Iranians, Indians, and Pakistanis made up half of the total population of Kuwait. The current population is nearly 1 million; the majority of Palestinians left the country due to their conduct during the occupation. (Al-Bustan, 1990; Vine and Casey, 1992)

Economic and Physical Conditions Prior to Oil Discovery

The discovery of a vast amount of oil in the early forties brought many changes to Kuwait. Before 1946, Kuwait's resources were barely able to support the population of 100,000. The sale of pearls was the country's only export. The only industry other than fishing was shipbuilding. Those who were not trained in pearl diving or seafaring barely managed to reach subsistence level. The merchants, a powerful group, provided the ruling family with an income derived from the tax on imported goods, and made jobs available for the rest of the community. (Shehab, 1964)

The capital city consisted of a few houses on the edge of the Gulf. The extremely hot climate in the summer with temperatures reaching 130 degrees Fahrenheit made farming impossible. Without water, irrigation was out of the question. Water was transported by boat from neighboring Iraq, since the few brackish wells of Kuwait could not provide enough water for human needs.

Education Prior and After Oil Discovery

Formal education was virtually non-existent prior to oil discovery. Religious schools, whose main concern was to provide instruction in the Koran and other Islamic teachings, also taught such subjects as reading, writing, and arithmetic. The first semi-modern school was opened in 1912 and another was established in 1921. The educational system was not considered to be a formal system until 1936. At this time the state became responsible for the supervision of education, establishing a formal plan and curricula as well as its financing. The first school for girls was established in 1937.

In 1954 experts from UNESCO were invited to reorganize the educational system and to introduce curricula, which was more suited to current needs. (Ministry of Guidance and Information of Kuwait, 1976) To encourage literacy for all Kuwaiti people, the government passed a law guaranteeing free education from kindergarten through the university level with equal opportunities for boys and girls. The government has made attendance compulsory from kindergarten to the middle level of school. (Ministry of Information, 1984)

Prior to the invasion, the Kuwait education system was one of the most modern and most efficient in the Gulf region. Every school had permanent, one to three story, spaciously designed buildings, constructed on a basic standard model, with a walled enclosure. The buildings were generally whitewashed, and kept in excellent condition. All the schools were equipped with modern furniture. The government also supplied audio-visual equipment, office equipment, computers, laboratories, art, music, and home economics facilities, plus any necessary supplies. There were separate schools for boys and girls with the exception of the kindergarten schools. The curriculum, generally well designed, included an emphasis on culture and national identity, science and technology, foreign language, the moral and ethical values of Islam, and the fine arts. The teaching staff was composed of Kuwaitis, Palestinians, Jordanians, Egyptians, Sudanese, Yemenis, Syrians, Iraqis, Lebanese, and a few North Africans. They were

selected according to well-defined criteria and had completed appropriate teacher preparation programs. (Der Thiam, 1991)

School Organization

The structure of the education system in Kuwait is as follows:
- Kindergarten: Two years, children from the age of four
- Elementary: Four years, children from the age of six
- Intermediate: Four years, children from the age of ten
- Secondary: Four years, youth from the age of fourteen

After completion of high school, students may further their education either by attending one of the applied and technical colleges or the University of Kuwait. The Kuwait government also sent its best students abroad with full scholarships.

The applied and technical colleges have a prominent place in higher education, for they provide technicians, middle managers, and professional workers such as teachers, school health nurses, secretaries, and scientists. Currently the applied and technical colleges include teacher training, health, technology, commercial and business, and telecommunication institutes. These institutes became colleges in 1987, and their curricula are four-year programs.

The University of Kuwait was founded in 1966. Prior to this time, promising Kuwaiti students were sent abroad at government expense to secure advanced degrees. The founding of the university reflected a strong awareness that education and research were of utmost importance for the survival and development of its people and for addressing the needs and aspirations of its society.

Kuwait University consists of eleven colleges: College of Arts, College of Science, the Women's College, College of Law, College of Administrative Sciences, College of Social Science, College of Engineering and Petroleum, College of Education, College of Sharia and Islamic Studies, the Health Sciences Center

(Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, and Allied Health) and College of Graduate Studies. In addition, the University has a Language Center, which is responsible for providing English, Arabic, and French as second languages. (Kuwait University, 1999)

The College of Education is organized into the Departments of Curriculum and Instruction, Educational Psychology, Foundations of Education, and Educational Administration and Planning. The Student Teaching Center is responsible for the placement and supervision of student teachers. Students may pursue qualification in kindergarten, elementary, or intermediate and secondary teacher preparation programs. (Kuwait University, 1999)

Aftermath of the invasion and occupation by Iraq

Following the liberation of Kuwait, the infrastructure was in shambles. There was no electricity or water supply in the entire city. Telephone service was haphazard at best. Food was in short supply. There was no garbage and trash collection. The oil wells were burning, polluting the air with dense smoke. By the end the March 1991, one month after the liberation, most of the city had electricity and some areas had a low-pressure water supply. The electricity and water supply were restored, and telephone was in working order. The fires were extinguished by the first part of November and the sky was clear. Trash and garbage collections resumed. (Beynon, 1991; Elfick and Reeves, 1991)

School was not in session when the invasion occurred, thereby inviting the occupation of the majority of the empty building by Iraqi troops. Some schools housed military headquarters and were fortified with blast walls and rooftop defensive positions. Virtually all schools, public and private, were ransacked, with school records being a prime target. The vast destruction and damage affected buildings, furniture, and educational equipment. Political graffiti and slogans were written on all flat surfaces. All symbols of the Kuwaiti cultural and

national identity were destroyed. (Beynon, 1991; Elfick and Reeves, 1991; Der Thiam, 1991)

At Kuwait University every classroom and faculty office had been ransacked. Books, journals, papers, and personal items from offices as well as files and other educational materials were strewn about. Damage to buildings ranged from minor to extensive. In particular, electrical systems, including the wires and fixtures in the walls, had been partly disassembled or completely removed, as were substantial components of the air-conditioning machinery. All furniture and electronic equipment were taken. The libraries were stripped of books, furniture, and carpets. The card catalogues were dumped on the floor. Laboratories were stripped to the paint on the walls. There was very little that was untouched. Everything that occurred seemed to be systematic, for similar stripping and ransacking took place in libraries, museums, public and private offices, business, hospitals, stores and homes. The intent of Saddam Hussein was to destroy the heritage and culture of the Kuwaiti people, as well as their educational and scientific achievements.

After the liberation, the people, with the support of the government, began repairing and replacing what was removed and taken. A year after the liberation the infrastructure of the country was nearly back to pre-invasion standards. The buildings were repaired and painted. Classroom and office furniture was replaced and office machines, computers, audio-visual equipment, and the telephone system were operational. Library materials were replaced and general supplies were once again available.

Formal kindergarten, elementary, intermediate, and secondary programs in the public and private schools were suspended during the 1990-91 school year. These schools reopened in September 1991, suspending certain activities, at all levels, such as art and music, to allow the combining of two years of schooling into a one-year program.

All programs at the university and technical schools were also suspended. The undergraduate programs at the university and technical schools resumed in September 1991, but most graduate programs were re-established. The government, however, will provide a scholarship for study abroad to any qualified student who desires to pursue an advanced degree. At present, the College of Education offers a Masters of Education (M.Ed.) in the areas of Curriculum and Instruction and in Foundation of Education. Because of the continuous and rapid advancement of all fields of education, the College of Education is planning to offer a M.Ed. in Education Administration in the academic year 2001-2002 (Kuwait University, 1997).

The trauma which occurred to both children and adults during the invasion and occupation, such as rape, stress from abrupt and frightening changes, anxiety of separation, uncertainties of the occupation, and memories of escaping in risky circumstances (The Kuwaiti Association to Defend War Victims, 1991)needed attention.

To cope with these problems, on the 21st of April, 1992, an Amiri Decree was issued (Decree 92/63) to establish the Social Development Office (SDO). The objectives set for this office included establishing collaboration with all existing institutions dealing with social development, social relations, guidance and counseling as well as the personal services that are required. The SDO is currently involved in collaborative work and research, one the priorities of the Office's working agenda, both locally and internationally (Dewan Al-Amiri Institute, 1998).

Today, a key problem facing the country is supplying personnel for the education system. More Kuwaitis are entering teaching to replace the non-Kuwaiti teachers who no longer are in Kuwait. This is also true at the university level. For example: prior to the invasion the College of Education's faculty had 44 Kuwaiti and 26 non-Kuwaiti faculty members. After the liberation of Kuwait, there were 54 Kuwaiti and 8 non-Kuwaiti faculty members. This has increased to 62 Kuwaiti and 20 non-Kuwaiti

faculty members in the 1998-1999 academic year (Ministry of Planning, 1999).

Student enrolments reflect the advancement of public education and higher education. Student population has increased from 182,778 as reported in the academic year 1974-75 to 303,596 in the academic year 1998-99. The number of teachers has doubled from 14,213 to 28,529 for that same period. At the University level, student enrollment has also increased from 418 as reported in the academic year 1966-67 to 16,568 in the academic year 1998-99 and number of staff has increased from 85 to 942. (Ministry of Planning, 1999)

At present, a 25-year education strategy (2000-2025) has been planned and completed. It is ready to be evaluated in a series of discussions as part of the agenda for the National Conference on "Education in Kuwait in the New Millennium." Moreover, many studies on education strategies have also been completed and ready for immediate implementation. These include the unification of education system at the High School Level (secondary schools), the initiation of a regional center for the development of education programs, and initiate a center for teacher's development, and a project for the evaluation and development of schools textbooks. Furthermore, an executive policy has been passed regarding the establishing of a private university, which will now allow the review of application for establishing private universities and institutions of higher education. The success of this will no doubt contribute to the development of public and higher education. (Alqabes, 2000)

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Preparing Teachers to Use Alternate Assessments

Judy Kuechle

Abstract

In recent years there has been a curriculum and teaching methodology shift from a teacher-centered to student-centered model. This shift is in response to the standards based movement that requires students to demonstrate what they really know and can do. Paper-pencil tests are a useful form of assessment when evaluating student knowledge and comprehension, however this form of assessment does not as easily or accurately measure higher-level thinking. Since instruction has become more student-centered and higher-level thinking is a requirement of meeting standards, alternate assessments are necessary. Pre-service teachers enter education programs with little background in alternate assessments since they did not experience this method in their k-12 education program. Effective teachers must develop skills in writing and implementing alternate assessments. Pre-service teachers can learn this skill through the design of an assessment rubric utilized by reviewers during peer-teaching.

Introduction

School reform movements of the 1980's brought about changes in the way teachers and students approached learning. Prior to the reform movement teachers were considered the dispensers of knowledge and students were the passive receivers. Classrooms were teacher-centered with content selection, delivery methods, and assessments all being controlled by the teacher

(Maduas & O'Dwyer, 1999). Students demonstrated learning through rote memorization and achievement on standardized tests.

By the mid-1980's cognitive theories of learning and a constructivist approach to understanding were widely accepted (Eisner, 1999, Maduas & O'Dwyer, 1999, Tombari & Borich, 1999). With classrooms becoming more student-centered the teacher role changed to one of assisting students to become responsible for their own learning (Hart, 1994). Teachers encouraged students to self-evaluate their work and determine what changes in learning were needed. Teaching methods become less lecture based and more interactive. Cooperative learning groups, projects, and reports were more commonly integrated into the curriculum.

This shift in teaching and learning brought about further scrutiny of assessment methods.   Dissatisfaction with standardized tests, often under criticism as a poor measure of student achievement, led educators on a search for other assessment measures.   The education reform movement called for more accountability in programs and as a result the role of assessment has taken on ever increasing importance in our education system (Stake, 1999, Terwilliger, 1997). In the past two decades there has been a perception that education is ineffective in our public schools and the best means to improve the schools is through the identification of high standards and an assessment of the degree to which the standards are being met (Haertel, 1999).

Alternate Assessments

As the use of traditional, standardized measurements lost favor among educators, alternate assessment measures were introduced. Alternate assessments, often referred to as authentic or performance assessments, require a student to demonstrate through action what has been learned (Campbell, 2000, Hart, 1994). Eisner (1999) states that "performance assessment is the most important development in evaluation since the invention of the short-answer test and its extensive use during World War I." Alternate

assessments accept the premise that a strong knowledge base is required before a student can successfully demonstrate an understanding at higher levels. Authentic performance assessments "should include tasks that are contextualized and complex, involve a student's own research, emphasize depth more than breadth, and involve somewhat ill-structured problems" (Terwilliger, 1997). Alternate assessments often require students to work as a team to solve problems with no one right answer being readily evident (Campbell, 2000).

Unlike standard objective assessments, alternate assessments are not just measures to evaluate a final level of achievement. Instead, alternate assessments are often used by classroom teachers as an educational medium or teaching tool (Eisner, 1999). The assessments are utilized as a formative evaluation to measure student progress toward a goal. In many classrooms tasks are assessed at steps to ensure that a final product is of high quality. For example, students preparing a group report might first be assessed on research methods, then organization of the report, and finally on the actual oral presentation. There is a wide range of alternate assessments used in the classroom. Commonly used assessments include: reports, portfolios, posters, bulletin boards, speeches, interviews, illustrations, experiments, journals, pamphlets, reviews, and scrapbooks.

Designing and Utilizing Rubrics

Objective-type tests that rely on multiple-choice and other short answer questions have a high scoring reliability due to the limited range of acceptable answers. Alternate assessments are not as easily scored since there are no simple right or wrong answers. This new form of assessment requires a new form of scoring. Teachers need to learn to design and use scoring rubrics that provide a high degree of reliability. Rubrics are scoring guides that can determine the quality of answers and inform both the teacher and students as to the desired performance in completing tasks. Mabry (1999) states " a rubric is a description of student

performance that clearly articulates the requirements for each of the score points."

When designing a scoring rubric teachers should consider what aspects of learner performance are the most important. The rubric must examine the products and processes that best describe what the learner knows and can do. Designing scoring rubrics is not an easy task and first attempts by teachers often fail (Tombari & Borich, 1999). Teachers are so accustomed to the use of objective scoring methods in traditional assessments that there is a tendency to score for the easiest criteria in a performance (e.g., Did the learner list the author's name in the book review?). Teachers want to be careful to minimize scoring subjectivity and bias, but if only superficial aspects of the performance are measured, little assessment of higher learning is provided.

An Institution Model

The reform movement of assessing learner performance is still new to most teachers, and students entering the teaching profession have limited past experience with scoring rubrics. Preservice teachers need to learn how to design and use scoring rubrics. This process seemed straight forward to the education faculty at our institution. When the education reform movement provided evidence that alternate assessments should be utilized in our schools our faculty included information about this form of assessment and scoring rubrics in the teacher preparation program. Our faculty explained the elements of a rubric and how to design an effective one for use with k-12 students. The preservice teachers took to the task with enthusiasm and designed rubrics that they felt confident would be useful in assessing student learning. The preservice teachers went into the schools to teach their units, using the scoring rubrics to assess learning. What the preservice teachers found out was that often the rubrics did not work the way they had planned for them to work. The preservice teachers reported that important aspects of an assessment were sometimes overlooked in the rubric design. Others found inconsistencies in the scoring rubric that led to confusion and uncertainty. A number

of preservice teachers found that they had to abandon the scoring rubric altogether, as it was not assessing what was intended.

From these early experiences it was evident that our teacher preparation program needed to find a better way to assist our preservice teachers in learning about, designing, and using scoring rubrics. It was determined that experiencing a rubric as a student, before creating and utilizing one as a teacher, was a missing step. Our students needed to see a rubric in action, and get the feel for how it functioned, before they attempted to design or use one with their own students.

For the past few years we have used a group process to design a scoring rubric that is used by peers and faculty to assess a peer-teaching performance. The faculty explain aspects of scoring rubrics and inform students that they will be peer-teaching a lesson that will be assessed by peers and a teacher. Students then work in small groups through a step-wise process to develop the scoring rubric. The first step is to determine what categories will be assessed in the teaching. Students discuss the elements that make up an effective peer-teaching experience to determine categories. Categories such as organization, content knowledge, and delivery are commonly included.

In step two students decide on the descriptive wording for levels of performance attainment. To keep the rubric from getting too unwieldy the faculty limit the students to three gradations of demonstrated ability. The highest ranking level describes the most desired skill attainment. The middle level is intermediate in skill attainment and the lowest category demonstrates barely acceptable or unacceptable skill attainment. The students are instructed to use descriptive wording to make the levels as clear as possible, without being too limiting in the behavior.

Finally students determine what weight they wish to assign to each category and how a score will translate into a grade for the peer-teaching performance. The Peer-Teaching Feedback form on the following page is an example of a student-generated rubric.

Our preservice teachers demonstrated that learning about scoring rubrics and gaining experience in the design and application of the rubric is important in the learning process. Our preservice teachers were more concerned about the wording, structure, expectations, and scoring

when they realized their teaching would be assessed with the rubric they helped design. This experience helps preservice teachers to understand the importance of preparing rubrics that work effectively. They are better prepared to design and implement alternate assessments in the curriculum units they prepare in their teaching.

Conclusion

Alternate assessments are a new way to measure student achievement based on a student-centered, interactive teaching model. Designing rubrics that are effective scoring tools are necessary to ensure that measurements are reliable. In our teacher preparation program preservice teachers design scoring rubrics that are used to assess their ability to peer-teach a class. The experience of designing a rubric that is used to assess their own abilities has proven to be a very worthwhile process. Preservice teachers are then better prepared to design scoring rubrics in a curriculum unit and they are better prepared to put the rubric into efficient and effective use in their k-12 teaching.

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Knowing and Reflecting About the Everyday Practice of Municipal School Principals

Marta Luz Sisson de Castro

This paper is based on a research conducted with school principals of municipal schools in the State of Rio Grande do Sul. The main objective of the investigation was to build a profile of Elementary school principals and to understand the implications of being a principal. In the first phase of the study a questionnaire was applied to the school principals. Its purpose was to inquire about the implications of being a school principal and the socio educational characteristics of acting school principals.. The data provided information about the principals' opinion regarding what ought to be emphasized in their educational *formation*[1] and which were their needs for professional development. On the basis of the analysis of the data, it was possible to construct the socio-educational profile of the principals and to identify the criteria for job selection. In addition, this survey provided evidence about the lack of clarity among the respondents regarding the dimensions of the principal's role. This leads us to the second purpose of the investigation which was to explore the challenges faced by elementary schools principals.

The profile that was built in the first phase of the study (Castro et. al., 1997) indicates that the school principal of municipal schools in the State of Rio Grande do Sul "is most often a woman, married, with two children and has an average age of thirty five years (Castro et. al., 1997 p. 121). The majority has been selected for the position through an election among peers (49.3%), but there is still a significant number politically appointed (40%) (Castro et. al, 1997, p. 107). The great majority of the respondents (60%) did not have a degree in higher education (Castro et. al.,

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[1] *Formation* in this text means the preparation of school principals and encompasses the concepts of education and training.

1997, p.103), but they 6 to 10 years of work experience within education. In general, the principals have been residents for a long time in their municipalities and exercise local leadership. In Brazil, and specially in the state of Rio Grande do Sul, the principals used to be politically appointed by the School Superintendents in the municipal system. However, in 1985 when the process of democratization started in the whole country, the teachers re-conquered the right to select their own leaders through elections. Nowadays, as the data shows in the study, the appointment of school principals can happen either through a democratic selection by means of elections or through political appointments.

> The interviews allowed the identification of the factors and conditions that give shape to the action and practice of principals of municipal schools. Recent studies of the Brazilian educational reality, like the "SAEB" (System of Evaluation of Basic Education) and the study financed by the National Confederation of Workers in Education (CNTE Confederação Nacional dos Trabalhadores em Educação), have indicated the importance of management and of the role of the school principal. Batista and Codo (1999) discuss the need for participation and the construction of a form of participatory management. They state that:

> Common objectives, between workers (all of them) and teachers, as well as between students and the teachers and school workers is a necessary construction in some ways as a "community of destiny" or at least a community involved directly and indirectly. (Batista e Codo 1999, p.189)

> The school principal's management, working alone or as part of a team, can mediate and facilitate the process of participation. The principal's repertory and knowledge is essential for clarifying the objectives and roles within the school. Several studies, especially those with a focus on school effectiveness, have emphasized the importance of

school management in the attainment of educational results (Rutter, 1983, Edmonds, 1979, McCarthy,1980)**.**

The comprehension of the principals' daily practice should contribute to the debate about their *formation* and professionalization, as well as to the clarification of the challenges they face today. What kinds of knowledge and abilities are needed? What are the implications of the diverse forms of the principal's selection? This reality is very complex because it unfolds itself in the dimension of the individual action of the principal working inside the collective of the school, which is inserted in and has connections with a broader social context. These diverse dimensions emerged in the data collected and, by means of the analyses, were integrated in new perspectives and levels.

In the reading of the interviews, we attempted to detect the emergent themes. We were able to identify seventy one themes that can be grouped in a small number of categories. From these emergent themes we identified the most common ones in a large number of schools. This was a macro analysis, which we called horizontal. In this analysis, it was possible to identify the themes that occurred with greater frequency in the interviews. The second way of examining the data was called vertical, or micro analysis. In this analysis, we identified the themes that were most important and developed in the real context of a school .

A third way of looking into the data was called *preparation for theorization*, in which we followed propositions made by Yin (1989) and carried out the mapping of different forms of expression and variation of the phenomenon in reality. This author, in his discussion of case studies, proposes an analytic generalization in opposition to a statistical generalization, where the researcher should use the analytic generalization for theoretical purposes. The data collected should present the natural variation of the phenomenon studied with serious theoretical and analytical implications.

This proposition is similar to ideas presented by Guba (1988), when he discusses the hermeneutic dialectic circle in the data collection process from which the researchers draw their inferences and build their interpretations about reality. Guba believes that the basic variation of the phenomenon under study is identified when we start to have redundancies.

Considering the three different ways of looking into everyday practice of school principals, this paper is structured in the following way. First, we present the organization of emergent themes in four figures, presenting the first analytical and theoretical regard about the data trying to identify what is necessary to know in order to understand the principal's practice, coming from their own statements from the interviews. One figure will look directly into the action of the principal and the factors affecting it, the other one will look at the institutional dimension of the school. A third figure will try to establish or map the inter-institutional relations of the school in their social context, the conditions that shape and define action. The last figure traces large questions involving the social, historical and cultural processes that affect and give shape to the school life.

The data collected points toward various complex factors that interact and intervene in the school reality, and affect the dynamics of transformation.

Information about the role of the principal of a municipal school was collected in twenty six interviews. The analyses of interviews indicate that such role was marked by the leadership dimension, passing by the question of how she[2] was selected for the job and of her professionalization, the basis of knowledge for the administrative practice (which was inferred from answers given to the question about how she was selected for the job and about her professional status, i.e. the knowledge basis for her administrative practice). Figure 1 shows that the principal is perceived as having the role of an educator as well as a community

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[2] As all the elementary schools studied are women, we opt to refer to the principal as "She"

leader. The several specific actions of the principal in his/her action plan, the division of tasks and her workload makes her role similar to what we opt to call "the role of a housewife", which means here the role linked to a kind of work that has low value, and one which appears only when it is not done. This conclusion confirms the findings of Vargas (1993).
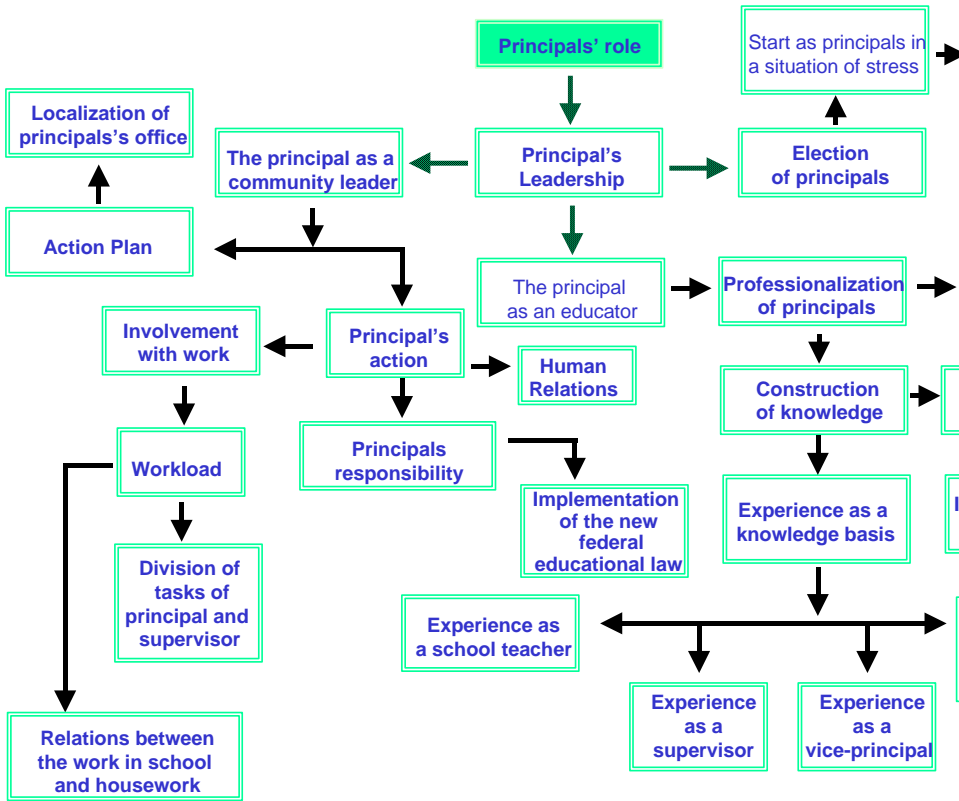

Figure 1

The selection of principals through election has an innovative and transforming effect, promoting changes in the practices and reality of some of the schools studied. However, when somebody accepts the position of school principal in the context that we studied, the person takes on a job perceived as a

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very heavy load with a lot of responsibility. Several of the principals stated that they accepted the position in a situation of pressure. It appears that very few educators want to become principals because this function demands great responsibility, has a heavy workload, and offers no clear professional and monetary rewards.

In small communities, it was observed that the principal has an important role as a community leader, and this role increases in relevance depending on the poverty level of the population. In the data collection process it was observed that the principals were aware of the social value and importance of their function, but this perception does not occur in the same dimension in a social level. The principal knew that she touched the life of students in a significant way, because now he/she is working, he/she graduated, and so on. Another principal of a rural school evidenced awareness of the importance of her job. She takes care of twenty one students from different grades, prepares their meals, and does the cleaning and maintenance of the small building. She told the interviewers that the economic need is not the main motivation for her work. She could otherwise have stayed home living the comfortable life of a middle-class housewife. But she knew how important her job was and she liked what she was doing. In the day we visited the schools and did the interviews, there was a group of students visiting the her. They had moved to other schools because of grade level availability, but they loved their previous school and their teacher, and missed them a lot.

The form of selection for the job of a principal through election and the lack of pre-requirements for the exercise of the function create a series of tensions in relation to the knowledge necessary to perform the function in an adequate way. It was observed that the principals studied built the knowledge required for the practice in their accumulated experience as teachers, as supervisors, and as vice-principals, while working in different types of schools as, for example, schools located in the outskirts of the cities and attended by the very poor segments of the population These experiences allowed an effective action of the principal in a

passive and non-participant community. But these experiences are not reflected in a systematic way in the sense proposed by Schön (1983), since this situation provokes a devaluation of the knowledge, insecurity and a low professionalism of the principals studied. An important question here is how to solve the question of *formation* and preparation for the job in an adequate way in a situation that the democratic forms of selection for the job, such as the election, ought to be preserved? In several schools, the construction of the team work in a collective form through the political and pedagogical project of the school, can be an important factor when defining the management and direction for the school. However, it can also cause the dilution of the principal's role and its professional character.

In situations that school management is built around a collaborative action between the principal and the group of teachers, the principal's role might become unclear. Tensions might arise between the principal and the executive team due to a role ambiguity caused by the poor definition of tasks and responsibilities. Such tensions are part of the reality and administration of the schools studied. A lack of definition of the tasks to be performed and actions to be taken by the principal has been identified in the first phase of this research (Castro et al. 1997) when we found a low level of professionalism among the principals studied. Such lack has been also identified and referred to in previous studies (Castro, 1995).

If the administration in terms of guidelines and directions is built together with the group of teachers as a team, the role of the principal, her responsibilities and actions are less clearly defined. This tension between the principal and the executive team, election/selection based in knowledge and preparation is the reality of the everyday life of the administration of the schools studied. This lack of definition of the function in terms of action and specific activities of the principal, was identified in the first phase of this research (Castro et al. 1997) and in previous studies, such as Castro (1995), when we found a low level of professionalism among the principals studied. This situation creates difficulties for

the valorization and evaluation of the principal's work and role. The principals' needs in terms of professional preparation and their professional development depend on all these factors and processes and on the social validation of the educational process. The work of teachers and educators does not receive the traditional rewards of a professional practice, such as financial benefits and social prestige. Likewise, the work of the elementary school principal tends to be poorly valued and does not offer such benefits. Nevertheless, it was observed that in the work of the principals studied there was a very rich, human and affective dimension, making it a challenge for the everyday life of the principals and giving the perspectives of hope and persistence in the actions.

Figure 2 presents the vision of the school as an institution that is to be administered by the principal. Which are the main dimensions of this institution? The first category that emerged in the analysis was school identity and how it is articulated with the pedagogical work. The identity can be built on historical roots. The history of one of the schools studied dates from the XIX century, at the time of German colonization. It is clear that the school identity will depend on several factors, such as the social context of the area where it is located, the kind of students enrolled and the resources available. We wish here to emphasize the importance of considering factors such as institutional identity and development in the administration of schools. Which expectations have been built socially and historically? How does the school perceive its role and how is it socially perceived?

The question of identity is seen as directly linked to the pedagogical processes and projects of the school. For example, if the school attempts to meet the needs of the students, and if it is located in a poor suburban[3] area, it is likely to offer different kinds of social services to its students.

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[3] In Brazil, suburbs are usually poorer than the urban areas, just the opposite of the American reality.

Several factors were identified as linked to the school as an institution. Among the factors that shape and help to understand what happens at the administrative level, one ought to mention: school size, how the political decentralization policies were applied in the locality, how the principal was selected, how the team work has been created and developed, the pedagogical questions raised, the grade level offered by the school, and how quality of education is defined in this municipality. All these specific factors of the school as an institution give form to the administration and help to understand what happens at the administrative level.

Figure 2

Another important question investigated in this study referred to the relations between the public schools funded by the municipality and those funded by the state public schools, and, also, their relations with private schools. A feeling of superiority towards the public state schools was found among public schools funded by the municipality. These schools seemed to enjoy a better situation in regard to salaries and have better possibilities for future development and career opportunities.

The relationship with private schools depends on the characteristics of students of the municipal schools, if the students are from low socio economic level there is strong opposition and differentiation. When the students of the municipal school are from middle class urban families the relationship is marked by similarity.

The physical conditions of the building determine how much time the principal need to spend in regard to building maintenance and providing an adequate environment to her students. In a general way, we can say that the schools with better physical conditions liberate the principal and give her more time to concentrate her on educational issues.

In a very poor community, the school acts as an institution that makes the mediation with other social institutions and services for the students. The character of social work taken on by the school becomes very clear and involves different activities. Some of the activities might have to do with the simple preparation of meals, such as breakfast and lunch, while others might be more complex and linked to overall well-being of the student (Codo, 1999). The problem of "teacher burnout" and how well prepared they are to deal with the social question is expressed inside the school. These are central questions for the administration to discuss when dealing with the diversity and needs of the clientele. The social assistance practices found in the schools that keep the student in an environment of care, meeting their needs for shelter, nutrition and attention are questioned. What should be the role of the school for the very poor population ? We have to agree with Dr. José Camilo dos Santos Filho,[4] when he says that, if the meals and services offered by the school attract students, we have to offer as much as possible of this help of social character in order to attract students and warrant access and permanence of the students in the schools. Thus, instead of criticizing the social work character of the schools as overlapping with their educational character, we should view it as a question that precedes the educational character of the school.

The question of financial resources is fundamental for the school that offers the necessary social work services. Low salaries, bad working conditions are a crucial administrative problem. How to compensate the creative work and social commitment of some professionals? The unequal income distribution of the Brazilian society exacerbates social contrasts. Social questions are dealt with superficially and no strong commitment. Such situation is considered as a serious problem by everybody, but at the same time it is nobody's problem. For the teachers it is very hard to work with social problems of this magnitude, which involve nutritional, affective, cognitive and social needs. The difficulties are so large

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[4] Commentaries made at a conference during the III Regional Seminar Administration of Basic Schools (III Seminário Regional Gestão da Escola Básica) PUCRS, Porto Alegre, RS Brazil, May of 1999.

that they seemed to be insuperable and very difficult to face. Thus, the teacher does not feel responsible for the students' learning. As stated by one of the principal interviewed "the student does not learn because he/she is hungry, ill or has unmet emotional needs". As the teacher cannot solve the social problem, she cannot be held accountable when the student does not learn.

The great challenge of Brazilian education is to deal with the complexity and involvement that education requires. The teacher that is engaged and feels responsible is the one that makes a difference in the life of the students. The great challenge for the principals is to involve the teachers and motivate them to work with hope. According to a principal "...teachers must believe that small changes might have significant effects, even though they sometimes might be the result of individual actions and not be perceptible as a result of the teachers' work".

From an international perspective, and considering the American experience, the school seems to be a place of pleasure in an universe of unstructured families, social needs, drugs, urban violence. Considering this social context, society is trying to build the school as a "safe heaven".(Crouch and Williams, 1995)

The school as an institution, relates to other social institutions in terms of hierarchies of power and in social and inter-institutional relations that give shape and form to its action and administration.

Figure 3 presents the inter-institutional relations that situate the school vis-a-vis the local school authority (Secretaria Municipal de Educação - SMED) and the political parties. The relations with the local school authority marked very strongly way all actions taken by the school unit. Policies are usually defined on a system wide basis. Therefore, they affect the practice of teachers and educators at the schools.

Relations inter-institutional

Rel... wit... admi... sy...

Parental relations with the school

Relation with the Educational Municipal Council

Relations with the political parties

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Law project for principal´s election

Relations with the community

Relations with the School Council

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Health programs

Partnership with business

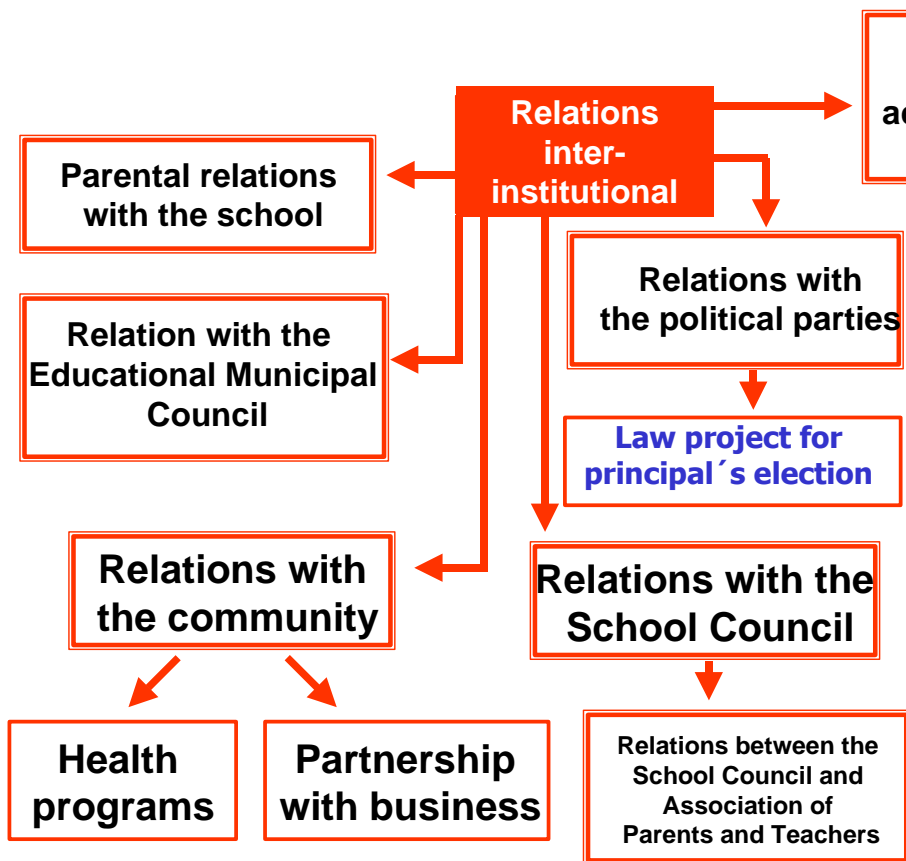**Relations between the School Council and Association of Parents and Teachers**

Figure 3

In some of the localities, the relations between the school and SMED were characterized by a close proximity. In general, the programs, policies and projects presented by the superintendent of schools were mentioned by the principals interviewed, and we found a good level of coherence between the discourse and the practice of the principals.

The programs for professional development are in general promoted by the SMED, and the programs that promote professional qualification are offered by the local universities. Partnerships between the university and the local school authority

have created conditions for the preparation of the great majority of teachers. The data collected indicated that the *formation* of elementary school teachers takes place in special educational programs leading to a degree and are especially developed to meet their needs. In some municipalities the teachers might attend a weekend program offered by a local university in order to work toward a degree in higher education. Sometimes they receive help from the municipality in terms of free transportation to attend a regional university. There are also partnerships between the schools, SMED and local universities that sponsor programs for the school teachers.

The inter-institutional relations can include political parties. For example, the appointment to the position of School Superintendent (Secretary of Education) is a political decision, therefore the elected mayor selects the person that will occupy an executive position in education. This relationship can be associated with the debate about the election of principals, and a law project is being presently discussed in several municipalities. The aim of this project is to regulate the process of election.

The relations between the school and the School Council (when such Council is established) are new and in a process of definition. The majority of the municipal schools studied had not yet established the school council. As indicated by Werle (1997) in a study about School Councils in public schools financed by the state government of the State of Rio Grande do Sul, the schools are constructing a participatory space, which, however, is not always used. The relations between the schools and the Parents and Teacher Associations and the new proposal for School Councils are the source of preoccupation and deep concern for the principals interviewed. An important question is how to activate the Teachers Parents Association to become an autonomous and creative association capable of contributing to school life.

The relations with the local community is an important factor affecting the administration of the schools. In some schools unique partnerships were found between the schools and local

business. In one school, a small contribution from the local business had a strong effect by increasing the resources available at the school and making it as well equipped as another school located in a middle-class area where parents were active participants. At this school, the principal received funds from local business to run the school. It was observed that this school had an auditorium, curtains on the windows, a small sound set to be used during parties and graduation, and also adequate facilities.

Partnership in health programs especially regarding prevention of Aids and sexual education were found in several schools. In small communities it was expected to find less problems, such as adolescent pregnancy. However, the reality seemed to be very similar to what happens in larger cities.

The relations with parents seemed to be one of the most important questions, because this category appeared in the micro and in the macro analysis, indicating that the participation of parents is essential for the completion of the educational process. We could still comment on the relations between the school and the Municipal Council of Education, which is in charge of the legislation and formulation of educational policies. This relation is still being built, because several municipalities have not yet implemented the whole legislation. With the new Brazilian educational law dated of 1996, new bodies have to be developed at the municipal level, such as Municipal Councils of Education, and at the school level the "school council" is a new body that have to be implemented. However, those places where the Municipal Council of Education is already established, local leaders seem to be often indicated or appointed for more than one position and, sometimes, might function both as principals as well as members of school councils.

The inter-institutional relations are more explicit in the larger social context, and some tendencies shape and provide directions to the pedagogical action of the school in the national context. Figure 4 presents themes that are relevant for the schools studied and are, at the same time, related to the larger social context.

The data analyzed permitted the identification of five dimensions that shape to what happens at the school level. We called these five dimensions the "question of poverty", "the crisis of values", "financial resources", "legislation" and "technology". The relations with the larger system are very clear, and the poverty question is related to the social work characteristic of the school setting. The difficulties of the students appeared in relation to the larger social context. In a previous study we pointed out this situation as being a sign of the explosion of social problems inside the school (Sisson de Castro, 1995) and claimed that undernourishment, lack affection, and low cognitive development affects the everyday life of the school. The teachers, and sometimes the principals, do not see as their task to deal with children that have these problems and needs, and, often, they do not even try. If the student is hungry and comes from a unstructured family, he/she might not be able to learn because of his/her social conditions. This fact creates difficulties and the work of the teacher becomes very difficult and hard. "Burnout" is the word that best describes the syndrome of the educators that give up. In an international perspective (Hargreaves, 1997, 1998, Fullan, 1997), the problem of teacher burnout is identified as a need that demands working with the affective side and with hope.
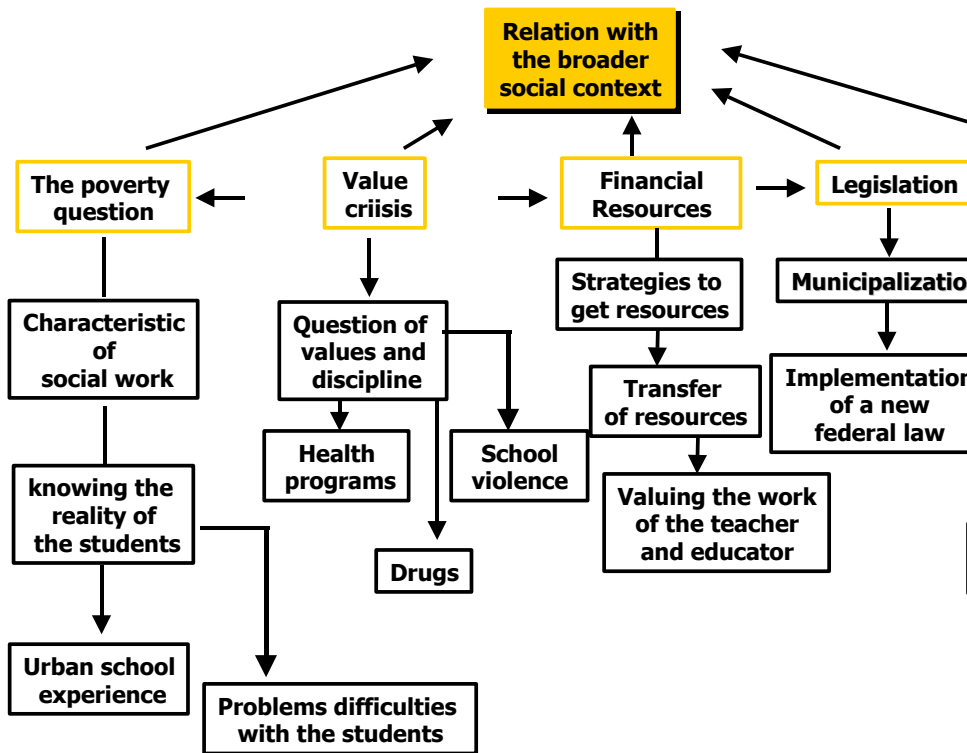
The value crisis and the lack of clarity about what should be the social and educational priorities is a dimension that affects the school and its administration everyday. Violence, disciplinary problems and drugs appear to be permanent problems faced in the school context. In a previous study with principals of suburban schools in Porto Alegre, Castro (1998) shifted the purpose of a study about school administration to a study about violence because this was the main category that emerged from the reality of the principals that participated in the study. Assault and theft of school resources, such as video and television sets were found in several schools. In one of the schools, a television set was protected by iron bars.

In a broader vision, the crisis of values is related with the social devaluation of education. This is a society that values appearance and money, and is less concerned with human values,

with essential values. This value crisis gives no direction to action and provides no foundation for andswering the questions: Why we are we educating? Which are our objectives? A more precise definition and clarity about our objectives is essential a guideline for the administration.

Regarding financial resources we looked at all the questions related to material resources and sources of funds for education. This question seemed to be related to the crisis of value and devaluation of education, and the distribution of resources reflects this tendency. A high lack of material conditions and the bad physical conditions of the school building make the administrative job very hard. The principal spends her time trying to obtain the necessary resources and is occupied with building maintenance in order guarantee school safety, order and cleaning. So the pedagogical and educative questions become secondary problems. When the financial resources are available, and the building has good minimal conditions, we observed that the principals had more time to spend with educational and pedagogical issues, and could, therefore, perform the role of an instructional leader.

In the national context, the new Brazilian educational law, LDB, is causing a great concern among the principals. They have to adapt themselves and their school practice to the new legal demands and educational requirements. They try to get a better understanding of the legislation and how to implement it. In the new context, the question of evaluation is affecting directly the practice of all schools in the country. One can state that the municipalization of education and the forms implemented at the state level are a result of the Brazilian constitution of 1988 and are deeply affecting the everyday administration of elementary schools.

Technology, especially the increasing use of computers in society, has created new needs for school modernization. Such changes are shaping to the daily school administration. The use of computers in schools is affecting the administrative processes, which require the use of computers registering students and

keeping their records and grades. Computers are also being used in teaching and learning processes. One of the principals interviewed commented that the students seemed not to be learning much, in school today and that something was missing. This principal works in an elementary school located in an urban area and the students are mostly from middle-class and in general they have a computer at home, and also cable TV. The distance between what is learned in school and what they learn through technology creates new challenges to the school administration.

Another dimension of technology in this study was the inclusion of some schools in a Federal program providing computers and technological conditions for some schools. This was a new attraction and a large number of students was trying to enroll in these schools because they were offering the possibility to use computers and modern technological resources. So, technology was an attraction even before its implementation.

This view of school administration as a dynamic interplay at different levels is a tentative way of acknowledging the complexity of the administrative process, because there is an interaction between the personal characteristics of the principal and the context of the school as an institution. There is also an interplay with other institutions and with the larger social context. The categories grouped in the study are an indication of what is happening in reality. The dynamic, multi-causal process and factors interacting with different factors and dimensions point out toward a process that is complex and in movement.

This paper analyzed the preliminary results of a study conducted with elementary municipal school principals in the state of Rio Grande do Sul. Its main objective was to identify the challenges of the elementary school principals. The study has shown that four dimensions shape the practice of school administrators in the schools studied. The dimension "role of the principal", which is associated with the dimension "school as an institution", in addition to the dimensions defined as "inter-

institutional relations" and "relations with the larger school context", are all interacting in a dynamic and complex process.

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Prospects and Constraints in Liberalizing Teacher Education in Cameroon

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Although considerable resources have been committed to the development of teacher education in Cameroon since independence in 1960/61, the teacher education system is still functioning below expectations. At a national forum, held in 1995 to discuss the reform of primary and secondary education in the country, delegates made a number of recommendations to give new direction to the teacher education effort. One of these recommendations was that teacher education be "liberalized in order o supply a large pool of qualified teachers for both government and private institutions".

However, the meaning of liberalization in this policy statement was not clarified. This lack of clarity could explain why no action has been taken to develop liberalization strategies. This study defines liberalization within the context of the above-mentioned recommendation and identifies the constraints and prospects associated with its implementation in the teacher education process in Cameroon.

The constraints or hindering factors include: (1) lack of resources for training a large pool of teachers, (2) how to ensure quality control and the maintenance of standards in training institutions, (3) possible increase in unemployment among graduates resulting from availability of too many qualified teachers and, (4) the reluctance of church

education authorities to employ teachers trained by public training institutions. The facilitating factors include: (1) increasing awareness among Cameroonian youth that the State is not the sole employer of teachers, (2) national education policy supports the opening of schools by private individuals and organizations, (3) a high demand exists, especially in the rural areas, for trained teachers in both the primary and secondary sectors and, (4) liberalization would encourage the State The hindering factors include: (1) lack of resources for training a large pool of teachers, (2) how to ensure quality control and the maintenance of standards in training institutions, (3) possible increase in unemployment among graduates resulting from availability of too many qualified teachers and, (4) the reluctance of church education authorities to employ teachers trained by public training institutions. The facilitating factors include: (1) increasing awareness among Cameroonian youth that the State is not the sole employer of teachers, (2) national education policy supports the opening of schools by private individuals and organizations, (3) a high demand exists, especially in the rural areas, for trained teachers in both the primary and secondary sectors and, (4) liberalization would enable the State concentrate on policy and evaluation concerns in teacher education.

Background

In the last four decades, Cameroon made some concerted effort, in collaboration with international partners, to expand its teacher education at the primary and secondary levels.

At the primary level, more primary teacher training institutions were set up, more teachers were trained and teacher

educators received scholarships for advanced training abroad. By the beginning of the 1970's, however, it began to be noticed that emphasis on quantitative expansion was undermining qualitative considerations. For this reason the Government began to plan for reforms in primary education with implications for teacher training.

The result of this commitment to reform was the launching of the Institute of Rurally Applied Pedagogy (IPAR) whose program involved the education of a new kind of teacher: A teacher trained in pedagogy as well as in community development skills. The IPAR Project was never really implemented in any significant way, owing to poor planning and conceptualization, politics, conflicts among the managers, loss of enthusiasm by government and other factors (Akoulouze, 1984).

In the second half of the 1980s a project for improving primary initial and in-service teacher education in selected provinces of the country was launched as a collaborative venture between the Cameroon Ministry of National Education (MINEDUC), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the University of Southern California (USC).

The objectives of the MINEDUC-USAID-USC Project, as reported by Kirna (1997), were to:

1. Expand and equip five teacher training institutions at Bamenda, Maroua, Garoua, Pitoa and Ngoundere, respectively.

2. Establish library facilities under central management at each teacher training institution.

3. Institute in-service training programs for divisional inspectors, teacher education administrators and primary school head teachers.

4. Revise pre-service training programs for teacher training institutions.

5. Train six primary school head teachers, six administrative personnel and three librarians to the Masters degree level in the United States of America.

During the period up to 1988, the Project succeeded in establishing an effective presence in all the six sites and began in-service training activities involving the various categories of teachers mentioned above and university lecturers as well as some MINEDUC personnel, serving as resource persons.

However, conflict between the partners led to a premature end of the project in 1988. On account of the conflict USAID withdrew its funds and the project ended abruptly. Because most of its objectives were not realized, the project failed to make the anticipated impact on teacher education.

At the secondary level, an advanced teacher training college (Ecole Normale Superieure or ENS) was opened in 1961 as part of the University of Cameroon (now the University of Yaounde 1). Efforts to expand and reform this institution are traceable in three decrees reorganizing the ENS. These decrees came in 1975, 1979 and 1988.

Although ENS has produced thousands of teachers for the Cameroon secondary school system, there has, generally, been a feeling of dissatisfaction with its training program. It is often felt that the institution does not give adequate attention to the professional component of its program (Tambo, 1995). Besides, the institution continues to be the only route through which the Cameroon government (currently, the main employer of teachers) prepares and recruits teachers into the secondary school system.

By 1995 when a national forum on education was convened by the Cameroon government, teacher education in Cameroon was not only sick; it was dying of lack of reform and innovation. Primary teacher education institutions all over the country, except for those belonging to the churches in the North West and South West Provinces, had been closed down for more than three years. Secondary teacher training was experiencing crisis as an

unprecedented number of secondary schools were opened without any consideration for the availability of teachers.

Statement of the Problem

After decades of post-independence educational development effort in Cameroon, the teacher education system is still considered to be largely at crossroads. Although considerable resources have been committed to enhance teacher education, there are feelings that no significant progress has been made. There is even a feeling that teacher education may have become moribund. Some believe that it has declined in parts of the country and sectors of education in which it had taken some roots prior to independence. The decline noticeable in Government Teacher Training College, Kumba, and the defunct Ecole Normale de Foulassi, both opened in the 1920s can be cited in this respect.

Despite the existence of long regulatory instruments and some attempts to improve the system, such as those mentioned in the foregoing section, practice in key aspects of initial teacher education such as selection, program development, evaluation and certification is in many ways spurious and in need of innovation.

Apart from a few formal courses and occasional seminars and workshops that some teachers get involved in, in-service education is not noticeable. All of this has resulted in a demotivated teaching force that needs urgently to be remotivated, if the declining quality of teaching and learning in Cameroon schools is to be arrested.

In recognition of such a rather dismal situation, the National Forum on Education organized by the Cameroon Government (1995) made a number of recommendations to give new directions to the teacher education effort. One of these recommendations was the:

Liberalization of teacher training at various institutions for the supply of a large pool of qualified teachers for both government and private

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institutions at the primary and secondary levels
(p.76)

However, as Liberalization is neither defined nor discussed in the document, the meaning is not clear to teacher educators. Also, guidelines for expected action toward liberalization are not suggested. The Educational Law of 1998, for instance, which lays down guidelines for education in Cameroon (Cameroon, 1998) failed to discuss liberalization of teacher education. It would seem important, therefore, that certain concerns be addressed if liberalization is to become meaningful as a policy statement. In this respect, the paper will discuss the concept of liberalization within the context of teacher education reform in Cameroon and will point out some prospects and constraints relating to implementation of the liberalization policy.

Method

The writer surveyed the opinion of 30 teacher educators and 20 educational administrators, selected judgmentally in terms of their years of experience in the Cameroon education system. The instrument was a short questionnaire requiring respondents to give their opinion on:

1. Their understanding of liberalization as stated in the recommendations of the National Forum on Education of 1995

2. Justification for the idea of liberalization

3. The major constraints to liberalization

4. The factors that could facilitate such liberalization

The responses, provided by the 50 respondents (first group), to the above concerns were analyzed qualitatively and then presented to a second group of respondents (N = 42) for assessment. The second group was also selected on a judgmental basis. However, only persons with more than five years of

experience and with a minimum qualification of a Bachelor's degree or equivalent qualification were selected. During this second stage of analysis, respondents were asked to indicate against each response by the first group of respondents whether they strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree. Only statements to which at least 75% of the respondents strongly agreed with were retained.

Findings

<u>Liberalization of teacher education in Cameroon</u>

The respondents interpreted the concept of liberalization in the context of the recommendation of the Forum on Education (1995) as presented below.

1. Giving all qualified candidates access into teacher education institutions, without relating enrollment strictly to job opportunities in the public service.

2. Taking recruitment into teacher education institutions out of party politics and ensuring that the established selected process is respected.

3. Teacher training institutions should be given the power to determine entry qualifications and the number they wish to recruit for training.

4. Abolishing competitive examinations for the selection of candidates for training.

5. Transferring all teacher training to universities under Faculties of Education

6. Ensuring that teachers at all levels know their rights and obligations .

7. Free education for teachers

Justification for liberalization

Respondents enumerated a number of reasons to justify the need for liberalizing the teacher education process in Cameroon. These are summarized below.

1. When training opportunities are not tied to job opportunities in the public service, teachers are trained for the profession rather than for public service jobs.

2. Liberalization would encourage the establishment of private teacher education institutions. These may provide higher quality training than public teacher education institutions.

3. Liberalization would eliminate the much interference and control that the Government currently exerts in the selection of candidates for training

4. Liberalization would enhance the preparation of more effective and qualified teachers for the school system.

5. The schools, particularly the rural ones, which often experience an acute shortage of trained teachers, would begin to have their share of trained personnel.

6. Deployment of teachers after training would respond more effectively to needs.

7. Liberalization would encourage more competition by institutions involved in teacher education. Such competition is useful in improving the quality of training programs

8. When training institutions are allowed to select their own candidates for training, rather than receiving them from above, the trainees would be more disciplined and respectful of institutional regulations.

Constraints to liberalization of teacher education in Cameroon

Asked to identify what they consider to be the major constraints to liberalizing teacher education in Cameroon in terms of the recommendations of the National Forum on education of 1995, respondents enumerated the following:

1. The problem of quality control: It will be difficult to assure expected standards in all teacher education institutions.

2. Selection for training: In the absence of a common selection examination selection standards could become dubious.

3. Frustration after training by graduates who may not be able to find jobs because of the availability of too many qualified persons in the market.

4. Churches insist on training their own teachers and tend to doubt the quality and moral standing of teachers trained in public institutions.

5. Lack of material, financial and human resources for training a large pool of teachers.

6. The authority to issue graduation certificates: Will this be government for all or institution for itself?

7. Poor image of the teaching profession due to poor salary conditions and lack of statute defining teacher's status.

Prospects for liberalization of teacher education in Cameroon

With respect to the prospects for liberalizing teacher education in Cameroon, the factors listed below were identified by the respondents:

1. There is an increasing awareness that the state is not the sole employer of teachers.

2. Liberalization will enable the state concentrate on policy and evaluation concerns.

3. National education policy supports the opening of schools by private individuals and organizations.

4. There is a high demand for trained teachers in both primary and secondary schools, especially in the rural areas.

5. Faculties of Education are beginning to be opened in Cameroon universities. These Faculties will promote the liberalization of teacher education.

6. The current practice of decentralizing recruitment, whereby administrative divisions are authorized to employ teachers according to identified needs.

7. The existence of many newly created schools, which are highly under-staffed.

8. Public opinion supports the need for better trained teachers to be available in the schools.

Assessment of Respondents' Opinions

On the bases of a four-option scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree) respondents indicated their opinion regarding each of the responses contained in the above four areas of concern. Only responses for which at least 75 percent of the respondents indicated a "strongly agree" opinion are retained.

With respect to liberalization of teacher education in the context of Cameroon, respondents indicated that it means:

- Giving all qualified candidates access into teacher education institutions, without relating enrollment strictly to job opportunities in the public service.

- Taking recruitment into teacher education institutions out of political control and ensuring that the established selection process and criteria are respected.

- Teacher training institutions should be given the power to determine entry qualifications and the number of candidates they wish to recruit for training.

Concerning the justification for the policy of liberalization, four responses were retained as shown below:

- When training opportunities are not too tied to job opportunities in the public service, teachers are trained for the profession rather than for public service jobs.

- Liberalization would encourage the establishment of private teacher education institutions. These may provide higher quality training than public teacher education institutions

- Liberalization would eliminate the much interference and control that the Government currently exerts in the selection of candidates for training

- Liberalization would encourage more competition by institutions involved in teacher education. Such competition is useful in improving the quality of training programs.

Regarding the factors that could hinder the implementation of the policy of liberalization in Cameroon, perceived the crucial ones to be:

- Lack of material, financial and human resources for training a large pool of teachers.

- The problem of quality control: It would be difficult to guarantee expected standards in all teacher education institutions.

- Frustration after training by graduates who may not be able to find jobs because of the availability of too many qualified persons in the market.

- Churches insist on training their own teachers and tend to doubt the quality and moral standing of teachers trained in public institutions.

As for the factors that could facilitate the implementation of the policy, respondents highlighted the four factors outlined below:

- There is an increasing awareness that the state is not the sole employer of teachers

- National education policy supports the opening of schools by private individuals and organizations.

- There is a high demand for trained teachers in both primary and secondary schools, especially in the rural areas.

- Liberalization will enable the state concentrate on policy and evaluation concerns

Discussion

Liberalization of Teacher Education in Cameroon

Although the first group of respondents held a very broad view of liberalization, the second group, by indicating their level of agreement concerning each of these views limited the concept considerably. In this respect, liberalization means that government should ensure free enterprise in teacher education, encourage the use of objective criteria for selecting candidates and allow training institutions to determine entry qualifications. The respondents do not seem to consider the other concerns such as transfer of training responsibilities to universities, free education (i.e. no tuition and fees) for teachers and the promotion of teachers' rights as central to the idea of liberalization.

Surprisingly, respondents agree strongly that training institutions be allowed to determine entry qualifications, but do not consider the abolition of a common selection examination (usually set by the Government) to be an essential aspect of liberalization. This contradictory stand could be explained by the respondents' concern for the maintenance of quality or standards in training, which they see as a factor that could hinder liberalization.

Yet, the selection of candidates into teacher education institutions by means of a common examination set by the Government has come under much criticism. In a recent study Tambo and Tchombe (1997) described the role of the selection examination in the teacher education process in Cameroon as " spurious" They found that respondents preferred other criteria to the selection examination. These, in order of preference, are: (1) academic qualifications already earned by the candidate, (2) interest in teaching, (3) character and, (4) physical fitness (pp. 77 – 78).

Justification for liberalization policy

The reasons given by respondents to justify the need to liberalize teacher education imply that there has been too much government control in teacher education in Cameroon. Such control has tended to discourage competition, hinder the liberal deployment of teachers and undermine discipline in training institutions. Most of the training institutions have practically no say on who is admitted into their institutions. From the fore-going observation, it could be concluded that liberalization, besides being a recommendation of the National Forum of 1995, seems to be a needed option to be pursued in teacher education in Cameroon.

Constraints and prospects for liberalization of teacher education

Although liberalization of teacher education was strongly recommended by the government-sponsored National Forum on Education of 1995, and is supported by respondents in this study, the factors raised by the same respondents as possible obstacles to liberalization need to be considered seriously in attempts to

implement the policy. The obstacles or constraints raised revolve around resources, training standards, unemployment among graduates and attitude of church educational authorities.

As a participatory observer of teacher education in Cameroon, I see the problem of resources (material, financial and human) as the most critical factor in any effort to liberalize the training of teachers in Cameroon as recommended by the said National Forum on Education. Tambo and Tchombe (1997) observed a general paucity of teaching materials at both primary and secondary teacher education institutions in Cameroon. These included textbooks, maps, audiovisual materials, resource rooms, laboratories and other materials for science teaching. As liberalization implies the training of more teachers, this situation needs to be remedied to ensure the quality of programmes. Additionally, teacher training institutions need to find other ways to generate financial resources for the general running of the institutions and staff development activities. The tendency to depend solely on the Government for financial resources seems to be at odds with the idea liberalization.

Summary and Conclusions

Notwithstanding the resources that have been committed to the development of teacher education in Cameroon since independence in 1960/61, the teacher education system is still functioning below expectations. At a national forum, held in 1995 to discuss the reform of primary and secondary education in the country, delegates made a number of recommendations to give a new direction to the teacher education effort. One of these recommendations was that teacher education be liberalized in order "to supply a large pool of qualified teachers for both government and private institutions".

However, the meaning of liberalization in this policy statement was not clarified. This lack of clarity could explain why no action has been taken to develop liberalization strategies for the teacher education system in Cameroon..

This study aimed at defining liberalization within the context of the above-mentioned recommendation and identifying the constraints and prospects associated with its implementation.

Through a survey of the opinions of selected teacher educators and educational administrators, key ideas associated with liberalization are identified, the justifications for the policy are stated and the factors that could hinder as well as those that could facilitate its implementation are assessed.

The main conclusions of the study are that liberalization essentially means that (1) government should revise its previous policy of tight control and encourage free enterprise in teacher education, (2) objective criteria, rather than political considerations should be used in the selection of candidates for training and, (3) training institutions should be empowered to determine entry qualifications.

There are a number of factors that could hinder as well as those that could facilitate the implementation of the policy of liberalization. The hindering factors include: (1) lack of resources for training a large pool of teachers, (2) how to ensure quality control and the maintenance of standards in training institutions, (3) possible increase in unemployment among graduates resulting from availability of too many qualified teachers and, (4) the reluctance of church education authorities to employ teachers trained by public training institutions. The facilitating factors include: (1) increasing awareness among Cameroonian youth that the State is not the sole employer of teachers, (2) national education policy supports the opening of schools by private individuals and organizations, (3) a high demand exists, especially in the rural areas, for trained teachers in both the primary and secondary sectors and, (4) liberalization would The hindering factors include: (1) lack of resources for training a large pool of teachers, (2) how to ensure quality control and the maintenance of standards in training institutions, (3) possible increase in unemployment among graduates resulting from availability of too many qualified teachers and, (4) the reluctance of church education

authorities to employ teachers trained by public training institutions. The facilitating factors include: (1) increasing awareness among Cameroonian youth that the State is not the sole employer of teachers, (2) national education policy supports the opening of schools by private individuals and organizations, (3) a high demand exists, especially in the rural areas, for trained teachers in both the primary and secondary sectors and, (4) liberalization would encourage the State to give more attention to policy and evaluation concerns in teacher education, rather than to administrative and routine matters.

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Democracy in Education

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The point of departure of this article is the Danish debate about democracy in schools. This article presents the first step in a study of how the relationship between democracy and education can be understood. Three theoretical models of democracy are applied as an analytical framework: a liberal model (Hobbes, Locke, Kant, Rawls, Dworkin), a communitarian model (MacIntyre, Sandel, Nussbaum) and a communicative model (Walzer, Benhabib, Taylor, Habermas). Numerous contradictions and tensions between the concepts of democracy and education can be found in such a juxtaposition, depending on which conception of democracy one chooses to apply. In the article I will discuss which conception affords us the most meaningful concept of democratic teaching.

Contemporary viewpoints in the Danish debate on democracy and education

The 1993 Education Act explicitly states, even in the first paragraph, that it is the task of the school to prepare the children for "active participation, joint responsibility, rights and duties in a society based on freedom and democracy". Furthermore, this preparation is to happen through school learning and daily life characterized by "intellectual freedom, equality and democracy". In other words, Danish children must learn what democracy and a democratic attitude is, and – even more importantly – teaching and school learning must be based on some form of initiation that exhibits the same features or characteristics. To the extent that active participation, joint responsibility, duties, intellectual

freedom and equality form part of the concept of democracy, they must be practised too.

The intensification of democratic learning is doubtlessly appreciated by many people in Denmark, as elsewhere in the Western World. Concerning modern adult life, many are of the opinion that the technical revolution and the industrial relations demand greater readjustment and flexibility than ever before. In the years to come there will be growing demands for qualities associated with ideas of general education rather than with professional skills and professionalizing in a classical sense. Among other things, this means that the previous sharp division between education and working life gradually will be replaced by more flexible careers with frequent change of jobs and permanent needs for in-service training – so-called lifelong learning and education. Besides, new technologies will most likely bring with them increased demands of flat and open forms of organization, which again call for more 'soft', 'general' and 'open' qualifications, among these the ability for democratic participation. All those things, combined with the political desirability of strengthening the possibility of each individual taking part in the democratic process in society – e.g. in parents' committees, consumers' committees, environmental organizations etc. – makes it highly probable that many people would appreciate an intensification of democratic learning.

On the other hand, there are voices that warn against too much democracy in school learning. Not because democracy must not be taught in school, but because an exaggerated cultivation of "democratism" is a threat against knowledge and skills, the transmission of which must be the main task of the school after all. According to these critics the school should tone down all the "playing at democracy" and shared responsibility, which are mistaken relics of the progressivism of the 1970's and 1980's. Instead the school should make sure that Danish children receive sufficient and solid knowledge and skills so they can compete successfully with young people from other nations when they enter the labour market.

We may be content to see these apparently conflicting attitudes to democracy in education as merely a superficial disagreement about the subjects that should be taught in school. While some clearly think there ought to be more democracy in education, others equally clearly think that the important subjects in school would suffer was this to happen.

However, we can also choose to see both attitudes as superficial and the disagreement as possibly covering up ideas worth discussing. Below I shall examine the concept of democracy in this latter perspective.

The concept of democracy

Democracy can be seen as one of several possible answers to the problem of organizing society, or how we are going to arrange our lives. In the latter respect the question of organizing society takes on an ethical dimension. The concept of democracy, we might say, has an ethical core. Within a concept of democracy based on the idea that everybody exerts some influence on at least some essential part of public affairs, three normative conceptions of democracy have been recently developed. The conceptions are outlined below.

The first conception of democracy draws on the tradition from Hobbes, Locke and Kant. Here democracy is seen in relation to both the concept of freedom and the concept of autonomy. According to Rawls, democracy can be viewed as a social arrangement provided by free and independent individuals who have acknowledged their legal obligation to give up part of their sovereignty in favour of the community. Furthermore, feelings do not define the concepts of justice and democracy. One may look for the definition in a game theoretical argumentation, assuming an original position. This original position is furnished with certain restrictions: those who are negotiating the social contract are ignorant of the shape life will actually take after the negotiations.

Today this conception is especially defended by the American philosopher John Rawls (1971, 1993, 1995), but we also

find Ronald Dworkin here (Dworkin 1985). Within this conception one operates with the possibility of making decisions prior to organizing society. Thus the conception is rendered (a) universalistic (it applies to everyone), (b) guided by principles (with few exceptional clauses), and (c) contractualistic (it is based on the conception of norms as reciprocal promises). Often it is referred to as the *liberalistic conception of democracy*. The term 'liberal' must be understood in the American, cultural liberalistic sense.

Within liberalism as defined by Rawls, a conception of society is found according to which the fundament of society is constituted by the free and autonomous individual. Individuals participate in, and therefore define themselves partly in relation to the market in a contractual obligation of exchanging goods; partly in relation to a debating (the press) and decision-making authority (parliament, government). From the debating and decision-making authorities there gradually grows an administration which is given only a passive and coordinating but never an intervening role in relation to civil society.

The liberalistic conception of democracy exacts respect on certain fundamental rights such as proprietary right, freedom of assembly and freedom of expression. However, no legitimate claim exists concerning participation and the exercising of one's duties.

The second conception of democracy emanates from the tradition from Aristotle and Hegel, and builds in particular upon Hegel's concept of "Sittlichkeit". The conception emphasizes that each member of society is defined by being placed in a web of concrete forms of social life, rather than being defined by a set of norms the validity of which can be fixed once and for all (cf. Rawls' position (1971, 1993, 1995)). Taken together, those forms of social life outline what in the given society is considered a good or a bad life (also in an aesthetic sense). This conception is defended by the British philosopher Alasdair MacIntyre (1981, 1990) and by such American writers as Michael Sandel (1982) and Martha Nussbaum (1986, 1992). On this conception, the individual

cannot be defined in the abstract but must be viewed as deeply rooted in concrete, inherited and communicatively framed relations of solidarity tied to perceptible values. Hence, this conception is often called particularistic and value-oriented. Often – because of its strong emphasis on community – it is referred to as the *communitarian conception of democracy*.

Certain socialist versions of this conception can be found; partly where class solidarity and disciplining of the class struggle is stressed, partly in a more conservative variant sometimes referred to as a republican variant emphasizing such virtues as patriotism, nationalism and respect for authorities ("God, King and Country"). What is common to both socialist and conservative communitarism is that they, in contrast to a liberalistic conception, can assign an active and intervening role to the state defending the community and its values.

Within the communitarian conception of democracy it is demanded that participation and concrete forms of responsibility are defined. To a certain degree there is a possibility of relativizing the fundamental rights of the members of the community - namely if it serves the interests of the community as a whole. Here we open up for instrumentalizing actions in the name of the community as a whole that is justified either utilitaristic or consequentialistic.

For the sake of completeness a post-modern conception of democracy may be mentioned; to the extent that postmodernism stresses the contextuality and temporality of all things.

In recent years a new conception of ethics has emerged. This third conception of democracy is a conception that cannot be reconciled either with the conception of society as a community of free legislators (Rawls' liberal conception of democracy) or with the conception of local milieus as inevitable backgrounds for interaction and communication in society (the communitarian concept of democracy). According to this third conception of democracy, the liberal contractualist finds himself in a tyranny of

intellectual constructions with no sensitivity to the multiplicity and complexity of the present. In a similar vein, the communitarian finds herself in idiosyncratic traditionalism and tribalism. In contrast, this conception of democracy opens up for transgression (a non-conservative feature) and for the opportunity of an overlapping consensus between concrete communities. This conception is inspired by Dewey's idea of a participatory democracy (Dewey 1966), and is advocated by among others the American philosophers Michael Walzer (1983) and Seyla Benhabib (1992), the Canadian philosopher Charles Taylor (1975, 1990) and recently also by the German social philosopher Jürgen Habermas (1991, 1992, 1995). This conception incorporates both ideas of inevitability of local community and prospects of (rationally justified) consensus, based on dialogue, between local cultures. This conception of democracy is often referred to as *the communicative conception of democracy*.

Democracy and education

As underlined above, the interest in discussing democracy and education has recently increased. In the introduction I mentioned only two arguments found in the debate; one arguing for more and one arguing for less democracy in education. The debate is of course broader than this; nevertheless let us concentrate on those two arguments.

As we can see, both arguments are related to the question of whether democratic education is of any use. The first argument is an argument for teaching democracy, on the grounds that in general society demands democracy and democratic attitudes. The second argument is an argument against teaching democracy or at any rate against too much "playing at democracy" in the school since this will happen at the expense of true knowledge and cognitive skills. Those devoted to democracy are of the opinion that teaching democracy is something that must underpin and permeate daily life in schools, such that every form of underlying change of attitude must take place through more or less persistent practising and not just through ready-to-serve facts about what democracy is. On the

other hand, representatives of the other view argue that teaching democracy should be reduced to a minimum in order to make it possible to concentrate on "the true curriculum". Implicit in this latter argument is the assumption that beliefs about the need for more democracy in society are in reality wrong or exaggerated. This is an assumption often found among critics: the assertion of new democratic forms of organization and social conventions is pseudo-talk; and although it is the case that some form of democratizing is taking place in society, it is of no public interest and school and education should not interfere.

At this point the outlines of a political-philosophical disagreement become visible. The discussion is philosophical; a liberalist seems to face a communitarian. Therefore it is possible to reconstruct the viewpoints in light of the section above where conceptions of democracy were discussed. These conceptions are normative. In other words, we are not dealing with sociological categories for describing an arbitrary form of life. On the contrary, we are putting forward arguments for what is good and what is bad in an ethical sense.

The liberalistic argumentation about democracy and education is as follows:

(1) Via the idea of an original position it is possible to ground democracies through a number of fundamental and undisputable constitutional rights since it is possible to secure a formal principle of contractual obligation that provides fair distribution of goods, dispositions and actions. From this vantagepoint we can decide which actions and which institutions are democratic and which are not. It is important to note that the principle leaves a lot of actions, institutions and values unchallenged. In that respect the liberalistic democracy is "thin". It accepts every form of life which at the same time do not prevent other forms of life from expressing themselves. The constitutional rights are rights that ensure free choices of each individual including freedom not to participate, e.g. polling of public matters. The evasive respect becomes the interactive basis of democracy.

One has to respect the freedom of the pupil – including his freedom to become an evil person. In that respect virtuous reflections should be avoided in teaching democracy.

Through the fundamental and indisputable constitutional rights each individual becomes strong, while community – and the state as the executive organ of the community – is weak. In that respect, community is "clipped" or curtailed, and so is the possibility for the state to intervene. This goes for education, too. The state ought not to intervene in matters of school and education, or at least for special reasons only. Considering special reasons is a question of liberalistic radicalism. In their most radical version the constitutional rights ought to be given to everybody, including the new generation. Every person is inviolable as long as he or she does not challenge the integrity of other individuals. This implies that every child can decide if and when he or she will accept being taught. This radical view of education is known in the educational debate. Among others it is a well-known point of view of the Summerhill School and A. S. Neill (1963) and of anti-authoritarian education, e.g. Braunmühl (1989). Other and less radical positions do exist, especially positions where paternalism in more or less well-defined forms is accepted as parents' rights to intervene in the child's actions. It does not change the role of the state and possibility of controlling curriculum. On the contrary, parents are given a constitutional right to choose schools freely – and thus also a right to choose curriculum more or less freely.

(2) Against this, the communitarian argumentation about democracy and education is as follows. Adherents to communitarism do not believe that a general system of civic rights or any central principle of distribution can be established once and for all. Instead, what counts is the concrete community, the built relations of solidarity, the communicatively established and communicatively maintained consensus; all of which define and maintain the individual. Here democracy is not a system established once and for all where you can remain passive. Or as a Danish theologian Hal Koch, an advocate of this conception, says: "Democracy is not a doctrine which can be taught, or knowledge to

be acquired in no time. Democracy can never be secured because it is not a system that can be affected but a form of life to be learned. The disposition in question must be given every new generation. Therefore popular education – enlightenment – is the nerve of democracy… One has to take the laborious road of dialogue and collaboration" (Koch 1981, pp. 12-13). It is an educational continuity, a laboriously acquired web of concrete relations to the neighbours that constantly must be confirmed. Therefore, positive mutual confirmation is the basic form of democracy. Hence, teaching is central in school and must be organized as permanent reflection. It is not sufficient to conceive of the teaching of democracy as an abstract training context. Furthermore, it is not enough to see local issues and things as merely randomly chosen subjects for practising a formal principle of justice. The local issues and complexities are matters for reflection. It follows that teaching democracy can never be disconnected from practising democracy. Moreover, the teaching of democracy never ends, but must be seen as a lifelong process of learning that comprises a constant demand for active participation.

It is interesting that the Danish Education Act, as mentioned above, seems to favour a communitarian standpoint. When the Education Act speaks about participation, it is not only explicit information about the possibility of participation that is being considered. The point is, rather, direct and extensive practising because teaching democracy must take place through school learning and daily life characterized by "intellectual freedom, equality and democracy". In other words, the Act harbours an unmistakeable communitarian conception of democracy. Obviously a one-sided standpoint in a philosophical debate is professed. In educational practice, this standpoint is understood in the light of Grundtvigian, child-centered or progressive mainstream educational theory as a more or less hidden reference to the concrete community – from the small, intimate community of the classroom to the big society we are all part of. The idea is clearly communitarian.

(3) As we have seen, the predominant views in the Danish debate on democracy have been liberalistic and communitarian. With the emergence of a new paradigm coexisting with the liberalistic and the communitarian, namely the communicative, a third standpoint becomes possible. Concerning the possibility of this third way, a communicatively influenced democracy education, it is important to distinguish clearly between a general, non-infringable connection of principle on the one hand, and the many local forms of life on the other. In this respect one refers to liberalism where this distinction is stressed. It does not mean that one agrees with the liberalist that teaching democracy is merely a cognitive matter. It might also be a matter of upbringing. According to the communicative conception, democracy has communication as its formal essence. And communication is community. Advocates of the communicative conception of democracy hold that we cannot withdraw from communication; on this point the liberalistic assumption of a rationale in the original position beyond and independent of communication is implausible. On the other hand, a communitarian conception of community should be involved in education insofar as it is necessary for the general development of communicative skills and abilities. However, community is not 'thick' as it is understood by the communitarian-oriented ethicists of communication, but thin. It is a community of users of language insofar as it is defined through the formal procedures we use to reach a justified consensus. This does not, however, contrast with community always being a concrete, local matter of experience. This local context of experience will be aleatory facing reason, not endowed with any special status.

In practice the communicative conception of democracy implies that teaching democracy generally speaking is similar to liberalistic education; namely, exclusively with a formal stamp. Teaching must, among other things, aim at mastery of the formal aspects of democracy which are already embedded in the general conditions of communication. However, adherents to the communicative conception of democracy still understand democracy education as a matter of not aiming solely at giving the

child cognitive insight into the workings of democracy. The democratic community is also binding. It is a condition of life that nobody can escape without losing one's rationality – and with that one's individuality as a rational, acting human being. Corresponding to the general community of language users is an always existing, local context of experience. The content to be learned will never consist in an abstract training of general communicative abilities; it will always be embedded in concrete material. On the other hand, such material or content is subordinated to the possibility of sharpening the one's communicative abilities. It may always be replaced.

Concluding remarks

The debate about democracy and education in Denmark has mainly taken place as a debate between more or less liberalistic and more or less communitarian standpoints. The question of democracy is either a question of a set of formal, fundamental rights, or it is a question of a form of life claiming the complete participation of each individual. With the emergence of a new conception of democracy – the communicative – it seems possible to wedge in a third standpoint in the debate between the first two views. In any case the debate about democracy and education is not a simple one. The concept of democracy itself possesses nuances and ambiguities that are important to elucidate if the debate shall proceed with increased reason and knowledge.

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Mentoring Schools Mentoring Students

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The Faculty of Education and Languages at the University of Western Sydney in conjunction with schools is in the process of devising a mentoring schools program to assist in constructing opportunities for students to excel in the teaching profession. The generation of this program has come about out of a need for our students to have continual access to schools and the milieu of the school. The economics of the University does not allow for extended practicum in each semester of a student's initial teacher education program. Furthermore, through research and experience we have come to realise that not all educational school-based learning experiences are acquired through direct teaching practice.

As a consequence, it is expected we will move from the notion of the school as primarily the setting for student teacher supervision, where the application of university knowledge and direct practice is assessed, to school-based mentoring where the university and the school together facilitate the professional development of student teachers.

This paper will explore the initial implementation and the evaluation of this program from the student's perspective. The question of students taking responsibility for their own learning and the development and extent of that

responsibility is of key importance and will be closely monitored as the program progresses. The evaluation will be in the form of a responsive evaluation running parallel to the program and informing the implementation as it develops.

Introduction

Learning to teach, as we all know but often fail to remember, is a complex, bewildering and sometimes painful task. It involves developing a practical knowledge base, changes in cognition, developing interpersonal skills and also incorporates an affective aspect. (Maynard & Furlong, 1994, p. 69)

As learning to teach is complex and multi-dimensional, the activities undertaken need to incorporate a range of experiences, learning tasks and environments to develop these different forms of knowledge. Such knowledge is often based up on prior learning (especially during a student teacher's own school days) and so is formed as a result of what they see teachers doing rather than what teachers are thinking in order to achieve the desired outcomes. However, learning to teach requires different forms of learning not just those teacher education students remember from their own schooling. They will need to confront previously constructed images of teaching, acknowledge them and their sources, and subsequently adapt them. Learning to teach also occurs in a range of contexts (alone or with others, in various schools or outside them) but whatever the context, a supportive environment is necessary and a school as a learning community essential.

Within teacher education and professional preparation, Furlong, Hirst, Pocklington and Miles (1988) distinguish between four different dimensions:

• Direct practice - practical training through direct experience in schools and classrooms.

- Indirect practice - training in practical matters in 'detached' classes or workshops within institutions such as universities.

- Practical principles - critical study of the principles underlying teaching strategies and why they are used.

- Disciplinary theory - critical study of teaching practice and its principles in the light of current theory and research.

The practical dimension has long been favoured by students in their teacher preparation programs (Battersby & Ramsay, 1990) and the move to a more field-based teacher education program is considered to have the potential to improve the quality of teaching not only for student teachers but for classroom practitioners as well (Field, 1994; LeClerq, 1996). Within this dimension, schools and teachers are considered in the best placed to provide preparation in the "practical classroom knowledge" obtained through direct practice (Maynard & Furlong, 1994, p. 71). Therefore, it is necessary to move from:

> the notion of *supervision* [author's emphasis] in school where teachers supervising trainees in the application of training acquired elsewhere, to the notion of *mentoring*, which is an active process, where teachers themselves as practitioners have an active role in the training process. (Maynard & Furlong, 1994, p. 71)

At the University of Western Sydney (UWS) we want to establish new (and cost efficient) ways for the schools and the University to work together to successfully integrate all of the four dimensions of professional preparation outlined above and to enable our students to benefit from both school and university-based experiences throughout each semester of their four year initial teacher education degree. Originally discussions were undertaken with the teaching profession through the various Principals' Councils operating in South and South Western Sydney, predominantly, about how to ensure ongoing school-based experience throughout each semester of a newly designed four year primary Bachelor of Education degree program which replaced a

three year Bachelor of Teaching degree when financial constraints would not permit any increase to paid practicum. From these discussions it was suggested immersing teacher education students in particular schools right throughout their four year program (designated a 'Mentoring School') in addition to the more usual paid practicum experiences which occurred in some but not all semesters. This program, called the Mentoring Schools Program (MSP) would enable students to have continual access to schools and the milieu of the school, and construct opportunities to excel in the teaching profession.

The MSP was then introduced in the second half of 1999, establishing a valuable partnership to provide the opportunity to use classroom practice to examine more theoretically-based knowledge and using theoretically-based knowledge to also examine classroom practice. The experiences available to the students under MSP would give them a vast range of opportunities to enhance their knowledge and understanding of their chosen profession. It was envisaged that the program would enrich the schools and the University program and ensure that students would have multiple opportunities to access the day-to-day functioning of a school as a community of learners. Further, it was anticipated that the MSP would contribute to the building of a relationship that will encourage the teachers of the future to be participants in the education of the children of today.

As a consequence, we hope to move from the notion of the school as primarily the setting for student teacher supervision, where the application of university knowledge through direct practice is assessed, to school-based mentoring where the school takes on a greater role in facilitating the professional development of student teachers. The work of the mentoring school can effectively complement and extend the university program. One is not intended to be a substitute for the other. Effective mentoring is based not on a single generic model but is a collection of strategies used flexibly and sensitively in response to the changing needs of the student teacher (Brooks & Sikes, 1997, p. 35).

Mentoring

We believe that school-based mentoring can best be defined as:

a nurturing process in which more skilled or more experienced school staff, serve as role models - teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counselling and befriending a less skilled or less experienced student teacher for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and personal development. Mentoring activities are carried out within the context of an ongoing, caring and professional relationship between the school staff and the student teacher. (Anderson, 1987, cited in Kerry & Mayes, 1995, p. 29)

The value of mentoring lies in the synergy it can create between theory and practice, and between university and school-based teacher education. As Dann (1995) reported:

The dynamic relationship hoped to be fostered between the student and mentor is one in which a rich dialogue related to experience, insight, reflection and evaluation needs to be created. If learning is to be anything more for children and teachers than ... 'ritualled' (that is based only on repetition and limited unapplied experience) then dialogue through which meaning and understanding are communicated is vital. Such dialogue is essential to the effective sharing of underlying common principles. The opportunities which mentoring offers for this sustained shared experience of a class seems to have valuable potential for teacher training. (p. 60)

The mentoring school and its staff

Schools were invited to participate in the MSP. The school as a mentoring body, led by the principal, would build upon the particular strengths, abilities and qualities of different staff members in order to offer the widest possible experiences to student teachers. By involving a team of mentors we can ensure

that the student teacher is being offered a range of diverse ways of teaching and learning. Student roles and activities within the schools would be negotiated with each school in relation to student experience and initiative, the campus-based course work they were undertaking and the needs, opportunities and ongoing programs existing in the school. Direct teaching of a whole classes was not expected as this would contravene the Industrial Award governing practicum (Ludeke Award) and Teacher Union policy, both which mandate payment for the direct supervision of student teachers. Over 80 schools became involved in the program in its inaugural implementation during the second half of 1999.

Students were to attend their chosen schools at least one day each fortnight. University staff would not visit the mentoring schools and no traditional supervision would be undertaken by school or university staff. The principals of the schools involved were the University's contact and the person responsible for the program's implementation within the school as it was the school mentoring the student not individual teachers (although some individual mentoring did evolve during the students time in the school). As it was not necessary to attach groups of students to schools to facilitate university lecturer (professor) attendance at the school, small schools which otherwise are unable to be involved in the more usual practicum programs could elect to become mentoring schools. Also, as students were attached to schools and not classes, it was possible to involve teachers in non-classroom based positions such as teacher librarians and English as Second Language teachers. Both the use of small schools and non-class based teachers overcame the concern that they were ineligible to have student teachers which they raised earlier in a recent survey as to why teachers did or did not offer to supervise student teachers (Sinclair & Thistleton-Martin, 1999).

The mentoring of students to be undertaken in the school was seen as a dynamic process, aimed at moving student teachers forward, through the combination of knowledge, understanding, support and challenge. Participation as a mentoring school was to move beyond the tokenistic, providing schools with the

opportunity, in partnership with the university, to contribute significantly to the preparation of the next generation of teachers. As a Mentoring School, each school would be involved in the following processes:

- *Befriending and Sponsoring*- through acceptance, understanding and time to support the student teachers leading to the realisation of the student 's goals by assisting their action rather than 'doing it for them', supporting them through such things cooperative planning and promoting their acceptance as a part of the school community, and perhaps even show-casing the student teachers' achievements.

- *Encouraging*- through affirmation of who they are and what they can do.

- *Nurturing*- recognising the ability, experience, maturity and cultural diversity of the student teachers, helping to provide an environment which considers the total personality of their student teachers and assisting them to develop into fuller maturity.

- *Role Modelling and Teaching / Coaching*- providing direct assistance to stimulate personal and professional growth and development in their student teachers and to give the student teachers a sense of what they are becoming.

- *Inspiring* (by example and words) *and Challenging* the student teachers by involving them in professional development experiences.

- *Counselling*- by helping student teachers to solve their own problems.

Therefore, a mentoring school and its staff will:

1. mentor one or more students, depending on the size of the school;

2. assist the student in orienting themselves in the school;

3. encourage the student to be involved in any ongoing programs;

4. give the student opportunity to observe various classes/programs; and,

5. be all round good 'guys' but no supervision or report writing would be required and no payment would be forthcoming (from the University). Participation was purely voluntary.

The student teachers and university staff

Two different models of mentoring are involved in the MSP- apprenticeship and reflective practitioner (Maynard & Furlong, 1994, p. 79 - 82). In the beginning, students may utilise aspects of apprenticeship or collaborative teaching whereby they emulate the experienced practitioners within the school, fit into establish routines, work alongside experienced teachers and benefit from mentors who explain the significance of what is happening in the classroom. In time, and at their own pace, student teachers are encouraged to focus on student learning and how they can make it more effective. To do this they need to move beyond routines and rituals to develop a deeper understanding of the learning process, think through different ways of teaching (hopefully from working with different teachers within the school) and develop their own justifications and practical principles for their work. The competency model, or systematic training that involves observations of the student teacher and the provision of feedback is not utilised in the MSP but remains an aspect of the student teachers' practicums.

The student teachers are regarded as self-sufficient novice preservice teachers. The MSP is giving them the opportunity to be a vital part of a school. Some student teachers will take this opportunity and 'run with it' while others will do only what is required. We do not intend to be 'monkeys on their backs' watching their every move. The diligence with which they embrace

this program will be evident in the teachers they become. Every student will have different needs and will aim to satisfy those needs in different ways. This program gives each student the opportunity to enhance their learning opportunities in the workplace as they mature as teachers.

Students entering their second semester of their eight semester teacher education program, will be directed into this program. It is expected that the student will:

1. select a school of their choice;

2. attend that school for a whole day approximately once every two weeks during second semester (during the 3rd and 4th school terms);

3. be in partnership with any participating teachers;

4. observe / assist in any programs currently being undertaken by the school;

5. have access to pupils / classrooms / programs for the purposes of translating theory into practice either for the purposes of personal enrichment or University assignments;

6. be considered integral to the school community;

7. dress and conduct themselves in a professional manner at all times;

8. continue to attend the school in subsequent semesters/years should the desired relationship develop. It is envisaged that the students will have continued access to the schools for the entire length of their course. It is not envisaged that they will do their major practicums at that school (a variety of schools will give a greater breadth of experience);

9. sign on in the sign on book supplied whenever they are on school property; and,

10. negotiate with the school about involvement. Document the outcomes of the negotiation and sign it along with the Principal. Give a copy of this documentation to University practicum administrative assistant for filing.

While not mandatory, it is expected that the students will spend some time on playground duty always accompanied by a staff member and that the students will attend relevant staff meetings and professional development activities at the school.

The University (personnel) will:

1. fax all schools in the designated area with information and a request for participation in the program;

2. contact the participating schools for notification and confirmation of student attendance;

3. match schools with students (student's choice);

4. provide sign on books;

5. readjust placement if necessary; and,

6. be a contact for the schools but will not visit the students in their schools.

Evaluating the MSP

After only a brief time within the program (six weeks) students were asked to complete a three, two, one evaluation: three things they learned, two positives about the program and one change that was needed. Space was also given for any other comments. Sixty-three students from a cohort of eighty-five responded (74.1% response rate).

What was learnt

The learning that the students reported is divided into three categories: curriculum, organisation and school procedures and personnel (with the most comments being made about organisation).

The curriculum

This category included students working within a specific curriculum area, observations of a variety of curriculum programs and preparation for groups of pupils, and assessment within a wide range of curriculum areas. Students (10) commented that they learned how to organise class groupings e.g. spelling and reading, and observed English as a Second Language, Gifted and Talented and Special Needs programs. They also learnt about assessing children and the preparation required not only for assessment but also for extra curricula activities. Observing and learning different teaching techniques was also seen as important with attention being given to classroom management, differences between grades, and the interrelatedness of lessons.

Organisation

A feature of many responses (21) was that the students now realised that there was a lot more to teaching than curriculum delivery. In other words, they were beginning to realise the complexity and multifaceted nature of the teacher's role and developing an understanding of the 'culture' of the school. Student comments included the realisation that "teachers need to be organised" and there are "many more functions within the school other than teaching". Some students (9) commented on the value of learning about the structure of the school, the routines and the interruptions to those routines as various predictable and unpredictable events invaded the school and the classrooms. Realisation that teaching is complex and that teachers had to work outside of school hours in order to maintain their classroom programs came as a surprise to a few students (5).

Procedures and Personnel

Procedures such as assemblies and excursions were examined and discussed with emphasis being placed on the necessary organisation and planning that had to be done. Classroom planning was also a feature and the interaction between staff was seen as supportive for four students. Two students noted that parents played a helpful role in both the school as a whole and the classroom itself and that parents should be encouraged to contribute the life of the school. Preferences for teaching particular age groups began to emerge with several students (3) commenting that kindergarten was noisy and difficult to manage and that the older children were preferable.

The positives of the program

A variety of issues were noted with emphases being placed on experience, flexibility, location, theory and practice, and teacher support.

Experience.

The experience itself drew comment from some students (10) with remarks such as the MSP gave them "experience teaching outside the classroom" and "great experience in communicating with teachers, students and parents". It also encouraged them in "being involved", and "being incorporated as part of a team". The program also provided them with a chance to visit local schools and make contacts. In addition, was the actual experience gained in the school. Some students (18) commented that their "involvement in classroom programs", the "opportunity to see how a school functions" and being "able to see new education resources and programs" was beneficial to them. The program itself and the experience gained were seen as both valuable and enlightening for these neophytes as they begin to establish themselves in the teaching profession.

Flexibility

Flexibility also was seen as a positive by some students (13), from two stances: the flexibility of the program from the University point of view and flexibility from within the school they were attending. Flexibility in time and the number of visits were appreciated, allowing students to create their own patterns and responsibilities within their own framework and that of the schools. Flexibility within the school also was seen as valuable. Being able to move between classrooms and programs added to the students' sense of learning possibilities. Reduced formality also was appreciated in that several students (6) valued the opportunity to work in schools without being formally evaluated or graded as they would have been in a practicum situation.

Location

Several students (5) commented on the benefits of being able to attend a school of their own choosing and recognised the fact that this selection could be of an advantage in work opportunities once they graduated. Being able to be part of the school community and having "friendly links with the local school" was also seen as beneficial with community involvement being key to this realisation.

Theory into practice.

While this term is somewhat over used in teacher education, the students in this program reinforced the value of assuring the reality of the workplace by making connections between theory and practice. Linking classroom practice with the theories they had constructed during their study was praised and application of that theory was explored. Added to this concept was the realisation that the children and the school were both sound resources for their University assignments.

Teacher Support

Teacher support within the school was seen as key to the whole program. Many students (21) commented on the time the teachers spent with them, the networking that occurred, the range of experiences the teachers made available to them and the interaction the students experienced with both the teachers and pupils. Such comments reinforced the fact that the teachers in these schools were willing to "put back into the profession" to ensure that the best teachers possible will be available once these students have graduated.

The above comments and remarks indicated that the students see this program as a positive experience greatly benefiting them as they enter the second year of their program with one student even commenting that "the program is great. I have been able to work with many different teachers".

Suggested improvements to the program

The program itself proved extremely successful as evidenced by the positive comments above, considering this was the first time it had been implemented. Student comments about improvements show the program's increasing viability through the schools mentoring students but that some issues needed to be attended to for phase two of the program to be implemented in the second half of 2000. Issues of information and organisation require attention and the roles of the university and the school need to be further considered.

Information and organisation

Just over a third of the students who responded (23) emphasised the fact that both they and the schools needed to know more about the program and that the program needed to be more organised. Several questions need to be explored here. Is the information supplied sufficient but not read or do we need to add more detail? With this final comment in mind, the issues of how

much information is enough needs to be considered? Given the nature of the program, however, do we want to organise the students' time in the schools or do we want the students and the schools to take that responsibility? The line between organisation and flexibility is very thin. How structured do we want this program to be? Recognition of different perceptions both at the school level and with the students is a factor in such programs. This fact was highlighted by comments (2) such as "It needs to be compulsory" when in fact the program was compulsory, leaving room for interpretation of these students' capacity to handle primary information sources.

Roles of the University and the school

Several students (7) wanted to have set lessons to teach each week and for the MSP to be included in a subject at the University and therefore be given a grade. All of these issues would contravene the Teachers' Union and Industrial Award regulations in regard to payment of teachers and may change the nature and purpose of the program. One of the key issues for implementation of the program was that it would be at no cost to the University (with the exception of minor administration) and, therefore, was not supervised nor graded. Whether the program could or should be included in a subject and how that would change the parameters of that subject is an issue for discussion. We do not want to set up situations that create added workload for the students, the University and school staff nor can we contravene Teacher Union and Award regulations.

Student workload and roles

Another impression that emanated from the evaluation was that this program impinged on the students' 'time off', that the only time we could expect them to go to schools was inside their twelve hours of face-to-face contact per week at the University. This misconception is one that we are continually addressing as much of our student cohort does not have a history of academia and sees time other than face-to-face hours as time off. Admittedly many

students work to support themselves at University and have some difficulty in managing the supplementary demands of study and programs such as the mentoring schools program. Flexibility of time within the program was also commented on as suggestions were made about starting the program earlier in the semester, later in the semester or doing it in a block. All of these suggestions would be possible but schools want to know when to expect students, how often and for how long so a regulated time frame was designated in the original documentation. Some students did in fact negotiate their time with the school to a satisfactory conclusion for all involved.

One of the organisational features of the program was that students were allowed to choose their own school. This choice meant that several students (3) went to schools where they were already part of the fabric of that school, that is a parent helper or assistant. The feedback in the evaluation reported that these students felt they had not learnt anything new, as they already knew all about the school. The notion that there was nothing more to learn is alarming. Perhaps the placement of students in surroundings that are too familiar prevents exploration.

Students also suggested that they be attached to a single class, rotate around classes or be involved in a variety of tasks. These issues are the prerogative of the school and need to be negotiated within individual sites. Two students wanted to change schools each year while others were content to stay at their initial school. It is envisaged, in line with sound mentoring principles that these students will continue to have contact with their mentoring school but one school has specifically asked for a new student each year. These are all dimensions we will have to explore as we move into phase two of the program.

Unidentified issues

One issue that is commonly mentioned in the literature (for example, Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney & O'Brien, 1995; Elliott & Calderhead, 1994; Hays, Gerber & Minichiello, 1999;

Wildman, Magliaro, Niles & Niles, 1992) but not mentioned in any of the student evaluations is the role and value of the mentoring partnership. The reason for this could be two fold: the program is still in an embryonic form and mentoring relationships may not have had time to develop in the six weeks that the students have been in the schools or that the school personnel are not informed about the development of mentoring relationships. The role of the teacher as support was, however, key to some student comments and could be construed as the beginnings of a mentoring partnership. The point as to who is the mentor is also under question. The initial idea was that the school under the auspices of the principal was the mentor but it was also envisaged that individuals or groups of teachers might take on this role as well.

Recommendations

As a result of this evaluation, to move forward with the program and to prepare for next year's students it is recommended that:

- the information process begin much earlier than it did in 1999 so that the students know which schools they are going to before the end of autumn semester;

- an information afternoon be held at the University for the participating schools to ensure optimum access to information by the school personnel. Alternatively direct information sharing and collaboration with the principals through the Primary Principals Council could assist in this process;

- sharing of current information be organised with University and school personnel to ensure clarity of meaning;

- additional meetings be arranged with the students to ensure they understand what is required; and,

- further investigation into the role of the mentor be carried out producing a clearer view of the roles of these mentors.

Conclusions

The strength of this program lies in the relationship developed between the school and the students and the learning gained by participating in such a venture. On the whole students appreciated the opportunity to be involved in the program and learnt much from the experience. It will be interesting in the following years to investigate the effect this program has on our students as they move into the workforce. A subsequent evaluation involving the school personnel is to be carried out in 2000 to better ascertain the role of the school in the program and to further consider the parameters of mentoring schools mentoring students.

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Book Review

Churukian, George A. and Lock, Corey R. (2000).
*International Narrataives on Becoming a Teacher Educator:
Pathways To A Profession.* Lewiston, New York: The Edwin
Mellen Press.

Edited by George Churukian and Corey Lock this book is a
collection of autobiographical accounts of the careers of teacher
educators from 24 countries When I received an advance copy I
recognised several of the authors as long time International Society
for Teacher Education (ISTE) friends. My wife, Maureen,
immediately sequestered it and kept exclaiming how interesting
and different the personal accounts were. When I finally had my
chance to read the book I found that it was not only a valuable
contribution to the literature on the teacher education profession
but also a very good read.

The most arresting feature of these accounts is the great
diversity in the stories the authors tell. Indeed most contributors
did not set out with a career as a teacher educator in mind at all. In
most cases it seems they were qualified and effective teachers who
had much to contribute to their colleagues. They were the kind of
teachers who questioned their own work and sought to learn more
about the theory and practice of teaching and learning. Beyond this
they tell stories which can only be understood if read against the
culture and environment in which each lived and worked. The
stories are about the experiences of teacher educators in cities and
remote country areas; in one-teacher schools and large institutions;
in pre-schools, elementary schools, high schools and universities;
in religious, private and state systems and those based on
distinctive educational philosophies, faiths and socio-economic
systems.

I discovered some enlightening themes that ran through the
narratives, which revealed characteristics shared by the authors.
The teacher educators who tell their stories in this volume are
imbued with a love for children which goes well beyond sentiment

to a firm determination to play a part in each child's development. They are also convinced that education is a life-long experience for all adults but for teachers in particular. These teacher educators clearly hold knowledge in high regard and have striven throughout their lives to pursue learning through scholarship and research. They appreciate the power of language and the role of communications in the modern world. Most have had long experience at the "coalface" of teaching and research and know disappointment, frustration, and the burdens of office. Despite this they reveal themselves as resolute and serene.

I rejoiced to find many of the authors were quite subversive of received wisdom. They dared to ask questions even when such behaviour was discouraged or forbidden. These stories tell us about the ways in which teacher educators have not only coped with change but how they initiated, advocated and encouraged it in the name of better education. I also gained a strong impression that males had more opportunities and fewer obstacles for a career in teacher education than women. Despite some evidence to the contrary, I doubt if things have changed very much when we look at this issue on a global scale.

The editors are to be congratulated for commissioning the authors to write their stories. Editing so many narratives from a world of cultures and systems was doubtless a challenging task, which has been well done. In this book the authors have demonstrated the power of narrative which offers much in examining the profession of teacher education.

Warren Halloway
University of New England
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Recemt Publications by ISTE Members

Churukian, George A. and Lock, Corey R. (2000). *International Narrataives on Becoming a Teacher Educator: Pathways To A Profession.* Lewiston, New York: The Edwin Mellen Press.

This book is a collection of twenty-four autobiographies on becoming a teacher educator from twenty-four countries. The authors include their respective paths to becoming teacher educators.

Index to Volume 4 (2000)

Author Index (by Principal Author)

Valli, Linda. Preparing Caring, Competent Teachers for Urban Schools. 14-25, Issue 1.

Videotape Review: What is Experiential Learning? Experiential Teaching?: Here's Help. LeOra Cordis and Kathleen Manning. Reviewed by Caroline Krentz. 58-59, Issue 1.

Wilson, Sybil E. Developing the Enquiry Teacher. 53-57, Issue 1.

Publication Guidelines

Articles submitted to JISTE must be written in English, following manuscript guidelines (see below) and will be anonymously reviewed by referees. Each article must pass the review process to be accepted for publication. The editors will notify the senior author of the manuscript if it does not meet submission requirements.

Articles are judged for (a) significance to the field of teacher education from a global perspective, (b) comprehensiveness of the literature review, (c) clarity of presentation, and (d) adequacy of evidence for conclusions. Research manuscripts are also evaluated for adequacy of the rationale and appropriateness of the design and analysis. Scholarly relevance is crucial. Be sure to evaluate your information.

Articles pertaining to a particular country or world area should be authored by a teacher educator from that country or world area.

If English is the author's second or third language, manuscripts accepted for publication will be edited to improve clarity, to conform to style, to correct grammar, and to fit available space. Submission of the article is considered permission to edit the article.

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- Manuscript length, including all references, tables, charts or figures should be 1,000 to 3,000 words.

- All text should be double-spaced, with margins 1 inch all around (2.5 cm), left justified only.

- Paragraphs should be indented five spaces and separated by a space.

- Tables, Figures, and Charts should be kept to a minimum, sized to fit on a page 8.5 x 5.5 inches (20 x 14 cm).

- Abstract should be limited to 100 - 150 words.

- Reference entries should be indented five spaces on the first line, just like other paragraphs (See example below).

- The cover page shall include the following information: Title of the manuscript; name of author or authors, institution, complete mailing address, business and home phone numbers, FAX number, and e-mail address; Brief biographical sketch, background and areas of specialization not to exceed 30 words per author.

- Writing and editorial style shall follow directions in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (1994, 4th ed.). References MUST follow the APA style. The following style is from the APA Publication Manual:

Book:

      Kissock, C. (1988). *Curriculum planning for social studies teaching: A cross cultural approach.* London: The Macmillan Press, Ltd.

Journal Article:

      Churukian, G. A. & Lock, C. R. (1995, Summer). A case for creating an international research agenda for teacher education. *Action in Teacher Education, 17*(2), 1-6.

<u>Article or Chapter in an Edited Book</u>

Churukian, G. & Lock, C. (1997). The nature of Teacher education. In B. Jeans (Ed.). *Issues in teacher Education, Volume 2* (pp. 114-126). Victoria, Australia: Felicitas Academic Press.

<u>Unpublished Paper:</u>

Lock, C. R. & Churukian, G. A. (1996, February). *Teacher educators in other countries: Some comparisons with teacher educators in the United States.* Paper presented at the 76th Conference of the Association of Teacher Educators. St. Louis.

<u>Electronic Reference:</u>

Electronic references should have an address permitting retrieval.

Further information may be obtained through the ISTE web site at http://teachernet.hkbu.edu.hk

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Manuscripts, editorial correspondence, address changes, membership information, and questions should be directed to:

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Future Submissions

January 2002 (Volume 6, Number 1)
Deadline for Submission: September 1, 2000
Theme: Educating for Better Teachers: International Perspectives

May 2002 (Volume6, Number 2)
Deadline for Submission: January 2, 2001
Theme: Non-thematic. Interested members of ISTE may contribute manuscripts related to any important topic in teacher education.

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Interested members of ISTE may submit reviews of books or other media created by ISTE members. Reviews may be no longer that one Journal page.

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