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Eastern European Journal of Transnational Relations

The Eastern European Journal of Transnational Relations is a peer-reviewed journal published by the Faculty of Law, University of Bialystok, Poland. Located as it is on the eastern border of the European Union, Białystok provides the EU with a natural window to the East which in turn compliments the journal's overall mission.

The EEJTR is devoted to the study of the politics, societies, economies, laws and foreign relations of central and eastern European countries (including post-Soviet states) and western European countries. By extension, it also embraces North America and therewith provides a very real opportunity to broaden the conduit of academic transfer that spans the Atlantic.

The journal seeks submissions across a broad spectrum of topics. These include, but are not limited to: state-society relations, law, economics, elections, democratization, foreign policy, criminal justice and migration. Both theoretical and practical submissions are expected.

The journal is dedicated to publications from the social sciences, as well as other related or interdisciplinary fields, as long as they reflect the journal's mission.

Although the Journal does not support a regular book review section, nevertheless it will occasionally publish reviews of important new works that become available.

The views expressed in this issue are those of the authors, and do not necessarily reflect the policies or opinions of the Journal, its editors and staff of the University of Bialystok.

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Introduction.
Teacher Education in Central and Eastern Europe: Issues, Policies, Practices

It is my great pleasure to be writing this editorial for the *Eastern European Journal of Transnational Relations* (EEJTR) together with Prof. Davide Parmigiani, President of the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) – a network that has been actively involved in research and policy analysis on teacher education in this continent and beyond for many years. The Association has significantly increased its involvement with Central and Eastern European countries over the past few years through various initiatives (e.g., books, conferences, and workshops) in order to facilitate a better understanding of trends, challenges, and future prospects for teacher education in this part of Europe.

There is widespread agreement among researchers that the quality of teacher education is a key factor in improving teaching and learning in schools, student success, and ultimately the transformation of society as a whole (e.g., Desimone, 2009; Ben-Peretz & Flores, 2018). Its role seems to be particularly important for countries in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) which have experienced profoundly complex political, socio-economic, cultural, and educational transformations over

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the past three decades. A growing body of research, reports, and policy documents indicates that countries in this region have been making considerable efforts to reform their teacher education systems and to implement new strategies and approaches, in line with international trends and the latest EU policy developments (Valeeva & Gafurov, 2017; Chankseliani & Silova, 2018; Gawlicz & Starnawski, 2018). However, even with these efforts, there is still a need to systematically and critically examine policies and practices of teacher education in these countries, in order to ensure that teachers are adequately equipped to support young people in developing the knowledge and competences needed for living in fast-changing democracies and a globalised world.

The collection of papers presented in this issue continues and expands upon discussions which took place during a seminar on 'Modernisation of Teacher Education in Central and Eastern Europe' organised by the Association for Teacher Education in Europe and MEP Krystyna Łybacka in the European Parliament (April 2019). This seminar aimed to: (1) analyse and reflect on specific aspects of teacher education in selected CEE countries; (2) discuss emerging broad issues, challenges, and urgent problems in teacher education across the whole region; and (3) explore how to tackle these challenges in new and innovative ways. The seminar brought together a number of researchers, teacher educators, policy makers, university authorities, and NGO representatives from the CEE region and beyond – all of whom unanimously agreed that the future of this region and Europe as a whole will be significantly determined by the quality of teachers' education and development. After all, it is teachers who have a great (perhaps even the greatest!) influence on the intellectual capacities, the form, and the functioning of our future societies.

This issue of the *Eastern European Journal of Transnational Relations* comes at a point in time when relations between people and nations are being disrupted by many dramatic socio-political processes, for instance: the Covid-19 pandemic, the ongoing migration crisis, as well as a wave of demonstrations against the Belarusian regime following the recent presidential election. All of these influences have and continue to profoundly affect the education sphere, forcing us (as researchers and teacher educators) to revise some core educational concepts. For example, since the pandemic began, school life has been relocated to online spaces, meaning that there is an urgent need to rethink the potential of online teaching and learning, in order to create optimal conditions that remove all barriers to effective and comprehensive online educational experiences. Furthermore, in this difficult time filled with uncertainty, apprehension, and stress, it also would be reasonable to reaffirm humane, universal, and timeless educational values, ideas, and approaches, in which respect, tolerance, trust, and supporting others play a key role. It is therefore very heartening that some of the authors in this issue have also addressed these fundamental topics, providing a whole host of theoretical and practical inspirations.

In an era of international problems in need of international solutions, it is noteworthy that not all of the articles included here refer directly and exclusively to the situation of teacher education in CEE countries. Instead, some of the papers in this issue reach beyond the geographical borders of this region by providing some insights from China, Germany, and England: as such, they touch on fundamental issues in teacher education in the twenty-first century which are relevant no matter where we live. These include, for example, globalisation, internationalisation, and ICT technologies.

This issue begins with an article written by Anna Krajewska (Poland), entitled 'Globalization and Higher Education: the Polish Perspective.' It looks at the relationship between developments across both the Polish higher education sector and contemporary globalisation processes from an economic and socio-cultural perspective. The author pays particular attention to the following aspects of this relationship: the development of the education market and mass education; financing higher education; the quality of teaching in higher education; implementing the Bologna Process, especially in the context of the comparability of qualifications held by graduates from different universities and different countries; and changes in the missions and teaching processes of universities. Although this article refers to Polish higher education in general, it also offers some vital conclusions for teacher education programmes more widely, including preparing future teachers to be researchers, critical thinkers, and innovators.

The second paper is entitled 'Sharing practice in an International Context – a Critique of the Benefits of International Exchanges for Trainee Teachers' and has been written by Emma Whewell, Anna Cox and Kerstin Theinert (UK and Germany). They examine the role of international exchanges in preparing teachers to facilitate diverse classrooms by reporting study findings regarding 41 trainee teachers involved in exchange programmes offered at two institutions: the University of Northampton and the Pedagogical University of Weingarten. The results of their study have revealed that international exchanges are highly beneficial for trainee teachers in terms of both developing skills specific to teaching (in particular language teaching) and increasing awareness of non-teaching specific skills, such as problem solving and intercultural sensitivity. Therefore, naturally, the chapter concludes that a well-planned and strategic programme of events allows trainee teachers to develop soft skills and, in the case of teacher education, teaching- and learning-specific skills that will support them in becoming more adaptable and resourceful teachers.

The third paper, 'Initial Teacher Education in Hungary: Issues, Policies, Practices', written by Magdolna Chrappán, Erika Kopp and Csilla Pesti (Hungary), addresses some substantial changes which have taken place over the past two decades in initial teacher education in their country: the two-cycle, Bologna-type system was introduced in 2006, but a few years later, in 2013, it was restored to the 'undivided' system. In accordance with international trends along with national

processes and developments, these reforms – as highlighted by the authors – have resulted in the appearance of some new elements in teacher education, such as the mentoring system and the use of portfolios, while some other, longer established components (e.g. the pillar of practice schools) have gained even more importance. The authors summarise and reflect on these changes and elements of initial teacher education through a critical lens, focusing on teacher preparation for lower and upper secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3), and revealing both the challenges and the progressive elements. The paper ends with a powerful but optimistic call to improve teacher education in Hungary through close co-operation between different stakeholders: university authorities, education policy makers, and teachers themselves.

In a similar vein, the fourth paper, 'The Project of the Research Master's Degree Program in the Education Sphere', written by Alexandre Bermous (Russia), focuses on some successes and challenges in implementing master's degree programmes in one Russian university. Although these issues are explored in the socio-educational context of Russia in recent decades, the paper offers a very interesting suggestion regarding how to develop and implement master's programmes effectively that can be applied and used in other countries. This vision depends on the creation of multi--level networks: at the level of individual courses (i.e. a system of digital resources and communications between participants and partners); at the university level (i.e. partnerships between faculties and departments in the process of developing and implementing training programmes); and on a global level (i.e. inviting visiting professors from other countries and pro-actively involving undergraduates in remote communications).

The fifth paper, 'Measuring Instructor Self-Efficacy when Migrating Face-to-Face Courses Online' written by Yanyue Yuan and Jace Hargis (China), reports survey-based study findings, with the aim of capturing their immediate and initial perceptions from migrating their teaching online, before identifying potential instructional and support needs. The study reveals that instructors reported initial high confidence levels in migrating their teaching courses and work online. However, they were also aware of the challenges posed by such rapid migration, and their major concerns were around whether or not the technology would work; student engagement; and course redesign. In line with these findings, the authors recommend that universities provide all instructors with professional teaching support and resources to implement online and digital tools in their everyday teaching.

The sixth paper, 'Parents and Teachers' Involvement in Designing Educational Programmes within the Albanian Curricula of Pre-University Education; Their Perceptions in this Context', written by Manjola (Lumani) Zaçellari and Heliona Miço (Albania), focuses on collaboration between children and their parents and teachers in the context of the Albanian education system. It presents a qualitative study aimed at analysing the legislative measures and their implementation regarding

the participation of all three parties in creating educational programmes at a pre--university level – with the goal of greater involvement of each party in school life, as well as the children being able to thrive. From this paper, it is clear that although the participation of children, parents, and teachers in the Albanian education system has changed in recent years, there are many challenges in making this endeavour truly successful. For example, this study found that parents do not feel fully included in school life, or feel appreciated when they try to participate, even though the need for collaboration between family and school is legally enshrined. Despite the law, they neither take part in the approval of the school's curricula nor in the selection of school textbooks. Research has also shown that schools as bureaucratic and conservative institutions need to have clear, written policies in order to reach out to parents and children participating in drafting an education programme. Therefore, the authors suggest that more concentrated efforts are required for changing both the education laws and the mentality of parents and teachers, in order to allow effective collaboration between these essential stakeholders in the education process.

In the seventh paper, 'Openness or Prejudice?: Students' Attitudes to Refugees in Poland', Wioleta Danilewicz (Poland) looks at student teachers' and social workers' attitudes towards refugees in her country. Based upon survey data, the author explores three categories of respondents' attitudes towards refugees in Poland: 'positive', 'ambivalent', and 'negative'. Overall, the findings of this study reveal a very worrying trend – almost half of the participants (46%) demonstrated a negative position on accepting refugees into the country, indicating that they believe refugees possess a threat to both society as a whole and their own personal security. Therefore, this study concludes that teacher preparation and professional development are essential building blocks in developing more positive attitudes not only towards refugees, but also other minority social groups in Poland.

The final paper, 'Differing interpretations of Janusz Korczak's Legacy in Schools that take Inspiration from His Work: a Study in Four Schools in the UK and Canada', written by James Underwood, Quyen Van and Ying Zhao (UK and China), looks into how school leaders from the United Kingdom and Canada perceive the lasting impact of the ethos of the twentieth century Polish-Jewish, humanist educator and doctor: 'There are no children, there are people.' This paper, through in-depth analysis into four case studies of school leaders, found that, in each instance, Korczak's life and work were a great source of professional inspiration and, thus, they perceived him as a role model to both children and teachers. Other aspects of his influence focused on student voice, the breaking down of hierarchy, and the enabling of creativity. From this paper, it is clear that ideas developed by Korczak almost one century ago still serve as an inexhaustible source of inspiration for contemporary practitioners and teacher educators across the world.

Collectively, these papers offer different perspectives and approaches to issues and trends in contemporary teacher education in the CEE region and beyond.

We hope that this diversity of perspectives will help readers of the EEJTR to enjoy these insights, as well as to find some inspiration for their own research and teaching work. We also believe that the papers presented in this issue will encourage new contributors to make future submissions to the EEJTR – continuing our reflections on these (and other) critical issues that are so important for twenty-first century teacher education in CEE countries.

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We are terribly sorry to say that during our work on this issue MEP Krystyna Łybacka passed away. Her efforts were very instrumental to the organisation of the ATEE seminar at the European Parliament – her support and enthusiasm were a real asset to us. Krystyna was an extremely distinguished woman, experienced scholar and parliamentarian, an active figure on the Polish political scene, and a fierce advocate for democracy. She was always committed to helping those who needed her most - for her there was no-one unworthy of being treated with a sense of dignity and importance.

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Globalization and Higher Education: the Polish Perspective

Abstract. The impact of the process of globalization on higher education institutions and policies is profound, but also diverse, depending on the specific location on the global arena (Marginson & Van der Wende, 2007; Ball, 2012). This paper focuses on relations between globalization and higher education from the perspective of Poland. It analyses various concepts of globalization and economic and socio-cultural aspects of globalization that seem to considerably affect higher education institutions. Then, the major effects of globalization on higher education in Poland are discussed, and some implications for Polish higher education institutions are presented in order to help them better cope with rapid global changes and meet international standards.

Keywords: globalization, higher education, the effects of globalization, higher education in Poland

Introduction

The impact of the process of globalization on higher education institutions and policies is profound, but also diverse, depending on the specific location on the global arena (Marginson & van der Wende, 2007; Ball, 2012). This paper focuses on relations between globalization and higher education from the perspective of Poland. Polish higher education has changed dramatically since 1989 as a result of transition from the communist regime to democratic governance (Antonowicz, 2012; Kwiek, 2014). As Kwiek (2014) indicates a wide range of reforms have been implemented

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by new governments leading to regaining institutional autonomy and academic freedom, shared governance, emergent public-private duality, new competitive research funding and fee regimes. Clearly, as a result of intensive reforms, Polish universities were given more autonomy and more funding. However, as some authors point out (Kwiek 2014, 2016; Antonowicz, 2015), changes in the Polish higher education sector are not only linked to intensive governmental reforms, but they are also strongly influenced by global pressures. Globalization has a multi--faceted impact on the functions of higher education institutions. These include preparing highly skilled professionals in different fields, including the teaching profession. Meeting the changing educational aspirations of societies and the needs of a knowledge-based economy requires a new quality in teacher education. Indeed, as Stewart points out "the overall quality of a school system rests on the quality of its teachers, and the quality of teachers depends on the systems in place to support them" (2012, p. 87). Therefore, the standards for teachers' qualifications as well as content and forms of teacher education programs are widely discussed in many countries across the world (Whitty & Furlong, 2017).

The article begins by reviewing various concepts of globalization and economic and socio-cultural aspects of globalization that seem to considerably affect higher education institutions. Then, the major effects of globalization on higher education in Poland are discussed, and some implications are presented for Polish higher education institutions in order to better cope with rapid global changes and meet international standards.

What is Globalization?

Globalization has become one of the key and most frequently used concepts in the humanities and social sciences since the 1990s (Beck, 2000; Scholte, 2005). Although this term is widely used in political and academic debates and in daily life, there is no consensus about its meaning (James & Steger, 2014). This term covers a lot of issues related to economic, political, social, legal, or cultural areas. Some authors have even stressed that the term 'globalization' had been used in such various senses and meanings that "it sometimes seems possible to pronounce virtually anything on the subject" (Scholte, 1997, as cited in Beerkens, 2003). Beerkens (2003) illustrated this situation with the metaphor of "globalization container", which includes the maze of different perspectives, approaches and definitions of this process. For example, in popular discourse, globalization is mainly referred to the fact that people, cultures, communities, and economies around the world are becoming increasingly interconnected. In academic discourse, there is also a wide range of conceptualizations of this term (Sklair, 1999; Beerkens, 2003). For example, according to Giddens (1990, p. 64), globalization is "the intensification of worldwide

social relations which link distant localities in such way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa". Other authors such as Carnoy, Castells and Cohen (1993) or Cox (1994) pointed out that globalization refers, in general, to investment, production, management, markets, labour, information, and technology organized across national borders. Globalization is also conceptualized as a "widening, deepening, and speeding up of interconnectedness in all aspects of contemporary life, from the cultural, to the criminal, the financial to the spiritual." (Held, et al., 1999, p. 2). Although many authors have defined globalization somewhat differently, there is a consensus that globalization has profound effects on social, cultural and political areas and the established institutions or ideas such as nation, state, democracy, power, law, culture, language, and – what is important from the perspective of this article – higher education (Robotycki, 2008). As Morrow and Torres (2000, as cited in Antonowicz, 2012, p. 91) noted, "perhaps no place has been more subject to these processes of internationalization and globalization than university."

The process of globalization is characterized by the increasing importance of capital represented by changing social values, global values, or individual wealth. In this meaning, capital is not only financial, but it also includes intellectual capital, fundamental for the knowledge society, whose utilization is facilitated by global information technology (Jarvis, 2007). The resource base of great world sectors is changing from ownership to control, from material riches to economic and intellectual capital. The world economy and social powers are taking the place of nation and local community, which changes economic positions of individual countries and their economies, as well as the essence of social interactions and structures. In addition, the requirements related to education and educational system are also changing (McNair, 2001). Multilateral connections beyond the borders of national states and communities are advancing in today's world, resulting in considerable development of international and non-governmental organizations or global solidarity movements (e.g. Beck, 2000). Globalization is also associated with cultural and ideological uniformity: Americanization of the world (e.g. Deem, 2001). In the political sphere, globalization is mostly connected with popularizing neo--liberal social and educational policies in different countries (e.g. Potulicka, 2010). The ideas of neo-liberalism refer to values such as freedom, effectiveness, efficiency, free competition, entrepreneurship and individualism, as well as their political applications in market ideology (Ball, 1998). As Levin (2001, as cited in Lee, 2004, p. 5) points out, "with emphasis upon international competitiveness, economic globalization is viewed as moving postsecondary institutions into a business--like orientation, with its attendant behaviors of efficiency and productivity". The roles and tasks of university are described and analysed using the following terms: entrepreneurial university, academic capitalism, and McDonaldization of higher education (Potulicka, 2010). Students are referred to in terms of clients, entering

the university means access, and the curriculum is governed by the market, which determines the course of education and options for students to choose. In the following section, we refer to the aspects of globalization which according to some authors (Kwiek, 2014; Varghese, 2013) seem to have had the most significant impact on higher education: the growing importance of knowledge in economy and development of modern technologies, and the transformations in employment and the labour market.

The Impact of Economic and Socio-Cultural Aspects of the Globalization Process on Higher Education

The Growing Importance of Knowledge Economy and Technological Development

The depletion of natural resources and energy, which are the basic factors of economic growth for the world economy, was increasingly pointed out in the second half of the twentieth century. Thus, it was necessary to look for other, non--material factors ensuring the growth of national income. The energy and fuel crisis observable in the world economy in the 1970s accelerated and intensified that search. This resulted in the fundamental increase in the importance of knowledge, including economic knowledge. This source of economic growth is renewable and unlimited. Slowly, transformations in the industrial society occurred, causing changes in the ways of production and the structure of labour and employment. Knowledge became a strategic resource and change-motivating factor, just like natural resources and energy had been before. The knowledge-based economy replaced the industrial economy, in the same way the industrial economy had replaced the agricultural economy in the past. Nowadays, higher economic value is generated by the trade of knowledge than manufactured goods (McNair, 2001). Knowledge is a kind of currency, determining the affluence of nations (Duderstadt, 1999).

A very important factor causing the growing importance of knowledge in economy was technological changes in the twentieth century. Information and communication technologies, which greatly increased the speed and range of communication and allowed the unprecedented creation of information, have had very significant social, economic and educational effects. In industrial economy, there was also a shortage of information, and the access to information ensured power and strength. Currently, information is generated constantly and is widely available. The most important effect of the technological change was the reduced number of jobs that require low qualifications and the growing number of highly qualified ones. The core of it was to eliminate routine and repeatable tasks, which made work more productive. Another significant change was in what makes a product valuable. In industrial economy, the highest expenditure was on materials and labour. In

knowledge-based economy, computers are a typical product. However, it should be noted that physical resources and direct labour required for the construction of a computer are unimportant in comparison to long hours of labour devoted to the design of the computer, software and protection (McNair, 2001).

In the economics of industry, the intellectual effort of a small minority of managers was used, with the majority regarded as mere "hands" with no brain. Economic knowledge has no tasks for the "hands", so those excluded from knowledge mean a waste and threat for the company. The implication for the economy and individuals is that everybody needs better education, providing the poorest educated ones with economic knowledge and enhancing that knowledge all the time (McNair, 2001).

Transformations in Employment and the Labour Market

Since the 1990s, problems with employment have been growing along with quick economic transformations. Considerable attention was paid to the proposed solutions to the problems, which was reflected in documents and reports prepared by the World Bank, OECD, UNESCO etc. They specified the following tasks for countries: stable macroeconomic policy, investing in the basic social services and infrastructure, or protecting the weakest ones and the environment. Moreover, as a result of development of educational market, the number of highly educated individuals was growing, but also more and more people were looking for a job. These problems intensified due to the world financial crisis of 2007. Although the current problems of employment are complex, depending on the speed and range of economic and social transformations resulting in changes in the structure of employment, the current labour market context involves changes in the organization of economic projects, an increase in part-time and seasonal employment, greater mobility of employees, the disappearance of "lifelong employment", strong pressure to improve the quality of employees' qualification, a gap between the supply of and demand for skills and competencies, the reduction of jobs that involve routine actions and low qualifications and the increase of jobs that require high qualifications, the greater need of reskilling and changing the profession several times in a lifetime and continuing education, as well as the greater importance of self-employment (OECD, 2012). Employers, young people looking for jobs and those who have already experienced the instability of the labour market currently face such complex conditions. Of fundamental importance for all of them are the skills, qualifications and competencies that are needed in the current employment context; actually, they are becoming the global currency of the twenty-first century (OECD, 2012). This is also expected from higher education system and universities (see e.g. Hansen, 2008). In 2005, a study was carried out concerning e.g., the usefulness and usability of university curricula for the professional career (Allen & van der Velden, 2007, as cited in Støren & Aamodt, 2010). This study encompassed 36,000 working graduates

in 13 European countries. The study findings showed that more than half (51%) of Norwegian graduates rated their university curricula very highly, whereas only 30% of Austrian, French and Swiss respondents and 20–25% graduates of higher education institutions from the Netherlands, Belgium, Great Britain, Italy, Spain and Germany assessed them that way. 10–12% graduates from Italy, Great Britain, Spain and France gave them very low ratings. Besides, among the respondents who rated their university curricula very highly, the highest number of Norwegian graduates (over 32%) regarded them as useful for further learning at the workplace, compared to only about 20% of graduates from the other countries. Similar results were obtained in the case of assessing the usefulness of curricula for carrying out current tasks at work and for finding a job and future career (Allen & van der Velden, 2007, as cited in Støren & Aamodt, 2010).

Presently, most universities and higher education institutions engage in activities aimed to improve the graduates' ability to enter the labour market through the development of "core competencies/skills", "transferable competencies/skills", or "graduates' qualities" (Brew, 2010). Such activities are necessary, because unfortunately there is still a gap between the needs of employers and continuing education and what universities offer (Kocór, Strzebońska & Keler, 2012). Hence, the criteria of effective education at universities must evolve in order to always reflect the contexts in which education and learning take place (Devlina & Samarawickrema, 2010).

The Effects of Globalization on Higher Education from the Polish Perspective

As I mentioned, globalization significantly influences the higher education sector. Hence, in this section I report some effects of globalization on higher education system in Poland. Particularly, I pay special attention to the following effects: (a) the development of education market and mass education, (b) financing higher education, (c) the quality of teaching in higher education, (d) implementing the Bologna Process, especially in the context of comparability of qualifications of graduates from different universities and countries, (e) changes in the mission of university and (f) the teaching process. The presentation of these effects is organized in the following way: first, we provide some consideration links to the international context; then, I turn to considering what happens in Polish higher education reality.

(a) The Development of Education Market and Mass Education

In the 1960s, in response to the needs and growing educational ambitions of the society, a non-academic and non-state sector of education and the related educational market emerged in many countries. However, the limitation of state resources for

education began at the same time. Despite that, in the 1990s, the number of students in developed countries increased on average over 40%. For example, in Sweden and New Zealand the growth in the number of students exceeded 41%, in Ireland it was over 51%, and in England even over 81% (Schuetze & Slowey, 2000, p. 3). The increase in the student body also occurred in the following years: in Australia from approximately 700 thousand in the year 2000 up to over 1.1 million in 2009 (Shah, et al., 2011).

Furthermore, the authorities of many countries intend to increase the proportion of young people in higher education, including foreign students. The Australian government has decided to increase before the year 2020 the number of students up to 40% of the population aged 25–34 (first-cycle qualifications or higher) (Shah, et al., 2011). In Great Britain it is expected that before the year 2020 the number of students will grow to 50% of the population aged 18–30, and the pace of growth in poorer groups will increase (Shah, et al., 2011). The authorities of Ireland have even more ambitious plans, as they attempt to achieve before the year 2020 a 72% proportion of students among the 17–19 population, plus higher enrolment of people from poorer social groups (HEA, 2010).

In Poland the legal regulations introduced after 1989 allowed the formation of a non-state sector of education, including higher schools, which provided greater access to education at this level but involved fees. Non-public higher schools were established in many regions of Poland, and associations, organizations or individuals were the legal entities. This way, the educational market began to develop. The population of students grew and became more diverse. Over the last two decades, the number of students grew a lot in Poland, and the 1995–2000 period was referred to as the educational boom. The net enrolment ratio, the proportion of students aged 19–24 in 1990 was 9.8%, in 1995 it reached 17.2%, in 2000, 30.6%, in 2005 it grew to 38%, in 2010, 40.8%, in 2011, 40.6%, in 2015, 37.8%, in 2017, 36.2%, and in 2018, 35.5% (GUS, 1990; GUS, 2019). Thus, recently the proportion of students has been slightly decreasing, and in 2018 there were 19 general universities, 41 specialist universities, 34 state higher schools and 267 non-public higher schools (MDHE, 2018). On the other hand, the increase in the number of students was not accompanied by proportional increase in the number of academic teachers (GUS, 2010; GUS, 2015). As we can see from the presented data, in the first decades of this century, in Poland higher education – which used to be the domain of a small part of population, the elite – transformed into a mass system, which entailed a problem with financing.

(b) Financing Higher Education

In recent decades, public funds for higher education have been limited, while the number of students and costs of education and research have been growing. This tendency does not only occur in countries with relatively low domestic product but

also in the wealthiest ones. Market mechanisms have been introduced into higher education in multiple countries, because governments have been looking for a way to increase the number of students without increasing public expenditure or increasing it only a little. In the USA between 1998 and 2008 the average cost of education (fees plus sustenance) grew by 211% in private universities and by 230% in public ones; fees in private universities grew by 245% and in public ones, by 315%, which was the result of, not only inflation, but also limiting the public financing of education and transferring the costs to students and their parents (Johnstone, 2009). In 2010 and 2016, public expenditure on higher education in some European countries expressed as a percentage of GDP was as follows: in France, 1.1 and 1.3, in Spain 1.2 and 1.2, in Germany, 1.0 and 1.2, in Great Britain, 0.7 and 1.7, in Italy, 0.8 and 0.9, which means that the expenditure did not grow much in that period, and in some cases even decreased (GUS, 2019). In Australia the government limited public financing of higher schools from 77% of their income in 1989 to as little as 44% in 2009 (Shah, et al., 2011). Therefore, in many European countries, Australia, the USA and other developing countries the costs of education were transferred to students and their families, among others through allowing the contracting of loans (e.g., Opheim, 2005; Harding, 2011). In response to decreasing state financing, many universities and other higher schools are looking for income from other sources.

Regarding the Polish situation, in 2002, public expenditure on higher education expressed as a percentage of GDP was 0.85 and in the following years it grew very little (up to 0.93 in 2007) (GUS, 2002, 2007). Since 2007, however, the expenditure on higher education has been decreasing, and in 2015, it was only 0.72, in 2016 – 0.70, in 2017 – 0.68, but in 2018 – 0.76 (GUS, 2019). Hence, many schools and universities have to look for extra income from other sources.

(c) The Quality of Teaching in Higher Education

Limitations in public financing of higher education, accompanied by the necessity to meet changing social and individual educational needs, were the source of tensions and problems in academic didactics and legitimate discussions about the achieved quality of education. The development of the education market, the mass character of education, problems in the labour market and the resultant implications are significant factors that currently determine the quality of education in higher schools all over the world (e.g., European Commission, 2013; Rachoń, 2013). It should be noted that mass education and financial problems of universities directly affect the work of an academic teacher. As some authors suggest (e.g., Jauhiainen, et al., 2009; Melosik, 2009; Sawczuk, 2009; Brew, 2010), they lead to overloading academic teachers with didactic responsibilities, the need to conduct lectures and classes with numerous groups, lowering the standards required in the educational process, or conflict between the values preferred in higher education and educational practice. In addition, the achieved quality of education is partly dependent on

students' attitude to the studies and on external determinants: secondary schools fail to prepare students for university, and the lenient selection or lack of selection at the recruitment stage may lead to lower intellectual level of candidates for students (e.g., Potulicka, 2010; Keane, 2011), limited students' activity and autonomy, insufficient internal motivation to study, instrumental attitude to the studies, looking for diplomas instead of knowledge, using unethical ways of getting credits or writing diploma works (e.g., Jauhiainen, et al., 2009; Marciniak, 2013), and potential problems with finding employment in the difficult labour market.

To summarise, teaching in higher education is associated with a number of tensions, dilemmas and problems. Some of them may be less important in the context of the decreasing number of students in the recent years, but it only happen if university authorities form smaller groups for lectures and classes instead of looking for savings in the field of academic teaching. It should be noted that the reduction of the number of students in classes in order to raise the quality of teaching is the main aim of currently implemented reform in Polish higher education sector (MSHE, 2016).

(d) The Bologna Process and Comparability of Graduates' Qualifications

The globalizing world, possible mobility and information revolution have internationalized the educational and labour markets, but at the same time, problems with the quality of qualifications acquired by graduates of different universities and countries have intensified. Therefore, in 1999, the Bologna Process began in order to make education systems of European countries more alike. It involved comparable diplomas, the credit-based system of comparing students' performance (ECTS), the three-cycle system of study, and supporting the mobility of students and teachers visiting other universities. In 2008, the *Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on the Establishment of the European Qualifications Framework for Lifelong Learning* was implemented. As a result, National Qualifications Framework for higher education and lifelong learning were introduced in all the states of the European Union and in many countries outside of the EU in order to ensure that their levels are similar to the European one.

In Poland, the National Qualifications Framework was introduced in the academic year 2012/2013, describing qualifications connected with each degree and the respective diploma/certificate in the language of education outcomes, defined in terms of knowledge, skills and social competencies, which should ensure the comparability of qualifications of graduates from different universities and countries and improve the relevance of the educational offer to the social needs and the labour market, requirements for education areas, and recommendations concerning the design of study curricula and classes based on education outcomes (Chmielecka, 2011). National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education was an integral part of Polish Qualifications Framework (PQF) and was consistently developed following

the same methodology (Chłoń-Domińczak, et al., 2016). The basic element of the new qualifications system is Polish Qualifications Framework, consisting of eight levels just like European Qualifications Framework (EQF). Each level is described using the education outcomes confirmed by the qualification at that level. PQF includes education outcomes obtained in formal education but also elsewhere. It also enables the comparability of qualifications of graduates from different universities and countries, and better adjusts the educational offer of universities to the social needs and the labour market (Chłoń-Domińczak et al., 2016).

(e) Changes in the Mission of University

For hundreds of years, different concepts of the university clashed, which resulted in the formation of the model of the liberal university, of various varieties, for which in the nineteenth century the ideas of the university were particularly significant according to the concepts of W. Humboldt, J.H. Newman, and others in the twentieth century. The mission of the university according to W. Humboldt's concept was defined by its constitutive features: unity of scientific research and education, professors combining the role of teacher with the function of a researcher, freedom of science – research and lectures, practicing pure and selfless science (Wołoszyn, 1964). This concept is broadened by the views of J.H. Newman from the mid-nineteenth century, who perceived the university's tasks, among others: in teaching universal, philosophical and humanistic knowledge, in developing intellectual culture and reflection, in freedom of research, and in proclaiming truth (Newman, 1990).

The effects of globalization and neo-liberal policy at the turn of the century led to changes in the mission and functions of university, especially in Europe and North America (Scott 2006). From a socio-cultural institution whose main function was to form persons and citizens cultivating the "mind and soul" it is being transformed into an institution that provides instrumental knowledge and gives an opportunity to acquire professional skills. The main mission of contemporary university is to educate well-informed, efficient and qualified employees needed by the competitive market of the world economy. The concept of university education is changing. In the past, its main component was the English and American concept of "liberal education/culture", German *Bildung und Wissenschaft*, French *culture* or Greek *paideia*. Nowadays, its key components are increasingly "instrumental rationality" (Kazamias, 2001, p. 11), and the modern university is more and more market-driven (e.g., Duderstadt, 1999). Instead of a community, it is becoming an enterprise (Malewski, 2008).

The neo-liberal model of university as an enterprise seems to prevail in current academic reality in Poland (Potulicka, 2010). Higher schools are perceived as profitable enterprises that should generate income (Bates & Godoń, 2017). Hence, the hybrid model of university education based on market rationality seems to be

dominant (Malewski, 2008). Education, research and diplomas are a commodity for which there is demand; the university is a factory manufacturing diplomas, and students are the consumers (e.g., Denek, 2011; Tomlinson, 2016; Bates & Godoń, 2017). Therefore, there is growing concern about the lasting values of university, maintaining its identity, the quality of carrying out its traditional mission and function: doing research and providing general education. On the other hand, it is also demanded that universities should display greater responsibility and sensitivity to the current needs and social expectations (e.g., Krajewska, 2004, 2012). As a result, universities in many countries, including Poland, have begun to adjust their educational activity to various needs and expectations of students, employers and other people or institutions interested in the results of their work; they concentrate on applied sciences instead of basic research and on practical education. A report prepared by the International Association of University Presidents (2000) showed that the mission of the university should reflect global trends as well as the needs and expectations of different groups of local stakeholders.

That is why recently in Poland universities have displayed greater activity in terms of meeting social needs, making research results and knowledge acquired at universities available for the external world, local, national and international collaboration, highlighting innovation, ensuring the whole society the opportunity of lifelong learning, promoting graduates equipped with versatile knowledge, skills and competencies relevant to the labour market and requirements of knowledge-based economy, and engaging in activities oriented at raising the quality of education.

(f) Changes in the Teaching Process in Higher Education Institutions

At the turn of the century, the presented changes in different spheres of life of the society led to transformations in educational philosophy, theory and practice, in the system of education reflecting new social needs and expectations related to higher education. The introduction of National Qualifications Framework in Poland created the need to modify educational programmes whose important element was to determine the objectives of education for each subject, and thus, certain states to be achieved. As a result of the changes, teachers define education outcomes, i.e., what students should know, understand and/or demonstrate after the completion of the educational process. Education outcomes should be expressed as active verbs relevant to the knowledge, skills and social competencies, and they should be achievable, measurable, and verifiable (Kraśniewski, 2011). The determination and ways of verification of education outcomes still engender discussions in academia, especially that the current number of students still is not ideal to use such opportunities.

Changes in the university curricula are another consequence of globalization . There is clear emphasis on the need of integrating theory and practice, knowledge connected with practical activity. As the concept of learning through action was

being developed, learning through practice also attracted more and more attention. There were clear tendencies to apply module education, in which students are more and more often provided with curricula of subjects or cycles of classes to choose from as they wish. At the same time, the need to better match graduates' competencies with the needs of the labour market requires universities to collaborate more than before in preparing the educational offer with external stakeholders. It is suggested I should raise the opportunities for individualized education, depart from thinking in "one model for all" categories, and if possible, adjust a university's offerings to the needs of an individual recipient (student), not adjust the student to the unified model of a specific form of education (Kraśniewski, 2009).

For many years of the previous century, the behaviourist theory was commonly approved in the theory of learning; the process of education was teacher-oriented. In recent decades, however, other theories of learning have begun to develop: concepts of humanistic psychology, cognitive psychology, including cognitive and socio-cultural constructivism; the process of teaching and learning was increasingly concentrated on the learning individual, motivating their activity, autonomy, responsibility, with the support and collaboration of the teacher through the relationships of cooperation or dialogue (e.g. Ledzińska & Czerniawska, 2011; Krajewska, 2016). Furthermore, the development of modern information and communication technologies and services offered as part of them allowed greater flexibility and innovativeness in education and learning through overcoming barriers connected with the distance and choice of time of study, ensuring new possibilities for individuals and groups, and facilitating interaction with other students and teachers, such as discussion groups, voice mail, video conferences etc. (e.g. Juszczyk, 2010).

Concluding Remarks

In this paper, I attempted to present the main effects of globalization on higher education from the Polish perspective. Although it may not be possible to give a comprehensive picture of globalization regarding its impacts on higher education in Poland, the globalization effects discussed in this article should draw our attention to some important implications for higher education institutions.

As I tried to emphasize, the process of globalization and various social, political and cultural changes related to it have initiated many positive changes, not only in the organization and structure of Polish higher education but also in the thinking about the role of higher education in the society. In recent years, numerous changes have been initiated in teacher education programs, in order to better respond to the needs of a changing society. A greater emphasis is paid to preparing future teachers to be researchers and critical thinkers (Kowalczuk-Walędziak, et al., 2019; Papastephanou, et al., 2019), implementers of educational innovations and working

with immigrant children (Ellis, et al., 2019). It must be stressed, yet, that although changes in the higher education system create a new quality of education, the speed of introducing them into academic practice may not be satisfying and there are some problems with implementing some of the changes.

Hence, to be effective in the global world, Polish higher education institutions still need to make increasing effort to be better prepared for global changes. In particular, according to Kwiek (2014), in the situation generated by the emergence of the global market, global economy, and the withdrawal of the state (also called the decomposition of the welfare state), constant deliberation is needed about new relations between the state and the university in the global age.

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Sharing Practice in an International Context – a Critique of the Benefits of International Exchanges for Trainee Teachers

Abstract. This reflective article is based on the experiences of two years of teacher training students from the University of Northampton and the Pedagogical University of Weingarten. This article looks more closely at the benefits that international exchange experiences have afforded the trainee teachers involved and how challenges to the process have been addressed. This reflection reveals the value of international exchanges in challenging perceptions and assumptions and how the thinking of the trainee teachers changed following the exchange. This study employs a qualitative approach drawing upon the reflections and experiences of the participants through written and spoken data. The findings reveal trainee teachers developed skills specific to teaching and in particular teaching languages, and they also demonstrated an increased awareness of non teaching specific skills such as problem solving and intercultural sensitivity. The reflections offer insight into how trainee teachers, use, interpret and subsequently act upon the experiences offered in an international exchange.

Keywords: teacher education, professional development, international exchange, intercultural competence

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Introduction

International exchange programmes are not new to Higher Education or to Teacher Education, and it is well recognised that programmes like these offer many advantages and skills to the individuals involved and the host institutions. They provide a notable contribution to the internationalisation agenda of higher education institutes (HEIs) as well as the opportunities afforded to the individuals involved in terms of 'personal development, foreign language proficiency and intercultural sensitivity' (Leutwyler & Meierhans, 2016). However, there has been a notable drop in the range and type of international experience available in teacher education (Cruickshank & Westbrook, 2013). In addition, many teachers comment that they feel ill prepared for a multicultural classroom (Walters, et al., 2009). With an increasing need for teachers to function effectively in a globalised society it is valuable to consider the role of international exchanges in preparing teachers to teach in a diverse environment which includes schools themselves and a teaching profession with increased opportunities for international careers (Cruickshank & Westbrook, 2013). The contemporary free market economy alongside the ever--increasing ease of travel offers teachers the opportunity to move between countries and curriculums with relative ease. This combined with an acknowledged global teacher shortage sees the need for teacher education to consider that global travel in teaching is a viable option for their students.

Staff in both the institutions that contributed to this study value and promote wide cultural understanding among the teachers we train; both institutions offer an exchange programme as an enhancement to their estblished programmes and offer partial funding to the students to increase opportunity and participation. The international exchange programme is one of the ways that both institutions promote intercultural sensitivity and confidence of the student teachers. Currently, the diversity of the school population is increasing in both Germany and England. In 2017 the school population was a total of 8.67 million pupils across all phases of education in England. This figure has increased every year since 2009. There are now 577,000 more pupils in schools than at that time. In primary schools in England, 32.1% of pupils of compulsory school age children are from minority ethnic origins. In English secondary schools, 29.1% of pupils are from minority ethnic origins (DfE, 2017). According to the microcensus in 2014, 31% of 6 to under 20-year-old students living in Germany had a migration background and around 8% had foreign citizenship. In 2014/2015, almost 613,000 foreign students were enrolled in general education schools in Germany, which corresponds to a 7% share of all pupils. The proportion of non-German pupils in primary education was 7% and in lower secondary education 8% (cf. Statistisches Bundesamt Wiesbaden, 2016, p. 19). The diversity of learners in primary and secondary education includes students from racially, ethnically, culturally, and linguistically diverse families and communities.

The situation in England and Germany demonstrates the diverse, multi ethnic and multicultural environment in which many teachers work every day. The importance of intercultural understanding and awareness for developing teachers is therefore a priority in English and German ITE (DfE, 2012). Furthermore, school and recent language curricula demand a stronger network of education and foreign languages (EU, 2001, p. 5). Moreover, heterogeneous classrooms in respect to their different cultural and linguistic backgrounds are a significant challenge for teachers in primary and secondary schools. Inclusion was enshrined in Baden-Württemberg in the Education Act in 2015 (Ministerium für Kultus, Jugend und Sport 2016a, p. 5). As a result, students have to be prepared and trained for these challenges as largely the trainee teachers involved come from 'a monocultural white middle class background' (Uusimaki & Swirski, 2016).

The University of Northampton first had contact with the Pedagogical University of Weingarten through a senior lecturer networking at an international conference. This relationship was expanded and the initial teacher educators in each institution communicated with each other in order to organise the opportunity for collaboration. A preliminary visit by staff from Northampton to Weingarten in 2015 strengthened the relationship and visits from students in each institution to the other were planned and took place. Early visits focused on learning about one another's culture and educational systems, supplemented with visits to schools. This later aspect has come to take a dominant place in the programmes with the visiting students teaching in the host country's schools. The early aims of cross cultural exchange remain important but the emphasis on teaching and learning in the school context has risen year after year.

The aims of this program were four-fold:

1. To strengthen the skills of the students in teaching in a foreign setting
2. To provide students with the opportunity to engage with another culture in a professional and personal context
3. To experience the teaching and learning approaches of both higher education and primary education in the respective host countries
4. To reflect upon these experiences as it pertains to their personal and professional development.

The past 3 years of the exchange have seen a settled team in both institutions involved and this has allowed a significant professional relationship to develop. This has been expanded through the sharing of taught sessions in both institutions during visits and through extensive professional dialogue between the staff involved. Careful planning and delivery has allowed the exchange programmes to be engineered to expose the students to a range of situations designed to offer them opportunities to experience the host country's teaching, learning and educational systems as well as social and cultural activities designed to encourage the students to reflect on the

exchange. This paper offers a critique of the outcomes and challenges of two years of the programme from the perception of the student participants who are all pre service teachers training in primary or secondary education in their respective institutions.

Review of Literature

International experiences have much to offer in terms of both teaching skills, pedagogical skills, intercultural sensitivity (Cruickshank & Westbrook, 2013) and an awareness of global citizenship (Uusimaki & Swirski, 2016) by offering the student teachers the chance to engage with the host countries' schools, staff and curriculums. They are also able to immerse themselves in the educational and cultural life of another country for a short period of time. The exposure to a different and potentially multicultural and diverse environment is increasingly important as population demographics have greatly changed with the movement of migrant families, refugees and asylum seekers. The student teachers taking part in international exchanges are able to experience differences and challenges at a cultural, economic and geographic level. It is the responsibility of initial teacher education (ITE) to offer opportunities to develop those skills necessary for training a global workforce and to 'challenge values, attitudes and practices… and develop socially just dispositions in beginning teachers' (Mills, 2008).

Not only do international educational exchanges challenge the values, attitudes and beliefs of the participants, they allow participants the opportunity to develop skills that are transferable to their home environment such as tolerance, empathy and criticality of their own teaching approach (Cruickshank & Westbrook, 2013). Barkhuizen & Feryok (2006) discuss the opportunities that international practicum can have and report both sociocultural and educational gains such as coping strategies, attitudinal changes and enhanced professional understanding. These however are not teaching specific skills, and consideration must be given to the desired outcomes both personally and professionally. It is important to note that without a thoughtful structure it cannot be assumed that any of these gains will happen during an exchange (Leutwyler & Meierhans, 2016) and simply being in a foreign context is not enough. Walters et al. (2009) discuss the feeling of 'multicultural apathy' where many trainee teachers are not interested enough in the global society. International exchanges are not without their risks; they can serve to reinforce stereotypes about the host country, its inhabitants and its schooling systems. Location is a key factor in a successful exchange offering the right mix of challenge and support for the trainees.

Whilst international exchanges offer the potential to develop cultural awareness and sensitivity they may not be effective in developing other reflective traits. Uusimaki and Swirski (2016) propose that without effective reflective practices only a surface level awareness is developed, and more meaningful changes to values

and beliefs such as a socially just disposition are not as easily made. Designing an effective cross international exchange that appreciates both soft skills and profession specific skills is challenging and requires opportunities for regular reflection on the experience and discussions on feelings, observations and misconceptions. This allows the participants to question their values and beliefs through critical reflection and begin to build a sense of personal responsibility, empowerment and cultural confidence (Walters et al, 2009).

A lack of exposure to and experience with working with families of different cultural backgrounds is a challenge for trainee teachers. International exchanges can offer opportunities for trainee teachers to experience a variety of ways in which family culture, background and community can influence classroom practice. Without this the trainee teachers may be at risk of misinterpreting this in their settings; not to say that exchanges will make all trainees culturally confident, but it offers them a chance to view children and families through a different lens and appreciate the impact of home and community on the children. Leutwyler and Meierhans (2016, pp. 118–119) propose that international exchanges can challenge trainees to consider what it means to be the 'white normative race', how this relates to their teaching of minority ethnic groups and begin to question their own practices and 'peculiarities in their own systems'. Walters et al., (2009, S. 152) suggest that international practicum offers trainees the chance to 'learn to embed flexibility and cultural responsibility'. Their study revealed an increase in other traits such as adaptability, resourcefulness and persistence.

Fung King Lee (2011, p. 17) discusses the teaching specific benefits of exchange programs and suggests that those who had participated had 'new teaching ideas, skills, strategies and knowledge' and could reflect upon links between theory and practice and differences in the educational systems and aims of the two countries. This demonstrates an openness and receptiveness to diversity which can allow an appreciation of the best that different approaches to education can offer. Many trainee teachers who participate in international exchanges would rate themselves as more globally minded than their colleagues (Walters et al, 2009) and were more aware of globalisation. Fung King Lee (2011) found that trainees who participated in global exchanges 'think globally' and are able to bring a global dimension to their teaching. They demonstrated global awareness and were less likely to judge students in their care on linguistic and cultural diversity. Walters et al (2009, p. 154) describe the trainees who have experienced an international exchange as 'cultural brokers' who can 'go sensitively and gracefully into a new culture'. Cruickshank and Westbrook (2013) in their study maintain that trainees developed substantially in the 'domain of professional knowledge', their 'understanding of how children learn' and 'the range of learning styles'

Current Context in UK and Germany

When analysing teacher education in England and in Germany it has become clear that while systems of training differ in structural ways, there are similarities in the context in which newly trained teachers must operate. Trainee teachers are expected to gain both pedagogic skills and subject knowledge appropriate to the phase of education they will enter. These are aligned to a national set of benchmarked Teacher Standards (DfE, 2011) which set out the requirements of all trained and qualified teachers in maintained schools in England. As noted above England has experienced a shift in population, in addition the government requirement to teach and model 'British Values' (DfE, 2014) highlights the increasingly globalised expectations of teachers. Trainee teachers in England are required to complete a minimum of 120 days in schools appropriate to the age range they are training to teach although routes into teaching vary from undergraduate routes which offer a bachelor degree alongside qualified teacher status (QTS) to post graduate teacher training in the form of a Post Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE) that can be studied either at a university or in a school based training setting. Conversely, Teacher Education in Germany predominantly takes place in Universities of Education in the 16 federal states in Germany each of which has its own curriculum and teacher education expectations. This study is based upon teacher education in the state of Baden-Württemberg. There are six teacher education institutions in Baden-Württemberg, the only federal state that has Universities of Education, (in the other federal states, students go to universities). The Universities of Education were founded to strengthen teachers' profiles in educational, teaching and learning research; characterised by intensive activities in basic research focusing on educational science, and they also focus on practical orientation with theory-based reflection. Students complete a bachelor and master's degree at university where the first phase of their teacher training focuses upon educational and pedagogical theory. Following this, students do their "Referendariat" (teaching practice of 1.5 years, followed by a second exam) then they are a fully qualified teacher.

Regardless of the routes into teaching and the country in which the trainee teachers are studying they experience similar phenomenon of: an increasingly diverse student population, increasing demands upon their time and much more accountability of student achievement. This study allows the trainee teachers to share their reflections on their experiences of teacher training and to explore the similarities and differences of cultural, personal and professional opportunities in teaching.

Research Methodology

This study is grounded in the field of educational research and is located in the interpretive paradigm. The qualitative approach that was adopted for this study was based on constructivist principles including multiple meanings, socially and historically constructed data (Creswell, 2003, p. 18). Qualitative research methods were deemed to be most appropriate for a study of this type as 'the emphasis remains on meaning and processes which may not be rigorously examined [or] measured (if measured at all), in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency' (Noor, 2008, p. 1602). Qualitative research methods are aligned with processes and meaning (Atieno, 2009). This study is concerned with building data and is therefore inductive and descriptive (Atieno, 2009, p. 14). This allows the researchers to consider the deeper meaning behind the data by locating the research with the participants in a way that allows their views to be shared honestly and in a way that is truly reflective of the occurrences. It is common that in qualitative research 'data is usually collected in naturalistic settings' (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014 p. 361). Interpretivism is concerned with understanding the world as it is experienced by the participants, to try and understand the meaning behind the narratives and the way in which knowledge and experiences are socially constructed (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Participants' individual perspectives and subjective interpretations lend themselves to a method that values uniqueness and individuality; therefore, the study adopted a phenomenological approach Henry, Casserly, Coady and Marshall (2008) as its selected methodology (Flyvbjerg, 2006). This offered the study a methodological approach that would embrace the uniqueness of the participant's experiences and their subsequent interpretations (Henry et al, 2008) of 'what's it like for them'. The psychological situations, social circumstances and meanings attributed to these phenomena allow researchers to acknowledge the participants as individuals who react to, respond to and make decisions based upon the phenomenon in question (Bennett, et al., 2013.) Phenomenology can be viewed as '… the study of direct experience taken at face value…' (Cohen, et al., 2008, p. 22), this approach allows the researchers to analyse the data as a determinant of the occurring events, interpretations and reactions. The essence of human experiences is key to phenomenological research, and it can be a philosophy as well as a methodology (van Manen, 2014), it 'involves studying a small number of subjects… to develop patterns and relationships of meaning' (Creswell, 2003, p. 15).

Research Methods

This study used semi structured interviews to elicit the responses of the trainee teachers. This forum and discussion allows reflections and observations to be shared with the researchers in a way in which the researcher acts as a prompt whilst having

a set of standardised questions. The data has been collected over 2 years 2016–17 and 2017–18 of the international exchange programme with a total of 41 trainee teachers being involved and sharing their views. The transcripts of the interviews and answers to the questionnaires were analysed via qualitative content analysis, according to Mayring (2010). The video-recorded interviews were transcribed and prepared for content analysis. The deductive approach included all transcribed interviews. In a first step, the text passages were paraphrased; next, these paraphrases were then generalised to a level of abstraction and then reduced in two steps. The category system created in this way was then again checked for representativeness based on the source material (Bortz & Döring, 2015; Mayring & Gläser-Zikuda, 2008).

Results

The results are presented in categories and are also provided with selective descriptive examples and citations (Gibbs, 2011). The results can be assigned to the following categories: Intercultural Sensitivity and confidence; Transfer of Skills (teaching and learning) and Developing a socially just disposition.

For the purpose of this study the following definitions were adopted during analysis:

- Intercultural sensitivity and confidence: accepting cultural differences, adapting practice, reflecting on difference
- Transfer of skills (Teaching and Learning): intention to or examples of ways in which teaching and learning skills could be used in home settings
- Developing a socially just disposition: recognising difference, questioning difference, promoting global awareness

Intercultural Sensitivity and Confidence

Both the German and English trainee teachers developed their intercultural sensitivity by being immersed in the social and professional life of the country they were in. The programme design allows for both professional development as well as social and cultural experiences within the host country. All trainee teachers commented upon the similarities and differences to the settings that they were used to and how this might impact upon their future attitudes and practices. The trainee teachers fostered and enhanced cross-cultural skills; they gained intercultural awareness and competence as well. Furthermore, they experienced an insight into a different educational system and could thus compare similarities and differences between Germany and England.

Within their reflections we see the trainee teachers reflecting upon the similarities and differences between their cultural practices. They demonstrate an open attitude

to new experiences and cultural diversity (Fung King Lee, 2011) following the exchange.

> *I really liked to have such exchange programmes as it is nice to think about your own culture as well as the other one as well as your own and to compare similarities and differences. (German Student- exchange 2017)*

> *Intercultural competence is a big issue, and I really like to think about the differences in other cultures and in this exchange such as the school system is one of the most important things I have to think about. (German Student – exchange 2017)*

> *In terms of the culture I have never really been to Germany, so I didn't have an opinion on what the German school system is like and how the children are taught so that has been really interesting for me. (English Student – exchange 2017)*

The trainee teachers also reflected upon the differences in approach to teacher training and university life, appreciating the differences and similarities of the respective systems (Walters et al., 2009).

> *I learnt some differences in how to become a teacher in England and in Germany, the similarities and differences, and actually there were more differences than similarities. (German Student – exchange 2017)*

Much of the reflection focussed upon the educational practices in the host countries, the challenges of teaching in another country, not just on a practical level but in adapting to and adopting the practices seen. The comments reflect the trainee teachers thoughts on cultural responsiveness and embedding flexibility into their own practices.

> *"By visiting UK schools, we gained a better insight into the British school system as well as in their teaching philosophy. In the UK it is usual to have teaching assistants in every class who support the children's learning process. Moreover, the schools provide much more teaching and learning materials than in Germany. As we had the possibility to teach at UK schools, one became curious about teaching in a foreign country". (German student – exchange 2016)*

> *"We had the chance to gain an insight into a different system of education and we also had the chance to experience a normal day in a UK school regarding methods, social interaction, etc. Furthermore, having a comparison with a different school system allows you also to reflect critically on how we teach in Germany". "I was surprised by the*

fact, that two teachers were standing in the classroom and teaching the young ones. Moreover, I appreciated the opportunity to give a lesson about Germany, which was also enriching for the pupils I suppose". (German Student – exchange programme in 2017)

Moreover, the trainee teachers could develop an understanding of teacher training in both countries, strengthen the partnership between institutions and consequently develop long term relationships with students and the faculty. It is important to acknowledge that not all experiences and expectations were articulated (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006) however, of those the trainee teachers chose to discuss; there was overwhelmingly positivity towards their development of intercultural competence and sensitivity.

Transfer of Skills (Teaching and Learning)

The trainee teachers discussed their developing appreciation for a range of approaches to teaching and learning, particularly language learning. They also exhibited surprise and admiration for the emphasis placed upon learning foreign languages. They were surprised at the relatively open access afforded to German schools in comparison to the strict security arrangements in England. They also commented upon the relationships between staff and pupils as being much more mutually respectful. There were distinctly more references to the differences in how languages were taught in primary schools from the English trainee teachers, whereas the German trainee teachers focussed upon the differences in classroom practices and expectations. They discussed and compared similarities and differences of methods and approaches of teaching English and experienced how native speakers teach English.

It has been a great program, it has really developed me as a teacher working with children who might not have English as their first language... It has been a really useful tool to help me to adapt quickly and to plan proper structured lessons to allow these children to be included in the classroom. (English student- exchange 2017)

It is really nice that now you have been to Germany you know even more, and it is even easier to discuss and talk about things and get insight into how you do it. You will take some things home, and we will have a lot to think about what you are doing in England and it was really productive. (German student – exchange 2017)

Reflections also focussed upon the intention to alter practice and apply their experiences in their home context. This demonstrates the transfer of professional

skills between contexts and an openness to adopting alternative approaches to teaching and learning. Those trainee teachers who acknowledged a development in their teaching skills did so in relation to quite a specific set of skills. They did not discuss teaching per se, rather the skills needed to teach languages and EAL learners. This was very skills based rather than based on the wider consideration of the needs of language learners, for instance the learners personal and social needs when integrating into the system (Leutwyler & Meierhans, 2016).

> *We know how to teach, but we have only ever seen English schools, so it was completely different for me to see a primary school in Germany, especially the technology; they don't have the same types or as much technology, and I found that a surprise. (English student- exchange 2017)*

> *I have really enjoyed going into schools and seeing how they teach modern foreign languages here, and I have been able to magpie a few ideas that I will use in England when I go back; rather than just using words when teaching languages, they submerge them more by using full sentences. (English student- exchange 2017)*

> *The bilingual classes that we have seen have been very good with their languages; they use rhymes and stories to teach the content. This is something I will use more of in my teaching. (English student- exchange 2017)*

> *It's been really really good, I think for me personally I had not had any experience with EAL[4] learners, but I am going into a school where it is quite high. So coming here and seeing how English can be taught as an additional language has been helpful for me to learn these strategies. (English student – exchange 2017)*

Developing a Socially Just Disposition

This was the most diverse and difficult attribute to analyse and was displayed in a number of ways. In this study the majority of the trainee teachers referred to what they could adopt in their practice to maintain the link and friendships made on the exchange programme. This was demonstrated through suggestions of penpals, etwinning and letter writing. This demonstrates an intention to teach in a more globally minded way and expose the children they will teach to a more diverse learning experience. There were also reflections upon the differences in the facilities in each country and how this might impact upon the teaching and learning

4 EAL – English as an Additional Language.

experiences of the children, demonstrating a sense of justice and awareness of inequity. The trainee teachers began to critique their experiences, compare, question and engage in a critical dialogue relating to their own and others practices (Uusimaki & Swirski, 2016).

> *Also, because we have made such good friends with the German students, we have already started to talk about projects that we can do in schools to promote partnerships, penpals and lots of different things. (English student- exchange 2017)*

> *I really enjoyed coming to Weingarten as it has more of a village sort of feel, so the culture and learning all about that alongside going into lots of different schools has been really useful, and I can hopefully take that and use that when I teach geography and things like that as I have lots of pictures, and the German students have been very good in telling us a lot about the area and the towns. (English student- exchange 2017)*

The hosting trainee teachers also reflected upon the process of sharing their own institutions and educational systems with guests, this offered them a chance to question and reflect upon systems that they had trained in and were very used to and begin to challenge some of the traditions and conventions.

> *"Explaining how schooling works in our region as well as showing UK students around in our school helped me to reflect on the German educational system as well as on teaching methods. It was also very interesting to discuss the student's reactions on methods that were used in German schools to get a broader view on education in general". (German student – exchange in 2016)*

> *"I think as a non-native speaker you can get another point of view when it is about teaching, especially when a native speaker is giving an English lesson to German students learning English as a foreign language. You can become more aware of the differences between the school systems of the UK and Germany but also recognize the similarities between those two". (German student – exchange in 2017)*

> *"All in all it was absolutely interesting and enriching to gain insight into a typical school day in the UK (including teaching) and to compare it to Germany under aspects such as cooperation, respect, open classrooms, staff, teaching material and (technical) facilities – definitely a unique chance!". (German student- exchange in 2018)*

The statements from participating trainee teachers clearly show that taking part in the exchange programme has seen them reflecting on many different aspects and

benefits of the exchange. It might, therefore, be justified to say that the exchange programme did not only heighten the trainee teachers enjoyment for spending time in each other's countries and company and at the same time enhancing intercultural learning at a deeper level.

The study is not without its limitations, the reflections of the trainee teachers are transcribed accurately and taken in the context in which they were given as is the case in phenomenological studies. However, reflection and assertion does not always equate to actuality (Barkhuizen & Feryok, 2006). The trainee teachers expressed many intentions to alter practice and philosophy, but there is no way to monitor whether this has or will occur. It might also be the case that those trainee teachers who applied to be part of the programme already possessed some of the traits of intercultural confidence and were more globally minded in the first place. This exchange took place between two relatively wealthy, European countries where the challenges of multiculturalism and poverty are similar in many ways. Perhaps the results of a study between an exchange in a less well-developed context would have yielded different reflections.

Conclusions and Recommendations

International exchange programmes are undoubtedly of benefit for the individuals and institutions involved and although this particular paper does not address the opportunities afforded to the schools and universities involved; these were evident in the experiences for the children and staff in the schools and also in the universities.

This paper concludes that the exchange programme is beneficial to the trainee teachers involved in that it has allowed development of intercultural confidence and competence. It has allowed the trainee teachers to immerse themselves in the social, cultural and educational experiences the exchange has to offer. The educational differences in the two countries are evident in the reflections about pedagogical approaches to teaching languages and teaching in general. These reflections demonstrate a developing cultural awareness about the philosophies and practices of the respective countries' schools and allow reflections and comparisons to be made. Intercultural sensitivity and confidence is evident in the trainee teachers' reflections about teaching and learning approaches, adaptability, enjoyment of the immersion and the challenge of teaching in a foreign context. Teaching and learning skills are discussed in as much as the trainee teachers reflect upon the facilities available and the challenges of teaching foreign languages and EAL children. The experiences have made them reflect upon their own practices and adopt and adapt techniques seen on the exchange. The trainee teachers also discuss other transferable skills such as confidence, tolerance, empathy when they discuss the respective schooling systems,

staff and pupils. Finally, the exchange programme has empowered the students to think more globally and to develop traits of a socially just disposition. Their reflections upon practice and policy, facilities and opportunities afforded operated at a number of levels. Firstly, they discussed the relative 'safeness' of the respective countries in terms of safeguarding procedures and child protection legislation, they also discussed the facilities in the respective countries choosing to focus mainly on the differences in technology, how much there is, how it is used, etc. Interestingly the trainee teachers also felt that in English schools the numbers of staff present in a primary classroom might mean that the classrooms were more inclusive, and the children received more adult attention. Other reflections focused upon developing a more socially just disposition and the opportunity that the exchange programme presented in maintaining the relationships formed between the trainee teachers by becoming penpals, etwinning and more informally sharing friendship and ideas through social media.

The recommendations following this study are threefold: firstly, when planning international exchange programmes in teacher education, there are important considerations in the planning phase of opportunities and experiences that are deliberately targeted at developing intercultural sensitivity, in some respect these may need to be engineered into the programme depending upon the length of the exchange. These need to be carefully negotiated and shared with the participants in advance of the trip (Uusimaki & Swirski, 2016). Secondly, during the exchange programmes time needs to be planned for systematic reflection, this should be both formally and structured but also informally as the relationships develop between the exchange students. Finally, as the experience draws to a close, it is important to allow time for reflection and action planning. Intention to practice is not enough, time spent identifying where change can be made or assumptions challenged empowers individuals to act upon their experiences and become the cultural brokers and globally minded teachers of the future. Teacher exchange programmes such as this one offer more than a trip away; this study demonstrates that a well planned and strategic programme of events allows trainee teachers to develop soft skills and in the case of teacher education, teaching and learning specific skills that will make them more adaptable and resourceful teachers. Similarly, this study demonstrated the beginnings of a developing a socially just disposition where the trainee teachers questioned and reflected upon traditions, assumptions and challenges presented during the exchange programme and gave them the confidence to become agents of change in their own settings.

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Initial Teacher Education in Hungary: Issues, Policies, Practices

Abstract. Initial teacher education has gone through some radical changes in the past two decades: the two-cycled, Bologna-type system was introduced in 2006, but a few years later, in 2013 it was restored to the so-called undivided system. In resonance with international trends and national processes and developments, these reforms resulted in the appearance of some new elements in teacher education such as the mentoring system or the use of portfolios, while some other existing components with longer traditions (e.g. the pillar of practice schools) have gained even more importance. This paper aims to summarize and reflect on these changes and elements of initial teacher education through a critical pair of lenses, focusing on teacher preparation for lower and upper secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3) by contextualizing teacher education and revealing the challenges and progressive elements.

Keywords: Hungary, initial teacher education, practice, portfolio, research-based teacher education, mentoring, innovation in teacher education

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Introduction

In the last decade, there have been some radical changes in the structure, content, and output requirements of teacher education in Hungary. In many cases, these changes have followed contradictory trends and posed serious challenges for teacher educational institutions, educators, and students. Meanwhile, higher education institutions (HEIs) offering teacher education seek to respond to the changing societal needs by reshaping the structure and content of their programmes. Our study examines the changes of the last two decades from the perspective of initial teacher education (ITE) institutions, focusing on ISCED levels 2 and 3. We chose this segment of the continuum because the most radical transformations have taken place in this area, and the changes themselves are a good indication of the national trends in each period.

Understanding the context is indispensable to reveal the nuances of any teacher education system (Burns & Köstler, 2016; Cochran-Smith et al., 2014; Kauko, et al., 2018; Mason, 2008). Teacher education is interpreted in the complex context of educational policies in which ITE and continuous professional development (CPD) represent different stages of a unified lifelong learning process (Caena, 2014; OECD, 2011). Moreover, teacher education belongs to both the world of schools and the world of HEIs, implying that both systems affect it. In our study, we aim to reveal the true nature of ITE in this complex context.

On these premises, our paper studies ITE focusing on ISCED levels 2 and 3 along with four major pillars: (1) firstly, we summarize the *relationship between university-based teacher education and public education* and introduce some of the major changes from the recent years that have affected the approach, structure and content of ITE. (2) Following this, we summarize *the challenges* that have emerged in the past years by identifying the most significant dilemmas of the national professional discourse: recruitment and entrance examination in reflection to teacher shortage, the content of ITE concerning pedagogical and methodological themes, the transforming role of teaching practice. (3) The next chapter focuses on the *major structural and content-wise developments in ITE*. We devote a special focus to some progressive elements of the system, such as the teaching practice and its support systems (mentoring, practice schools), competence frameworks, the use of portfolios in the assessment. (4) Last but not least we summarize some of the *innovative developments* and initiatives in Hungarian ITE, such as the revaluation of research-based teacher education, the strengthening role of reflection, as well as the emphasis of student teachers' ICT-related competence development.

1. Context of Teacher Education

1.1. Historical Perspectives of Teacher Education

In Hungary, teacher education essentially exists since the emergence of education (996), as content and training courses for teacher preparation were available from the beginning for those who were teaching in the lower grades. However, its institutionalization can be linked to modernization, and as part of this, to the development of the public education system. Institutionalized teacher education first appeared for elementary school teachers, and it took place in the form of secondary education. This kind of teacher preparation was implemented in grammar schools, which traditionally are the institutions for intellectual education in Hungary. Although teacher educators in these schools had a university degree, most of them did not have a professional background in the field of Pedagogy.

Teaching in the lower and upper secondary phases of the public education system (ISCED levels 2 and 3) was traditionally considered as a highly prestigious, well-recognized profession, and it was sharply differentiated from the elementary school teaching (ISCED level 1) both in terms of teacher preparation and social prestige. The aspects of pedagogical content and teaching practice of secondary school teachers gained importance at the end of the nineteenth century: pedagogical content appeared in university-based teacher education and the system of practice schools maintained by the universities was developed. This was the time when the Teacher Education Centre, which was responsible for coordination, was established as an organizational unit in the universities offering teacher education. As a result of the communist dictatorship and the Soviet influence, there were only a few structural changes in teacher education; however, the weight of pedagogical and psychological contents was increased. After the regime change, Hungary transitioned from a communist country to a democratic state. However, some of the characteristics regarding teacher status that were formed during the Soviet period still strongly influence the possibilities of teachers as agents (Lannert, 1998). One of these is the low prestige of the teaching profession, which is mainly due to the particularly low salaries compared to the European average, and which also significantly contributes to the continuous low level of students selecting the teaching profession.

An interesting phenomenon is that despite the above-described factors, for a long time Hungary had not struggled with teacher shortage; this has become an urgent issue only in recent years. As the salary situation did not radically change after the change of regime, these factors still determine the weak advocacy power of teachers; the social prestige of teachers is low, the low selection among them is strong. The scope of teachers as agents of educational policy has also significantly deteriorated since the change of school maintainers in 2010: as most of the schools' maintainer is the state, teachers are also state employees; therefore, an increase in teacher vulnerability can be observed (Radó, 2011). After 2010, the right-wing

government, which had 2/3 majority in the parliament, launched a re-centralization process in the Hungarian educational system.

In the last ten years, the working conditions of teachers have also changed. The government delegated many decisions from institutional and individual levels (from schools and teachers) to the central educational administration: 90% of teaching content is prescribed in the National Curriculum, the textbook-market is centralized, and teacher evaluation is mostly conducted by local educational authorities. Besides, the administrative responsibilities of teachers have increased. The increased centralization and control have significantly reduced the professional autonomy of teachers.

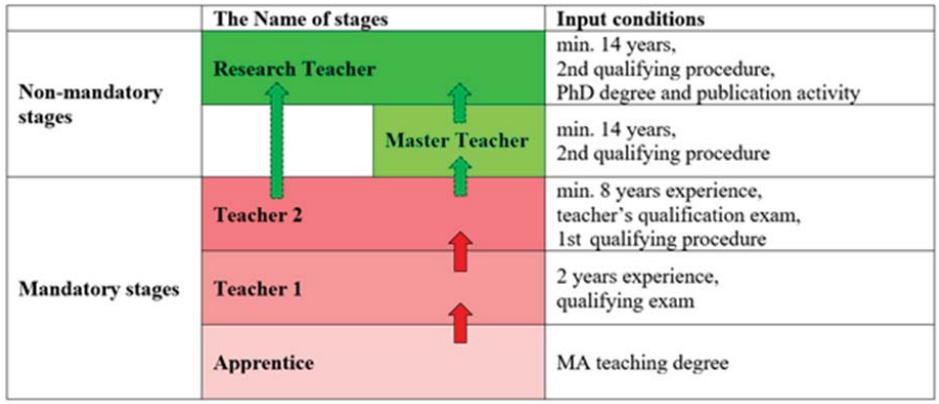
These processes have also contributed to the reduction in the attractiveness of a teaching career: administrative overload and the over-centralized operation resulting in decreased teacher autonomy were compensated by the teacher career model and an increase in salaries only in the initial period. Since the introduction of the career model (2013), teacher salaries are fixed, and this influences the prestige of the profession in a negative way, especially concerning vocational education. From 2020 those working in vocational education will not be part of the civil servant employment system as other teachers that have a rigid, but reliable payment system, but these teachers will be offered market type contracts to keep them in the profession. However, all these measurements will not significantly change the fact that teacher salaries are the lowest not only among the Hungarian salaries of graduates but among international teacher salaries as well. Moreover, Hungary has the longest time to reach the salary ceiling (20–25 years) (Chrappán, 2013; Varga, 2017). These issues drastically lower the chance that young people will enter and stay in the teaching profession. Various scholarship systems support the retainment of student teachers during their teacher education, but this does not solve their retainment in the profession after graduation.

1.2. Teacher Career Model and Required Pedagogical Qualifications

One of the possible solutions for retaining teachers in the profession is the so--called teacher career model, which combines an administrative advancement system and a CPD philosophy. The latter one is a wide and flexibly interpreted, adaptive, learning-outcome-based model that adapts both formal and informal self-development of teachers. The career model consists of 5 stages: the stages of Apprentice, Teacher 1 and Teacher 2 are mandatory, while the phases of Master Teacher and Research Teacher are optional (Figure 1.). However, the career model is based on a Weberian administrative career advancement pattern, where the years spent on the career weigh much more than the quality work – this characteristic is especially problematic for young teachers. The qualification procedures are based partly on previous formal education and partly on portfolios presenting the candidates' professional work. The portfolio as a tool was introduced to teacher education in Hungary with the Bologna-type system, and from there it was shifted

to the teacher career model as well; therefore, portfolios have become an integral element of the full length of teacher education (including ITE and continuous professional development).

Figure 1.
Teacher Career Model



Note. Chrappán & Bencze, 2015, p. 320.

Teacher education is naturally linked to the public education system. The required qualification for the different phases of the public education system varies by the different emphases and expected roles of the teachers. Table 1. summaries the connection between the public education system and teacher education qualifications.

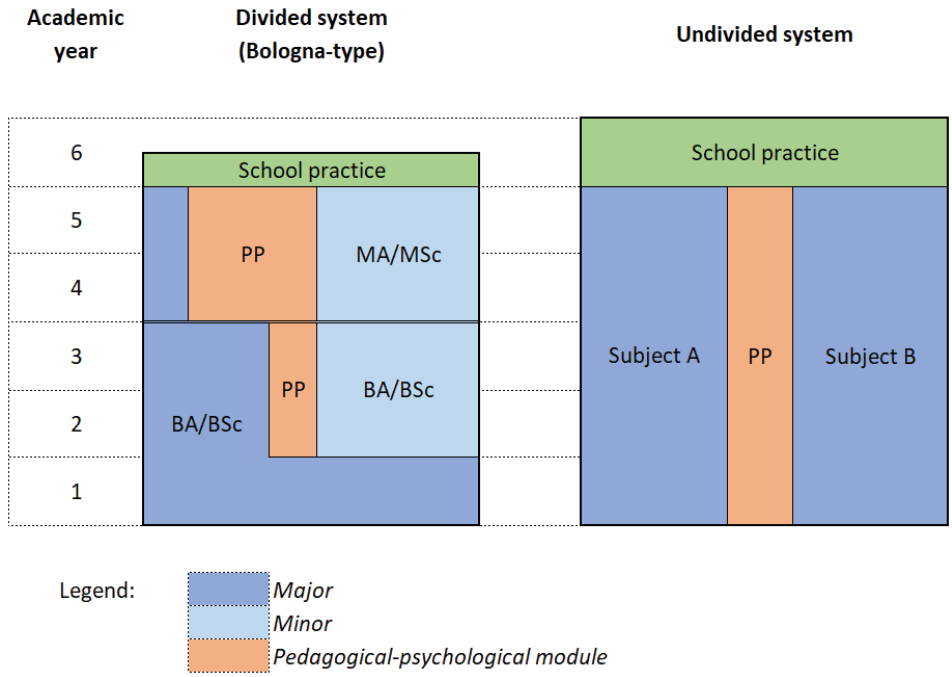
Table 1.
Pedagogical Qualifications in Reflection to Public Education

Type of institution	Pedagogical qualification	Taught subject
elementary school (ISCED 1) (grades 1–4)	BA-degree	all subjects
elementary school (ISCED 2) (grades 5–8)	MA-degree	subjects of general education adequate to degree
grammar school (ISCED 3) (grades 1–4 or grades 1–6 or grades 1–8)	MA-degree	subjects of general education adequate to degree
vocational education (ISCED 3)	vocational teacher (vocational MSc + teacher MA)	vocational (theoretical and practical) subjects in vocational training
vocational education (ISCED 3)	vocational trainer (vocational secondary/higher qualification)	vocational training in and outside the school

1.3. Bologna-type vs. Undivided Teacher Education – the Present of ITE

Teacher education has undergone two general transformations over the past twenty years. The first transformation was the introduction of the two-cycled, Bologna-type teacher education in 2006. The second major change was the abandonment of the two-cycled, Bologna-type system and the introduction of the so-called undivided teacher education in 2013. Reasons for the change included: a significant reduction in the number of student teachers in the Bologna-type system; students completed their minor disciplinary studies with poorer performance; some were dissatisfied with the reduced number of disciplinary credits (especially with regards to natural sciences), while they considered the 50 credits of pedagogical--psychological preparation too high. The introduction of the undivided system just partially remedied these criticisms, but it managed to put in balance the two disciplinary fields; however, the pedagogical-psychological module was significantly reduced (from 50 to 28 credits). Figure 2. compares the structure of the two-cycled, Bologna-type teacher education and the undivided system.

Figure 2.
Comparison of the Bologna-type Teacher Education and the Undivided System

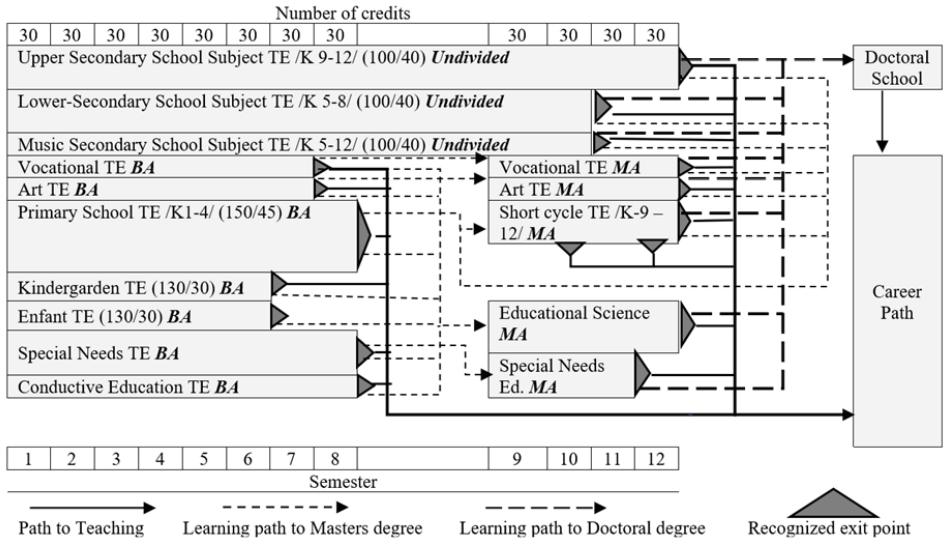


Note. Pesti, et. al., 2017.

In the undivided system of teacher education, the collateral nature has strengthened, but some consecutive forms of teacher education are still present (mostly in the form of short programmes, lasting for 2, 4 or 5 semesters). These are partly residual programmes from the Bologna-type system (MA programmes in vocational teacher education), partly programmes linked to the undivided system (e.g. for those with no previous teacher education).

The wide range of paths with varying entry conditions and programme length all facilitate the increase of accessibility and quick accomplishment of teacher education – this is a structural reaction to the growing threat of teacher shortage. The structure of teacher education has become rather complicated, Figure 3. aims to provide an overview of the possible paths in teacher education.

Figure 3.
An overview of Various Paths in Teacher Education

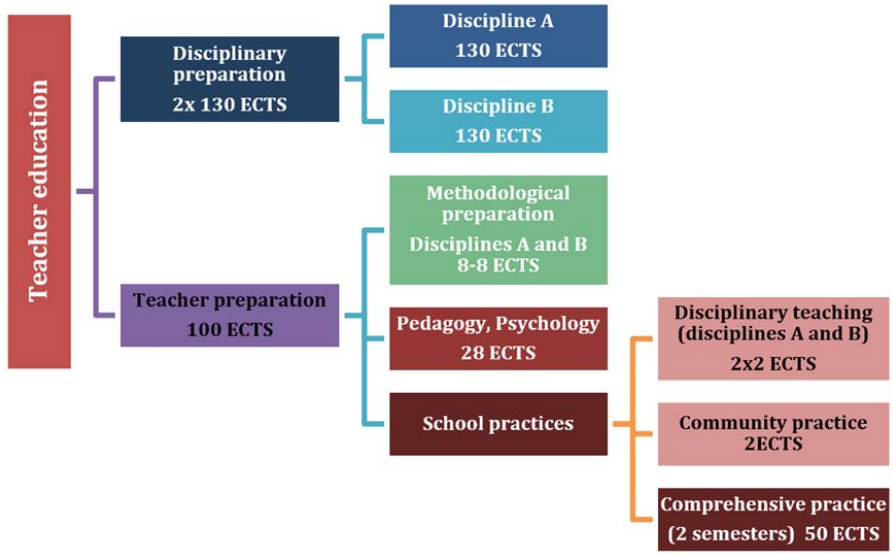


Note. Kopp & Kálmán, 2020.

Disciplinary preparation constitutes the biggest slice of the current, undivided system of teacher education, but it is a major issue that the curriculum and the actual course contents in ITE programmes are not sensitive enough to public education content; they are halved versions of non-teacher-education-related disciplinary studies. Although this cannot be changed easily, the enrichment of programmes with more teacher education-specific content is necessary and possible. The teacher preparation in these ITE programmes is mostly restricted to theoretical pedagogical and psychological studies, methodological courses, and school-based teaching

practice in a practice school. This is followed by an external, one-year long practice. Figure 4. illustrates the system of ITE with regards to its modules.

Figure 4.
The System of ITE with Regards to its Modules



However, the rapid and deliberate swelling of student teacher numbers makes input and in-process quality screening and selection impossible; therefore, the training and the content are responsible for developing some kind of a comprehensive education strategy for students with very diverse motivation and preparedness. Halving the pedagogical-psychological module is not a deliberate decision in case of a persistently present, unfiltered population. This can be remedied by the increase of student time; there are more options to achieve this: continuous measurements during teacher education, which introduces adaptive training loops to the system, thus providing students with individual development tasks (obligations); the introduction of intensive student activities that can be conducted with individual support (projects, individual tasks); increasing efficiency by modern technical possibilities and educational philosophical approach (from blended learning to seamless learning). These changes expect a transformation in mindset and reforms in content and requirements and are currently in the initial stage.

2. Challenges of ITE

2.1. Teacher Shortage with Reflection to ITE

Hungarian public education, similarly to many other countries, is struggling with the growing teacher shortage, which will result in a critical situation in two to four years. In 2012, Hungary was among those countries where the general teacher shortage was quite small, "as far as shortages are concerned, prospects look gloomy in light of the high number of expected retirements" (Carlo et al., 2013, pp. 32–34). However, the situation is much more complex these days. Available statistics do not support the assumption that teacher shortage is an urgent issue in Hungary to a full extent; partly because the macro-level indicators of student-to-teacher ratio seem to be improving due to the ongoing demographic tide, and the available data seem to be masking the actual deficit due to a mandatory increase in teaching hours a few years ago. Although there is no absolute teacher shortage, the relative shortage is already visible, especially with regards to disciplinary fields (Hungarian language and foreign languages, natural sciences, informatics, art and physical education, as well as vocational teachers), regional distribution (continuous fluctuation in kindergartens and schools in disadvantaged areas increases teacher shortage) and institution types (primary schools and vocational educational institutions). An underlying cause of teacher shortage is the age of the Hungarian pedagogical society: the average age is constantly increasing, while the proportion of recently graduated, younger teachers entering the profession is decreasing (Varga, 2019).

This crisis is mostly affecting the system of teacher education, even though structural changes and financial incentives (teacher education scholarship schemes) have been implemented in recent years to get more people graduating from teacher education institutions to enter the profession as quickly as possible. This can be done in part by expanding teacher education quotas at the expense of other MA courses, and in part by broadening the range of short-cycle teacher training courses, and facilitating horizontal (transition between different disciplines) and vertical (transition from other BA or MA courses to teacher MA) transitions. While teacher education policy expects a wide range of outputs in the short term, it favours quality teacher education and thus selective recruitment. This is implemented by the increase of the entrance study score (compared to other majors) and the career aptitude test. The aptitude test is a centrally defined, uniform exam (including a motivation letter, a pedagogical situation analysis, and a discussion about career motivation). While the aptitude test has not been measured since the introduction of undivided teacher training (since 2013), it is known that it does not bear any selection function, almost 100% of the candidates are admitted to ITE. Its absolute advantage is that the discussions reveals the potential student teacher candidates' general pedagogical beliefs and attitudes, which would enable the development of an adaptive training process (if the system could provide sufficient resources for adaptive learning

paths and loops). After the aptitude test at the entrance to ITE, there are no further measurements, feedbacks regarding the pedagogical and psychological suitability of the student teacher; quitting ITE is mostly due to career corrections or drop-outs. Therefore, we can conclude that the system of ITE allows both suitable and less suitable students not only to enter but to go all along the way, and this places a heavy burden mostly on the practice fields, the schools. The nonselective nature of ITE and the reduced theoretical education both increase the schools' and mentor teachers' responsibility, reinforcing the importance of professional collaboration between HEIs and partner schools.

However, the key issue to address teacher shortages is not the quality of the training but rather the attractiveness and retention of the teaching profession. Attempts have been made to increase the attractiveness of the profession by introducing the teacher career model that involves a significant increase in salaries (but also a significant surplus of work, including significant administrative burdens). Still, the teacher salaries are not only lower compared to other graduate salaries, but they are not differentiated sufficiently, and the actual work quality is not reflected in them. The difference between primary and secondary school teachers' salary is less than $100 (OECD, 2019, p. 344), and hypothetically this negligible difference could mean that there is a general recognition of primary school teachers; this is far from the reality since Hungary offers some of the lowest salaries in the OECD countries (ibidem). These problems underlie the feminization of the teaching profession, which, indirectly though, also deteriorates the prestige of the profession resulting in the career change of the best teachers. The country struggles to find a way out of this negative loop by continuously reforming ITE and supporting apprentices; however, the results are not yet visible.

A recurring topic with regards to the relationship between the school system and teacher education is whether teacher education can prepare teacher candidates for the subject content and special roles (the role of a headmaster, competitions, preparation for graduation, etc.) that actually await them during their career. The most common topic in the national professional discourse is whether the disciplinary content provided by the universities corresponds to the teaching content in public education. Over the last 10 years, the National Curriculum and the Framework Curricula have undergone constant changes. The newest National Curricula were accepted and published in the spring of 2020 in a somewhat unexpected manner; therefore, now the new Framework Curricula need to be developed. The perspectives of teacher education and institutions offering these programmes do not coincide, and this is a source of ongoing debate among the stakeholders. It is in teacher education's interest that university preparation covers the content of the public education curricula as fully as possible; meanwhile, the universities bear a more scholarly approach to teaching. There is a legal regulatory element to enforce the subject needs of public education: the so-called Training and Output Requirements (8/2013

Decree, 2013). This decree contains the mandatory disciplinary and pedagogical--psychological-methodological elements for each major. Compliance with these requirements is monitored at each institution by the Hungarian Accreditation Committee when launching a new programme. One of the aspects of monitoring is whether the programme is in line with the teacher competences required to implement the National Curriculum and Framework Curricula. Actual, in-process monitoring does not exist, nor does a quality assurance system based on rigorous student feedback. Thus, the presence of public education's expectations in teacher education is up to the professional conscience of the HEIs involved.

2.2. Teaching Practice

In the everchanging economic, social, technical and cultural context of education, the teaching practice, which is an integral part of any teacher education programme, has to face several challenges, including the restructuring of programmes, the appearance of new stakeholders with a diverse background, the development of new types of partnership models, as well as the strengthening of educational outcome--based programme design (Halász, 2016). Although the international trends have a strong influence on reinterpreting the roles and functions of teaching practice in general, at the same time these changes are strongly contextualised since national school traditions and local school cultures have a significant impact on the processes (Rapos et al., 2014).

Hungary's ITE faced major restructuring in 2013, and since then, teacher education programmes include three types of practice that student teachers must undertake: *pedagogical, psychological and teaching practices parallel with the training*, *community pedagogical practice* parallel with the training, and an *individual, school-based teaching practice* at the end of the programme. All these practices facilitate student teachers in "(1) the acquisition of general pedagogical and discipline-related, as well as teachers' role-related practical knowledge, (2) the acquisition and practice of skills and attitudes, (3) the introduction to the world of work (school life, school management, communication with parents, individual tutoring of students, collaboration), (4) the acquisition of basic skills in assessment of teaching, learning and other educational processes and of professional development (8/2013 Decree, 2013)" (Pesti, 2019, p. 57).

The first type of practice that student teachers participate in is the *individual and group practice*, led by a so-called "leading teacher", and it takes place parallel with other components of the teacher education programme. It is accounted for at least 2 ECTS per disciplinary field, and it must include at least 15 individual teaching hours, supplemented by various, teaching-related activities, such as observations and analysis of lessons taught by in-service teachers (8/2013 Decree, 2013). The overly detailed nature of the competence framework is one of the biggest challenges of organizing and implementing this type of practice in a manner that supports the

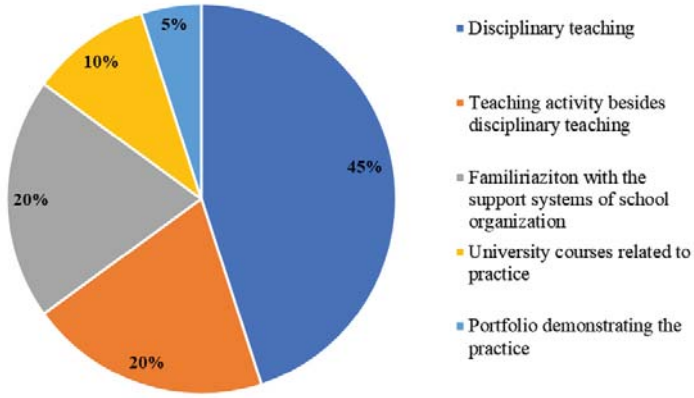
establishment and strengthening of the relationship between theory and practice along with the framework. Moreover, although mainly the leading teacher is responsible for supporting the student teacher during the practice, other actors are also involved in this complex process (e.g. university-based teacher educators, school community, etc.), and the responsibilities are not always clear.

The second type of practice is the *community pedagogical practice*, which accounts for at most 2 ECTS, and it aims to provide experience on non-school-based pedagogical, extracurricular activities (e.g. camps, study groups, etc.) (8/2013 Decree, 2013). While supporting student teachers in their professional socialization, this type of practice is effective only if it is implemented in a community service learning mindset if it truly reacts to the needs and requirements of the community, and if the experiences gained through this practice activate student teachers' learning (Rapos & Kopp, 2015).

The third type of practice is by far the dominant one: the *comprehensive individual teaching practice*. It is accounted for 48 ECTS, and student teachers undertaking this practice are supported by a school-based mentor teacher (who is an in-service teacher) and a university-based teacher educator. This type of practice aims to facilitate student teachers in the familiarization with the complexity of the school system, its social and legal environment, and last but not least, the system of public education through various activities. The *comprehensive practice* lasts for 2 semesters, and it includes subject teaching, non-subject teaching, school-based projects, teacher duties, etc (8/2013 Decree, 2013). Similarly to the *individual and group practice*, this type of practice intends to further strengthen the relationship of theory and practice, but in a much complex context of school reality, where, although still in a supportive "safe" environment, student teachers have the opportunity to experience the reality of the teaching profession. This practice also focuses on the development of competences, but instead of doing it one by one, it aims to facilitate students in establishing the connections between them; however, it is important to notice that at the start of this practice the student teachers still not bear all the competences indicated in the Training and Outcome Requirements.

Figure 5. illustrates the distribution of various components related to the *comprehensive practice*.

Figure 5.
The Components of the Comprehensive Teaching Practice



Although the regulations do not take it in the account, there is a fourth type of practice: many university-based courses have elements of a practical nature (e.g. school visits, lesson observations, teaching and non-teaching activities in schools, etc.). In many cases, these *hidden practical opportunities* are rather ad-hoc, not visible in the programme neither at the institutional level, and this is far from being effective (Rapos & Kopp, 2015). These kinds of hidden practices are valuable although to ensure their effectiveness, they shall be planned and implemented at least at the programme level.

3. What is Going Well?

Teacher education is highly dependent on the cultural context everywhere; it is not influenced merely by the successful international patterns, but it is also determined by the educational and cultural traditions of the country, as well as the social attitudes concerning the role of schools and teachers. This is the reason why it is not easy to adopt an effective procedure from the international context because it might not fit organically into the local context (Fazekas, 2018). The changes of the past decade in teacher education in Hungary have included both progressive and retrograde elements, and some of these have become an immanent part of the system. The following sections introduce some of these elements.

3.1. Mentorship

Mentoring has been an immanent part of teacher education in general, but it was introduced to the Hungarian system only with the Bologna-type teacher education; the previously mentioned *comprehensive individual teaching practice* made it necessary for student teachers' teaching practice to be continuously facilitated by a mentor. Mentoring has been a central theme for the past decade due to its novelty

and systemic lack of experience. It has appeared throughout the continuum of teacher education; mentoring has a key role not only in the *comprehensive individual teaching practice* in ITE, but it has become an integral element of the career model as well, especially in the apprentice phase.

The implementation of the Bologna-type teacher education was financed by large-scale EU-funded tenders: the theoretical foundations of mentoring, the dissemination of institutional good practices and the preparatory programmes for mentorship established the mentoring system in Hungary, and in parallel to these, intensive field research was also launched (Simon, 2019; Fűzi, et al., 2016; Stéger, 2014). The mentoring of student teachers and apprentices is not the same (Sallai, 2015) because while in the case of student teachers mentoring focuses on a more rigorous professional management and introduction to the profession in close cooperation with the HEIs, apprentices are already qualified teachers who need more support from their mentors in fine-tuning the pedagogical processes and obtaining routines in special activities (Vargáné & Nagy, 2015).

The selection and preparation of mentor teachers are based on an agreement between the HEIs and the schools; the preliminary formal requirements are the appropriate major, five years of experience, and, if possible, the mentor teacher qualification exam. Partners may deviate from these requirements (because increased student numbers and the one-year-long teaching practice have led to higher demand and thus a shortage of mentors in some places). In the apprentice phase, the appointment of mentors is entirely the schools' responsibility.

The mentoring system has performed well since its introduction in the last decade; both the students and the schools like this system, as it serves a kind of a career incubation providing more protection for student teachers and apprentices (Sallai, 2015), and this can be considered as the main protective factor against early career change (Stokking, et al., 2003; Ballantine & Retell, 2020).

Strengthening the mentoring role from a professional and organizational point of view is the task of the coming period; the latter mainly concerns the recognition of the mentor role in the schools. The professional supportive role of teacher education institutions plays a significant role in strengthening the professional identity of mentoring, as well as in building a bridge between public education and teacher education.

3.2. University-based Practice Schools and Partner Schools

In section 2.2 we have already reviewed the various types and some challenges concerning teaching practices during ITE. This section also focuses on teaching practice, but through a much brighter pair of lenses; we are going to introduce to elements – one old, one new – that combine traditional and innovative components. For 150 years, teacher education in Hungary has been based on practice schools. These schools were established beside universities with the aim to support

teacher education. During a century and a half, regardless of political systems and educational policy trends, the status of practice schools has remained stable, and these institutions define the practical preparation in teacher education to a great deal.

Practice schools are public educational institutions maintained by HEIs, and besides the usual tasks of public education, their main mission and mandatory responsibility are to participate in ITE. Currently, there are 32 practice schools in Hungary maintained by one of the 14 HEIs offering teacher education. 17 of the practice schools belong to the 6 largest HEIs (KIR institutional database, 2020). So-called "leading" teachers manage student teachers' practices that are related to university courses (e.g. pedagogical, psychological, or methodological lesson observations, microteaching, etc.). Among the three types of practices in ITE, the *individual and group practice* is the one which shall be implemented in practice schools by law. This practice is the first opportunity for student teachers to teach in a longer, comprehensive manner, based on their plans, in a real-world school context. This is the first intensive encounter with the subject and the school reality; therefore, quality support is particularly important. Leading teachers are those pedagogically and methodologically prepared practitioners who have the most routine in the practice schools and who regularly participate not only in the school-based support of student teachers but also in teaching university courses.

Although the other two types of practices (*community practice* and *comprehensive practice*) can also take place in practice schools, in most cases universities assign so-called partner schools with these practices instead of practice schools. There are several reasons for involving partner schools: the capacity of practice schools is finite; practice schools are essentially elite schools as they are less suitable for introducing student teachers to the average pedagogical reality. Acquiring the partner school status is also a recognition and a significant opportunity for innovation because the partner schools are constantly close to teacher education and research.

At the same time, the one-year-long *comprehensive practice* is a divisive experience; on the one hand, this practice is a good opportunity for the schools to alleviate the teacher shortage by employing student teachers, while on the other hand, the view that a six-months long practice would be enough has started to gain emphasis. This would allow graduates to enter the profession sooner; student teachers during their practice do not have decision-making rights due to their student status; therefore, mentors are constantly under increased pressure. The implementation of comprehensive practices by the partner school network has become a good practice in Hungary, and it is increasingly becoming a professionally grounded pillar of ITE.

3.3. Competence Framework

The learning outcome-based approach in educational planning started to gain significance in general around the turn of the century, and Hungarian ITE joined

this mainstream trend by defining competences for teacher education within the framework of the Qualification Requirements of Teachers in 1997 (Symeonidis, 2019). In view of the approach, the year 2013, when HEIs providing ITE were expected to develop new training programmes, was a major turning point; a line of documents were developed to support the implementation of learning outcome-based approach relying on the European Qualification Framework (European Commission, 2009): the National Qualification Framework and the Document of Territorial Qualification Characteristics differentiate knowledge, skills, attitude, and autonomy and responsibility, while the Training and Outcome Requirements (8/2013 Decree, 2013) for ITE indicate knowledge, skills and attitude as the main competence elements, and autonomy and responsibility have become a new competence field (Pesti et al., 2017).

There is a general trend either to consider competence frameworks as a policy tool, a top-bottom approach to assess teachers in a pragmatic manner or to take advantage of them as means for improvement, guidance in the professional development of teachers (Symeonidis, 2019). Although the competence framework used in teacher education is undoubtedly thoroughly detailed (there are 8 competence fields, each broken into knowledge, skills and attitude components containing more than 120 learning outcomes (Pesti et al., 2017)), it can be a powerful tool to track and reflect on student teachers progression throughout their teacher education.

The 8 competence fields that guide teacher preparation, as well as assessment at the end of the programmes, are defined in the Training and Outcome Requirements (8/2013 Decree, 2013):

1. Developing the student's personality together with tailor-made treatment, based on individual needs
2. Helping and improving the development of students' groups and communities
3. Having knowledge of the special methodology and the special subject
4. Planning the pedagogical process
5. Supporting, organizing, and managing the learning process
6. Assessing pedagogical processes and the students
7. Communication, professional cooperation, and career identity
8. Autonomy and responsibility

A common use of this competence framework is to integrate it as a fundamental part of the portfolio, where student teachers are expected to reflect on their readiness for teaching along with the competence fields by presenting various documents and reflections.

3.4. Assessment through Portfolios

The introduction of the Bologna-type teacher education in 2006 also brought conceptual and structural changes. The definition of competence fields as learning

outcomes and the semester-long teaching practice required a practice-based assessment tool which was suitable for tracking students' development process and outcomes. Portfolios were chosen as a tool for such assessments, and although the long cycle ITE system has taken over the Bologna-type teacher education's place, the portfolios remained and are widely used in the current ITE system as well.

According to the national regulations, the portfolios aim to prove that students are capable of self-reflection, integrating and applying the knowledge they acquired during teacher education, and evaluating the relevant scientific literature and the effectiveness of their teaching and/or pedagogical work (8/2013 Decree, 2013). All this can be achieved through the presentation and reflective analysis of documents developed during teacher education, and especially those developed during the teaching practice.

A portfolio is an innovative tool with numerous advantages including a reinterpreted learning culture and support, alternative assessment procedures, the development of reflective writing skills, various media-related competences (especially when preparing an electronic portfolio), as well as the symbiotic development of theory and practice (Feder & Cramer, 2018). Moreover, it can support students in finding employment, and some sources consider portfolios as a useful tool in evaluating and accrediting training programmes (Strudler & Wetzel, 2011). However, they are not used for programme evaluations in Hungary, but the idea should be considered as well as the full transition to electronic portfolios (e-portfolio). Currently, only a few universities have made this transition, most teacher education institutions still require that the portfolios are submitted in the form of hard copies and CD/DVDs.

There are numerous types of portfolios, the relevant national literature essentially uses the demonstrational-developmental portfolio and the evaluation portfolio terms (in few cases the developmental learning portfolio term is also used). The demonstrational portfolio gathers the various documents and products developed by the student throughout his/her teacher education, and the evaluation portfolio is mostly prepared for the final examination, and it is validated by a professional discussion.

Although the concept and types of portfolios are extensively discussed in the literature, research focusing on their efficiency or methodology are rather rare in the Hungarian context (Hofmann, et al., 2016). The available data concerning portfolios mostly focus on student opinions and the structure of the documents. These data show that some of the biggest challenges of portfolios in ITE are the compilation of the documents, especially the reflections and self-assessments (Buda, 2015; Mrázik, 2014; Molnár, 2014); therefore, a significant responsibility of ITE is the development of the reflective, conscious and critical approach and critical thinking.

Today, the portfolio constitutes an integral part of teacher education; student teachers build them from the beginning of their education by following the curve

of work portfolios, demonstrational portfolios, and evaluation portfolios. The requirements and assessment practices of the evaluation portfolios at the endpoint of ITE might differ in every HEI; however, most of the content elements are the same. All institutions define compulsory and optional elements, but their proportion may also vary. Some of the common elements regardless of institutions are the following: teaching practice-related documents, lesson plans, mentor teachers' evaluations, peer evaluations, as well as documents illustrating non-teaching related activities, contact with other partners involved, school organization and student reports. It is expected that most of the documents are followed by student reflections since this can make student teachers' professional competence development visible (Czető & Lénárd, 2016). Besides these most institutions expect documents related to research or inquiry conducted by student teachers, but the possible forms and genre of these are diverse.

4. Innovative Practices in ITE

4.1. Research in ITE

Strengthening the cooperation between educational research actors has become a significant topic of the international discourse concerning the failure to produce knowledge based on research results that is relevant for the teaching practice (Snoek, 2011; Kálmán & Rapos, 2007; Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000; OECD, 2003). The tags that are commonly used to describe the present, such as the age of information, knowledge of society, the era of twenty-first century skills, etc. all resonate with the everchanging nature of challenges that teachers face daily, and that it is irresponsible to assume that ITE is accountable for preparing student teachers for the entirety of their career. The concept of teachers as researchers has gained influence as a possible answer to the above-mentioned challenges of the constant reinterpretation of the goals and responsibilities of teacher education and the teaching profession, as well as the gap between research and practice (e.g. Gray & Campbell-Evans, 2002; Loughran, 2002; Smith & Sela, 2005; Ulvik, 2014). This concept requires an open mind and some distancing from the traditional and scholarly rigorous understanding of research, but one may think of teacher-researchers as "those practitioners who attempt to better understand their practice, and its impact on their students, by researching the relationship between teaching and learning in their world of work" (Loughran, 2002, p. 1.). These general issues and trends can be channelled into the design of ITE programmes (e.g. Munthe & Rogne, 2015) and are strongly reflected in the paradigms of teaching as described by Menter, et al. (2010). Is ITE preparing students to become effective, reflective, enquiring, or transformative teachers?

Student teachers are explicitly expected to conduct research-related activities as a part of fulfilling the final requirements for graduation; according to the 8/2013. (I.30.) Decree of the Ministry of Human Capacities (8/2013 Decree, 2013) the

preparation of a final thesis is mandatory and is accounted for 8 ECTS. The thesis shall present research or development related to methodology, pedagogy, psychology or one of the chosen disciplinary fields and shall be conducted by the student teacher. Unfortunately, there is no available, openly accessible data on the distribution of thesis topics among the four choices.

Since research appears at the endpoint of ITE as a requirement in the form of a thesis, and at some HEIs in the portfolios, it is indispensable to examine the path leading to this point – is ITE preparing student teachers to conduct research, an inquiry into teaching practice at its broadest, concessive interpretation? There has not been any systematic study in the Hungarian context on the national level to answer this question, but small-scale, often institutional-level data has revealed, that strengthening reflection (which is a stepping stone to practitioner inquiry) is highly emphasised in teacher education programmes. Moreover, studying the Training and Outcome Requirements of ITE (8/2013 Decree, 2013), it becomes obvious that research-related competence elements occur in knowledge, skills and attitude components as an expectation; however, the analysis of a teacher education programme has proved that although the development of these research-related competences also appears in the pedagogical-psychological course descriptions, the course contents, student activities and methods suggest that ITE supports student teachers to become consumers not producers of research (Pesti, 2019). To resonate this with the teaching paradigms defined by Menter et al. (2010), ITE in Hungary seems to be stationed at the paradigms of effective and reflective teachers not the inquiring or transformative teachers.

Another factor that hinders student teachers in conducting practice-oriented research during their teaching practice is that public education, in general, is not supporting the development of research-related attitudes although the highest stage of the teacher career model is the so-called "research teacher" title; due to the excessive workload of the public education system, research (in hand with numerous other innovative practices) seems to struggle to be present in the everyday practice of teaching within the walls of schools.

4.2. Information-Communication Technologies in ITE

As teacher education is expected to prepare student teachers for the future with the knowledge, strategies, methods and tools of the present; the role of information--communication technologies (ICT) in ITE is one of the most challenging and significant issues in the professional discourse concerning teacher knowledge. Although there is a general agreement that the main role of teacher education is not to prepare ICT experts (similarly to the concept of teachers as researchers where the aim is not to prepare academic researchers); however, the vast potential that lies in using ICT in teaching and learning processes cannot be left out of sight in the twenty--first century. The recent shock caused by the COVID-19 pandemic that resulted in

the rapid digitalization of education all around the world drew even more attention to ICT in education and teacher preparation.

Aligning the Training and Outcome Requirements (8/2013 Decree, 2013) of teacher education with the recent trends, ICT can be traced in three competence fields, and these are subject knowledge, planning of the pedagogical process, supporting and managing learning. The other competence fields do not contain explicit mentions of ICT, and this is particularly concerning with the competence fields of assessment, communication, and collaboration. Moreover, the identified ICT-related competences are of a knowledge and skill type only, and it seems that the attitude aspect of information-communication technologies is not emphasised in the Hungarian policy context.

Although there are numerous studies concerning ICT in public education, exploring its situation in teacher education is somewhat out of the scope of Hungarian researchers. However, a recent study of teacher educators' ICT-related indicators has revealed that despite their openness and competence level, their ICT-activities remain rather low: an underlying explanation based on the overall results might be that teacher educators suffer from a methodological deficit (Dringó-Horváth, 2018).

4.3. Reflection as an Integral Pillar of ITE

The changes of socio-cultural and economic processes resonate in the theoretical frameworks used for ITE programme development: Menter et al. summarised these in four paradigms including the effective, the reflective, the enquiring and the transformative teacher (2010). The order of these paradigms is somewhat chronological not only with regards to the development of teacher education from a general, historical point of view, but even on an individual level of student teachers: being reflective is a prerequisite to an enquiring approach, and having an enquiring approach is a prerequisite to becoming transformative. This line of thought implies that reflection plays a fundamental role in teacher education. A study focusing on teacher education programmes in the 2000s found that 75% of the involved programmes were based on the reflective teacher paradigm (Kopp & Kálmán, 2015). About 20 years later, in the context of Hungarian ITE reflection is still one of the central themes in programme development (Pesti, 2019).

Reflection and self-reflection are deeply embedded in the structure and processes of teacher preparation: they appear in both pedagogical-psychological and methodological courses, they are an integral part of teaching practices, and last but not least student teachers' portfolios at the conclusion of their studies must also include several reflections to support their development and professional socialization.

Although focusing on teacher autonomy and responsibility but still in connection with reflection, a study analysing 137 course descriptions from 8 HEIs offering ITE in Hungary has revealed that competence-wise, the learning outcomes

mostly focus on reflective attitudes (59.04%), while skills and knowledge needed for a reflective approach are less dominant (skills being at 30.12%, while knowledge only at 10.84%) (Nagy, et al., 2018).

Despite this duality (reflection is an integral part of teacher education, especially for practice, but its development is mostly restricted to attitude formation); reflection has been, is and for a presumably long time will be a founding pillar of ITE. In this premise, teacher educators shall support student teachers in reaching to higher levels of reflection, which enables future teachers to seek and analyse teaching and learning strategies and pedagogical theories and their relations in their particular context (Szivák, 2014).

Conclusions

The system of ITE has faced two major reforms in the past two decades: firstly, the introduction of the two-cycled, Bologna-type teacher education in 2006 brought new elements into the system (e.g. mentoring), but after a considerably short period, in 2013 this system was abandoned, and ITE was restored to the so-called undivided system. Some of the reasons behind this restoration were a significant reduction in the number of student teachers, poorer student performance, and dissatisfaction with the ratio of disciplinary and pedagogical-psychological modules. However, the introduction of the undivided system (which is the current one) just partially remedied these criticisms.

The system of ITE cannot cope with the most urgent challenges, such as teacher shortage due to the deep societal embeddedness of these phenomena. The rigorously regulated nature of teacher education hinders the rapid response to the local requirements (e.g. becoming research-based, strengthening the innovation potential, and adapting new methods). However, this regulated nature resonates with the centralized nature of public education. Higher education institutions (HEI) offering teacher education attempt to establish and maintain an innovative approach within this framework (e.g. by doing lesson studies).

Although ITE is rather unified on the national level with regards to content of the teaching process and requirements as described in the Training and Outcome Requirements, there are institutional particularities in assessment methods and processes (e.g. who evaluates the portfolios: university- or school-based teacher educators) and approaches.

Despite the professional discourse regarding the gap between theory and practice, teacher education programmes are still rather delimited: disciplinary, pedagogical-psychological and practice modules are somewhat separated, and there is little connection between them. The harmonization of the internal content and requirements of ITE is the challenge of the coming period; closer discourse between

the involved actors requires strong mediation, in which all teacher educators shall be sufficiently cooperative. However, there is no doubt that teacher education in Hungary has undergone great deal of development since the introduction of the Bologna-type system, and hopefully, the positive elements and good practices in the system can offset the problems arising from the environment. Truly lasting quality in teacher education can only be guaranteed if teacher education becomes a key priority for both universities and education policy.

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The Project of the Research Master's Degree Program in the Education Sphere

Abstract. The focus of the project undertaken is to comprehend, what is the research magistracy in education in the twenty-first century. Since the 1990s, when the master's level of training first appeared in the Russian education system, a search was made for its place and role in the system of training highly qualified personnel for the education system. The central problem of the current stage of the master education development is a triple conjunction: understanding the relationship between research and educational activities; the reflection of the contexts, conditions and limitations of research activity in the field of education; and the creation of new research programs based on humanitarian discourses in the second half of the twentieth century. The conceptual foundations of the project were built in connection with the ideas of T. Kuhn's "scientific paradigms" and I. Lakatos's "research programs", which made it possible to establish a correspondence between different educational values and the type of research practices; the field approach of P. Bourdieu, which allows the models and resources of research activity to be structured; and structural psychoanalysis by J. Lacan, which provides a new look at research activity. As a result of the article, a generalized image of the developed master's program "Interdisciplinary Studies in Education" is formulated.

Keywords: master degree program, research magistracy in education, scientific paradigms, research programs, field approach, structural psychoanalysis, interdisciplinary studies in education

Introduction and Literature Review

The history of master's education in Russia, of course, is much shorter than in European countries and is about three decades old; however, even during this

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period of time, there have been several shifts that determined the current state and development trends of this system.

As it is known from a fundamental article on the history of changes in perceptions of the magistracy (Nikulina, 2014), the approval of the magistracy as an independent level of education was associated with essential changes in the social structure and the construction of a post-industrial society. In this context, new program documents were developed, such as the "Concept for the Long-Term Development of Russia for the Period to 2020" (2008), the "Strategy of innovative development of the Russian Federation for the period to 2020" (2011) etc.

Since then, a master's graduate was considered primarily as a "change agent" or "a person whose presence, thought processes and activities cause a change in the traditional way of solving or understanding a problem" (Friedman, 2000). In the field of education, this meant that a researcher with a willingness and ability to transform activities, that is, consent and a desire to promote change should be the "agent of change" (Fielding, 2001; Kay et al., 2010).

As a result, E.G. Nikulina distinguishes two stages in the development of master's education, differing in their meanings, goals, and issues of discussion. The beginning of the first period is connected with the Decree of the Government of the Russian Federation No.13 "On the introduction of a multilevel structure of higher education in the Russian Federation" (1992). This decree gave universities the right to train bachelors and masters along with graduates. The purpose of the master's program was defined as the training of masters of sciences, whose future activities should be primarily of a research nature. As V. Senashenko noted, "Master's programs within the framework of a multi-level system are an integral element of higher education, professionally oriented to scientific research; this is the educational link where education and creative [research] activity come together" (Senashenko, 1993, p. 94).

In order to ensure the implementation of Decree No. 13 on August 10, 1993, the "Regulation on Master's Training (Master) in the System of Multilevel Higher Education of the Russian Federation" (1993) was approved. In accordance with this provision, master's educational programs were associated with bachelor's programs in relevant areas and were considered as "add-ons" for bachelor's programs, which allowed them to master the chosen field of study in a larger volume and with a greater degree of depth. This position consolidated the orientation of master's training exclusively on research and scientific-pedagogical activity.

According to the Decree of the Government of the Russian Federation of August 12, 1994 N 940 "On approval of the state educational standard of higher professional education" (1994), the magistracy was assigned to be the third level of higher education, and consisted of a bachelor's program in a relevant area and at least two-year specialized training focused on science – research and (or) scientific and pedagogical activity of the graduate.

Thus, 50% of the master's professional educational program curriculum was research, and the goal of the master's program was "training specialists capable of independent research activity" (Senashenko & Komissarova, 1995, p. 107).

This implied strict requirements for the level of scientific equipment of magistracy: the availability of scientific schools, the high personnel potential of the university (70% of the faculty are doctors and candidates of science) and the presence of postgraduate studies: at least 50% of the master's programs in this field should be provided by related graduate studies (Senashenko & Komissarova, 1995, p. 108).

The second stage in the development of master's education is associated with Russia's entry into the Bologna process, and therefore, the main problems were associated with the implementation of the principles of the Bologna process in the domestic education system. Among them were the transition to two-cycle training, the introduction of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) and the differentiation of "scientific" and "applied" magistracy. At the same time, the range of magistracy areas was expanding. According to order No.62 of the Russian Ministry of Education and Science "On the educational program of higher professional education of specialized training for masters" (2006), master's programs could be focused not only on research and scientific-pedagogical activity, but also on design, managerial, cultural or educational activities.

The Federal State Educational Standard of Higher Professional Education defined the master's degree as a higher advanced professional education that allows the graduate to successfully work in the chosen field of activity and to possess universal and subject-specific competencies that contribute to his social mobility and stability in the labour market. In particular, the following competencies became priorities of master's training (Bajdenko, 2009a, 2009b, 2009c): systematic understanding of the field of study and possession of skills and research methods related to this field; the ability to plan, implement and apply research with criteria of scientific certainty; as well as the ability to critically analyse, synthesize and evaluate new and complex ideas.

The implementation of these priorities meant, in practical terms, the inclusion in the educational system of universities of various kinds of business incubators, "remote departments" (the university's subdivisions established in other institutions); the development of network training programs with the participation of foreign universities and scientific institutions of the Russian Academy of Sciences and the Russian Academy of Education, the individualization and profiling of student training, and modern educational technologies.

At the same time, the main change in the development priorities of the magistracy at the second stage was the focus not only on the preparation of a research scientist (especially since this task is more or less successfully solved in postgraduate studies) but on a professional innovator who is ready for research and subsequent

reconstruction of his professional practice (Churkin & Churkina, 2018; Guseva, 2012; Sinicyna & Churkina, 2015).

At the institutional level, the second stage is also characterized by a large-scale transformation of the magistracy in pedagogical areas and profiles in connection with the inclusion of most pedagogical universities in the composition of research and federal universities, which creates some conditions for interaction in the cooperation of the "classical" university and "psychological and pedagogical" tradition in master's education, which expands international contacts of pedagogical magistrates, provides access to a modern scientific infrastructure, and introduces modern forms of design and research activities.

To provide background for these transformations, the Professional Standard "Teacher" (Order, 2013) was approved in 2013, which contains a huge number of new requirements for the teacher, including the implementation of research activities. To ensure the preparation of students for the implementation of this standard in 2014–2017, the Teacher Education Modernization Project (Safronova & Bysik, 2014) was implemented in the Russian system of teacher education. The main goals of which are "radically improving the quality of training of students receiving teacher training; changing the content of teacher training technologies in order to implement a professional standard, new Federal State Educational Standards at school and preschool stages; and improving the effectiveness of universities implementing teacher training programs and teacher training colleges."

It was assumed that the project was undertaken by 65 educational institutions situated in 51 regions of the Russian Federation which had to develop not only a new model of teacher education but also a new ideology of its development (Margolis & Safronova, 2018).

One of the aspects of the Pedagogical Education Modernization Project was the development of a research master's model (Vesmanov et al., 2015). At the same time, a significant defect in these searches remains the ambiguity of the concept of research activity in the modern education system as a whole, and, as a result, the lack of certainty regarding the influence of researches over other activities in the field of education.

It seems important to us to review the situation with the research component of teacher training in the world in order to identify the general difficulties, the specifics of the problems of teacher training in the world, and possible solutions. One of the urgent problems remains the relationship between practice-oriented and research training of teachers.

The problem is that even in Finland, known for its successes, the difference between the two concepts of teacher education is almost imperceptible, and the gap between the theory and practice of education, education received and subsequent professional career is a big problem (Puustinen et al., 2018).

Another important factor determining the importance of research experience for the training of teachers is their own orientation to its acquisition and use (Brew & Saunders, 2020). More subtle dependencies of the research approach to teaching are also revealed: it turns out that its success is determined not only by the content of the programs but also by the institutional and social context, and the programs themselves must be internally more consistent: the term "coherent" is often used here (Munte & Rogne, 2015).

At the same time, no one questions the general usefulness of the participation of teachers in research for their professional and personal development, including as part of research teams (Niemi & Nevgi, 2014; Willegems et al., 2018). A similar effect is observed for students and teachers in the system of teacher education: the research activity everywhere becomes an important factor in professional formation and development (Dobber et al., 2012; Yogev & Yogev, 2006).

Meanwhile, the discussion of the research orientation of teacher training, as a rule, ignores many deeper problems associated with qualitative changes in the essence and meaning of scientific and humanitarian knowledge itself and especially research in the field of education in recent decades and the inevitable constant redefinition of values and meanings cognition over time (Afdal & Spernes, 2018; Gitlin et. al., 1999).

Purpose of the Research

In our research we deal with some definite problems and trends in the Russian teacher education, as follows:

First, in Russia and the Russian-speaking scientific and educational space (we note that this is part of the global trend, but in Russia it has manifested itself with greater certainty) in recent decades there has been an "inflation" of research in the field of education, loss of authenticity, the widespread of incorrect borrowings, ghost writing, etc.

Secondly, the mutual alienation of educational, managerial and scientific institutions is intensified; scientific knowledge is not relevant and in demand in the development and implementation of strategic decisions in the field of education.

Thirdly, the younger generation of researchers is in a frustrating situation: the traditional approaches and models of psychological and pedagogical research are irrelevant to the changed reality, and the new realities, for various reasons, have not yet been fully comprehended nor brought into an instrumental and comprehensive form.

Fourthly, we are witnessing a progressive fragmentation of the educational space in many aspects, in connection with which, observers note the inefficiency

and even the impossibility of implementing long-term development projects and programs.

At the same time, conceptualization is continuing in the following areas:

1. Philosophy of master's education (Lebedeva, 2010).
2. Methodologies for the development of master programs (Buntova, 2019; Hajrutdinov, 2019);
3. Organization of research activities in the magistracy (Fedorova & Churkina, 2016; Vaganova et al., 2017).

In these conditions, our purpose is developing the conceptual background, model and content for the research master-degree program in the sphere of teacher education, aimed at preparing educational leaders who have the definite willingness and readiness for changes and have been trained in a variety of research, project, teaching and management methodologies. To do this, we use a complex hypothesis: a research master's project in the field of teacher training can be an effective means of the modernization of teacher education under following conditions:

– The research activities of the students and teaching staff will be implemented in the context of a certain research program developed and implemented in the form of a scientific paradigms and programs (T. Kuhn and I. Lakatos);
– All the research, project, teaching and management activities will be performed in an integrated social field of the educational system (we could also name it as "ecosystems"), as such, and be adjusted to external challenges, internal resources and processes (P. Bourdieu);
– Any kind of research activity will be based on the processes of self--determination, self-identification and sense formation, and, in this aspect, involve the use of tools and concepts of structural psychoanalysis (J. Lacan).

Methodology

The concept of a "paradigm", proposed in 1962 by Thomas Kuhn (Kuhn, 1977), has in recent years become very widespread in the field of education and many other humanitarian disciplines (Osipov, 2017), but its application is associated with a number of difficulties. In particular, the concept has been successfully used for a retrospective review of models of scientific activity, but it is ineffective in the design of new research. In addition, the definition proposed by T. Kuhn himself contained a certain share of sociological uncertainty (Kuhn, 1977, p. 28): "Their creation (of classical works) was sufficiently unprecedented to attract for a long time a group of supporters from competing areas of scientific research. At the same time, they were open enough so that new generations of scientists could find unresolved problems of any kind for themselves ... Achievements with these two characteristics, I will call further "paradigms" ... ".

In addition, "The new paradigm also implies a new, clearer definition of the field of study" (Kuhn, 1977, p. 39), however, "... a kind of scientific research is possible without paradigms or, at least, without such definite and mandatory paradigms" (Kuhn, 1977, p. 30). At the same time, "paradigms acquire their status because their use leads to success rather than the use of competing methods to solve some problems ..." (Kuhn, 1977, p. 45). Finally, the paradigm is "what unites the members of the scientific community, and, conversely, the scientific community consists of people who recognize the paradigm" (Kuhn, 1977, p. 229)

All the above aspects of the concept indicate the appropriateness of the concept of "paradigm" in the conditions of the modern Western community of natural scientists; since it significantly involves such concepts as: novelty / unprecedented scientific experience; scientific competition, as the main tool for ensuring the productivity of science, the confrontation of "supporters" and "opponents" of new knowledge, etc.

Some alternative (or rather, an addition) to the views of Thomas Kuhn is the methodology of research programs by Imre Lakatos (2008). In contrast to T. Kuhn, who focused on sociological criteria and aspects of "trust in knowledge", I. Lakatos, to a greater extent, appealed to the normative side of the cognition process.

In particular, any theories appear, in his system of views, only as elements (stages) of the development of research programs related to constant succession and competition. Accordingly, criticality both internal and external is a necessary condition for the development of this or that knowledge. In general, it is the stereoscopic view of I. Lakatos on any scientific processes due to the identification of intrascientific (internal) and sociocultural (external) reflection ("falsification") (Lakatos, 2008), which is one of the most attractive aspects of his concept. The very concept of a research program includes four significantly different components:

- "hard core" – a system of fundamental ideas and assumptions that determine the integrity and identity of the research program;
- "protective belt", consisting of auxiliary hypotheses and ensuring the safety of the "hard core" from refutation; it can be modified, partially or completely replaced in the event of a collision with counterexamples;
- "positive heuristics" or a set of normative methodological rules and regulations setting directions for further search;
- "negative heuristics" – informal prohibitions or restrictions on research directions and ways.

For several decades, the idea of I. Lakatos's research programs was perceived, to a greater extent, as one of the objects of "philosophy and history of science", and only in recent years have individual studies begun to actualize the potential of I. Lakatos's views on the solution of specific philosophical issues (Vorob'ev, 2016).

Meanwhile, the problem of research in the field of education is determined by the fact that the value foundations of these studies are far from the ideals of the natural sciences and are in a complex field defined by elements of scientific knowledge, religious and philosophical values, political and ideological attitudes, as well as ordinary ideas and concepts.

A substantial progress of conceptualization and understanding of the processes and problems in social sphere is due interpretations given by the twentieth century sociologist Pierre Bourdieu and, in particular, his research in the field of the sociology of science and education (Bourdieu, 2001; Bourdieu, 2005; Vakan, 2007; Ivanova, 2012).

At the same time, the following should be noted: until now, the methodological apparatus of research in education, on the one hand, and the conceptual structures of P. Bourdieu, so far, have been in completely different spaces. We believe that our task is to show that the very formulation of the methodological apparatus of research is the very space in which the action of field factors and conditions is manifested with the greatest completeness and obviousness.

The absolutely fundamental fact for constructing any field is its producing character: depending on the context in which this or that field is formed, knowledge, culture, power, etc. can be produced. Moreover, there are no "pure" fields producing only one type of "product", but a combination of various trends and factors determines the specifics of production.

According to P. Bourdieu, the field of science is "over-determined" that is, it is determined by at least two sets of factors and attitudes – political (gaining power and influence) and epistemological (gaining knowledge in accordance with a certain methodology).

The field ideas of P. Bourdieu perfectly solve another eternal problem of scientific knowledge – the objectivity / subjectivity of scientific creativity. Indeed, we are accustomed to the fact that in the introduction to each scientific work (from term paper to the dissertation), there is always a description of the object and subject of knowledge, which are thought of as a "given" to the researcher. Meanwhile, the field approach distinguishes behind this formality the complex process of objectification and subjectivation, that is, the construction of the subject and the object of cognition through a series of procedures: admission to graduate school, conclusion of contracts between researchers and educational institutions, etc. It is the totality of these procedures, tolerances, conditions and conventions (in the terminology of P. Bourdieu, "habitus") that sets the field of cognition and, at the same time, is a limiting factor for the research practice itself.

Finally, one cannot fail to note the fundamental role of the procedures for including and excluding acquired knowledge (hierarchy and exclusion). Any acquired knowledge is necessarily evaluated and built into the current social order on the basis of its "community", "significance", and "evidence".

Moreover, any knowledge has a risk, due to various reasons, to be outside the scientific field itself, being recognized as "unscientific" or "unconventional". It should be noted that the concept of P. Bourdieu's field gives a lot, from the point of view, of understanding "macro processes" and understanding of scientific "macro politics", but it is not enough to understand what the individual practice of scientific and pedagogical knowledge and activity is. And here, paradoxically, the psychoanalytic tradition comes to our aid, associated with the tradition of psychoanalysis developed by the philosopher and anthropologist of the twentieth century Jacques Lacan (1901–1981) (Evans, 1996; Naumova, 2015). Let us briefly review the emerging prospects in this regard.

1. Three registers of human being: the Real, the Imaginary, and the Symbolic ones. The starting point for a psychoanalytic interpretation is the understanding that the Reality of education (as, indeed, of any social system) always exceeds the capabilities of our rational consciousness. We are constantly in a stream of unreasonable experiences, events, meetings, emotions, the awareness and comprehension of which would make our life unbearable. That is why they "flow" through us, as a rule, without leaving any traces in the mind (where the name "unconscious" comes from). Another register of our being is the Imaginary, that is, that rather narrow segment of reality that is experienced and recognized as actions, thoughts, and images; it is in this segment that we can talk about our desires, dreams, ways of behaving. Finally, the third, narrowest segment is the normative Symbolic structure that we have, ordering everything that happens through the prism of the demanded or rejected, possible or unnecessary, etc. In fact, this is a set of rules, norms, prohibitions, arguments, justifications that we use in order to regulate our own behaviour or the activities of others.
2. All three registers of human reality are partly combined, partly contradictory to each other, in any case, the total overcoming of splitting is impossible. The conflict generated by these differences can have a very significant effect on behaviour, especially if the Symbolic structure contradicts the imaginary, or the imaginary is in conflict with the real. Accordingly, each educational phenomenon is differentiated: into the Real, the Imaginary and the Symbolic aspects.
3. The basic values of both educational and research activities are not associated with the search for some abstract "absolute truth", but with the increment of some symbolic capitals – knowledge, fame and scientific authority, financial resources, career opportunities, etc. In this regard, the activities of both the modern representative of educational practice and the research teacher are closer to the activities of the analyst and consultant.

Results

In this part of study, we analyse the major features and peculiarities of the main research master-degree program. Its main purpose is to prepare highly qualified research practitioners in the field of education, ready for comprehensive research, examination of the current state of educational practices and educational systems, as well as to participate in innovative, project, teaching and management activities.

Thus, it can be argued that the program belongs to the mixed type of programs, preparing graduates for several types of activities (including pedagogical, methodological, and managerial) with the leading role of research.

As reference points, four master's programs were already implemented, which are already being implemented at various universities in Russia and the world.

Master's program "Measurements in Psychology and Education" at the National Research University "Higher School of Economics"[2]. In contrast to this program, which focuses more on creating tools measurements in the social sciences and business, our program involves the formation of a wider range of competencies related to interdisciplinary research of educational practices and environments, as well as their improvement.

Master's program "Design and evaluation of educational programs and processes" at the Moscow Pedagogical State University[3]. The program we are developing has a number of common features, but it involves mastering not only project but also research and managerial competencies, including those ones in the educational practices.

The master's program of the same name "Interdisciplinary research in education" at the Moscow Pedagogical State University[4]. As the MPGU program is focused mainly on the psychological and pedagogical support provided by school psychologists and does not imply the formation of research and project competencies, the developing program provides preparation for comprehensive social and pedagogical research and research in the framework of the Strategic Technology Initiative in Russia (so-called, "Edunet").

One of the most interesting precedents of the developed program is the "Mind, Brain and Education" program, implemented at the Harvard School of Education[5]. It should be noted however, unlike the Harvard program, the study of the cognitive

2 Program site https://www.hse.ru/ma/psyedu/.

3 Program site: http://mpgu.su/ob-mpgu/struktura/faculties/institut-vyisshaya-shkola-obrazovaniya/magistratura/44–04-01-proektirovanie-i-otsenka-obrazovatelnyih-programm-i-protsessov--pedagogicheskoe-obrazovanie /.

4 Program site http://mpgu.su/ob-mpgu/struktura/faculties/institut-vyisshaya-shkola-obrazovaniya/magistratura/44–04-02-mezhdistsiplinarnyie-issledovaniya-v-obrazovanii-psihologo-pedagogicheskoe-obrazovanie.

5 Program site https://www.gse.harvard.edu/masters/mbe.

and neuropsychological aspects of educational activity is not an only priority of the program, but it is considered as one of the areas of research along with sociological, psychological and pedagogical methods, quality examination, etc.

Finally, another program similar to the one being developed is the POLS ("Policy, Organization and Leadership Studies") program, implemented at the Stanford Graduate School of Education[6]. As well as the program at Stanford, emphasizes the formation of undergraduates with a wide range of competencies necessary for a career in education: the use of modern information technologies and the management of educational processes and practices.

Graduates will be able to work:

- in the scientific community as graduate students and teachers; researchers of scientific problems of education;
- in educational authorities, centres for testing and assessing the quality of education – as experts, methodologists, developers of innovative programs and projects;
- in non-governmental organizations (including institutions of additional education, entertainment centres) – as developers of educational programs and fields, experts on the quality and effectiveness of educational activities.

In general, it should be noted that in the Russian education system there is a completely unsatisfied demand for specialists having competences of the twenty--first century in the professional field (critical thinking, creativity, communication and cooperation), as well as research and evaluation of effectiveness, quality examination education, etc.

The program consists of 4 modules:

Research module: the task is to prepare for the solution of research problems both independently and as part of the research team. For this, undergraduates study the disciplines "Modern problems of science and education", "Methods of sociological research", "Methods of neuropsychological research in education", "AI methods in education", "Quantitative methods of research and processing of experimental information", "Fundamentals of science." Under this module, undergraduates undergo research practice.

Pedagogical module. Its task is to prepare students for using modern information and communication technologies; the modernization of their educational activities, the organization of the educational process in modern conditions, the accompaniment of individual educational trajectories of students. For this, undergraduates study "Educational Theories and Systems", "Modern Educational Technologies" courses "Pedagogical Rhetoric" and "Pedagogical Communication", and undertake pedagogical practice.

6 Program site https://ed.stanford.edu/pols.

Design module. Its goal is to prepare undergraduates for project management at all stages of the life cycle, organize the work of the team, develop and implement additional educational programs and programs for the monitoring and development of educational systems. For this, undergraduates study "Innovative processes in education", "Workshop on the design of information educational technologies"; "Fundamentals of electronic source", participate in technological practice.

Management module: its task is to prepare for the organization of the activities of teachers and students, determine the priorities and content of their own activities, design and implement flexible management of the educational system. For this, undergraduates will study "Management of a modern educational organization: political, legal and economic problems", "Methods and strategies of flexible management in education (Agile, Scrum, Kanban), will undertake management practice.

Discussion and Conclusions

One of the main important controversies existing in Russian education and its studies is a great discrepancy between "traditional" and "progressive" paradigms (also orientations) in education. Due to the T. Kuhn and I. Lakatos ideas we may clarify some basic features, dispositions of the both paradigms and also scientific problems for thorough consideration. The ideas and meanings of the traditional paradigm are quite fully and systematically presented in most courses on the history of pedagogy, and, in an implicit form, they still form the basis of the national education system.

1. The most fundamental fact of traditional paradigm is a belief that the only real agent of educational policy and practice is the Russian state. Unlike Western Europe, where education was a rather complicated conglomerate of various traditions and cultures (ancient, Christian, state, corporative), the history of Russian education is almost entirely determined by state educational policy. Accordingly, the turn of state attention towards schools is clearly associated with the flourishing of education; on the contrary, any attempt to distance education from the state is seen as the beginning of decline and collapse. For the same reason, only the real manifestation of state power play a fundamental role in the history and current state of pedagogy and education: the creation of the Academy of Sciences and the Academic University in 1724, the establishment of the Ministry of Education and University Districts (1804), the establishment of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences of the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (RSFSR, in 1943), etc.
2. Despite the fact that the religious component itself, within the framework of traditional paradigm, is not so significant, state participation in education

is in full accordance with the Orthodox triad: mental education (imprinting of the human image), moral education (upbringing of the heart and will) and personal development (the creation of conditions for the formation of psychological and personality abilities).

3. The dominant role of a teacher. The educational process, from the point of view of the traditional paradigm, is always "face to face", while the role of the teacher cannot be replaced or diminished by anything (including IT--technologies). A teacher simultaneously acts as a carrier of the teaching subject (in this regard, there is a certain hierarchy of subjects studied, the highest levels of which are occupied by mathematics and the native language as the most fully expressing the principles of science and the state nature of education), and, at the same time, as a carrier of the state and political senses in education.
4. The value character of education. The most important value of the traditional paradigm is the coherent system of pedagogical knowledge, which includes historical, philosophical and methodological components, the theory of education (didactics), subject-oriented methods, as well as the theory of education and school science. In fact, it is the science of pedagogy that appears as the unity of knowledge about a child, a teacher, a school, the pedagogical processes, as well as the custodian of the answers to the challenges of the time and the carrier of new knowledge for the future.

It should be noted that the area of the "protective belt" of traditional paradigm (as I. Lakatos would say) also includes ideas about the religious nature of instruction (in some eras, education directly refers to religious, church foundations, in some, the traditional paradigm acts as a relatively autonomous tradition of "social values"); another similar "belt-shaped" concept is the question of the personality of the student: in the era of liberalization, it has become the dominant value, or to cede the primacy of the teacher's personality, but in any case, the personal nature of education and upbringing may not questioned.

Positive and negative heuristics are associated with a statement of the crisis of education, caused, from the point of view of pedagogical traditionalism by the rejection of its national roots, the false pursuit of recognition of Russian education abroad and removal of the classics of Russian pedagogy. That is why one may see a decline in the quality of teacher training, and the loss of their authority. The main means of solving these problems seem quite obvious – the rejection of the invention of new terms, forms and methods of control (including educational standards, competency-based approach, variability), and a return to the Soviet model of school, the resumption of Russian pedagogy based on well-known principles and approaches, and strengthening state care for all aspects of education.

The opposite pole of "progressive paradigm" considers the history of the Russian school and pedagogy as, first of all, the history of the struggle of teachers' personalities against the deadening state system of norms and regulations. Accordingly, the basis of pedagogy is not a public administration system, but an innovative subsystem of society, described by many "innovative" concepts, such as: "The Fourth Industrial Revolution", "Sixth Technological Order", "Revolution of Skills Update", "Innovative Ecosystem", "National Technological initiative ", etc.

The correlation of this multitude are the concepts of philosophical and pedagogical anthropology, including: "individuality", "human rights and freedoms", "independence", and "cooperation". It is the child who turns out to be the protagonist and the customer of education – any attempts to transfer responsibility for his education to parents, the school or the state are considered as a violation of the basic rights of the person and an attempt to deprive a person of the dominant gift – freedom. Another important aspect of progressive paradigm is a statement of accelerating changes that make any kind of training on the patterns of the past not only useless, but also harmful, because it accustoms the child to action in conditions that will never occur. The main danger of returning to the unreal past of false uniformity and meaningless repetitions is also connected with this. On the contrary, the variability of school norms and patterns and the orientation to the cultivation of new experience ensures the preservation of children's health, their psychological and physical well-being.

Many contradictions arise regarding the determination of the place and role of scientific and pedagogical research in education. If we talk about the traditional paradigm, the state is the main customer of scientific activity, and the teacher is the recipient. To the extent that we turn to progressive paradigm, a completely different hierarchy of values and problems arises. The point is that the educational order and need should become the subject of design. This implies a large role and responsibility of pedagogical science; the use of a wide range of research and management methods, which include strategic and innovative management, quality diagnostics, etc.

Regarding the opposition to the traditional and progressive paradigms through the prism of the field approach, we need to question, how political management, practical activity and scientific research determine the subjectivity in education and its dependence of the field, inside which it is being produced. At the same time, judging from the psychoanalytic point of view, the main aspects of cognitive activity are preserved by the orientation to the Symbolic structures (publications in highly rated journals, obtaining recognition), the Imaginary (individual goal-setting, self--determination in the world of education); and the Real (immersion in educational practice).

The new knowledge on education is internally contradictory. On the one hand, scientific activity is initiated by a will "to overcome dependence" on certain restrictions. On the other hand, the result of scientific and pedagogical research

is recognized only to the extent that it can be used to improve and increase the effectiveness of the current system (the so-called criterion of "practical significance of the study"). A similar contradiction exists in the sphere of the scientist's self--consciousness: personally, he/she is confident about his/her own significance and the importance of the chosen topic, however, recognition of the scientific status may be obtained only through outer recognition given by mentors and competitors.

The most important role in being recognized as a researcher is played by the scientific (sometimes called methodological) apparatus of research. Its main function is the processing of the entire set of the real and the imaginary associated with a specific study, and its presentation in the form of a symbolic structure alienated from the researcher. In this regard, the function of the methodological apparatus is similar to that one in chemical or metallurgical production: it structures the process into a series of successive stages; it provides fragmentation and consolidation of content, prepares it in some standard "blocks" and "products", ensures "safety" and regularity of scientific production, etc.

Each kind of a scientific activity is placed into a certain "energy relief". This may be some experience, which is considered worthy, but absent from the researcher himself (research on the description, generalization and dissemination of advanced pedagogical experience), or a gap between certain requirements (standards, norms) and existing resources and the practice of their implementation. Accordingly, the issue rests on the distribution of energies / resources – not only financial. At the same time, this situation questions the existing "apparatuses": mechanisms of energy distribution (financing, construction of managerial verticals and networks), its blocking (for example, by increasing reporting without changing the resource) or spraying (increasing orders and obligations).

The inner contradictions of research activity are often treated as some rhetorical phenomenon – it refers to documents and declarations of different levels and degrees of validity. Meanwhile, formal logical contradictions constitute only a small part of the internal contradictions that define the subject and problems of scientific research. The contradiction, in this respect, is closer to the concept of conflict that arises between individual processes, trends and is recognised to be something significant. The most significant contradictions arise between different levels of educational reality and the norms that they generate: global (global trends), national (federal legislation and standards) and micro-system standardization levels (individual strategies, personal resources). Another group of contradictions is formed between modernist (oriented to logical universals) and postmodern (oriented to network, project, communication strategies). Finally, there is a contradiction between the systemic (based on the totality of external requirements) and personal (formed in a situation of non-adaptive activity) interpretation of the subject of education.

The objectification of scientific and pedagogical knowledge may be also questioned as a logical and substantial phenomenon. As we have repeatedly noted,

a human reality is split into various aspects. One of the most significant one, in the logic of scientific and pedagogical research, is split along the lines of the "external" and "internal" objects. The research practice itself becomes possible only at the point of conjunction of these two images: the study should be initially interesting to its subject and be in some "internal" plane of motives, but its practical implementation becomes possible only as it is recognized as significant for the whole systems of the process documented by programs, contracts, grants. The tension between these two objects (more precisely, 'objectivization'), in a positive sense, is understood as "interest", but in the case of adverse conditions, it can lead to a rupture of the internal and external objects and have adverse consequences.

In this case, the researcher either turns into a controlled robot, incapable of simple independent actions, or a narcissistic closure occurs, replacing objective reality with a set of "self-processes" (self-education, self-education, self--development, self-realization, self-determination, etc.). The presence of "external" and "internal" objects, in a state of tension, determines the complexity of their mutual conversion: when the movement / change of an external object requires adequate conceptualization and understanding in the internal plane (introjection) and, on the opposite side, when changes in the internal mode of action are transformed into a new way thinking, activity or rationing (projection).

New representations and concepts, which arose in the process of research are the juxtaposition of primary and secondary processes and, as a result, of "ideas" and "concepts". Representations arise internally in a completely intuitive way, as a result of combining two basic mechanisms: reflection (the so-called "mirror stage" by J. Lacan) and fantasy. The first component is the result of assimilating the internal reality – external, the second – arbitrary evasion ("fantasms"). As a result, the emerging ideas combine many observations and arbitrary interpretations, and their dynamics are extremely complex and bizarre (primary processes). Scientific concepts arise externally as a result of a special selection, systematization and construction of primary concepts (secondary processes), taking into account the representations of predecessors objectified in the texts, the focus of the study, etc.

Objectification and research methodology mechanisms should make an object stable and conceivable. Indeed, the ongoing being, in which the internal and external determinants, complex and diverse motives and meanings are interlinked, is extremely unstable. At the same time, we can quite easily imagine two extreme points of this reality: on the one hand, this is the ideal of "human-machine production" (to a large extent, which Soviet pedagogy was oriented to): building a closed set of algorithms that allows each person to form predetermined properties personality and activity; on the other hand, it is an ideal of postmodern arbitrariness, where no action is mandatory and has irreversible consequences, but it is a random game with changing bets and adhering to arbitrary rules. In this regard, there is a certain

set (never articulated and completely unaware) of techniques and mechanisms that ensure the very situation of scientific and pedagogical knowledge.

The following value orientations of the research action can be distinguished:

- Goal setting and reflection. The most important pair of processes, providing, on the one hand, the production of some new (future) content and meaning, and, on the other hand, continuous criticism and formalization of the path travelled in well-known concepts and categories.
- Ensuring the constancy and stability of the facility. The meaning of these procedures is that during the entire research process, the object of cognition does not undergo any spontaneous changes that would affect the results of the study. Incidentally, the same, to a large extent, caused orientation toward the "average" student and the averaging of any indicators, as well as the "averaging" of student results: the more sensitive any system to random deviations and influences (including the student's personal characteristics or teachers) the less predictable is the result.
- Security. To implement this attitude, the necessary physical and psychological conditions are created, the "borders" are maintained, ethical protocols are followed, and preventive measures against aggressive manifestations are implemented.
- Introjection and projection. Any research involves a combination of methods (mechanisms) of introjection (assimilation and conceptualization in the internal plan of external processes) and projection (transition to the approval and implementation of internal norms and rules).
- Association and separation (isolation). The very formulation of the object of cognition always occurs at the intersection of these two mechanisms: the object of pedagogical knowledge arises only as a result of the generalization of a significant number of representations, elements, images (whether it is a "pedagogical process", "pedagogical system" or "technology"), but no less important and the opposite mechanism of separation of one object and their subsequent isolation from each other.
- Fantasy and rationalization. There is also a pair of interconnected processes, one of which is the free creation of new ideas, and the second is their criticism, simplification, integration into logical and semantic sequences.

Finally, organizational conditions for the development and implementation of the master's program involve the creation of multi-level networks. They can be built: at the level of a separate courses (a system of digital resources and communications between participants and partners), at the university level (partnership of faculties and departments in the process of developing and implementing training programs) and at the level of the global educational space (invitation of visiting professors from other countries, inclusion of undergraduates in the system of remote communications).

There are plans to hold annual international conferences with the participation of all undergraduates, teachers and colleagues from other countries; conducting summer schools, internships and practices for teachers and undergraduates, participating in projects of international associations in the field of education: the Association of Education Researchers, the European Association of Education Researchers (EERA), and the International Association of Education Researchers (WERA).

In conclusion, we note that our goal is to create a continuously developing project of research-oriented programs in the sphere of teacher education, which will be capable of focusing on the level of urgent needs of the education system, and ensuring its dynamic development.

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Measuring Instructor Self-Efficacy when Migrating Face-to-Face Courses Online

Abstract. This study measures instructors' online teaching self-efficacy with an aim to capture their immediate and initial perception of migrating their teaching online and identify potential instructional needs and support. The authors sent a survey to all instructors in our institution four days prior to the first day of classes in spring 2020 and received 73 responses (60% response rate). The number of years of experience with online tools was low (88%). Instructors reported high confidence in their ability to teach online (82%); realization of the effort to create quality online experiences (90%);

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belief that teaching online would be different (90%); recognition of having to modify their assessment (77%); ability of adjusting teaching efficiently with unexpected events (82%); knowledge of where to seek teaching and technology guidance (86% & 89%); and confidence in developing a similar rapport with students (71%). Respondents were split in their beliefs about offering similar active learning opportunities. This study supplements research on instructors' perception of online teaching as a well-planned and intentional event, offering implications over the immediate and long-term support to be offered to instructors regarding migrating courses online both in times of crisis and when such opportunities arise.

Keywords: self-efficacy; online teaching; course design; motivation; teaching methods; active learning

Introduction

When instructors are asked to migrate their existing face-to-face (F2F) courses to an online format at short notice, what will happen? How are the instructors' own perception of their ability to achieve this extremely challenging goal? What are the immediate difficulties they might have? And what are the instant decisions they might make? Existing studies (Chiasson et al., 2015; De Gagne, 2009; Freeman, 2013) show that online teaching can be much more demanding than F2F teaching. Faculty often report that online teaching needs more preparation time and can be more time consuming (Chiasson et al., 2015; Lewis & Abdul-Hamid, 2006; Mills et al., 2009).

Current studies on instructors' perception of online teaching are usually conducted retrospectively when instructors are asked to comment on their existing or past experience (Chiasson et al., 2015; Conrad, 2004; Ray, 2009) or to share their views on online education in general (Mills et al., 2009; Stewart, Bachman, & Johnson, 2010). In this paper, we report the findings from a survey we sent to all instructors at our institution who were notified of the decision to migrate all their courses online three weeks before the semester started, due to the Coronavirus (COVID-19) epidemic , resulting in the closure of all educational institutions in many cities in the Chinese mainland. By capturing instructors' immediate and initial perception of this demanding task prior to their teaching with the lens of instructors' self-efficacy, we hope the findings can provide implications for the potential support to be provided when such needs arise on special occasions[3]. This paper can thus supplement existing studies with a broader focus on instructors' self-efficacy, while

3 As we were finalizing this paper, we witnessed a vast number of campus closures accompanied by immediate transition to online teaching worldwide as COVID-19 escalated as a global pandemic.

contributing to research on 'planning, designing, delivering, and evaluating online instruction' (De Gagne, 2009, p. 581) in general.

Since research has shown that 'instructors increased their confidence and believed they became better instructors in their face-to-face courses' (Chiasson et al., 2015, p. 234), we believe that beyond revealing the current gaps in urgent migration to online instruction in unusual situations, this initial survey can also shed light on long-term future-oriented visions that higher education can build in terms of preparing instructors with the skills and abilities needed for high-quality online instruction or even for further integrating digital tools in their everyday F2F teaching.

In the present paper, we will introduce the background of this survey study and explain how we designed the survey by referring to the concept of instructors' self--efficacy. We will then demonstrate and discuss both the quantitative findings as well as our thematic analysis of the two open-ended questions in the survey. Towards the end of this paper, we will discuss the limitations of this study and outline potential areas for future studies.

Measuring Self-Efficacy prior to Online Teaching

Background

On January 27, 2020, following the required policy of campus closure, our university announced the decision to postpone the original starting date of the spring semester for two weeks (from February 3 to February 17, 2020). An email was sent from the university leadership to all faculty, announcing that they needed to start preparing to migrate their courses online (at least for the few weeks of the new semester until further notice), which meant that faculty had less than three weeks' time to prepare for an unusual semester. Meanwhile, students had also received the notice of the postponing starting date and of the transition to online learning. Within the three weeks, the Center for Teaching and Learning (CTL) started to offer support by providing online teaching guidance in areas of pedagogical advice, course design and examples, and teaching resources.

The authors of this research are both faculty members at this young private research university that has in total approximately 200 faculty members and 1800 undergraduate students. Our university has a diverse international make-up of both faculty members (from more than 20 countries) and students (half from China and half from 70 other countries). This means that when the announcement was made, all faculty and students were located in different places across the world (mostly in their home countries) in different time zones.

After designing the online Self-Efficacy survey (see Appendix), one of the authors (as the current CTL Director) emailed a link to the online survey to all faculty

four days before the beginning of the new semester (February 14, 2020) and invited them to complete the survey. The online survey was created using Google Form, and all data were all collected anonymously. In the email, the goal of this project was shared, which is to help further inform CTL's programs and resources, so they could target their assistance in these rapidly changing times.

Why Self-Efficacy and the Survey Design

The concept of instructor efficacy emerged during the 1970s following the development of two intertwined conceptual strands (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). In the area of instruction, it was defined specifically as 'the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect student performance' (Berman et al., 1977, p. 137). Meanwhile, Bandura further developed self-efficacy within the framework of social cognitive theory in the 1970s. Bandura (1977, 1982, 1993) defined self-efficacy as one's own perception and judgments of one's ability to perform actions required to deal with prospective situations in order to achieve desired outcomes, exerting influence on how one behaves, one's thought patterns, and emotional reactions. Bandura (1986) further argued that self-reflection is the most uniquely human characteristic and the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence, and resilience.

Our decision to design a survey centred around the concept of an instructors' self-efficacy is made by considering the relevance of this conceptual framework and the practicality of the method. As Bandura (1993) pointed out that 'people with high efficacy approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided.' (p. 144). In addition, efficacy expectations refer to one's conviction of successful execution of the behaviour required to produce the outcomes rather than one's expectation of the actual outcome (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, we believe the concept of self-efficacy aligns with our goal of understanding instructors' perception of their own ability and confidence before they begin to teach online as their level of self-efficacy can both influence their behaviour when teaching begins and can partially reveal the potential efforts they invest in this migration.

In terms of practicality, given the urgent situation that our university (and others) were experiencing, we had limited time to develop more thorough methods to collect data from multiple data sources, and we found it difficult to implement further qualitative research as all faculty members were prioritizing their time to prepare their courses for the online transition. We thus decided to start with an online survey to capture faculty's level of self-efficacy before the semester began when it comes to this urgent migration to online instruction.

In our survey, we collected three types of responses:

General information regarding instructor's discipline areas, years they have been teaching in higher education and in the current institution, as well as their own reporting of experience in teaching with online tools;

A self-efficacy scale survey composed of ten statements, where respondents choose a score between 1 and 4 (from 1 Not at all True; 2 Somewhat True; 3 Moderately True; and 4 Exactly True); and

Open-ended input for respondents to share the major difficulties when they were trying to migrate courses online and details of their plan; and an optional area where they could share the details of the percentage of lecture in their usual F2F courses, their decision of the online format (a/synchronous), and the percentage of active learning components.

When we designed the ten statements to measure self-efficacy scale, we referred to the Generalized Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE) (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) and Bandura's (1997) previous studies. As Bandura (1977) reminded us that there is not one all-purpose measure for perceived self-efficacy, we designed our ten self--efficacy scale statements by relating to the specific context of our focus. As a result, we included two statements that *describe one's overall confidence of online teaching* (I am confident that I can create and deliver high-quality online teaching; I understand the effort I need to create and offer effective online teaching), the two statements around *their skills for evaluating the situation and willingness of making alternative efforts* (I believe there are big differences between F2F and online teaching; I will have to modify my assessment strategies significantly for online teaching), two statements about *their confidence in achieving the desired outcomes* (I am able to offer the same type of active learning and engagement while online; I will be able to develop a similar rapport with my students online), two statements about *their confidence in managing difficulties and unexpectedness with identified efforts* (I am confident that I could adjust my teaching efficiently with unexpected events; I have built a network of resources to help resolve challenges while teaching online), and two statements about *the identification of resources in challenging situations* (I know how and where to seek help if I meet any difficulties with online teaching; I know how and where to seek help if I meet any difficulties with technology).

Results

We calculated all the responses before the teaching began on the Monday, February 17, and in total that provided 73 valid responses (by the end of January 2019, the total faculty number who have committed to teaching in Spring 2020 is about 120 and in total 317 courses are offered), resulting in a 60% response rate. The data, analysis and interpretation of this research is based on those 73 faculty responses.

Of the 73 responses, the areas with the most responses include Sciences (20%); Social Sciences (16%); Chinese Language (18%); IMA (Interactive Media Arts)/ IMB (Interactive Media Arts and Business) (14%); and EAP (English for Academic Purposes) (10%), which encompasses 78% of the respondents. Therefore, many of the conclusions may be based on the perspectives of these faculty. More than half (60%) have been teaching over five years in higher education. About an even distribution of respondents from a range of years teaching at this university participated. The number of years of *experience with online tools was low,* with most (88%) of the respondents self-reporting that they have either 'No Experience At All (18%)'; 'Very Limited Experience (integrated a few digital tools for some sessions, 40%)'; or 'Some Experience (used technology frequently when teaching F2F and blended, 30%).'

The results of self-efficacy data show an overall *high confidence in their perceived ability to teach online* (82%) ('Moderately True' or 'Higher'). There is also a high level of confidence in terms of instructors' perception in their:

- ability to realize the effort to create quality online experiences (90%);
- thoughts that teaching online would be different (90%);
- approach they would have to modify their assessment (77%);
- approach they can adjust with unexpected events (82%);
- knowledge where to seek teaching and technology guidance (86%; 89%); and
- ability to develop a similar rapport with students (71%).

Respondents were split in their beliefs about offering similar active learning opportunities online as they have done in their F2F courses.

Table 1.
Result of Self-Efficacy Scores as Number of Respondents (percentage).

	1 (Not at all true)	2 (Somewhat true)	3 (Moderately true)	4 (Exactly true)
Self-Efficacy Statement	Number of Respondents (percentage, %)			
I am confident that I can create and deliver high-quality online teaching.	0 (0%)	13 (17.8%)	45 (61.6%)	15 (20.5%)
I understand the effort I need to create and offer effective online teaching.	0 (0%)	7 (9.6%)	25 (34.2%)	41 (56.2%)
I believe there are big differences between F2F and online teaching.	0 (0%)	7 (9.6%)	26 (35.6%)	40 (54.8%)
I am able to offer the same type of active learning and engagement while online.	4 (5.5%)	33 (45.2%)	30 (41.1%)	6 (8.2%)
I will have to modify my assessment strategies significantly for online teaching.	1 (1.4%)	16 (21.9%)	26 (35.6%)	30 (41.1%)

I am confident that I could adjust my teaching efficiently with unexpected events.	0 (0%)	13 (17.8%)	45 (61.6%)	15 (20.5%)
I know how and where to seek help if I meet any difficulties with online teaching.	1 (1.4%)	9 (12.3%)	25 (34.2%)	38 (52.1%)
I know how and where to seek help if I meet any difficulties with technology.	2 (2.7%)	5 (6.8%)	31 (42.5%)	35 (47.9%)
I will be able to develop a similar rapport with my students online.	6 (8.2%)	15 (20.5%)	38 (52.1%)	14 (19.2%)
I have built a network of resources to help resolve challenges while teaching online.	4 (5.5%)	15 (20.5%)	31 (42.5%)	23 (31.5%)

Since the first open-ended question is set as a required response area, we also received 73 answers. We used thematic coding to categorize the main themes emerging from the textual data. Trends from responses on *major difficulties* encountered when migrating online include:

1. *Technology:* Where 39 comments of 96 (40.6%) mentioned some aspects of faculty perception of using technology.
2. *Interaction and Active Learning:* Was listed by 24 of 96 (25.0%), sharing some ideas of their perception that active learning would be affected.
3. *Course Design (including Learning Outcomes, Assessment and Methods):* Stated by 20 of the 96 (20.8%) participants that they would have to re/consider foundational aspects of their approach to organize course content and expectations.
4. *Unsure:* Was posted by 13 of 96 (13.5%), as they mentioned several aspects that they were not sure how to anticipate and/or plan for this online experience.

The second open-ended question is optional, and we received 44 responses, from which we can summarize that the models that faculty selected are:

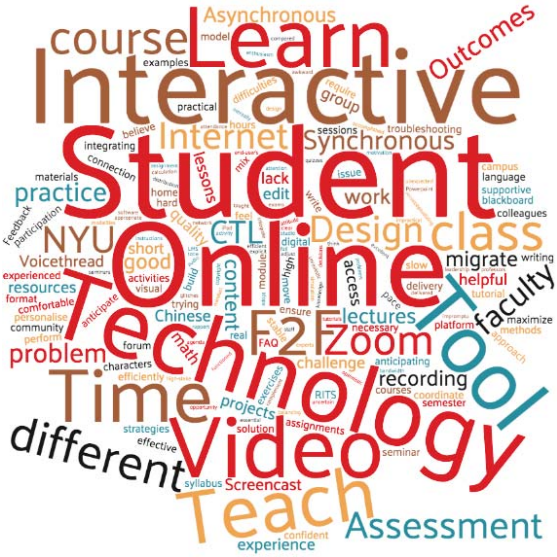
Mixed	(45.4%)
Synchronous	(27.3%)
Asynchronous	(18.2%)
No Response	(9.1%)

Among the 44 responses, 23 respondents (52.3%) shared how they plan to distribute time for teaching online (central tendency and dispersion statistics of 23 respondents):

Lecture	(Average 38%; Standard Deviation 22.0; Range 10–90%)
Discuss	(Average 33%; Standard Deviation 30.6; Range 0–90%)
Active	(Average 29%; Standard Deviation 28.8; Range 0–85%)

Data from the open ended responses were gathered and sorted using a graphical word distribution program resulting in Figure 1.

Figure 1.
Word Cloud (difficulties when migrating courses online)



Discussion

Overall, it is clear instructors reported their perception of an initial *high confidence* for migrating and teaching online courses ('Moderately True' or 'Higher'). From the available open-ended responses, it seems that instructors are aware of the challenges posed by the rapid migration, and the major concerns are functional *technology , student engagement, and course redesign*. From the open--ended responses we obtained, our interpretation is that most instructors immediately identify technology as the primary concern, though their actual reference of technology may differ. In general, concerns over technology show two major patterns: general technology and network issues ('unexpected technology problem; need to develop new activity with limited knowledge and familiarity with the tech'; 'quality of internet connection'), to network issues ('the slow internet', 'stability of the Internet'*)* and the need for exploring different digital tools ('First time encounters with several different online tools (Zoom, Voice Thread, Web Publishing) all at once'; 'joggling a lot of different tools'; 'I need to get familiar with so many online tools; by choosing between various tools').

Our summary of the responses sharing instructor's *approach to online teaching* is:

1. Instructors are exploring different learning tools to teach online. And some have implied that they value student engagement (also peer learning/ interactions).

2. Time zone difference was mentioned as a major challenge for interaction. When explaining why a/synchronous format was chosen, the reasons included:
   1) feasibility (time zone, convenience);
   2) student experience, course design (assess methods);
   3) students' diverse needs (e.g. 'because chat can be more welcoming to quieter students or those who like to compose a response carefully'); and
   4) some do not seem to be able to articulate (e.g. 'because it's a language course').

Since these are averages, the data may not tell us much, other than as with any instructional approach, a large variance. If we were attempting to interpret in an optimistic way, perhaps we could conclude that students, as a whole, on average would be receiving an equal amount (one third each) of lecture, discussion and active learning.

While research (Chiasson et al., 2015) has shown that preparing an online course requires a substantial amount of time, only seven out of 73 responses mentioned this particular point. This might be because other instructors did not deliberately associate time to difficulties. Out of the seven responses, four answers attribute the 'time consuming' element to recording and editing videos. One respondent mentioned '*spending too much time investigating options instead of making decisions*' and only two respondents implied that more time is needed when the nature of their teaching changes from F2F to online settings: *'I am now having to spend hours and hours inventing "lectures" where before, there were none because it was discussion--based'; 'Time to prepare necessary content is quite important, as a good video tutorial of half an hour can take a whole day'*.

We also identified examples of negative perception of online teaching in general, and this correlates with low self-efficacy scores (we consider 2 points 'Somewhat true' as mid-confidence and 1 point 'Not at all true' as no confidence), especially in terms of offering active learning opportunities and developing a similar rapport with students. We list the three extreme examples of such negative comments below:

1. 'We are using a combination, online tutorials, videos or photos of students performing. Not sure what will work best yet. Of course, none of this can be as good as F2F' (showing *mid-confidence* in offering similar active learning opportunities and developing a similar rapport with students).
2. 'Trying to learn how to use digital tools without any F2F development from experts on campus. It's like trying to learn how to drive a car by reading about it... while under quarantine. And my driving test will be a road trip of uncertain duration and destination. Buckle up!' (showing *mid-confidence* in being able to teach online, realize the effort to create quality online experiences, developing a similar rapport with students, and building a series

of networks for support; and *no confidence* in offering similar active learning opportunities, or developing a similar rapport with students).

3. 'I do not feel that I can get across my enthusiasm and my humor in my video--registered lectures' (showing *mid-confidence* in knowing where to seek help for tech guidance, building a series of networks for support, modifying their assessment and offering similar active learning opportunities; and *no confidence* in developing a similar rapport with students.

One overly simple and sentimental comment 'I miss the experience of being in the classroom with my students in real time' also corresponds with *mid-confidence* in areas of modifying their assessment, developing a similar rapport with students, and offering similar active learning opportunities.

In contrast, we did find one highly positive comment where the respondent shared how s/he responded to the identified difficulty and has developed confidence for effective online teaching. Not surprisingly, it corresponds with high-confidence in all ten self-efficacy statements as '4 Exactly true' is selected for nine statements and '3 Moderately true' is selected for the statement 'I am able to offer the same type of active learning and engagement while online':

> Practical sessions are difficult to be delivered online. However, strategies have been implemented to ensure that simulation or practice or distribution of resources to students so that they can utilize it is necessary. It is at the same time difficult to track attendance and participation, but through the mix of different strategies and frequent personal meetings online this can be accomplished efficiently. Time to prepare necessary content is quite important, as a good video tutorial of half an hour can take a whole day. To switch all classes online in a couple of weeks is unrealistic, however, mixing of tools and resources in a fashion that is efficient and at the same time of an excellent quality, might be a solution to this. After prior discussions with faculty and students, I am confident that the teaching will be effective and rewarding for all (original response).

We have also found potential correlation between self-reported experience in online teaching and level of self-efficacy, as instructors who believe they have much or some experience with online teaching have overall exhibited higher confidence whereas instructors who have no or very limited experience tend to be located on the lower end.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In this study, we applied survey methods to collect the instructor's self-efficacy level in response to a very special occasion when instructors need to respond and act with more agile approaches. Migrating F2F courses to an online environment is not a choice or an extra opportunity, it is the harsh reality and the only option at this time.

In parallel to the overall high self-efficacy level, we have also been able to collect their thoughts on the difficulties they face and how they plan to teach their online courses. *Preliminary interpretations* for this study focused on technology, student engagement and course migration/redesign:

1. Migrating F2F teaching to online format is challenging (instructors exhibited strong awareness of potential difficulties though specific reasons vary);
2. Different tools are being explored. And some instructors are able to put themselves in the students' shoes (e.g. 'Planning methods that would ensure student engagement; not so much the delivery or technology, but trying to put myself in the students' chairs, i.e. where are they doing this, to help build a rapport to maximize the learning');
3. While we designed the question to collect their thoughts on the immediate difficulties they have encountered, some instructors shared the approaches they have been exploring and their coping strategies, and few indicated that support from colleagues, CTL and leadership can be helpful;
4. We can notice the implication that instructors believe extra time is needed to achieve this transition.

We believe our initial findings will have implications over at least the following aspects:

1. Capturing instructors' immediate perception during the period when they prepare for migrating courses online and right before they start their first lesson. Thus, our findings can potentially reflect more authentic feelings rather than retrospective reflections.
2. Shedding light on the support that higher education institutions can provide to instructors in terms of migrating existing courses to online environments, not only in terms of a 'multi-tiered system of support (MTSS) for new and experienced faculty' (Chiasson et al., 2015, p. 238), but also in terms of a sustainable institutional vision of planning online teaching with multiple time scales.
3. Capturing a group of instructors who mostly have very limited experience of online teaching and who are requested to deliver online teaching to a student group who have prior expectations of purely F2F teaching.

We also believe that our study can provide insights for preparing for and delivering teaching in times of crisis (Foster, 2006) when instructors can encounter

extreme challenges. Based on the findings we have shared, we recommend that universities provide all instructors professional teaching support and resources to implement online tools in their everyday teaching so that instructors can all have basic knowledge and skill sets of the digital tools that they can apply in their teaching. Our findings have shown that logistical challenges (time zone, network, and selection and application of digital tools) and course redesign are the two primary concerns among instructors. Both aspects would require a high level of creativity and resilience, and we would argue that the former one can be solved with some technical and administrative support as well as time investment, whereas the latter needs more long-term commitment and preparation.

If instructors are provided the necessary support to build more capacity of integrating appropriate, relevant and meaningful technology tools and trials of delivering part of their daily courses in an online setting, then we can better mitigate the risks of ineffective instruction due to unpreparedness and lack of confidence in extreme times (epidemics and pandemics, natural disasters, regional conflicts, and even illness and occasional absence due to other personal emergencies). In addition, this approach can assist instructors in building more confidence in everyday F2F instruction and perhaps integrate the same tools to enhance certain teaching methods. It is worth investing time and resources in online teaching since it will benefit F2F teaching as well. For this unusual event, the response was treated as an emergency response, rather than a well-planned, intentional approach to design and implement quality online learning experiences. There is substantial research (Angelo & Cross, 1993; Baghdadchi et al., 2018; Freeman et al., 2014; Kuh et al., 2017; Hill et al., 2016; Lockard & Hargis, 2017; McKeachie, 2005; Wiggins & McTighe, 2011) that shows the creation of a quality learning experience in any discipline or environment requires measurable learning outcomes, valid and reliable assessment measures, well-aligned active teaching methods, and on-going professional development to create and sustain effective online instructional programs.

Limitations and Future Studies

As mentioned earlier, time constraints and access limitations posed the biggest methodological challenges to the current study. As a result, before online instruction began, one online survey was created to capture instructors' perception of the rapid online course migration. To maintain anonymity and minimize the potential risk of exposing identities, it was decided not to collect further information about the details of the courses (e.g. the number of courses instructors teach this semester, the times they already taught the course before offering it online, the number of enrolled students before the first week starts, and the type of the courses: foundational/ required/elective, etc.). Although over half (~60%) of the faculty did respond to

the survey (which is an extraordinary response rate in this context), we believe it is sufficient to generalize the data to those faculty who were not able to respond perhaps due to logistics[4].

In terms of the amount of qualitative data collected via the online survey, we are aware that the responses obtained are not able to provide us with rich data for further analysis without the supplementation of other qualitative research methods. While we do see a relatively high level of self-efficacy, instructors might have very different understanding of *high-quality and effective online teaching.* As a relatively young and small private research university, the faculty profile of our institution can also be relatively distinctive in many aspects (we have a higher percentage of early-career faculty members) so that some of the findings might not have wider generalizability to other higher education institutions, especially considering the different nature of the institution and instructor make-up.

Taking the above limitations into consideration, we believe that future studies are needed to provide further triangulation between the quantitative data and other qualitative data. For example, qualitative interviews can be conducted before such migrations to gain a richer picture of instructors' perception. If circumstances allow, online surveys can also incorporate more data points to collect details in terms of examining the correlations and differences when it comes to the discipline areas and instructors' prior experience of teaching the same course in F2F settings. As online teaching develops, it is worth investigating how instructors' self-efficacy level influences their teaching as well as students' beliefs and achievements. In this regard, online class observations, interviews and focus groups with both instructors and students can be conducted to collect qualitative data. This can be supplemented with indirect measures, including but not limited to instructor surveys to identify teaching support services; midterm and end-of-the-term student evaluations of teaching surveys.

Meanwhile, we would also recommend further research to examine how instructors approach the same course differently by comparing their pedagogical approaches as reflected in course syllabi and students' work. Those data will offer a better understanding of different designs that instructors implement when migrating the same courses to online platforms as well as help identify factors that contribute to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of their teaching. By tracking and scrutinizing the changes that instructors make when migrating their courses online, observations of how these decisions reflect aspects of the four different levels of employing learning technologies on the online setting, that is the SAMR model

4 We have a high percentage of international faculty who must travel between their hometown and the university located in Shanghai. The epidemic made international travel more difficult and challenging.

(Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, Redefinition) (Puentedura, 2006; 2012), can help identify areas where further support are needed.

As Mintz (2020) comments, 'if there's anything we've learned about online learning over the past decade, it's that truly effective online instruction is more demanding and generally more costly than its face-to-face equivalent'. The current world health situation reminds us again to rethink and work on the essentials of quality and meaningful instruction.

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APPENDIX Online Teaching Self-Efficacy Survey

Section One

1. Your Academic Area (alphabetical)

Arts

Business

Chinese Language Program

EAP

Engineering and Computer Science

Foreign Languages

Humanities

IMA/IMB

Sciences

Social Sciences

Writing Program

2. How long have you been teaching in higher education (years)?

0–1

1–3

3–5

More than five

More than ten

3. How long have you been teaching at this university (years)?

0–1

1–2

2–4

More than 4

4. What is your experience in teaching with online tools?

1-No experience at all.

2–Very limited experience (integrated a few digital tools for some sessions)

3-Some experience (used technology frequently when teaching face-to-face and blended)

4-Taught one or two online courses

5-Significant experience (have taught several courses fully online)

6-Expert (I have been teaching online for several years and mentor colleagues)

Section Two

Please read each question and respond using a scale from 1–4, where 1 is Not at all True; 2 is Somewhat True; 3 is Moderately True; and 4 is Exactly True.

1. I am confident that I can create and deliver high-quality online teaching.

2. I understand the effort I need to create and offer effective online teaching.

3. I believe there are big differences between F2F and online teaching.

4. I am able to offer the same type of active learning and engagement while online.

5. I will have to modify my assessment strategies significantly for online teaching.

6. I will have to modify my assessment strategies significantly for online teaching. I know how and where to seek help if I meet any difficulties with online teaching.

7. I know how and where to seek help if I meet any difficulties with technology.

8. I will be able to develop a similar rapport with my students online.

9. I have built a network of resources to help resolve challenges while teaching online.

Section Three Open-ended Questions

1. What are the major difficulties you have encountered when migrating your course online?

2. Please share more about your online teaching using these questions to guide your response: In your face-to-face (F2F) course, what percent is lecture compared to your current online course? What percent of the F2F course is a group discussion or other active learning format compared to your current online course? What approach have you been using online, asynchronous or synchronous; and why did you choose this? Did this change since you began teaching online this term? (optional)

3. Please share any other information that you found interesting about your teaching online this term. (optional)

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Parents and Teachers' Involvement in Designing Educational Programmes within the Albanian Curricula of Pre-university Education: Their Perceptions in this Context

Abstract. The purpose of this study is to analyse the legislative measures and their implementation regarding the participation of children, parents and teachers in creating an educational program in pre-university education system, as a need for better involvement in school of all the actors, as well as the need for the children's wellbeing. In addition, the study aims to bring parents' and teachers' views on the obstacles they face when they try to collaborate and participate in school life and in designing an educational program. Qualitative methods are used to achieve the aim of this study. The data were collected through document analysis (legislation, strategies, and regulations) for analysing how the law addresses participation of children, parents and teachers' in school and through semi-structured interviews with parents and teachers from two primary schools so that they can state their perceptions on participation in school life. Each of them was posed 12 different interview questions. After evaluating the responses, some important issues were identified. The participation of children, parents and teachers in Albanian education system has changed in recent years, even promoted as a key that leads to success. However, because of the monist system, where such participation was neither legally recognised nor culturally accepted, this trinomial collaboration has not been easily introduced and integrated in the Albanian educational

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system. However, parents do not feel very involved in school life, or appreciated when they try to get involved, even though it is legally admitted the need for the collaboration between family and school. They neither take part in the approval of the curricula of the educational institution, nor in the selection of school textbooks as provided by the law. Research has shown that schools as bureaucratic and conservative institutions need to have clear written policies to encourage the participation of the parents and children when drafting an education program. However, when teachers were asked about parents' participation in school, they said that in many cases parents neglect the collaboration with the school and appear usually when there are problems or troubles, while the participation of children in creating an educational program is still lagging behind.

Keywords: participation, children, parents, teachers, legal aspects, Albania

Introduction

Since the rise of the national school system in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, nation-states have conceived of general education as designed to install a sense of national identification in the individual. Curricula, designed for this purpose, as well as educational programs have usually consisted of the study of the language, literature, history, government and traditions of the particular nation (Gutek, 1995, p. 5). Later on, the curricula expanded by being liberalized with the introduction of other subjects as an integral part of them. Likewise, the educational programs also changed and were enriched with the insertion of information from different disciplines. The process of the transformation of the curriculum and educational programs in the Albanian education system has passed through the same stages.

According to the Albanian Law on Pre-University Education System, nowadays the curriculum is seen as a system consisting of several elements, such as: curricular framework, core curriculum, educational programs and assessment, which, linked to each other, make the education system oriented and function through educational and administrative plans. An educational program is a program written by the institution or ministry of education, which determines the learning progress of each subject in all the stages of formal education (Definitions.net, n.d.). Program design offers opportunities for educators, students and the community to create educational experiences. The designer brings resources such as learning theories, research studies and program results. The stakeholders bring insight into the program goals, objectives and classroom activities (Dashwood, 2019, para.1).

The curriculum provides qualitative and equal education for every member of the society, regardless of ethnicity, sex, or social position (Law No. 69, 2012). In addition, the curriculum framework is the basic curriculum document which

describes the aims of the curriculum in general, the core competencies, expected results for students, in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes at the end of basic and upper secondary education, the aims of the fields of learning and general principles of the teaching and learning process, as well as the students' assessment.

The curriculum consists of a core curriculum, elective curriculum, and the curriculum for complementary activities. The legal provisions have been determined by the Minister of Education as the competent authority to approve the curriculum framework, the educational plan for every level of education, the core curriculum and the subject programs, except for those which are designed by the educational institution. The curriculum, drafted at the educational institution level, is approved by the director of the institution after obtaining consent from the local education institution responsible for pre-university education, it is established by law that the curriculum enables students to make individual choices according to their needs and interests. However, despite the fact that the law sets out clear competences for adapting the core curriculum, the same does not occur for the elective curriculum and the curriculum for complementary activities.

According to the law on pre-university education of 2012, the forms of education in schools are known as:

a) full-time education;
b) part-time education;
c) distance education.

In addition, pursuant to the law, even home-schooling is seen to be offered in special cases for all the classes of basic education or just for some of them. The particular cases, criteria and the procedures for offering education at home shall be determined by the Minister of Education. Even though the law on pre-university education has entered into force in 2012, there have been no further steps taken regarding the manner of providing education conditions for home-schooling.

Meanwhile, now the school is seen as being integrated with the community activity and family life. The main principle is to create a system for all children. This would imply the individualization of teaching to meet the needs of a diverse group of students, in order to become an interactive community (Senge et al., p. 495). The attempts to make parents and children participants in school life are felt even in the pre-university education law of 2012, evidenced by the presence of council of parents, school board, government of pupils, as well as by national council of parents. Regarding the contribution to the school curriculum, this assignment is attributed to the school board. The school board is a body made up of parents, students, teachers, representatives of local government and the community. The board contributes to the wellbeing of the educational institution and reports to the council of parents regarding their activities. The law recognises the approval of the curriculum drafted by the educational institution as the duty of the school board. While on the other

side, it is still the law which is ambiguous, and does not provide clearly how to deal with elective/optional curriculum and the curriculum for complementary activities, by making unclear the task of the school board towards the curriculum of the school.

Literature Review

Encouraging the cooperation of parents, teachers and students should be a priority of the country that aims to improve and develop education.

Several studies undertaken to measure the importance of cooperation and involvement of parents, students and teachers in school life indicate that this trinomial collaboration increases the quality of education of a country (e.g. Fantuzzo et al., 2004; Epstein et al., 2002; Gjermani & Musai, 2008; European Commission, 2005 European Commission, 2001; Levenstein & Levenstein, 2008; Chang et al., 2009).

Parents' involvement in activities that directly affect the school life of a child serve as a catalyst for achieving high learning outcomes (Child Trends, 2018). In 2018 European schoolnet (2018) issued several recommendations on enhancing collaborative teaching and learning in schools, where among other things it is noted that "collaborative learning has a positive impact on students' academic achievement, as well as on the development of social competences", even though collaborative teaching and learning are not commonplace in schools across Europe yet. At the same time, one of the recommendations relates precisely to engaging parents with school issues. Thus, engaging parents and collaborating with other schools can really facilitate the process of collaborative learning, providing specific training and resources for teaching staff, and developing more flexible classroom spaces to facilitate collaboration (European Schoolnet, 2018).

A volume of a collection of 25 essays, grouped into three parts, on the theme of building bridges between home and school, sheds light on how necessary the involvement of parents in school life is. This aims for the optimization of students' development opportunities, the enhancement of students' educational careers and the improvement of teachers' task performance (Smit et al., 1999).

A report of the European Commission, *Evaluation of legislation, policy and practice on child participation in the European Union* (2005) emphasizes the effectiveness of participation practices in EU countries. This report compared Albania's legislation, structures and mechanisms for implementing child participation with that of EU member states, the barriers to effective participation, child participation within key sectors, and in relation to vulnerable groups of children which remains a challenge.

Epstein et al. (2002) emphasizes the three spheres of influence where the child mostly learns and develops. The study, defines among other things, the types of

involvement focusing mostly on family, school and community and are related respectively to: parenting (support the home environment and strengthen families in order to support students at school), communicating (create effective modes of school-to-home and home-to-school communications regarding school programs and child progress), volunteering (recruit parents to support school endeavours), learning at home (share information regarding ideas for learning at home, as well what is going on in the classroom to support family-school alignment regarding educational endeavours), decision making (empower parents to be leaders, and involve them in school decision-making), and collaborating with the community (identify and integrate resources and services from the community to strengthen school programs, family practices, and student learning and development) (Epstein et al., 2002).

Fantuzzo et al. (2004) describe three ways families participate in the education of their children: (a) focused at home, (b) focused at school, (c) focused on communication. According to them, "family involvement in education has been identified as a beneficial factor in young children's learning. It is, therefore, a key component of national educational policies and early childhood programs".

The European report on the quality of school education states "Sixteen quality indicators" (European Commission, 2001), through other factors determine parents' participation and collaboration with teachers as a key factor in order to improve the quality of education. Meanwhile, the report also presents examples of good initiatives to better improve the quality of school education, which can serve as a guide to quality education.

Regarding the Albanian context, parental involvement in school is seen as a very positive process, even though it is not comparable with the European context of parents' participation in school life (Bezati & Hoxhallari, 2011). In the study Quality of Education Indicators Package, conducted by N. Mita (2002) with the support of AEDP and the Ministry of Education, the involvement of parents is considered as one of the school quality indicators at the institutional school level.

In 2008, a study on the situation of Parents Involvement in Education in Albania by L. Gjermani and B. Musai (2008), supported by UNICEF was conducted. The data for this study was collected through questionnaires and interviews distributed in 12 districts of the country. Questionnaires were drawn up in three types: for parents, for teachers, and for school leaders. The study shows that parental involvement in Albania has reached a significant level of institutionalization through the presence of parents' councils and school boards. However, it is emphasized that "there are still issues in dealing with the effectiveness and self-organization of these parental organisms. In most cases it is noticed that the roles of parents themselves are limited and teachers and school directors are those who have the final word and in some way give a voice to the activity of these parental structures" (Gjermani & Musai, 2008, p. 10).

Purpose of the Study

Given the above-mentioned issues, this study aims to analyse how the law addresses the problem of the participation of children, parents and teachers in creating and planning educational programs aiming to provide a concrete picture of the situation of the current state of parental involvement in school life. Also, the study aims to explore parents' and teachers' views on certain problems they encounter when attempting to participate, collaborate in order to help in improving the children education.

Research questions are formulated as follows:

1. How does the law on pre-university education see the implementation regarding the participation of children, parents and teachers in creating educational programs in pre-university education system?
2. How do parents perceive the participation/ collaboration process with the school and what are the obstacles they face?
3. How do teachers perceive their relationship with parents and does it make them believe that together with the children they form a trinomial structure which serves as a basis for success?

Research Methods

The data were collected through document analysis (legislation, strategies, and regulations) to examine how the law sees participation of children, parents and teachers' in school and through semi-structured interviews with parents and teachers from two primary schools, aiming to clarify their perceptions on participation in school life. Each of them was posed to 12 different interview questions.

During the administration of the interview process, data collectors explained its purpose, and answered questions from the interviewees to clarify better all the questions asked.

The sample includes 52 parents (who were selected on the basis of different social strata corresponding to different levels of education), and 29 teachers from two public primary schools.

Teacher respondents are females and males, with a representation of 74% female and 26% male. According to UNESCO Institute of Statistics in Albania since 2011, 100% of primary education teachers are women (UNESCO, 2017, p. 137).

Parent respondents are females and males, with a representation of 79% female and 21% male.

The researchers of the study adhered to code of conduct and ethical regulations. All respondents were approached in person in order to gain their informed consent on participating in the research study: the aim of the study was explained as well

as the way the data would be used and published. The confidentiality of the data gathered was guaranteed to the participant.

This study has limitations regarding the findings. These include using in-depth interviews with parents and teachers taken from only two primary schools, which hampers the ability to generalize the data.

Results

Legal issues regarding the participation of children, parents and teachers in creating education program in pre-university education system in light of the document analysis.

The demand for relevance in education is not a new one. It was the initial impetus for many educational reforms in the past and remains a meaningful plea today (Gutek, 1995, p. 5). This is the reason why educational reforms were necessary in Albania. In addition, the recommendation of the Council of European Union regarding key competences for lifelong learning highlights and promotes the fully involvement of the child in society through the acquisition of the necessary skills (Council Recommendation, 2018). And the involvement of a child in society is done best by involving parents in the educational processes, school decision-making and activities.

The need for parental cooperation for creating an education program arises among others from the growing diversity of Albanian society, which reflects the constant problems during the long transition in Albania. There are cases when families are isolated because of blood feuds, cases of Albanian citizens returning from emigration, or there are times when the families are in very difficult economic conditions which compel the parents to neglect the children. These cases, and others like these, need the partnership of parents, children and teachers to design the appropriate curriculum, adequate to the level and needs of those children.

A typical case of adapting the curriculum according to the needs of the children, beyond the provision of the standard curriculum and the educational programs offered by the state, has been the "Second Chance" curriculum. Through this curriculum, they help the marginalized groups, Roma children, and those who dropped out school and wanted to return to the education system. For this purpose, the Ministry of Education has approved the education program called "second chance", which is offered to all children of school age who have either abandoned or interrupted the learning process or have not attended school at all and do not return to full-time or part-time primary school (Instruction No. 29, 2013, p. 6116). Despite the fact that the teaching is offered by concentrating and abbreviating it more than in the normal teaching process, this education program unlike the standard curriculum has been set

up to help children who have dropped out of school so as to reintegrate them into the school life (Commission of the European Communities. 2007, p. 14).

The pre-university education law provides that the education system functions on the basis of decentralization and the autonomy of educational institutions. Legal provisions do also guarantee the right of students, teachers and parents to organize themselves into variety of bodies, as well the protection of their rights by assisting in this way in the well-being of the institution. On the other hand, students, educators and parents are given the right to express their views on the quality of educational service and to be heard about these views (Law No. 69, 2012, art. 6).

In order that these legal principles become mandatory, it is imperative to be unfolded throughout the legal framework in force.

The guarantee of autonomy in the law of pre-university education of 2012 was introduced for the first time in the Albanian educational institutions. In this perspective, the parents are considered to be the main partner of the educational institution, playing a vital role in the well-being of the child and the institution. The principle of autonomy, as well as the involvement of children and parents in the school curriculum was incorporated in the board's duties, so as to adapt the curricula drawn up by the educational institution, as well as in the right of the parent to participate in the selection process of school textbooks (Law No. 69, 2012, art. 47). Regarding the children participation, the law provides that this is made possible through organisms such as the student government, which has the function to protect and promote the rights of students and to assist in the well-being of the school.

A more concrete involvement of parents in the designing of an education program is observed in the organization of the education program for children with special needs. In the mainstream educational institutions, for students with special needs a personalized education program is drafted by a committee composed of teachers of various fields and psychologists, in cooperation with the parents of the students. The parents' involvement is also required to change the personalized education program within an educational institution. The parents cooperate with the assistant teacher to design the individual learning plan and the objectives for self-help skills and other social skills that the learner has to reach according to the child's needs (Order No. 343, 2013, art. 97).

The Gaps within the Law

As emphasized above, the pre-university educational curriculum consists of a core curriculum, elective curriculum and the curriculum for complementary activities. Since the law has provided that the Minister of Education approves only the core curriculum, it is unclear in the law, which body or institution has the right to adapt the optional curriculum and the curriculum for complementary activities in the

school. In the sub-legal acts, curriculum for complementary activities and elective courses for primary and lower secondary education are seen as a joint planned activity with 1–2 classes per week, despite the fact that the law has organised the pre-university educational curriculum in three categories. While school-based curriculum is only seen in the education plan in upper secondary education, interpreting that part of this curriculum is covered by community service, while the rest includes inter-curricular projects and other school activities (Instruction No. 27, 2018).

According to the Low Secondary Education Guideline of the Institute for Development of Education[3], the elective curriculum is part of the overall curriculum, which in contrast to the core curriculum is selected by the school and is developed within the scheduled time according to interest of students and school opportunities. This curriculum can be used either for the second foreign language or for subjects, modules or other school activities in order to fulfil the key competencies and the realization of cross-curricular topics. Both of these types of activities are designed by other instances beyond school (Institute for Development of Education, 2017). The Guideline of the Institute for Development of Education hardly fills the gap created by the lack of legal instruments on procedures and the competent body/ organism regarding the designing of the optional curriculum and the curriculum for complementary activities in school.

The law recognizes the right of the educational institution to design subject programs other than those approved by the Ministry of Education (Law No. 69, 2012, art. 45, point 2, "ç"). However, this right has not been further developed in the law, neither within the scope of the educational institution's duties nor on the rights and duties of the teaching staff. On the other hand, this gap is also found in relation to the competences of the school board. According to the pre-university education law, the school has the right to draft school curriculum which would be approved by the school board (Instruction No. 25, 2018). The changes in the law require that the school curriculum receives the approval of the regional educational directory before the approval of the school director.

Meanwhile the role of school board is unclear in the law. Even though the law confirms on one hand the right of the board (which means even the right of the parents) to give its consent for the school curriculum, on the other hand it is still the law which does not mention the board and parents' involvement.

In the context of parents' involvement in creating an educational program, the education in house conditions, sanctioned in the legal provisions can be mentioned

3 Note: The Institute for the Development of Education conducts research work, provides expertise and advices educational institutions at all levels in the areas of curricular content, didactics and the use of modern teaching technologies, as well as management of school and education as a whole.

(Law No. 69, 2012, art. 17). Even though the law states that this type of education is offered in special cases, defined by the Ministry of Education, the lack of these guidelines regarding this type of education makes the role of parents unclear in the context of contributing toward an educational program.

In terms of parent involvement in educational curriculum design for children with special needs, the legislation needs to be more detailed about what an individual educational plan must include as well as the actors involved in its formulation and its implementation, while taking into consideration the variety of special needs for the children (NCSE, 2006, p. 1). Such guidelines are not part of the education system in Albania; neither are they part of the procedures and regulations of the Institute for Development of Education[4]. Their presence in the legal framework will facilitate the process of creating and adopting an education program for children with special needs, by clarifying the type of participation.

Parent Views on Participation / Collaboration Process in their Child's School

In order to explore parents' perceptions of their participation in education, the interviews were focused on the following aspects:

d) Rare visits in children's classrooms, meeting the teachers and discussions with them
e) Lack of participation when decisions are taken, which consequently might affect the child education
f) Lack of participation in creating and developing educational programs
g) Lack of time to participate in school, lack of knowledge on how to participate and lack of sensitiveness from the school system

(a) Rare visits in children's classrooms, meeting the teachers and discussions with them

In the normative provisions of pre-university education, it is seen that teachers hold frequent meetings with parents to discuss various problems regarding their children's progress at school (MES, 2013, art. 84). From the analysis of parents' responses about the frequency of their attendance at meetings with teachers, it turns out that they mostly go to these meetings at the end of each quarter, which coincides with the confirmation of results and grades that their children have taken during that term. In rare cases parents go to their children's school more often, or find other ways to contact the teacher. Meanwhile, after reviewing the annual educational and educational curricula of the school institutions, we have noticed

4 Note: Save the children, prepared in 2017 a Practical Guide to Designing and Implementing an Individual Educational Plan (PEI).

that the communication and co-operation between the school and the parents is addressed in a special section where meetings are planned with the parents in groups and individually at different intervals throughout the school year. The topic of these meetings, according to the data gathered, is mostly to inform parents about the student's attendance and results, not reflecting any special instruction or advice to help in the development of the students or any specific task that the child might do at home with parent's help.

(b) Lack of participation when decisions are taken, which consequently might affect the child education

From the analysis of the answers it turns out that none of the interviewed parents feels involved when it is the case of making important decisions at school which would affect their child's education process.

According to them, the only opportunity they have to express their views on the wellbeing of their children at school is the parents' meeting.

> *We as parents are not involved when important decisions are taken about the education of our children. For example, we are not involved in the assessment of textbooks which are supposed to be chosen from school teachers with the participation of parents, nor do we have any means of expressing our disapproval regarding the selection of texts".*
> (R. Z – parent, member of the parents' council)

However, the Albanian law on pre-university education sees that the selection of school textbooks should be done by teachers in the presence of the parents (Order No. 267, 2018), and in addition the collaboration of parents for drafting a personalised educational program for children with special needs is required.

Other parents admit that there are cases when they are simply asked as a formality to participate and give their opinion on issues affecting children's education and where the decision had been taken before the meeting took place.

> *"I don't feel included in decisions taken by the school. Sometimes decisions have already been taken without parents' involvement or consent". (Parent)*

According to the instruction on the functioning of the school board of the Ministry of Education (Instruction No. 25, 2018), it is anticipated that when a new teacher (yet not appointed) will work at a specific school and will be part of the staff, the parent as a member of the board of the educational institution should engage and take part in the procedures of his/her recruitment. However, referring to parents' answers who are as well board members declare that this does not happen in reality.

> *"I am totally committed to give my opinion and assessment for a new teacher after having enough time to consider his teaching performance, but no one has asked me!"*. (Parent, member of school board)

(c) Lack of participation in creating and developing educational programs

One of the questions addressed to the parents during the interviews was related to their involvement in creating and developing educational programs. The answers they give do not directly address the question. Some of them claim that they have given ideas only in terms of extracurricular activities or in choosing topics for discussion in the educational plan. However, most of them claim not to be involved in the compilation or design of an educational program.

On the other hand, the Albanian law on pre-university education recognises the school board as an organism which has the right as well the obligation to approve the curricula of the educational institution.

(d) Lack of time to participate in school, lack of knowledge on how to participate and lack of sensitiveness from the school system

When asked why they did not participate in school parents' meetings, parents mostly answered that it was due to the lack of time. They have to work long hours, especially in the case of divorced parents, family tragedies, and so on, in order to financially support their families.

> *"I would like to be more engaged in school and help my child more in school activity, but after the death of my spouse I have to work double to ensure a decent living". (Parent)*

In some cases, they argue that their lack of participation in school life comes as a result of poor school-related experiences. There are those parents who do not feel welcomed in their children's school, or they do not feel at the right level to be part of the discussions or issues related to the learning activity.

> *"I have only 4 years of school learning, what kind of thoughts and ideas can I give for my child's education. Teachers know better than me in these cases". (Parent)*

In some cases, parents despite their desire to engage in various school activities do not have the proper knowledge on how they can contribute. In fact, the Albanian education system needs to work harder in this regard, because parents, being in many cases unaware of the importance of their participation in school, simply neglect it, seeing the teacher as the only responsible person for educating their children. On the other hand, the school should consider the parental participation as essential to its progress and must become promoter of parental involvement.

Teachers' Views on their Collaboration with Parents and Children in Creating Educational Program

Apart from parents' perceptions on participating in the creation of the educational program, a series of interviews with teachers were conducted. The interview questions were focused on the following aspects:

(a) Meeting parents usually when there are problems and trouble with children;
(b) Lack of time to involve parents in useful ways;
(c) Teaching open classes in most times is just a show;
(d) Socio- economic situation and the belonging to an ethnic group or minority hinders parents' participation at school;

(a) Meeting parents usually when there are problems and trouble with children

Involving parents in school activities is one way to make them approach the school and make them part of their child's education, and it provides a helping hand for teachers as well. However, parental involvement is not a simple process, especially given the fact that Albania did not give parents any special roles in the school participation during the communist period. Although today's situation has changed, family-school cooperation is not at satisfactory levels. On the one hand, parents neglect their participation duties and on the other hand, the school does not encourage them to become an active part of the educational program.

During the interviews, the teachers claim that in the majority of cases, parents come to school only when their children have concerns or problems at school (unless parents ask the teacher to get acquainted with the children's performance).

> *"Some parents come regularly and ask about the progress of children, but a considerable part of them come to school only when there are problems such as troubles or insult among children, and in rare cases when students misbehave or fail to achieve high results". (Teacher)*

However, teachers in turn acknowledge that they partially include parents in school life and mostly during the presentation of projects with interesting themes, organization of excursions, when there are children with different abilities, concerts or festivities.

According to the answers of some teachers, there are also even those parents who do not show any interest in their child's education and never contact the teachers or the school director.

> *"I feel that parents who don't find the time to come to school, don't really care about their children's education. Unfortunately, there are parents who do not know in what grade their child is!". (Teacher)*

(b) Lack of time to involve parents in useful ways

Teachers are positively affected when parents take an interest in the school. However, most teachers complain about the lack of time, which makes it impossible to engage in a qualitative co-operation with parents and their involvement in school. They are aware that learning as a process does not end in school and that qualitative education also requires parent involvement.

> *"It is difficult to involve parents in the most efficient way because the time is inadequate, considering that besides teaching we are also committed to completing school documentation". (Teacher)*

With the implementation of the new curricula according in the Albanian education system, teachers' responsibilities and duties have changed, adding a great administrative workload. According to teachers, this is a hindering factor not only for co-operation with parents, but in some cases it violates the teaching process as well.

(c) Teaching open classes most of the times is just a show

At the beginning of 2016, the open classes were introduced in the pre-university education system, being applied initially in the first and sixth grades. During these hours, teachers invite parents and other teachers to organize the learning process together. During these hours, parents have the opportunity to look closely at how their children behave during the lesson, as well as how didactic tools, interactive methods etc. are used. However, some of the interviewed teachers claim that the development of these lessons is just a show, which does not affect the improvement of the teaching process.

> *"In my opinion open classes are just a show and children do not benefit much as these hours are "pre-prepared" resulting in a "show"; it is not live". (Teacher)*

According to teachers, "it would be more productive that inspectors of educational institutions trained in European Union countries, provide good practices and present them to teachers as important experiences to be taken into consideration". (A. D. teacher)

(d) Socio- economic situation and the belonging to an ethnic group or minority hinders parents' participation in school

According to the teachers interviewed, one of the constraining factors of parental participation in school is related to their socio-economic status by being part of an ethnic or minority group. Due to financial difficulties, parents need to work long hours and in some cases they work in two jobs to support their family. That is why they almost do not participate in school life, or do not cooperate with

teachers in the design of educational programs. On the other hand, parents belonging to ethnic or minority groups tend not to engage in school or various activities of educational character. This indicates that family and school cannot reach effective communication due to cultural diversity.

Discussion

After the 90s, the Albanian education system has been in a state of constant reform. These reforms have affected all aspects related to the quality of education for generations, aiming at the development of a school that prepares students capable of facing the challenges of life. To prepare successful children for the future, the Albanian school, adapting the European goodwill, has taken important steps in meeting the standards for a qualitative education. However, as a country that has passed a long transition period these standards have not yet been reached because there is still much work to be done.

A very important factor that directly affects the development of education is family-school collaboration. It should be noted that teachers are not just those who cooperate with the students to help them succeed, but parents' participation or co--operation is also a very important factor. However, in the view of parents and teachers cooperation it can still be stated that there are deficiencies and obstacles, which are mainly related to rare visits of parents' in children classroom, lack of participation when decisions are taken affecting children's education, lack of participation in creating and developing educational programs, lack of time to involve parents in useful ways, socio- economic situation of parents and the belonging to an ethnic group or minority that hinders parents' participation in school.

The results suggested are also supported by various studies and reports according to which parents' participation affect students' education. "The way schools care about children is reflected in the way schools care about the children's families. If educators view children simply as students, they are likely to see the family as separated from the school. That is, the family is expected to do its job and leave the education of children to the schools. If educators view students as children, they are likely to see both the family and the community as partners with the school in children's education and development" (Epstein et al., 2002, p. 20701).

Parents, being an active part of school life, giving ideas, supervising, compiling together with their children and teachers' various plans to how their children can succeed in life and face the challenges of the twenty-first century, will lead to a better younger generation who will effectively manage the future. In recent years, education systems worldwide have developed frameworks with an increased emphasis on developing the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary for success in the twenty--first century (Saavedra & Opfer, 2012, p. 4). In this way, parents, and teachers,

enable students to learn based on powerful new learning modes steeped in real world problem solving (Fullan & Scott, 2014, p. 6). The skills which a child obtains are now multi-dimensional. But to develop these skills the family-school collaboration is needed.

However, preparing students to face life and its complexity in the twenty--first century is complicated. This is even more complicated in countries which have undergone long transition periods, having economic difficulties, or are post--communist countries such as Albania, which has experienced a severe dictatorship for many years, which affected all spheres of life and undoubtedly education. In the parental involvement in school activities in former communist countries of South Eastern Europe as in Romania, Bulgaria, Macedonia, Bosnia Herzegovina, Croatia, Moldova, Albania, Kosovo, Montenegro and Serbia, their economic status also plays a role. Thus, families with higher socio-economic status feel more efficacious and get involved more in school than those with low socio-economic status (Radu, 2011, p. 103).

In Albania, during the communist years, school rules were strict. The teacher was the main figure for the education of the children, and schooling was a matter belonging to the Party. The younger generation was educated with the love for the party. Moreover, the role of parents was totally neglected, as the children under the care of the Party were only entrusted to the teachers and the school.

After the fall of communism in Albania the transitional period towards a democratic system was accompanied, among other things, with numerous changes in the school and related issues. "Reforming of the educational system in Albania, has experienced fundamental changes in form and content (curricula, school documentation, internal organization of school life), new developments at all levels of the education system (hidden dropouts, problems of vocational education, expansion of general secondary education), decentralization and management of pre-university and higher education, and the teacher's role in the Albanian post--communist society" (Sota, 2014, p. 31).

However, as we have already pointed out parents' participation in school is not at satisfactory levels, especially the participation of parents belonging to different cultures (such as Roma or Egyptian families).

The cultural background affects the relationship between home and school. Henderson and Mapp (2002, p. 15) states that "parents from racial, ethnic and cultural minorities, especially those of low socio-economic status, tend to feel less affinity for the school than those in the mainstream middle class".

Factors affecting parents' lack of participation at school are generated by both the family and the school. Regarding the barriers generated by the family, Drummond and Stipek (2004, p. 197–213) claim that for many families, the barriers to their effective inclusion in school derive from mainly economic difficulties, such

as low income, poverty and limited levels of parental education, while the barriers generated by the school are mainly related to managerial and administrative aspects.

Conclusions

The participation of children, parents and teachers in Albanian education system has changed in recent years and is promoted as a successful practice for effective schools. The pre-university education law in Albania provides for the functioning of the education system on the basis of decentralization and autonomy of educational institutions. Legal provisions do guarantee the right of students, teachers and parents to organize themselves into a variety of bodies, which are important for the protection of their rights, assisting in this way in the well-being of the institution. However, despite the legislation in force, after the analysis of the law on pre-university education, instructions, directives and documents we state that these bodies do not function properly and further steps are needed to be taken from the state, in order to make them available. This finding is also supported by the interviewers' responses (parents and teachers) who feel that their participation practices in school need improvement.

On the other hand, children need their voice to be heard (Naseema, 2015), their ideas to be taken seriously and to have the right to the decision-making processes, or to be involved in issues related to their education. For this reason, we strongly believe that schools should change the way they involve their students in education issues. Participation is about giving life to their suggestions and promoting schools that are open to every single idea. Drafting educational programs together with parents and teachers is just one of the varieties of things children can do. Thus, this trinomial collaboration can contribute to establishing effective schools, where everyone is involved and appreciated.

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Openness or Prejudice?: Students' Attitudes to Refugees in Poland

Abstract. This paper aims to present a study into student teachers' and social workers' attitudes towards refugees in Poland. Based upon survey data, it explores three categories of respondents' attitudes towards refugees in Poland: 'positive,' 'ambivalent,' and 'negative'. Overall, the findings of this study reveal a very worrying trend – almost half of the participants (46%) demonstrated a negative position on accepting refugees into the country, indicating that they believe refugees possess a threat for both society as a whole and their own personal security. This paper concludes that teacher preparation and professional development are essential building blocks in developing more positive attitudes not only towards refugees, but also other minority social groups in Poland.

Keywords: student teachers, social workers, refugees, attitudes towards refugees, migration crisis

Introduction and Background

The phenomenon of mass immigration has been present in Poland for over a century and, in recent decades, has grown to the scale we know nowadays. In 2019, the Office for Foreigners reported that the number of asylum seekers and refugees (ASRs) applying for asylum status in Poland was 4,096. Of those, 135 people were granted asylum (i.e. less than 0.1% of the country's total population) (European Council on Refugees and Exiles, 2019). These are people who need to flee from their homelands out of fear for their lives and their families' security, and the vast majority

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are the victims of wars or – even more often – tyrannical rulers in their countries (e.g. Amnesty, n.d.). Post-flight, their journey usually involves long months, or even years, of uncertainty and psychological stress waiting for an asylum decision by the government in another country or place: in Poland, the rejection rate was 86.89% in 2019 (European Council on Refugees and Exiles, 2019; Górny et al., 2018). In the face of such direct threats to human life and the violation of human rights, the international community often either feels helpless or considers any intervention inadvisable. Furthermore, as the above statistics indicate, on an economic and political level, governments do not pay attention to the victims themselves or to their own humanitarian obligations.

Greek camps are worth mentioning as an important point of reference for other countries due to the vast number of refugees residing there. As of 2020, 40,000 people have been residing in tragic, unsanitary conditions in Greek refugee camps (with place for only 6,000 people); these people primarily come from Syria but also from many countries in the South West Asia and North Africa (SWANA) region (International Rescue Committee, n.d.). The local communities already living on the Greek islands were left unprepared by their government for this influx of ASRs seeking refuge. The ASRs' already precarious situation has become even worse during the escalating pandemic: the borders have been closed and sealed, and public health restrictions have been introduced to protect citizens, often excluding ASRs (UNHCR, n.d.). In summary, the response of Europe (as well as other continents and countries) to the basic needs of ASRs has been – and continues to be – negative. This humanitarian crisis, however, is not a temporary incident: rather, it has been growing for several years. Tragic terrorist attacks that took place in France, Germany and other western European countries, and the subsequent cycle of sensationalised, racist media coverage deepened the anxieties of 'front-line' states, which do not help with softening the public image of refugees. The 2016 European Social Survey, as well as data from the Polish Public Opinion Research Center and the Center for Research on Prejudice show that the image of refugees in many European countries, including Poland (IPSOS for IOM, 2016), has generally become increasingly negative since 2015 (Heath & Richards, 2016).

These facts have motivated a research project concerning young Poles' attitudes towards allowing ASRs to reside in Poland (Danilewicz & Prymak, 2020), which was carried out among 203 students of pedagogy and social work at the Faculty of Pedagogy and Psychology, University of Bialystok. The respondents were students in the last year of their Bachelor's or Master's degree. Their selection was deliberate – they would soon become teachers and start working with children and shape the children's attitudes towards other people. In the survey, students were asked to provide explanations for their attitudes to the ongoing migration crisis and ASRs arriving in Poland (using open-ended questions in order to gather broader and more detailed statements). The comments documented during these interviews form the

basis of the qualitative analysis presented in this paper. The aim of this text is to explore the narratives around ASRs in Poland believed to be true and/or upheld as a socio-political ideology by current students: i.e., people who will soon be entering their professional world as teachers and social workers.

This text is composed of two parts. The first discusses an overview of students' attitudes to ASRs, based on their comments regarding accommodating them in Poland, and the second part is an attempt to identify the determinants behind these perceptions.

The Reasons for Accommodating ASRs in Poland according to the Narratives Believed by Future Teachers and Social Workers

In general terms, students' comments mostly represented three main kinds of narratives or attitudes: approving of ASRs being accommodated in Poland (10%), disapproving (44%), and ambivalent (46%). The presented analysis will focus on reviewing these categories of attitudes, including exploring sub-categories.

In the comments approving of receiving ASRs in Poland, the following main categories of argumentation were identified:

- ethical (exclusively focused on the good of other people);
- conditional (involving limitations);
- obligational (resulting from compulsory obligations);
- conservative (resulting from care about themselves);

Students making ethical arguments strive to understand the situation of ASRs, and treat them as human beings in need, referring to humanitarian obligations, for example:

> *"We need to help those people, because if everybody turns a blind eye to them, they will be left completely alone" (9), and "I think it's crucial to treat them as humans" (162).*

Similarly, obligational arguments focus on a sense of responsibility – specifically in the understanding that Poland belongs to the European Union, which is a community where there are communal obligations to fulfil on a legal basis as well as out of a sense of responsibility. For example:

> *"Because Poland is one of the members of the EU and it is our responsibility to fulfil the assumptions of the treaties we have signed" (10) and "We are able to ensure them protection and normal functioning. If other states can help, why should we, as a developed country, be different?" (8).*

Although these arguments result from the awareness of obligations and honourable acts, rather than from the personal desire to address the needs of strangers, they are worth noting as arising from reflecting on the principles of functioning in a community and the related obligations that come with that (Skarżyńska & Golec de Zavala, 2006).There were also more pragmatic arguments, based on the fact that Poland clearly makes less effort than other countries to help handle the migration crisis, although it does cooperate with them: *"if more sides help, we will make the problem of failure to cope with the massive influx less acute"(121).*

Some students also accepted the idea of ASRs coming to Poland on a conditional basis, stating, for example:

> *"We should receive them as long as they are able to return to their countries of origin. We should help our neighbors. If someone needs support, we need to do so" (145) and "we are all humans and everybody may need help sometimes. Of course, we should only do things that are reasonable" (56).*

While some of the conditions specified are general (potentially resulting from the students' reflections and knowledge concerning the multitude of difficulties connected with providing aid for refugees), others are selective, for example, specifying that they would only receive *"mothers and children" (178).* Despite this explicit selectivity, statements of this type might generally be understood as an expression of a positive attitude towards refugees, because they are an attempt to support the people most in need or considered to be the most vulnerable, and to find some solution to the crisis.

Further comments expressing consent to receiving refugees in Poland included arguments that can be categorised as conservative, i.e. perspectives that are less orientated towards the good of others and more orientated toward the good of the subject (even if it is only hypothetical), for example: *"It's good to help. It's obvious for a Christian. You never know if Polish citizens will not need help one day" (192)* and *"Because we should help people in need. Who knows? Maybe in the future we will need help" (10).* This hypothetically reciprocal way of thinking is not wholly altruistic, instead resulting from caring for oneself (and, by extension, one's nation) on an egotistical level.

Finally, some students who support the idea of allowing ASRs to reside in Poland do so on a selective and discriminatory basis, revealing a tendency towards mono-culturalism where the dominant language and religion of the host country is adopted as standard by all living there. Comments of this type include: *"We should receive them out of consideration for human rights, but only on the condition they agree to learn our language and culture" (162)* and *"If they need help, there's no problem in receiving them here. But I think they should have the same religion as most Poles have, so as not to cause conflicts" (87).*

In summary, the presented arguments for approving ASRs being accommodated in Poland are not consistent: some of them result from an ethical care for fellow humans in need, while others arise from a position of pragmatism (or even egoism) and do not refer to the essence of assistance based on humanitarian and humanistic principles. Crucially, very few participants arguing in favour of accommodating ASRs in Poland reflected on the meaning of aid and support in a tangible or concrete way (i.e., activities, resources, or policies that would fundamentally satisfy the beneficiaries' needs), suggesting that this group of students as a collective have perhaps not been educated in depth regarding the material needs of the ASRs crossing our borders.

"Different – Strange – Enemy": the Reasons for Disapproving of Accommodating ASRs in Poland according to the Narratives of Future Teachers and Social Workers

The arguments presented by students who disapprove of ASRs being accommodated in Poland took several dominant directions, although they generally focused on the perceived dangers that they believe refugees may cause, both to Poland and to them personally – often articulated in aggressive rhetoric. Several distinct categories were identified, in which the students associated ASRs being accommodated in Poland with hypothetical threats to the economy, national security, culture, and religion.

Indeed, the perception of a hypothetical economic threat is an often cited argument by subjects who disapprove of ASRs being accommodated in Poland: *"there are many Poles who need jobs, and if we receive refugees, there will be no more jobs left" (167).* As this statement demonstrates, the Polish economy is imagined to be a highly rigid and finite resource, where the success of one demographic is directly equated with the suffering of another.

In fact, this particular topic carries a great deal of frustration and misinformation among the students participating in this study, leading to these fears being expressed in an aggressive way, positioning ASRs as a drain on the country's financial resources:

> *"First of all, Poland is not obliged to do so; we don't have to help those spongers. In my opinion, the Polish state should care for its own citizens, so that they no longer live in poverty and don't have to go abroad in such great numbers. This money should be invested in locals. [...] In my opinion, Poles have more right to receive homes, shelter and benefits. Not to mention that nobody would help Poland if it was in need" (165).*

As we analyse this comment, we must not ignore the expression of the catastrophic thinking in terms of imagining how other countries would respond to Poland in a critical but entirely hypothetical situation: the subject demonstrates a real sense of distrust towards others and a lack of the sense of belonging to communities outside Polish borders. After all, 'the attitude to other people, what we expect from people we know and those we meet for the first time, the generalized belief in humans and their good qualities vs. generalized distrust and suspicion in contacts between individuals, institutions and groups are a significant factor that may either promote or prevent economic development and democracy at the macro level' (Skarżyńska, 2019, p. 94; for more information Inglehard & Baker, 2000; Sztompka, 2007).

The arguments presented in opposition to accommodating ASRs in Poland include not only a perception that the national economy would be under threat, but a fear that national security would also be endangered. This category of comments made by the study subjects reveal a general superabundance of fear: from a relatively minor sense of threat up to a high level of fear (specifically fear for one's life). For example:

> *"Because Poland is a secure country and I want it to remain so. Not all Muslims are bad, I know good ones, but it's better to be cautious" (5) and "Because we can't allow this danger. Europe should think how to help refugees otherwise, not by receiving them thoughtlessly" (5).*

This sense of caution and danger is also viewed as personal threat:

> *"People in Poland (Poles) should feel secure. Personally, whenever I see a refugee, I always have negative connotations and many fears connected with them. I try to avoid them, because I'm afraid they will harm me" (46).*

Other participants express their personal fears from a religious perspective:

> *"Of course they are [a threat]. It may lead to religious persecution. They will start to kill us. I don't even want to think about it" (165) and "Cause if we have an Islamist here, I will fear for my life" (152) and "Many of the refugees are terrorists, who want to save the world by their terrorist attacks. They want to promote Islam and the Muslim culture. For them, Christians are enemies they need to destroy" (169).*

Here Islam is falsely understood as a monolithic faith with only one form of expression – hyper-masculine violent acts of terror – and Christianity, presumably Poland's Roman Catholic faith, although this is not specified by the subject, is viewed as a hypothetical victim in need of protection.

It is worth questioning the basis of this statement, as the results of the author's original quantitative research show that the same group of students have never had

direct contact with ASRs themselves, and most of them have also never had indirect contact (for example, through reports from other people who know refugees). So, in reality, it is highly unlikely that this respondent has 'see[n] a refugee' themselves – rather, it is possible that this is a mistaken reference to a Black person or a person of colour who is an economic migrant, as these demographics are often confused with ASRs. Whatever the cause, this illogical way of formulating opinions is not grounded in fact and relies on stereotypes.

In summary, the comments presented above demonstrate a superabundance of fear – from generalised, imaginary ones, to very strongly-held, aggressively articulated ones – all based on the respondents' beliefs concerning national security and persecution (namely terrorist attacks and the hypothetical killing of Christians).

Another distinct category of data is a threat to so-called 'national identity,' resulting from the fear of losing one's culture and religion due to the imagined and hypothetical dominance of the ASRs in Poland. Slogans such as *"Poland is for Poles!!!" (92)* or *"Poland is Poland" (173)* are examples of such a nationalistic way of thinking (Billing, 2016). Indeed, commenting about ASRs from the perspective of one's own mental images of those people (and their needs) is a defining characteristic of this category of comments, for example: *"In my opinion, refugees try to influence Poland, to change its culture and values. I think refugees should adapt to us, not otherwise (46)".* An additional ramification to defend the perceived 'Polish' identity is sought in references to Polish culture, and hence, cultural differences with ASRs. Indeed, the study respondents imagine that the culture of our country will be dominated by ASRs when they arrive in Poland:

> *"I have been raised in a multicultural country. It's very likely that people who come to Poland will force others to accept their ideas and religious beliefs. I also think the Polish state should help Poles, both in terms of finance and jobs" (NUMBER) and "cultures should not be blended" (7) and "we have a different culture, different religion and different motivations" (149).*

Fears concerning national identity are sometimes enhanced by the sense of threat created out of religious differences. For example, according to some participants:

> *"The Muslim religion is very powerful, and most Muslims are devout believers. In many countries where they have settled, the level of conflicts and threat has grown" (154) and "On the internet there are many examples of refugees from Africa defiling the Christian religion. The Islamic State may be a threat to Poles, imposing their religion and values on us" (35) and "Many refugees are obsessed with their religion and they often kill others because of it. I wouldn't like my child to be*

friends with a refugee who would persuade them to kill others in the name of God" (3).

These explicitly expressed opinions are often based on frequently repeated, untrue information and a lack of grasp on facts, for instance, concerning the individuals responsible for terrorist attacks in western Europe, one participant stated:

"I think Poland should not receive refugees. When people see what happens in France or Germany, they begin to fear about their security. Because of the many attacks and murders with racial background, refugees should be isolated. I want to emphasise that more than 50% of the people coming, e.g. from Syria, are young males" (15).

In summary, these comments regarding fears surrounding a loss of national identity are divorced from reality and fact and reveal an inclination towards fear rather than critical thinking or truth.

Furthermore, some students use 'bargaining' statements to support their argument against the accommodation of ASRs in Poland. For example, they think that allowing Ukrainians to stay in Poland will make it impossible to receive more foreigners – thus, the accommodation of economic migrants from Ukraine is used as the evidence of Poles' altruistic attitudes, meaning that rejecting ASRs is justified because:

"Poland is not a country that declared readiness to accept high numbers of refugees because it does not have the proper conditions to do so. Moreover, many Ukrainians come here, and our state helps them (most of them find jobs here). But the aliens received i.e., by Germany or France only use benefits and don't want to adapt to the local law, our culture or customs" (155).

Moreover: *"If other countries can't cope with it, it will also be a problem for us" (176).*

The use of language such as 'aliens' and 'problem' suggests that these participants view ASRs both in an entirely negative light and as a homogenous mass.

Furthermore, the above and many other comments from subjects include explicitly degrading terms and expressions when referring to ASRs, diminishing their dignity as human beings. Indeed, they are a clear reflection of the hate speech which has become part of Polish daily life in recent years, echoing the language used by government ministers and mainstream press outlets. For instance:

"Refugees are not accustomed to living in accordance with European standards and do not want to change. Refugees from Africa are uncivilised, bring many diseases to Europe, and behave like beasts" (59)

> *"We don't need dirty w*gs" (34)*
>
> *"Because it's an attack against Europe, Christianity will disappear, and they will rape our women. They think they can do anything, they behave like savages. [...] They want to destroy Christianity. They will build mosques and demolish churches. Actually, they have completely different values than do normal, civilised people" (140).*

In short, these comments from university students are examples of hate speech: references to 'beasts,' 'swine,' 'w*gs,' and 'savages' are all deeply dehumanising terms when targeted at ASRs in the Polish context. Similar conclusions are drawn by the authors of research concerning verbal violence against minority groups, that is, hate speech or contempt speech: many 'references to refugees refer to a lack of good manners and low intelligence of representatives of that group. They also communicate the desire to eliminate them from society.' (Winiewski et al., 2017, p. 26).

In the case of the participants of this study – future teachers and social workers – one conclusion is extremely significant. Hate speech and the false perceptions underpinning it are demonstrated by a significant proportion of the subjects, i.e., individuals who will soon occupy professional roles where their duty is to teach and care for and teach children, young people, and families. It is deeply worrying, then, that 'contact with hate speech may lead to greater prejudice against the groups being the target of insults, because hateful expressions present minorities as dangerous for security, worse, less intelligent, and not fitting the society' (Winiewski et al., 2017, p. 128). Furthermore, through the building of fear and aversion among white Poles, contact with or use of anti-immigrant and anti-refugee hate speech may lessen the willingness of individuals to help those groups, instead promoting greater support for a state which uses violence and surveillance (Winiewski et al. 2017, p. 133).

Despite the positions of authority and trust that the subjects of this study will soon occupy, many of their comments are the direct result of a fundamental lack of knowledge about the critical and ongoing topic of migration. One subject claimed:

> *"Although many Poles are emigrants, Poland should not receive refugees. The Polish situation does not even ensure Polish citizens a decent life, so we should not 'sponsor' such life conditions for others. A war refugee differs from a Polish one. Poles go abroad to look for jobs, while refugees make use of Poland's sovereignty, not contributing anything to the Polish economy but only greater economic debt of the state" (56).*

This description is rooted in a stereotypical perception of ASRs' reasons for exile and the consequences of their stay in Poland and/or from attributing the isolated (real) acts of violence by a very small number of refugees to the entire community.

In addition, some students write about the effects of refugees staying in Poland on the basis of examples that simply never took place – for instance, they refer to their knowledge about ASRs framed as resulting from direct contact, while the fact is, as previously mentioned, most respondents have never had any contact with refugees. Many also claim to fully understand ASRs' intentions, conduct and even attitudes towards Poles, for example: *"Refugees don't respect Poles; they terrorise them and feel like they were in their own country"* (34).

In brief, the comments made by these students demonstrate a great deal of misinformation; reliance on stereotypes; a lack of understanding of facts and reality; and deeply rooted fears manifesting in aggression and slurs. Nonetheless, there is also a degree of duality and complexity to their comments and perceptions: some students claim that they are ready to receive refugees in Poland, but that they also imagine many dangers resulting from their stay here. Therefore, in a general sense, it seems that this group includes people who experience cognitive dissonance (Pasamonik, 2017): on the one hand, they see the needs of ASRs as valid, yet, on the other hand, they absorb the dominant social messaging instructing them to reject them.

Selected Determinants of Students' Narratives Concerning Accommodating ASRs in Poland

The current migration crisis in northern Europe follows a recent wave of extreme socio-political changes in the SWANA region. In the course of the Arab Spring, spanning 2010 – 2012 (e.g., Danahar, 2013; Kadri, 2015; as cited in: Bobryk, 2017, p. 47), protests expressed citizens' deep dissatisfaction with their political, economic, and social situations. Joining a long history of colonial violence perpetrated by the West, imperial geo-political actions contributed to further destabilisation of the region. This caused further destructive processes, such as increasing the prominence of extreme 'Islamic' circles, including the establishment of the so-called 'Islamic State' (as cited in: Bobryk, 2017, p. 47). This chain of destructive processes led to mass migration movements, mainly involving refugees, not only to adjacent states but also to Europe. In the face of this new influx of ASRs and migrants, a collective European anti-crisis programme was clearly lacking, exposing the EU's loss of ability to regulate the migration movement. Although for several decades, Europe (including Poland) has been experiencing multiple migration processes, this recent and ongoing inflow of refugees and other categories of migrants is viewed as a socially destabilising influence (Kaszuba, 2014, pp. 205–206).

The European Commission proposed to relocate 40,000 refugees to selected EU states, and some of these states accepted the proposal. As part of this effort, the previous Polish cabinet agreed to accept seven thousand refugees. The subsequent

one, however, resolutely rejected Poland's participation in these relocation efforts (having established the Humanitarian Aid Ministry in 2017, with the aim of providing assistance to those in need, it dissolved this department in 2019).

During the time, anti-immigration movements began to develop in Poland and across Europe, with extremely right wing parties growing in power, and nationalist movements (not only resulting from the refugee crisis) became highly active. The situation grew increasingly complicated as public opinion became increasingly radical due to terror attacks carried out by 'Islamic State' fighters, who had returned to the continent among this influx of refugees (and the subsequent highly antagonistic handling of these events in northern Europe's mainstream media). In addition, the number of refugees was rising, and they sought new routes to reach EU countries; simultaneously, a lot of media coverage centred disproportionately on acts of abuse and violence carried out by ASRs, plus media narratives focused on men leaving boats that reached Italy and Greece, and public opinion grew indifferent to the dramatic photos of mothers, children, and whole families.

At the turn of 2016, Poles' attitudes to refugees changed. This was the result of the above-mentioned (partially macro-scale) and Polish-specific (micro-scale) factors. Significantly, at this point, parliamentary and presidential elections were preceded by election campaigns with a clear anti-immigration rhetoric, and then (just like now), politicians falsely associated the inflow of refugees with terrorism, thus introducing the narrative of effectively defending Poles against attacks etc., by forbidding the accommodation of refugees from predominantly Muslim countries. This kind of aggressive public debate (Winiewski et al., 2017) remains in place even now. Sociologist, Krystyna Skarżyńska (2019) argues that, in 2015, the sense of threat linked to refugees increased by 40%, as a result of some politicians and the media using this particular false framing of the topic to frighten people. Skarżyńska is convinced that 'politics is a part of social life. It not only affects our daily existence and plans, but it also promotes or prevents people's attitudes' (2019, p. 263).

It was within this recent political shift, then, that the process of the securitisation of migration (especially ASRs) began.

'In this process, an issue is presented by a specific subject as a threat. The message is directed at the audience, and the audience may respond to it positively (i.e., agree with the line of argument) or negatively (disagree with the line of argument). Agreement means taking actions, including extraordinary measures. Thus, the process of securitisation is a process of communication and negotiation aimed at achieving specific goals.' (Ziętek, 2017).

In a similar vein, Ole Woever defined securitisation as a speech act, positioning a particular issue as an existential threat. Thus, language can be used, not only to transmit messages, but also to create social facts (Woever, as cited in Ziętek, 2017).

Thus, a severely negative image of ASRs emerged in the Polish media in what Pasamonik refers to as 'media panic' (2017, p. 26): specifically, they were identified

with terrorist inclinations, associated with the so-called 'Islamic State,' aggression, and unrest (Pasamonik, 2017, pp. 29–30). This portrayal had a definite and direct impact on Poles' attitudes to refugees. As part of this, hate speech also became commonplace, shifting from social media to other kinds of media. The report on hate speech carried out by Winiewski et al. in 2017 shows that (in 2016) the most common objects of hate speech in Poland were ASRs and the LGBTQ+ community. That research (based on the comparative analysis of Poles' attitudes to people from other countries between 2014 and 2016) shows that in those years, the proportion of people being targeted by hate speech, both in the media and in everyday situations, grew considerably. Muslims were the most often insulted group in the press, and, at that time, more and more Poles tended to read anti-Islamic articles.

It was also found in this report that people who more often face hate speech in their immediate environment will be more inclined to use it themselves, which leads to the disappearance of social norms (especially in the case of young people). Indeed, 'young people who experience hate speech also learn to violate other principles of community life, declaring greater readiness to resort to violence in daily life or greater support for repressions against refugees (isolation, closing borders, or surveillance)' (Winiewski et al., 2017). Therefore, the group of Poles who consider using aggressive insults and slurs, exclusively against minority groups (especially Muslims), to be inhumane is shrinking – a shift that the authors of the report attribute to the clear change in mainstream political rhetoric. The narrative dominant in the public sphere emphasises potential threats connected with those groups of people coming to Poland, and Poles often readily adopt a stereotypical vision of refugees, in which they do not deserve any help (Kropiński & Hansen, 2016). This phenomenon of desensitisation has been more and more intense in recent years. It has been found that the greater contact that people have with hate speech in their daily environments, the more they become used to it, no longer perceiving hate speech as a serious social problem (Kropiński & Hansen, 2016).

The current generation of young people have grown up in the first decade of the twenty-first century: i.e., the time of 'media panic' (REF). They have also witnessed the rapid development of the internet, smartphone technology, and social media platforms, and participate in online communities (such as Instagram, TikTok and Facebook), which connect people with similar viewpoints or using the same sources of information, and offer them the same websites and sources via algorithm technology. These technologies, and the algorithms behind them, create increasingly polarised views among their users, thus creating 'echo chambers' where individuals are exposed only to perspectives which match their own.

In looking for the causes of negative attitudes to refugees, we must also examine the mechanism operating within many of the participants of this study: they refer to arguments which, in their opinion, allow them to refrain from providing help to refugees. Such arguments include the national security of Poland or examples of

our 'national' openness and generosity (e.g., to Ukrainians). There is a cognitive dissonance resulting from the duality of media information concerning the perceived threat from ASRs (media panic) and a simultaneous sense of solidarity with those in need – as demonstrated by several subjects of this study. However, this sense of contradictory images, opinions, and judgements (i.e., the cognitive dissonance) was quickly reduced.

'In this case, the reduction of the dissonance does not involve the elimination of the sense of moral responsibility but a change in the scope of its application by reducing the moral community from general (humanistic) to national one. This way, we retain the positive view of ourselves as morally responsible individuals' (Pasamonik, 2017, pp. 39–40).

Conclusion

The core aim of this text was to discuss students' narratives concerning the potential accommodation of ASRs in Poland. We need to pay particular attention to one issue that emerged clearly in the students' narratives concerning refugees: the readiness to dehumanise other people. In fact, I am convinced that this narrative may easily be transferred to any group of 'others,' not only ASRs. I draw this conclusion on the basis of the content of many comments made in this data characterised by contempt, insults, disrespect, and perceiving others as weaker, worse, and valueless. Put bluntly, these are examples of contempt for other human beings. The fact that these views are held by students presents a serious challenge to the Polish education and social work systems, both in their current academic sphere and, more worryingly, in the professional roles they will soon occupy.

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Differing Interpretations of Janusz Korczak's Legacy in Schools that take Inspiration from His Work: A Study in Four Schools in the UK and Canada

Abstract. The purpose of this paper is to present how a selection of current school leaders in two countries, other than Poland, the country in which he lived, perceive the legacy of Janusz Korczak. These two countries are the United Kingdom and Canada. Its role is to present these interpretations for debate and discussion among other school leaders and practitioners, who claim inspiration from him worldwide. We have not suggested that there is a correct or incorrect way to interpret Korczak, rather we are simply interested in how current practitioners perceive his work. The first part of this article is a brief summary of key aspects from the life and works of Janusz Korczak that have entered educational conversation within the United Kingdom and the wider Anglophone world. This has often been through writings by and for teachers or books written for schools, rather than academic texts or even Korczak's original works. Key aspects of his life story presented here are: those years leading the orphanage 'Dom Sierot', and most especially the final months of his life in the Warsaw ghetto, and the last recorded events of his life, including his refusal to go to Theresienstadt and his

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ultimate death in Treblinka. We also present in this section, because of an expectation that schools may have engaged with these, his views on how societal structures being designed by adults disadvantage children; and his valuing of children's voices, as well as his views on the problematic nature of authority. This paper is a discussion of four linked case studies. Participants for this study were four school leaders, two from the UK and two from Canada. The schools they lead are schools that in public facing aspects of their schools, such as school webpages or public vision statements, refer explicitly to the influence of Janusz Korczak. The method of data collection used within this study was unstructured interviews with school leaders. Through this process we discovered that there are commonalities in how his legacy has been perceived. These included, for all, intertwining his life and work and in doing so presenting him as a role model to children and teachers. Other aspects of his influence focused on student voice, the breaking down of hierarchy and the enabling of creativity.

Keywords: Janusz Korczak, school leadership, power distance, student voice

Introduction

This article is the first article published as part of a research project into the legacy of Janusz Korczak, the Polish writer of novels for children and of books and articles about teaching, parenting and childhood. For this study we approached four school leaders all leading different schools which openly claim to base their vision and their practice, at least partially, on the works of Janusz Korczak. Via unstructured interview we explored what his legacy meant to them. We did this without judgment. Our aim was not to catch schools out or to identify best practice but simply to attain an overview of the different ways in which his legacy is interpreted today. In this article therefore we first present a conceptual framework regarding the life and work of Janusz Korczak, this is followed by a short description of our methods and finally we present our findings. This project was designed around a single research question as follows: How do the leaders of different schools, who claim to take inspiration from the Polish writer Janusz Korczak, interpret this?

Conceptual Framework

This section of this article presents a brief summary of key concepts from the life and works of Janusz Korczak that have entered educational conversation within the United Kingdom and the wider Anglophone world, often through writings by and for teachers, or books written for schools, rather than academic texts or even Korczak's original works. This section therefore is not an exploration into the intricacies of his ideas based on academic texts but rather is an elucidation of key aspects that may have inspired current practitioners due to their accessibility in texts practitioners

may read. Its purpose is to contextualise the findings from the interviews with school leaders.

Excellent texts on the works of Janusz Korczak approach his writings in depth (Silverman, 2017). Indeed research and writing regarding Janusz Korczak is a live and constantly developing field, especially in Israel and Poland but elsewhere, too. Beyond this, of course, Korczak's own works are still engrossing and thought provoking reading for anyone interested or involved in education or working with children. A compendium of selected works easily accessible in English has been recently collated by Medvedeva-Nathoo and Czernow (2018).

However, in constructing this framework and writing this article we recognised that it may well be that even those practitioners who take inspiration from Korczak do not read Korczak's original writings frequently or in depth and perhaps rarely read academic texts, addressing his thinking, at all. Indeed for many children and teachers a popular play written for school drama courses has been an introduction to Korczak (Grieg, 2004). More recently novels in English for adults and for children such as those written by Belfer (2018), Gifford (2018) and Marrin (2018) have been an introduction for many, too. However, despite the way Korczak's legacy has been filtered before reaching them, it is still in the voices and actions of practitioners: teachers, teaching assistants, and school leaders that any writer on education, including Korczak, lives on.

This article is also pertinent to the present day because interest in Korczak has grown in schools in the United Kingdom in recent years. The factors that have led to this have been linked primarily to Polish immigration which has led to an increase in Polish students, in Polish teaching assistants and to a lesser extent in teachers of Polish origin (Smith, 2020). This should not be over-stressed and is less so in Canada where recent Polish migration has been less marked than in the United Kingdom. Korczak is still a marginal figure on most teacher training courses in the United Kingdom and in other Anglophone countries. However, through dialogue within schools, between practitioners familiar with his significance in Poland, his is now a name that is becoming part of the conversation in schools in the United Kingdom. It is increasingly familiar to many teachers. Indeed trainee teachers returning to university classes having picked up his name within school practice have led to his inclusion on some courses in United Kingdom universities, in itself this has been an interesting process of schools informing the university curriculum (Smith, 2020).

The first aspect of Janusz Korczak's legacy that we expected schools to explicitly refer to, based on an initial analysis of writings about Korczak, in sources that teachers frequently read and use in their teaching (Yad Vashem, 2020; Holocaust Memorial Day Trust, 2020) was his life rather than his writings. Indeed on visiting the two schools in the UK, whose leaders participated in these interviews, early in the research process, this clearly was the case. In both these schools there were posters

on walls and brief two or three sentence summaries of key life events. There were also short quotes from Korczak's writings.

Some aspects of his life that we expected may be referred to included his Jewish heritage, his life as a writer of journalism and of children's stories, and his training as a paediatrician. However, we expected that as regards his life story more emphasis would be placed on his years leading the orphanage 'Dom Sierot', the community that he built there and most especially the final months of his life in the Warsaw ghetto and the last recorded events including his refusal to go to Theresienstadt and his ultimate death in Treblinka.

The second aspect we expected to be referred to was his writings on pedagogy, especially those contained in compendiums in English, easily available in Canada and the United Kingdom (Medvedeva-Nathoo & Czernow, 2018). These writings are wide and extensive and some aspects contain passionate arguments that in the schools we were interviewing within are now resolved by history. The most obvious example of these is that Korczak was a passionate opponent of corporal punishment. Which at the time was universally practiced across Europe but which is illegal in the jurisdictions in which all these schools are based. However, other aspects of his work referred to in the texts teachers and school leaders may access are more contentious to this day. These include a belief that childhood is a distinct stage of life that should be valued as having its own intrinsic worth, and that childhood therefore is more than simply a transition to adulthood. We also expected that schools may have engaged with debates regarding whether societal structures being designed by adults disadvantage children.

Furthermore, Korczak wrote extensively and in various contexts of the power imbalance between adults and children. He was concerned that power that came through physical strength or that was imposed upon others damaged children and damaged society. He also believed in the capacity of children to interpret their world in a way that was as, or more, valid than the adult interpretations that might be imposed upon them. He highly valued the voice and understandings of children. He had trust in the capacity of children to function as independent decision makers and had faith in the decisions of children. This was expounded on in his discussions on aspects of childhood such as mealtimes and bedtimes, some of which continue to be counter-norm and provocative even to this day. These again were themes we had found emphasised in accessible writings on Korczak as found in mainstream media related to education in the United Kingdom (Johnson, 2020; Muller, 2020).

Lastly, we expected these school leaders may link Korczak's writing and the ways it had influenced their thinking to the ideas and influences of other writers. We expected that this may include linking Korczak's ideas specifically to those of other seminal, progressive writers on education such as Paulo Freire, John Dewey and Maria Montessori. However, we also expected interweaving with contemporary writers especially where schools had engaged in teacher leadership projects.

These could include Alma Harris (2013); David Frost (2015) and others linked to David Frost's writing and work philosophically and professionally: Joshevska and Kirandziska (2017); or Underwood and Kowalczuk-Walędziak (2019).

As stated earlier, this conceptual framework is very brief and not intended to be an exploration into his writings and ideas. It is rather a short presentation of a framework of those concepts from his life and works that have entered the educational conversation in the UK often from journalism or textbooks rather than academic writings and that we expected the teachers who were interviewed to refer to.

Study Design

In this section we present a brief summary of the methods used when undertaking this research project. This begins with a brief description of the participants, followed by the processes of data collection and data analysis, and lastly there is a short paragraph in which ethical considerations are discussed.

The participants for this study were four school leaders in schools that in public facing aspects of their work referred to Janusz Korczak. In all cases he was referred to explicitly on front facing webpages and within published school vision documents. Korczak is widely studied on teacher training courses and is part of the public discourse in Poland. However, one contribution of this paper is to gain an understanding of his relevance to school leaders outside Poland, specifically in the Anglophone world. Therefore, the case study schools for this project were two schools in England and two schools in Canada. In each country one of the schools was a state secondary school and one was a state primary school, although one was affiliated to the Church of England.

The method used was unstructured interview. The participants were interviewed in private and the interviews in all cases lasted approximately 40 minutes. At the start of the interview the participants were asked the same question after which a natural, professional conversation was allowed to simply evolve via prompts and further questions. The initial question asked was identical to the research question at the top of this article. These interviews were recorded and transcribed, prior to a deeper textual analysis. Participants were told the topic of the interview in advance and in some cases even brought illustrative materials in order to be ready to discuss further.

British Education Research Association guidelines were followed throughout (BERA, 2018). This is a low-risk study. The topic under investigation was one that participants were content to discuss openly, indeed was an openly addressed aspect of their school's identity. All the participants were highly qualified adults in positions of professional authority. They understood concepts of informed consent and anonymity easily and had the professional confidence to withdraw if they wished.

Findings

In this section we present quotations from the interviews. These are accompanied by our commentary and interpretation. The sub-headings are based on the four strongest and most consistently referred to themes that emerged from the interviews.

Korczak's Life Story as Legacy

As expected all the school leaders referred to the story of the life of Janusz Korczak as an important reference point for their school. These two quotations below illustrate two subtly different ways in which these schools interpreted the relevance of his life to children and teachers today.

> *I think his life is a legacy. I think a lot of schools in the country would take inspiration from Korczak but I don't know, I might not be typical. However, to me 'how to love a child' for example didn't give me strategies. You know in some ways, many ways, it is positioned in place and time. So equating the resources, the space, the culture of a modern school to a school in Korczak's era is not really possible. However, from his life story and the commitment of his last days you can understand what a teacher is, what a school is for. You can get that understanding of the moral purpose of what we do. That is what we get and that is how we present Korczak to the students. So in our commitment to our school and our students he informs practice but perhaps not so much in the detail of what we do.*

As this quotation illustrates, firstly this School Principal has identified a challenge in interpreting the teaching practices espoused in some of Korczak's most well-known works when working in a modern classroom situated in contemporary society. However, using language familiar in more recent debates from teacher leadership perspectives, (Frost, 2015) she then goes on to discuss the message of moral purpose that is gained by teachers through the stories of Korczak's life. Practice and purpose have been previously identified as distinct forms of knowledge, which together constitute the four types of knowledge that teachers possess, the others being strategy and affirmation (Underwood & Kowalczuk-Walędziak, 2019). Moral purpose particularly has been defined as: why teachers teach and why they teach how they do (Frost, 2015). It has also been defined as: those beliefs and values that lead to teachers engaging in extending their professionalism (Joshevska & Kirandziska, 2017). The connection between Korczak's life story and the moral purpose of teachers, identified by the school leaders, is the way that Korczak asserted, by his actions, the central importance of teaching to a society and the complete commitment to teaching and the care of children that he showed.

> *I would say his life story is his greatest legacy to us as a school. It is a story we tell to every child every year as part of our Holocaust Memorial Day remembrance. It is a very powerful story to us. A story about the deep moral purpose of what it means to be a teacher, what it means to care. It is such a powerful story of peaceful heroism …. However, he is complicated if seeking practice. A Child's Right to Respect and How to Love a Child are as much for parents as for students. Individual paragraphs from these books are fantastic for provoking thoughts and debates. However, it functions more for prompts to provoke ideas than as a guide.*

For this leader, as for the school leader quoted above, Korczak provides affirmation, purpose and inspiration but not precise teaching strategies. However, this is not problematic for her. The training she provides for her staff, in which she uses quotations from Korczak, is in the form of discussions that introduce and open up debates. Korczak's wide-ranging writings for her are an entry point for enabling the teachers' own creativity. From both these quotations it is clear that Korczak's life story provides affirmation as fellow professionals and a sense of moral purpose for teachers. It serves as an inspiring story for teachers which helps them to continue in and to be proud of their job. Furthermore, his life story indirectly inspires students through teachers, with teachers passing his legacy to different generations of students in their schools.

Korczak and Student Voice

Within both the countries referenced in this study there is an emphasis on the importance of student voice. This comes from government advice, and teacher training institutes. Worldwide, the intellectual tradition regarding student voice is complex with many different writers having a role in shaping and defining this. Despite this complexity the leaders of these specific schools linked their understanding and interpretation of student voice to their understanding of Korczak. Although they also referred to other writers who had inspired their understanding of student voice. These two quotations below illustrate this:

> *To me Korczak has had a very direct impact on practice. So I can list concrete things. We start the school day later than other schools because actually to me an early start is enforcing adult biology on children. You know teenagers simply have a different biological sleep pattern. It is not that they are lazy, the melatonin is just released later. Now that comes right back to Korczak, I can find the exact quote where he discusses it, in English 'the tyranny of bedtime'.*

This quotation links the development of a specific school policy directly to the writings of Korczak. Interestingly in making this policy, this school leader has referred specifically to a passage from Korczak's seminal work 'How to Love a Child'. In the interview she also referred to how she found it useful to reference his writing when engaging with staff as this could be persuasive when bringing in change. This is because she was aware that her staff had a deep respect for his work.

> *Yes, we take practice from Korczak – the children's council is one and in our school you know this council has more real influence than others. They don't just plan an end of term party or something like this they have influence on bigger strategic things. Not a final decision but we will bring to the council plans for the new drama studio or plans for what options will be available in year 9 or what have you. I suppose the only way we don't take practice is that in many ways the classroom of today has changed. So it is structures we take not actual, the detail of classroom tasks perhaps.*

This principal again describes how they have been directly influenced by Korczak in the ways that they have structured the processes by which they access student voice. This has specifically involved the creation of the student council. However, this structure can also frequently be found in schools that do not claim to have been directly influenced by the ideas of Korczak. This is one complexity with identifying the legacy of a seminal writer. Their writings intersect with the ideas of others and with broader cultural and societal changes. Still it remains significant that in both these schools the school leadership has interpreted decisions that they have made as having been influenced by Korczak.

Korczak and Power Distance

Power distance is not a phrase that Korczak himself used, and it therefore has to be used with caution in relation to him. However, we have used the phrase, power distance, because these current school leaders, when interviewed, did use it. This illustrates the complexity of identifying an intellectual legacy. Korczackian concepts were repeatedly interwoven with more recent concepts and expressions by the participants during the interviews. All the interviewees clearly expressed a link between Korczak's ideas and contemporary concepts of breaking down power--distance in order to create flatter, more discursive leadership structures. These two quotations illustrate how the school leaders used this term in relation to Korczack's ideas.

> *I think Korczak shapes a lot of how I think as a leader. I think this goes beyond teacher student relationships and what I am talking about is relationships within the whole school. So I wanted to break down power distance in this. Because I think it is a right thing to do but also because*

> *I think it means more creative teachers, more innovative teachers. Teachers who take control of things themselves.*

In this quotation this school leader describes how Korczak's views on leadership have shaped the relationship that she has with children and with staff. Hers is a view of leadership that fits with conceptualisations of distributing leadership put forward by recent writers such as Alma Harris (2013). Korczak emphasised how less hierarchical models of leadership based on listening and acknowledging the expertise of others, including the expertise of children, have ethical value. This leader builds on this to describe how moving away from a more directive approach to leadership, and instead recognising the expertise of colleagues has enabled creativity among her teachers and has led to school improvement.

> *To me Korczak was ahead of his time. He was interested in breaking down power distance. He was interested in breaking hierarchies. This kind of fits with ideas that have been important to me recently. This has connections to teacher leadership, non-positionality, all these important ideas about empowerment by breaking hierarchy.*

This school leader went on to explain how his interest in Korczak's ideas had led to a broader interest in alternative leadership structures and especially into the concept of non-positionality. In his interview he linked Korczak's emphasis on leaders who listen, acknowledge others, and lead via dialogue and persuasion to more recent writings about 'teacher leadership'. This school leader's conceptualisation of teacher leadership is clearly strongly based on the ideas of David Frost (2015) and also on the writings of practitioner academics such as Majda Joshevska (Joshevska & Kirandziska, 2017). However, this school leader linked these more recent writers to Korczak's intellectual legacy. This is noticeably not a connection that these writers themselves make. Thoughtful teachers and leaders when presented with ideas from a range of seminal and contemporary writers will start to make their own idiosyncratic and personalised links. This is an important form of knowledge creation that exists within the reflective dialogue of teachers both as an internal conversation and in conversation with others. Teachers use the ideas of a range of writers in order to create their own personalised vision and philosophy, which is shaped by personal experience. The direct legacy of one writer therefore becomes hard to untangle from others. The writers become useful tools in which to logically build personalised interpretations.

Korczak and Teaching Practice

All the interviewees referred knowledgeably and with passion to the importance that the ideas of Janusz Korczak have had on shaping their vision and practice as school leaders. However, all of them also admitted that it was challenging to identify

his influence on the specifics of classroom practice. This may be, as the interviewees stated, because he is not a writer on education in a conventional sense. His goal was to provide, through a narrative of his experiences, an over-arching vision of childhood beyond classrooms. It may also be, which these school leaders did not identify, that as school leaders they are less engaged in classroom teaching. It is possible that future interviews with teachers, as this project develops, may elicit a different interpretation. However, these quotations below illustrate that these school leaders still saw Korczak's legacy on classroom practice as present even if somewhat difficult to pin down to specifics.

> *Well I think Korczak runs through our teaching practice. But I mean sometimes it can be hard to distinguish because these progressive writers shaped education and they overlap. So is it Dewey? Is it Korczak? Is it Montessori? It can be hard to know where any particular item of practice comes from. However, I think Korczak runs through practice. I would identify things like asking children's views, taking their interpretations seriously, not criticising the quiet child but finding a way in which to involve them. Even 'pair-share' is a Korczakian concept. 'A guide on the side not a sage on the stage' is a Korczackian statement, even if not words Korczak wrote himself.*

As this quotation illustrates, this School Principal has identified the complex process, whereby a widely read professional, will synthesise a range of writers when building their vision for teaching and running schools. A good illustration of this is the sentence in which she ascribes the practice idea of 'pair-share' to a Korczackian approach to education even though it is more usually attributed to more recent writers on practice. *'A guide on the side not a sage on the stage'* is a phrase of uncertain origin, but that is often taught as a simple reminder to new teachers in the United Kingdom to encourage them to design lessons that are not simply focused on the teacher as dispenser of knowledge. Again this Principal links this to her understanding of Korczak, while being clearly aware that these are not words attributable directly to him.

> *One of my worries is that we have elevated practice at the expense of denigrating pedagogy. This is seen in entirely school based training but, and I know this is not a popular view it is also at the expense of no longer expecting lecturers to be writers. If universities are to offer something different from school-based training it needs to be linking students to a long history of pedagogical thinking. There are too many young teachers coming into the profession thinking that they invented child-centred pedagogy. They make great statements on teaching but without knowing that Korczak, Freire and others got there first.*

This final quotation addresses a wide-ranging critique of contemporary education policies in the UK. These are current and contentious debates. She refers to a movement in England away from university based teacher training to school based. She also refers to debates regarding whether university lecturers should be writers too or whether substantial professional experience is sufficient if one is to train others professionally. She positions herself clearly regarding these debates and consistently within the rest of her interview values practitioners having a deep understanding of writers on education both seminal and recent. She identifies two writers and links them clearly in her mind, this is even though this is not a connection that Freire, the latter of these two writers, writing in a Brazilian context in the 1970s, explicitly made.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is to present how a selection of current practitioners in two countries, other than Poland the country in which he lived, perceive the legacy of Janusz Korczak. We have presented these interpretations for debate and discussion among other practitioners who claim inspiration from him worldwide. We have not suggested that there is a correct or incorrect way to interpret Korczak. However, as is explored throughout the article there are commonalities in how his legacy has been perceived. These include the intertwining of his life and work, portraying him, through his actions as well as his words, as a role model for children and teachers. Another is positioning him as a writer within a canon of progressive pedagogues who he is linked to conceptually including: John Dewey, Paulo Freire, and Maria Montessori. Differences emerged regarding the influence of Korczak on practice. To some, structures such as student councils were examples of a direct legacy of practice. To others, it was values and broader brush ideas that he has left to teachers, who then must interpret these in their own creative ways. A next stage for us will be to provide further articles for discussion and debate exploring his legacy. One we already have in process is a paper into his legacy on classroom teachers who acknowledge his influence. Another is to explore the perception of children in these schools. Quantitative research into the awareness of Korczak among practitioners and school leaders would also help us ascertain how far his ideas are now moving towards the knowledge mainstream in the United Kingdom, Canada and elsewhere. These deeper understandings should be of interest to practitioners and to facilitators of teacher-training programmes alike.

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