

Comparative Education

WINDOWS ON PRACTICE GUIDE

B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary

2012



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Higher Education Commission

Foreword

Teacher education in Pakistan is leaping into the future. This updated Scheme of Studies is the latest milestone in a journey that began in earnest in 2006 with the development of a National Curriculum, which was later augmented by the 2008 National Professional Standards for Teachers in Pakistan and the 2010 Curriculum of Education Scheme of Studies. With these foundations in place, the Higher Education Commission (HEC) and the USAID Teacher Education Project engaged faculty across the nation to develop detailed syllabi and course guides for the four-year B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary and the two-year Associate Degree in Education (ADE).

The syllabi and course guides have been reviewed by the National Curriculum Review Committee (NCRC) and the syllabi are approved as the updated Scheme of Studies for the ADE and B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary programmes.

As an educator, I am especially inspired by the creativity and engagement of this updated Scheme of Studies. It offers the potential for a seismic change in how we educate our teachers and ultimately our country's youngsters. Colleges and universities that use programmes like these provide their students with the universally valuable tools of critical thinking, hands-on learning, and collaborative study.

I am grateful to all who have contributed to this exciting process; in particular the faculty and staff from universities, colleges, and provincial institutions who gave freely of their time and expertise for the purpose of preparing teachers with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions required for nurturing students in elementary grades. Their contributions to improving the quality of basic education in Pakistan are incalculable. I would also like to thank the distinguished NCRC members, who helped further enrich the curricula by their recommendations. The generous support received from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) enabled HEC to draw on technical assistance and subject-matter expertise of the scholars at Education Development Center, Inc., and Teachers College, Columbia University. Together, this partnership has produced a vitally important resource for Pakistan.

PROF. DR SOHAIL NAQVI
Executive Director
Higher Education Commission
Islamabad

How the Windows on Practice guide was developed

As part of nationwide reforms to improve the quality of teacher education, the Higher Education Commission (HEC), with technical assistance from the USAID Teacher Education Project, engaged faculty across the nation to develop courses in the new four-year B.Ed. (Hons) Elementary programme.

The process of designing the syllabus for each course in years 3–4 of the programme began with a curriculum design workshop. Deans or directors from universities where these courses will be taught identified faculty to attend the workshop. In the first workshop, a national or international subject matter expert led a seminar focused on a review and update of subject (content) knowledge. The remainder of this workshop was spent on reviewing the HEC Scheme of Studies, organizing course content across the semester, developing detailed unit descriptions, and preparing the course syllabi. Although the course syllabi are designed primarily for Student Teachers taking the course, they are useful resources for teacher educators too.

Following the initial workshop, faculty participants developed teaching notes that include ideas for teaching units of study and related resources. Working individually or in groups, participants focused on their teaching methods and strategies and how these could be useful to those who would teach the course in the future. Subsequent workshops were held over the course of a year to give faculty sufficient time to complete their work, engage in peer review, and receive critical feedback from national and/or international consultants. In designing both the syllabi and the teaching notes, faculty and subject matter experts were guided by the National Professional Standards for Teachers in Pakistan (2009).

All of the syllabi developed by faculty who participated in the process are included in this document, along with a list of topical teaching notes. Additional references and resources appear at the end of the document. These should provide a rich resource for faculty who will teach the course in the future. An example of a syllabus with accompanying teaching notes is included to provide new faculty with a model for developing curricula and planning to teach. This Windows on Practice guide is not intended to provide a complete curriculum with a standard syllabus and fully developed units of study, but rather aims to suggest ideas and resources for Instructors to use in their own planning. Hence, readers will find sample units and materials that reflect the perspective of faculty designers rather than prescriptions for practice.

We respect intellectual property rights and to the best of our knowledge, we have not included any suggested materials that are copyright protected or for which we

have not secured explicit permission to use. Therefore, all materials included may be used in classrooms for educational purposes. Materials in this document are not intended for commercial use, however. They may not be used in other publications without securing permission for their use.

Initial drafts were reviewed by the National Curriculum Review Committee (NCRC) and suggestions were incorporated into final drafts, which were then submitted to the NCRC for approval.

Faculty involved in designing the Comparative Education course:

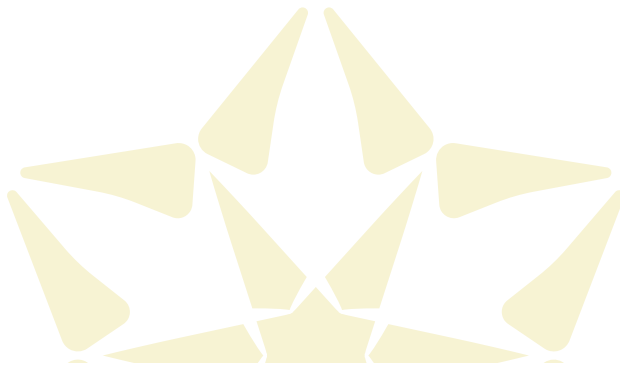
Abida Khalid, University of Education, Lahore; Dr Mumtaz Akhter, Institute of Educational Research, University of the Punjab; Maimoonah Ambreen, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad; Nadeem Khan, Institute of Educational Research, University of Peshawar; Qadir Bux Laghari, Shah Abdul Latif University, Khairpur; Dr Rifaqat Ali Akbar, Institute of Educational Research, University of the Punjab; Rukhsana Durrani, Allama Iqbal Open University, Islamabad; Sabira Ali, Sardar Bahadur Khan Women University, Quetta; Saira Soomro, University of Sindh, Jamshoro/Hyderabad; Shafqat Ali, University of Education, Lahore; Waheed Akbar, Hazara University, Mansehra.

International subject and content specialist leading the seminar: Dr Gita Steiner-Khamsi, Professor, Teachers College, Columbia University.

International consultant for the design workshop: Dr Frances Schoonmaker, Professor Emeritus, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Date of NCRC review process: 11–12 January 2013

NCRC reviewers: Dr Asif Malik, Government College University, Faisalabad; Dr Fauzia Khurshid, National University of Modern Languages, Islamabad; Dr Nabi Bux Jumani, International Islamic University, Islamabad.



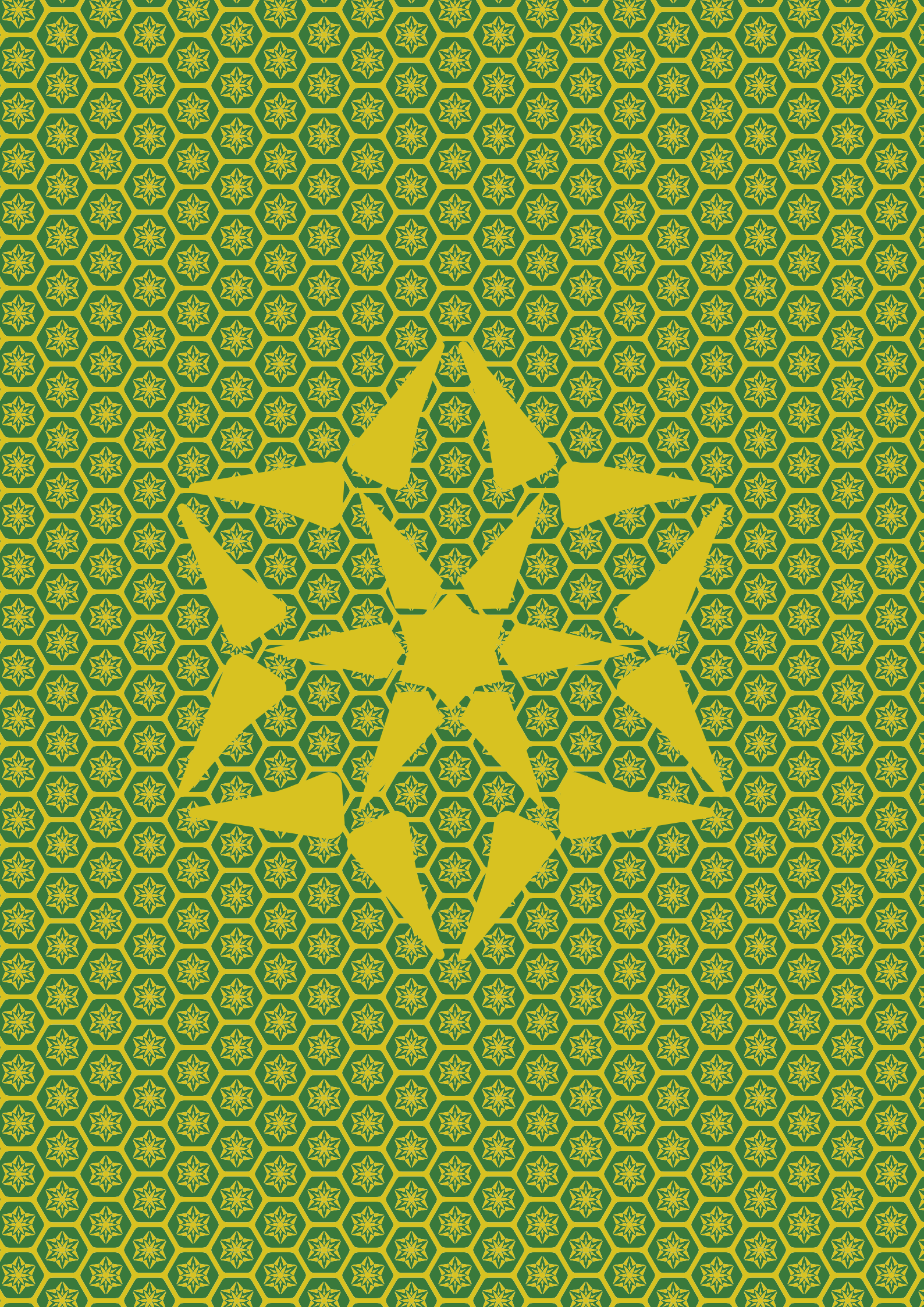


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Rationale for a course on comparative education

In the HEC 2010 document, *Curriculum of Education: B.Ed. (Hons) 4-year Degree Programme (Elementary & Secondary, Associate Degree in Education, M.Ed./Ms. Education)*, Comparative Education was included as a professional course. The education system in a country cannot be isolated from the education systems of other countries. Keeping in view the requirement of equivalence in a global world, it is important to compare the education system of Pakistan with those of other developing and developed countries. Knowledge about the education systems of various countries assists policymakers in reflecting on education in the context of competition and excellence. It is, therefore, important for Instructors to be aware of the objective, curricula, teacher education, admission criteria, and staff recruitment requirements of the education systems of other developed and developing countries.

Essential knowledge

Compiled from notes by: Rukhsana Durrani, Maimoonah Ambreen, Waheed Akbar, Nadeem Khan, Dr Mumtaz Akhter, and Dr Razaqat Ali Akbar.

Comparative education is the field of education that analyses the education system of a country by using data and systems from other countries, and designs policies to improve education. According to Good (1962, as cited in Lawal, 2004), it is a field of study dealing with the comparison of current educational theory and practice in different countries for purposes of broadening and deepening the understanding of educational problems beyond the boundaries of one's own country. Moreover, Adeyinka (1994) gives the following definitions of the concept:

- A study of two or more education systems
- A study of how the philosophy, objectives and aims, policy, and practice of education in other countries influence the general development, policy, and practice of education in a particular country
- A study of how the development of education in the past, across the ages and continents, has influenced the development of education in particular countries
- A study of the school systems of two or more countries, and of the administrative machinery set up to implement or control the implementation of government policies at various levels of education systems

From the above definitions, it is clear that the study of comparative education allows the person involved to have a better understanding of the system of education outside his/her own country. Keeping in view the requirement of equivalence in a global world, it is important to compare the education system of any country with the systems of other countries.

As comparative education considers education from a global perspective and investigates best practices in education, it is important to learn about essential educational values and systems, approaching various problems from an

international, comparative standpoint. Moreover, since the term comparative education denotes making judgements about two similar areas, topics, or factors, this requires an evaluative eye that reviews the material while reading critically. The study of making comparisons is systematic; open-mindedness and an understanding of information in an unbiased manner are some crucial requirements.

There is a general tendency for comparison in education to be between developed and developing countries, and many a times within the developed and developing countries. The idea is to see what makes them successful, or what issues have been faced and how were they addressed.

The Comparative Education course focuses on essential educational values and systems, and various related problems, through international comparison. The following questions are essential in the course:

- What are the similarities and differences between differing cultures and civilizations in the worldviews and views of humanity that are foundational to education in these respective contexts?
- What are the commonalities and differences in education systems and educational issues around the world, including in other developing and developed countries?
- What are the current, central issues in educational curriculum and pedagogy in schools around the world?

Common misconceptions

Student Teachers are likely to enter their programme with some or all of these common misconceptions about the curriculum and course on comparative education. The public often shares these misconceptions. The Instructor should constantly search for ways to help Student Teachers confront and critique these misconceptions, so that they can be intelligent creators, users, and interpreters of the curriculum of the schools within the communities in which they work.

- Student Teachers and teachers tend to think that comparative education is limited to the study of the education systems of other countries.
- The study of the education systems of advanced countries might distract Student Teachers and cause them to focus on the advantages of other systems rather than on creating comparative knowledge.
- People usually look to learn from the education systems of rich, Western countries, but much can be learned by from looking at the education systems of less wealthy countries elsewhere in the world.
- Technologically advanced countries have perfected their education systems.
- Once you know a success story within one context, you can borrow and or even transplant key features of the system without reference to context.
- Targets for quality schooling and systems of education should be the same for every country, regardless of context.
- Policymakers should be able to ‘cherry-pick’ ideas from any system of education and advocate their use to bring policy changes within their own contexts.

References

Adeyinka, A. A. (1994). *Popular topics in comparative education for Nigerian tertiary education students*. Lagos: Raytel Communication Ltd.

Lawal, B. O. (2004). *Comparative Education*. Osogbo: Swift Publishers Nigeria Ltd.

Compiled from notes by: Rukhsana Durrani, Maimoonah Ambreen, Waheed Akbar, Dr Mumtaz Akhter, and Dr Rifaqat Ali Akbar.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

This section contains syllabi written by individual faculty members or groups of faculty. Using the HEC Scheme of Studies for the course, they considered the balance between the demands of the subject itself, active learning pedagogies, their students, and the particular university milieu in which they work. The syllabi all reflect the same key concepts and broad goals, but they vary in sequence and emphasis.



SYLLABUS 1

By

Dr Mumtaz Akhter and Dr Razaqat Ali Akbar

Year/Semester

Year 3, Semester 6

Credit value

3 credits

Prerequisites

Successful completion of semesters 1–5

Course description

The Comparative Education course is divided into five units. The course provides an overview of methods, major concepts, and current trends in the field. Notions of comparative education will be introduced in Unit 1, focusing on purposes, methods, and approaches. Further, the scope of comparative education will be discussed, together with determinants of a national education system, in Unit 2. The remaining units cover topics such as a comparative view of education in Pakistan and comparative education in selected developing as well as developed countries.

The course will enable Student Teachers to identify the strengths and limitations of various education systems through international comparative research.

Reading materials provided include national and international perspectives on educational policymaking, quality, and access issues, and how these are being addressed.

To become familiar with what is being done in some countries . . . and why it is done, is a necessary part of the training of all students of educational issues of the day. Only in that way will they be properly fitted to study and understand their own systems and plan intelligently for the future which . . . is going to be one where we are thrown into ever closer contact with other peoples and other cultures.

From the above, it is evident that the study of comparative education today is important for all teachers engaged in teaching-learning programmes.

Course outcomes

At the end of this course, Student Teachers will be able to:

- explain comparative education
- identify educational comparative approaches and methods
- identify the similarities and differences, as well as the strengths and weaknesses, of education systems within Pakistan
- compare and contrast the educational systems of selected countries
- draw lessons from various systems of education for an informed practice.

Teaching and learning approaches

As this course requires research and study skills, Student Teachers will have to work independently and in groups to locate resources and do comparative analyses. The faculty will give lectures on some concepts, such meaning, history, and methods of comparative analyses, in an interactive way. Student Teachers will maintain a reflective journal throughout the course and will trace their development as critical consumers of knowledge.

Semester outline

1

UNIT 1:

Introduction to comparative education (3 weeks)

	This unit sets the basis for studying the course. It will define comparative education and identify its purposes. Moreover, the unit will cover the history of and approaches to comparative education. Student Teachers will be provided excerpts from different readings and reports.
Week #	Topics/themes
1	The purposes of comparative education The uses of comparative education What is comparative education?
2	Comparability as a historical journey (2 sessions) Approaches to comparative education
3	Approaches to comparative education Methods of comparative education Methods of comparative education

Unit 1 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- define and explain the term comparative education
- discuss the purposes of studying comparative education
- critically review the historical development of comparative education as a discipline
- analyse the methods used in comparative education
- classify approaches to studying comparative education.

2

UNIT 2:

The scope of comparative education and the determinants of a national education system (2 weeks)

	The scope of comparative education will be discussed in this unit. In order to compare education systems, Student Teachers will discuss the many factors that determine any national education system: historical, political, social, religious, ethnic, gender, and racial factors.
Week #	Topics/themes
4	The scope of comparative education Different disciplines from which comparative education draws ideas The importance of the sociology and philosophy of education to comparative education
5	Factors determining a country's education system The role of key factors in determining education (religion, finances, and political and global trends) The role of teachers in appreciating and being critical reviewers of the factors that determine education systems

Unit 2 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- explain the scope of comparative education
- draw ideas or points from other disciplines from which comparative education draws content
- identify and discuss the factors that determine the education system of a country.

3

UNIT 3:

Comparative view of systems of education in Pakistan (3 weeks)

	This unit will focus on comparative education within Pakistan. Student Teachers will examine different systems, levels, and programmes in the nation's education sector. They will explore the contributions of each system or programme to the development of education systems in general within Pakistan.
Week #	Topics/themes
6	Three pathways to education Public and private education systems
7	Madrassah and formal education Formal, distance, and non-formal education
8	Project presentation

Unit 3 learning outcomes

After completing the course, Student Teachers will be able to:

- analyse different types of education systems prevalent in Pakistan
- compare formal, distance, and non-formal education in the country
- create and implement a project plan.

4

UNIT 4:

Comparative education in developed countries (4 weeks)

This unit contains a general discussion of educational systems in selected developed countries. In particular, Student Teachers will learn to appreciate how the education system works in the developed world, and they will discover how much weight government policies give to education. Moreover, they will examine the issues that public schools of selected developed countries face and how are these issues are being addressed.

Country cases: United States, Japan and Hong Kong

Week #	Topics/themes
9	Education theories and practices in the United States Historical reforms that have guided education in the United States
10	Education theories and practices in Japan Historical reforms that have guided education in Japan
11	Education theories and practices in Hong Kong Historical reforms that have guided education in Hong Kong
12	Education systems of the United States, Japan, Hong Kong, and Pakistan: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Similarities and differences• Lessons that can be learned and practices that can be adapted and adopted

Unit 4 learning outcomes

After completing the course, Student Teachers will be able to:

- discuss the education theory and practices of selected developed countries
- compare and contrast education systems in Japan, the United States, and Hong Kong with systems in Pakistan.

5

UNIT 5:

Comparative education in developing countries (4 weeks)

	<p>This unit focuses on exploring the education systems of selected developing countries. Student Teachers will explore how these countries have struggled to maintain educational quality and what lessons can be learned from their struggles. Specific issues that Islamic countries face in today's globalized environment are also featured in this unit.</p> <p>Country cases: Afghanistan, India and Bangladesh</p>
Week #	Topics/themes
13	<p>The education system and practices in Afghanistan</p> <p>Issues and challenges in the education sectors of Afghanistan and ways of addressing them</p>
14	<p>The education system and practices in India</p> <p>Issues and challenges in the education sectors of India and ways of addressing them</p>
15	<p>The education system and practices in Bangladesh</p> <p>Issues and challenges in the education sectors of Bangladesh and ways of addressing them</p>
16	<p>Education systems in Afghanistan, India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Similarities and differences • Lessons that can be learned and practices that can be adapted or adopted in Pakistan <p>Review and conclusion</p>

Unit 5 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe the education systems and practices of selected developing countries
- compare and contrast the education systems of Afghanistan, India, and Bangladesh with those of Pakistan
- reflect on some major issues in the field of education in selected developing countries.

Grading policy

Grading policy approved by participating universities and their affiliated colleges will be used for assessment purposes. In addition to coursework assignments, Student Teachers will take a midterm and a final exam, as approved in the university exam policy. Sample assignments appear in the teaching notes.

Course assignments

There are graded and non-graded assignments in the course. Student Teachers must also complete non-graded assignments for the successful fulfilment of course requirements.

Textbooks and references

The course will draw on textbooks, journal articles, and websites. A list of these will be distributed in class.

The following resources may be helpful in choosing appropriate readings. A list of readings may be included in the syllabus or distributed in class, but it should include only resources that you expect Student Teachers to use throughout the course. Other readings should be distributed as needed. Identify specific chapters from recommended books.

References

Beech, J. (2006). The theme of educational transfer in comparative education: A view over time. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 1(1), 2–13.

Isani, U. A. G., & Virk, M. L. (2006). *Higher education in Pakistan*. Islamabad: National Book Foundation.

Kubow, P. K., & Fossum, P. R. (2007). *Comparative education: Exploring issues in international context*. Boston: Pearson Merrill.

Cohen, P. (2004). *The idea of Pakistan*. Washington, D.C: Brookings Institute.

Cowen, R. (2000). Comparing futures or comparing pasts? *Comparative Education*, 36(3), 333–342.

Lawal, B. O. (2004). *Comparative education*. Osogbo: Swift Publishers Nigeria Ltd.

Mallinson, V. (1975). *An introduction to comparative education* (4th ed.). London: Heinemann.

Tobin, J. J., Hsueh, Y., & Karasawa, M. (2009). *Preschool in three cultures revisited: Japan, China, and the United States*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Web resources

Comparative and International Education Society:

➤ <http://www.cies.us>

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Co-operation Directorate:

➤ <http://www.oecd.org/dac>

OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA):

➤ <http://www.pisa.oecd.org>

UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report:

➤ <http://www.unesco.org/en/efareport>



SYLLABUS 2

By

Nadeem Khan

Year/Semester

Year 3, Semester 6

Credit value

3 credits

Prerequisites

Successful completion of semesters 1–5

Course description

Comparative education is a gateway to a global view of diversity in education. It is an innovative idea in the context of Pakistani universities. A course on comparative education should offer Student Teachers a deep understanding of the social, cultural, geographical, and economic factors underlying an educational system. A comparison of Pakistan's education system with those of other developing and developed countries will help Student Teachers to learn about levels of competition, to benefit from experience, and ultimately to achieve excellence from a global perspective. Through this course, they will be able to form a global idea of education systems by studying selected countries, their educational environments, their standards, and their local needs. Through the comparison of international trends, standards, and local demands, they will learn to draw conclusions about various types of education systems, and which of their features are most suitable for Pakistan.

Learning outcomes

After studying this course, Student Teachers will be able to:

- define the concept of comparative education
- identify the elements, approaches, and methods of comparative education
- compare the education systems of selected developed and developing countries
- critically analyse the education system of Pakistan in a global perspective
- evaluate global issues in comparative education.

Learning and teaching approaches

A variety of teaching and learning approaches will be used throughout the course, among them group work, peer learning, class debates, and discussions (small and large groups). The course involves different levels of tasks, such as making informational posters, engaging in interactive presentations, participating in group discussions based on experience, sharing information, exchanging ideas, reading, and cooperative learning. There will be home-based assignments to make effective use of extended hours. The course also links learning approaches and assessments in order to provide more information on Student Teachers' learning. Through various in-class and out-of-class assignments, using comparison and contrast, Student Teachers will learn to evaluate critically the need and rationale for reforms in Pakistan's system of education.

1

UNIT 1: Introduction to comparative education (2 weeks/6 hours)

	The first unit will assess the concept of comparative education. In this unit, Student Teachers will learn about the meaning of comparative education, the need for it, and its scope, objectives, and importance.
Week #	Topics/themes
1	Introduction to the Comparative Education course The meaning of and need for comparative education The objectives and purpose of comparative education
2	The scope of comparative education The importance and advantages of comparative education Conclusion of the unit

2

UNIT 2: Approaches and methods of comparative education (2 weeks/6 hours)

	This unit discusses in detail the various approaches and methods used in comparative education.
Week #	Topics/themes
3	Descriptive method Historical method Psychological method
4	Social approach Quantitative and statistical approach Scientific approach

3

UNIT 3:**Comparative view of the education system in Pakistan (2 weeks/6 hours)**

	This unit will explore and compare the current situation of private and public, madrassah, and formal, distance and non-formal education in Pakistan.
Week #	Topics/themes
5	Private and public education Madrassah and formal education
6	Non-formal and distance education

4

UNIT 4:**Comparative education in developed countries (3 weeks/9 hours)**

	This unit will explore and compare the education systems of selected developed countries. It will analyse the relevance and applicability of certain practices that could be adopted from the experience of developed countries.
Week #	Topics/themes
7	United Kingdom France
8	United States Japan
9	Singapore Comparison and contrasting of education systems in the selected developed countries with education in Pakistan

5

UNIT 5:**Comparative education in developing countries (3 weeks/9 hours)**

	This unit will discuss the education systems of three selected developing countries. Topics will include challenges that those countries face in the education sector and strategies for dealing with them, as well as an analysis of ways of adapting the more successful strategies to Pakistan.
Week #	Topics/themes
10	India China
11	Malaysia Pakistan
12	Comparison and contrasting of three other developing countries' education systems with the system of Pakistan

6

UNIT 6:

Global issues in a comparative perspective (focusing on developed and developing countries) (4 weeks/12 hours)

	The final unit will discuss global education issues from a comparative perspective, keeping in view the selected developed and developing countries that were discussed in Units 4 and 5.
Week #	Topics/themes
13	Literacy and Education for All Educational reforms
14	Recruitment of teachers at primary and secondary levels Admission procedures at higher education levels
15	Resources and their utilization The globalization of education
16	Conclusion of the unit Review and conclusion of the entire course

Grading policy

Every university follows its own grading policy for assessment purposes. However, the following structure is recommended: 20 marks should be given on the basis of internal evaluation (assignments), 30 marks should be awarded on the basis of the midterm examination, and 50 marks should be allotted for the final term examination.

Course assignments

Assignments comprise several non-graded tasks and two graded assignments. According to the requirements of the course, Student Teachers have to complete graded as well as non-graded tasks. The Instructor will share details regarding graded assignments with the class.

Textbooks and references

The course will draw on textbooks, journal articles, and websites. A list of these will be distributed in class.

NOTE TO FACULTY TEACHING THE COURSE: The following resources may be helpful in choosing appropriate readings. A list of readings may be included in the syllabus or distributed in class, but it should include only resources that you expect Student Teachers to use throughout the course. Other readings should be distributed as needed. Identify specific chapters from recommended books.

Afridi, A. K., & Rahman, M. (2002). Critical issues in higher education in Pakistan. *Journal of Education and Research*, 5(2), 13–22.

Asghar, M., Rauf, M., Iqbal, Z., & Ahmad, M. (2010). Job satisfaction of elementary teachers. *Journal of Education and Research*, 7(1), 63–67.

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Reba, A., & Ibrahim, K. (2010). People's perception of the NGO, public and private schools. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 8(2), 55–61.

Shahid, S. M. (2006). *Comparative education*. Lahore: Majeed Book Depot, pp. 15–163, 224–236, 286–305, 376–400.

Surya, B., & Bhaskara, D. (2004). *Comparative education*. New Delhi: Discovery Publishing House, pp. 53–64, 80–137, 151–353.

Sharma, Y. K. (2007). *Comparative education: A comparative study of educational systems*. New Delhi: Kanishkar Publishers, pp. 14–22, 29–109, 127–191, 329–423.

SYLLABUS 3



By

Sabira Ali, Qadir Bux Laghari, and Saira Soomro

Year/Semester

Year 3, Semester 6

Credit value

3 credits

Prerequisites

Successful completion of semesters 1–5

Course description

This course consists of six units that provide Student Teachers with a basic knowledge of comparative education. It deals with topics such as the scope and historical development of and approaches to comparative education, the education systems of other countries, and the role of comparative education in the development of society. As a result of the course, Student Teachers will be able to compare the educational system of Pakistan with systems of education in other countries.

Learning outcomes

At the completion of the course, Student Teachers will be able to:

- provide an overview of the history of comparative education as a field of study
- identify current approaches to and trends in comparative education
- compare the education systems of selected developed and developing countries
- recognize the role of comparative education in the development of society
- compare and contrast the different educational systems of selected developing and developed countries
- evaluate the education systems of Pakistan and suggest possible solutions to upgrade the national education system.

Teaching and learning approaches

The teaching and learning approaches in this course will focus on active learning and critical analysis of the selected content. A variety of teaching strategies will be used. Class time will focus on group activities, such as discussions, presentations, case studies, and report writing. This will provide Student Teachers with an opportunity to analyse and develop a critical analysis of how this course may help improve Pakistan's education system, while observing the education systems of the world in a comparative paradigm.

1

UNIT 1:**Introduction to comparative education**

	Education and comparative education as concepts can be given different interpretations. In this unit, Student Teachers will learn about the concepts, scope, and nature of comparative education. At the end of the unit, they will receive evaluation and feedback.
Week #	Topics/themes
1	Introduction to comparative education: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Its meaning • Its historical development
2	The objectives of comparative education The scope of comparative education in global and local contexts The nature of comparative education Discussion of evaluation and feedback, including non-graded quizzes and tests

Unit 1 learning outcomes

At the end of this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- define education and comparative education
- describe the scope and nature of comparative education
- identify the objectives of comparative education
- analyse evaluation and feedback in comparative education.

2

UNIT 2:**Comparative education: Problems, advantages, and approaches**

	This unit covers the problems and advantages of comparative education. In addition, it will explore different approaches to the study of comparative education, which will improve the Student Teachers' conceptual, theoretical and methodological understanding of comparative education.
Week #	Topics/themes
3	The uses of comparative education The problems of comparative education
4	The advantages of comparative education Approaches to comparative education: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem approach • Case study approach

UNIT 2: Comparative education: Problems, advantages, and approaches	
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Area-study approach • Historical approach • Descriptive approach • Philosophical approach • International approach • Gastronomic approach <p>Consolidation and review of all approaches to comparative education</p>

Unit 2 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- analyse different approaches and techniques used in comparative education
- identify the uses of comparative education
- explain the purposes of comparative education.

3 UNIT 3: The education systems of developed countries	
	This unit discusses the education systems of the United Kingdom, the United States, Japan, and Finland. It will enable the Student Teachers to understand how these developed countries use education as a tool in achieving their larger goals. It will also assist them in considering what Pakistan needs to do to attain its objectives through education.
Week #	Topics/themes
6	<p>The primary education system of the United Kingdom, the United States, Japan, and Finland</p> <p>Comparison of primary-level education of those countries with that of Pakistan</p>
7	<p>The secondary education systems of the United Kingdom and the United States</p> <p>The secondary education systems of Japan and Finland</p> <p>Comparison of secondary education levels in the selected developed countries and in Pakistan</p>
8	<p>Comparison of secondary education levels in the selected developed countries and in Pakistan (continued)</p> <p>The higher education systems of the United Kingdom and the United States</p> <p>The higher education systems of Japan and Finland</p>
9	Comparison of higher education systems in the selected developed countries and in Pakistan

Unit 3 learning outcomes

At the end of this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe the education systems of selected developed countries
- reflect on successful practices in the education sectors of those countries
- analyse some ways of adopting successful practices in the education system of Pakistan
- compare primary, secondary, and higher education systems in selected countries.

4

UNIT 4:

The education systems of developing countries

	This unit deals with a comparison of education systems in India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and Cuba with that of Pakistan. It will enable Student Teachers to build an understanding of education systems in these developing countries, and to identify factors that may have hindered educational progress there.
Week #	Topics/themes
9	The primary education systems of India and Bangladesh
10	The primary education systems of Sri Lanka and Cuba Comparison of primary education in the selected developing countries and in Pakistan
11	Secondary education systems: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • India and Bangladesh • Sri Lanka and Cuba Comparison of secondary education levels in the selected developing countries with secondary education in Pakistan
12	Comparison of secondary education levels in the selected developing countries with secondary education in Pakistan Higher education systems: India and Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Cuba
13	Comparison of higher education systems in the selected developing countries and in Pakistan

Unit 4 learning outcomes

At the end of this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe the education systems of the selected developing countries
- identify challenges or issues existing in the education sector of those developing countries
- analyse ways of dealing with the issues
- compare primary, secondary, and higher education levels in developing countries.

5

UNIT 5:

Comparative analysis of the education system of Pakistan with systems in developed and developing countries

	This unit provides a basis for comparing different education systems of developed and developing countries with systems in Pakistan to highlight positive aspects and identify weak areas of Pakistani education. It will enable Student Teachers to develop an action plan for improving education. The unit also compares and contrasts political, social, cultural, and physical factors in developed and developing countries that affect their education systems.
Week #	Topics/themes
13	The comparison of education systems will be done on the following parameters: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standards-based education • Inclusivity (ethnicity, social status, multiculturalism, gender) • Integration • Assessment and curriculum • Progress in education • Challenges or issues Education systems: Pakistan and the United States
14	Education systems: Pakistan and the United Kingdom, Pakistan and Japan, Pakistan and Singapore
15	Education systems: Pakistan and Finland, Pakistan and India, Pakistan and China
16	Education systems: Pakistan and Malaysia, Pakistan and Cuba Review and conclusion of the course

Unit 5 learning outcomes

At the end of this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- analyse the reasons for the success of education systems in the selected countries
- compare and contrast the education systems of selected countries and Pakistan
- evaluate the education systems of Pakistan and suggest possible solutions to upgrade them.

Grading policy and assessment

Universities will apply standard grading policy for coursework assessment and semester exams at midterm and the end of each semester. The course is planned with the following in mind:

- Formative assessment and course assignments (40% of total marks)
- Midterm test (30% of total marks)
- Final examination (30% of total marks)

Textbooks and references

The course will draw on textbooks, journal articles, and websites. A list of these will be distributed in class.

NOTE TO FACULTY TEACHING THE COURSE: The following resources may be helpful in choosing appropriate readings. A list of readings may be included in the syllabus or in a list distributed in class, but it should include only resources that you expect Student Teachers to use throughout the course. Other readings should be distributed as needed. Identify specific chapters from recommended books.

Gasparini, L. (2000). The Cuban education system: Lessons and dilemmas. *Country Studies: Education Reform and Management Publication*, 1(5), 3–33.

Jalalzai, M. K. (Ed.). (2005). *The crisis of education in Pakistan: State policies and textbook*. Lahore: Al-Abbas International.

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Lall, M. (2005). *The challenges for India's education system*. Chatham House Briefing Paper. London: The Royal Institute of International Affairs. Retrieved from:

➤ 54.251.36.70/apsc.public/resources/pdf/56.pdf

Lynd, D. (2007). *The education system in Pakistan: Assessment of the National Education Census*. Islamabad: UNESCO.

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Saeed, M. (2007). Education system of Pakistan and the UK: Comparisons in context to inter-provincial and inter-countries reflections. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 29(2), 43–57.

Sharma, K. (2004). *Comparative education: A comparative study of educational systems*. New Delhi: Kanishka Publishers.

SYLLABUS 4



By

Shafqat Ali and Abida Khalid

Year/Semester

Year 3, Semester 6

Credit value

3 credits

Prerequisites

Successful completion of semesters 1–5

Course description

Comparative education is a field of study that examines education in one country (or a group of countries) by using data and insights drawn from the practices and situations in other countries. Teachers of comparative education have an added responsibility to help Student Teachers understand their world and to facilitate the acquisition of a wide range of information and competencies. This will enable them to become critical consumers of knowledge and will encourage them to participate as informed professionals in the process of improving education systems.

This course enables Student Teachers to reflect on the purpose of comparative education and to shape their understanding of the school systems in which they teach. It prepares them to integrate knowledge with skills, values, and attitudes that are essential to their teaching, and encourages them to take informed and responsible action. The Comparative Education course will familiarize Student Teachers with key concepts of various disciplines that constitute the field. The course consists of six units: Unit 1 introduces comparative education in general and its historical perspective, along with its purposes, methods, and policies. Unit 2 covers elements of the field, and Unit 3 focuses on a comparative view of the education system of Pakistan. Units 5 and 6 compare educational systems in developing and developed countries. The final unit focuses on a global perspective.

Course outcomes

After completion of the course, Student Teachers will be able to:

- identify key features of comparative education
- compare and contrast education systems in other countries with education in Pakistan
- apply different methods to compare and contrast education systems
- identify ways of adapting certain successful methodologies from other countries into the local Pakistani context.

Learning and teaching approaches

This course will enable Student Teachers to guide their students through activity-rich inquiry by using a variety of strategies, including cooperative learning, discussion, and role play. It will equip them with strategies to deal with controversial issues in their classrooms. Hence, this course combines content with different teaching methods to make both the teaching and learning of comparative education a valuable and interesting experience.

1

UNIT 1:

Introduction to comparative education

	Unit 1 gives an introductory overview of the course, focusing on the historical development of comparative education. Key concepts of comparative education will be discussed as well as its purposes, methods, and policies.
Week #	Topics/themes
1	Introduction to the course The historical development of comparative education Key concepts of comparative education
2	Aspects of comparative education: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Purposes• Methods• Policies

Unit 1 learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- define and describe key concepts of comparative education
- discuss how comparative education evolved
- identify the purposes and methods of comparative education.

2

UNIT 2:

Elements of comparative education (both qualitative and quantitative)

	The focus of this unit will be on the qualitative and quantitative elements of comparative education, which allow a comparative perspective.
Week #	Topics/themes
3	Elements of comparative education <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objectives • Curricula
4	Elements of comparative education <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching methodologies • Assessment and evaluation (student achievement and examination system)
5	Elements of comparative education <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educational structure • Facilities • Administrative and financial set-up • Teacher education

Unit 2 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Students Teachers will be able to:

- list the elements of comparative education
- identify the importance of elements in comparative education
- discuss each element in a comparative perspective.

3

UNIT 3:

Comparative view of systems of education in Pakistan

	Unit 3 compares and contrasts different education systems within Pakistan, with the purpose of identifying each system's contribution to the development of the education sector. The class will carry out comparisons using the different methods discussed in Unit 1.
Week #	Topics/themes
6	Private and public sector education Madrassah and formal education
7	Comparative view of educational systems in Pakistan Formal and non-formal education Distance education

Unit 3 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- compare different education systems in Pakistan
- explore the advantages and disadvantages of each education system in the country.

4

UNIT 4:

Comparative education in developed countries

	The education systems of selected developed countries will be explored in this unit. These systems will be described as well as compared with the education system of Pakistan. The applicability and adaptability of certain successful cases in a Pakistani context will also be discussed.
Week #	Topics/themes
8	<p>The United States and Pakistan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The aims and objectives of teacher education • Ideologies and philosophies • The structure of teacher education • The teacher education programme for various levels of education, i.e. early childhood, primary, secondary, and higher education • Teaching methodologies • Assessment and evaluation • Trends in teacher education
9	<p>The United Kingdom and Pakistan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The aims and objectives of teacher education • Ideologies and philosophies • The structure of teacher education • The teacher education programme for various levels of education, i.e. early childhood, primary, secondary, and higher education • Teaching methodologies • Assessment and evaluation • Trends in teacher education
10	<p>Japan, Singapore, and Pakistan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The aims and objectives of teacher education • Ideologies and philosophies • The structure of teacher education • The teacher education programme for various levels of education, i.e. early childhood, primary, secondary, and higher education • Teaching methodologies • Assessment and evaluation • Trends in teacher education

Unit 4 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- identify key features of education systems of selected countries
- compare the education systems of selected developed countries with the system in Pakistan
- identify ways of applying and adapting successful aspects of systems in the selected developed countries to the local Pakistani context.

5

UNIT 5:

Comparative education in developing countries

	Unit 5 focuses on the education systems of selected developing countries, and compares and contrasts them with systems in Pakistan. Educational issues of the developing world will be identified and the ways that the selected countries have dealt with them will be explored. The applicability and adaptability of certain successful cases in the Pakistani context will be discussed.
Week #	Topics/themes
11	<p>India and Pakistan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The aims and objectives of teacher education • Ideologies and philosophies • The structure of teacher education • The teacher education programme for various levels of education, i.e. early childhood, primary, secondary, and higher education • Teaching methodologies • Assessment and evaluation • Trends in teacher education
12	<p>Malaysia and Pakistan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The aims and objectives of teacher education • Ideologies and philosophies • The structure of teacher education • The teacher education programme for various levels of education, i.e. early childhood, primary, secondary, and higher education • Teaching methodologies • Assessment and evaluation • Trends in teacher education

UNIT 5: Comparative education in developing countries	
13	<p>Sri Lanka and Pakistan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The aims and objectives of teacher education • Ideologies and philosophies • The structure of teacher education • The teacher education programme for various levels of education, i.e. early childhood, primary, secondary, and higher education • Teaching methodologies • Assessment and evaluation • Trends in teacher education

Unit 5 learning outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- identify key features in the education systems of selected developing countries
- compare the education systems of developing countries with those of Pakistan
- list issues in the education sector that pertain to developing countries and identify approaches for dealing with them
- discuss ways of applying and adapting some successful approaches used in other developing countries to the local Pakistani context.

6 UNIT 6: Global perspective	
	The final unit focuses on different educational innovations, issues, and processes from a global perspective, with special attention to developing countries. In addition, this unit reviews, summarizes, and concludes the entire course on comparative education.
Week #	Topics/themes
14	Global issues and comparative education (focusing on developing countries) Quality education Millennium Development Goals
15	Education for All Teacher recruitment and appraisal
16	Education for All Admission procedures at higher education levels, from a global perspective (focusing on developing countries) Review and conclusion of the course

Unit 6 learning objectives

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- examine key global issues related to comparative education
- identify the application of Education for All in developing countries
- describe procedures for different educational activities
- summarize the key features of comparative education.

Course assignments

Graded course assignments will be listed on a separate handout. These assignments will be designed to help Student Teachers achieve the course outcomes.

Assessment techniques

Multiple formative assessment techniques will be used to collect information about Student Teachers' progress, including the following:

- Minute paper: Students take a minute to write a response to what they are learning in class.
- Chain notes: Students pass around an envelope on which the Instructor has written one question about the class. When the envelope reaches each student, he/she spends a moment to write a response to the question and then places the response in the envelope.
- One-sentence summary: Students summarize their knowledge of a topic by constructing single sentences to answer questions.
- Student-generated test questions and model solutions: Students write test questions and model answers for specified topics, in a format consistent with course exams.
- Application cards: After students listen to a lecture on an important theory, principle, or procedure, ask them to write down at least one real-world application for what they have just learned. This will help determine how well they can transfer their learning.
- Other assessment techniques may include taking short quizzes, writing analytic notes, working on problem-recognition tasks, observing and recording documented problem solutions, making portfolios and projects, performing peer evaluations, and producing simulations. Summative assessment will be done according to the university-prescribed format.

Grading policy

Grading for this course follows the university's prescribed assessment policy. The Instructor will explain this early in the orientation session, and will discuss both coursework and examinations.

Textbooks and references

The course will draw on textbooks, journal articles, and websites. A list of these will be distributed in class.

NOTE TO FACULTY TEACHING THE COURSE: The following resources may be helpful in choosing appropriate readings. A list of readings may be included in the syllabus or distributed in class, but it should include only resources that you expect Student Teachers to use throughout the course. Other readings should be distributed as needed. Identify specific chapters from recommended books.

Adamson, B. (n.d.). *Comparative education research: Who, what, and why?* Retrieved from:
➤ www.bangor.ac.uk/cell/downloads/bob_adamson_0311.ppt

Commonwealth of Learning. (2000). *Comparative education: Themes and trends in comparative education in SADC countries*. Retrieved from:
➤ <http://www.col.org/stamp/Module18.pdf>

UNESCO *Education for All Global Monitoring Report*.
➤ www.efareport.unesco.org

Iqbal, M., & Khan, S. M. (2011). Comparative analysis of teacher education programs at Pakistan and UK. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 21(2). Retrieved from:
➤ <http://connection.ebscohost.com/c/articles/67466984/comparative-analysis-teacher-education-programs-pakistan-uk>

This section contains a syllabus with accompanying teaching notes. The Integrated Teaching Notes section offers additional notes that have been integrated using broad themes addressed in the course. Faculty who are teaching the course for the first time or who are interested in the process of curriculum design may find it useful to see how the authors of this representative syllabus chose to develop particular ideas and themes in their notes. (Ideas presented here are not duplicated in the Integrated Teaching Notes.)



REPRESENTATIVE SYLLABUS AND TEACHING NOTES 1

By

Rukhsana Durrani, Maimoonah Ambreen, and Waheed Akbar

Year/Semester

Year 3, Semester 6

Credit value

3 credits

Prerequisites

Successful completion of semesters 1–5

Course description

The education system of any country is interrelated with those of other countries. In a globalized system, it is important to compare and contrast the education system of Pakistan with systems of technologically advanced countries to determine what is applicable to Pakistan. In addition, as Pakistan is an Islamic state, it is beneficial to study other Islamic countries and discuss how they manage and organize their systems and deal with emerging issues. It is, therefore, important that Student Teachers be aware of the objectives, curriculum, teacher education programmes, admissions criteria, and other aspects of the education system in our own country as well as in other countries. This course has been designed to deal with the above-mentioned points and to position Student Teachers to help meet global challenges and keep up with current trends by reviewing major concepts, methods, approaches, and systems from different comparative perspectives.

Course outcomes

After this course, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe the basic concepts, methods, purposes, and historical development of comparative education
- apply different approaches for understanding comparative education
- identify factors determining an education system
- compare the education system of Pakistan with those of selected Islamic countries
- compare educational strengths and weaknesses of technologically advanced countries with those of Pakistan
- analyse the teacher education systems of selected countries.

Learning and teaching approaches

Methods of teaching that promote divergent and critical thinking will be used.

Student Teachers will be expected to participate in the teaching-learning processes through a variety of activities, including projects, cooperative learning, and inquiry.

1

UNIT 1:

Introduction to comparative education

		Comparative education is an emerging subject in the discipline of education. This unit will familiarize Student Teachers with the basic concepts, meaning, and scope of comparative education. It will also give a detailed description of the methods that are used for comparing different education systems. To know about the past is essential for present progress; therefore, the historical phases of comparative education will be considered.
Week #	Session	Topics/themes
1 and 2	6 sessions	Introduction to comparative education and its purposes Introduction to the course The history and scope of comparative education
3	3 sessions	Methods of comparative education Activity (Student Teachers will compare and contrast methods of comparative education) Revision and conclusion of the unit

Unit 1 outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- reflect on the meaning of comparative education and analyse it
- give some acceptable definitions of comparative education
- describe phases in the history of comparative education
- identify different methods for comparing educational systems.

2

UNIT 2:

Approaches to comparative education

		There are different approaches to comparative education. Some of basic approaches will be selected and discussed during the unit.
Week #	Session	Topics/themes
4 and 5	4 sessions	Approaches to comparative education: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thematic approach • Philosophical approach • Historical approach
5	2 sessions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International approach • Descriptive approach Activity for comparing and summarizing all approaches

Unit 2 outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- identify approaches to comparative education
- describe some basic approaches to comparative education, and compare and summarize them.

3

UNIT 3:

Factors determining national educational systems

		This unit will introduce Student Teachers to factors that determine or have an impact on a country's education system. The education system of any country is primarily based on factors that reflect the ideologies, norms, values, and cultures of that particular nation. Additional factors may be geographic, economic, religious, or social, and so forth.
Week #	Session	Topics/themes
7	3 sessions	Introduction to factors Factors influencing a national educational system: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political • Geographical • Social • Historical
8	4 sessions	Critical discussion, review, and summary of the previous topics: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foreign influences • National character • Religion • Economics Effects of the above factors on a national education system Review and conclusion of the unit

Unit 3 outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- explain the relationship of geographical factors and the education system of a country
- identify the importance of religious factors that may underlie the education system of a country
- critically analyse the effects of socio-economic factors on the education system of Pakistan.

4

UNIT 4:

The education systems of Islamic countries

		A specific task of comparative education is to compare the education systems of different countries. This unit focuses on describing the education systems of selected Islamic countries. As Pakistan is a country based on Islamic law, it is relevant to compare the education system of Pakistan with those of other Islamic countries.
Week #	Session	Topics/themes
9	3 sessions	Education systems of selected Islamic countries: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Egypt• Malaysia• Iran• Pakistan
10	2 sessions	Comparison and contrasting of the four countries Review and conclusion of the unit

Unit 4 outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- identify the main features of the education systems of Egypt, Malaysia, and Iran
- compare and contrast the education systems of selected Islamic countries.

5

UNIT 5:

The education systems of technologically advanced countries

		This unit is concerned with information on education systems in technologically advanced countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany. The purpose is to learn about the strengths of these systems and to identify ways of adapting them for education reforms in Pakistan.
Week #	Session	Topics/themes
11	3 sessions	<p>The education systems of technologically advanced countries:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United States <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Elementary education ○ Secondary education ○ Higher education ○ Technical and vocational education ○ Examination system
12	3 sessions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • United Kingdom <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Primary education ○ Secondary education ○ Higher education ○ Technical and vocational education ○ Examination system
13	3 sessions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Japan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Elementary education ○ Secondary education ○ Higher education ○ Technical and vocational education ○ Examination system <p>Comparing and contrasting the education systems of technologically advanced countries with that of Pakistan</p> <p>Review and conclusion of unit</p>

Unit 5 outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe the education systems of selected technologically advanced countries
- identify the strengths and weaknesses of the education systems of the selected countries
- compare the education systems of these countries with that of Pakistan in terms of adaptability for local context.

6

UNIT 6:

Teacher education in a comparative perspective

The process by which teachers are trained is the subject of political discussion in many countries, reflecting the value that societies and cultures attach to the preparation of individuals for a teaching career. In this unit, Student Teachers will discuss and compare teacher education processes in selected countries.

Week #	Session	Topics/themes
14	3 sessions	<p>Teacher education in a comparative perspective:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pakistan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The organization of the teacher education process ○ Policies and objectives ○ Curriculum ○ Continuous professional development ○ Quality assurance in teacher education ○ Trends and issues in teacher education • Germany <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The organization of the teacher education process ○ Policies and objectives ○ Curriculum ○ Continuous professional development
15		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Quality assurance in teacher education ○ Trends and issues in teacher education • Singapore <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The organization of the teacher education process ○ Policies and objectives ○ Curriculum ○ Continuous professional development ○ Quality assurance in teacher education ○ Trends and issues in teacher education
16		<p>Comparing and contrasting teacher education systems of selected countries</p> <p>Review and conclusion of the course</p>

Unit 6 outcomes

After completing this unit, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe the policies and objectives of teacher education processes from an international perspective
- compare the teacher education systems of selected countries, with reference to the organization of pre-service and in-service teacher education
- identify the weaknesses and strengths of teacher education in terms of curriculum
- analyse the latest trends and issues in teacher education.

Grading policy

Every university and affiliated college follows the grading policy of the institution. However, the grading structure below is recommended. The total marks will be 100, including the midterm and final term exam. The distribution of marks will be as follows:

Assignments	Marks
Class participation	5
Major assignment	15
Presentation	5
Midterm written exam	25
Final exam	50

Course assignments

Student Teachers are expected to complete graded and non-graded assignments in order to pass the course. Descriptions and criteria for the assignments will be provided in separate handouts.

Textbooks and references

The course will draw on textbooks, journal articles, and websites. A list of these will be distributed in class.

NOTE TO FACULTY TEACHING THE COURSE: The following resources may be helpful in choosing appropriate readings. A list of readings may be included in the syllabus or distributed in class, but it should include only resources that you expect students to use throughout the course. Other readings should be distributed as needed. Identify specific chapters from recommended books.

References

- Adesina, M. O. (1985). *Foundation studies in education*. Ibadan: University Press.
- Adeyinka, A. A. (1994). *Popular topics in comparative education for Nigerian tertiary education students*. Ilorin: Success Education Services.
- Alabi, I. O. (1998). *Comparative education: A handbook for teachers*. Oyo: Odumat Press.
- Awolola, A. (1986). *Readings in comparative education*. Ibadan: Stevelola Educational Publishers.
- Lawal, B. O. (2004). *Comparative education*. Osogbo: Swift Publishers Nigeria Ltd.
- Osokoya, I. O. (1992). *Comparative education*. Ibadan: University of Ibadan.

Web resources

OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2004). *OECD handbook for internationally comparative statistics*. Retrieved from:

➤ http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/oecd-handbook-for-internationally-comparative-education-statistics_9789264104112-en

Noah, H. J., & Eckstein, M. A. (1998). *Doing comparative education: Three decades of collaboration*. Retrieved from:

➤ <http://www.fe.hku.hk/cerc/Publications/CERC-5.htm>

Mbozi, E. H. (2006). *Comparative education*. African Virtual University. Retrieved from:

➤ <http://www.scribd.com/doc/66367072/44851906-Comparative-Education-1>

National Intelligence Council. (2008). *Global trends 2025: A transformed world*. Retrieved from:

➤ <http://www.aicpa.org/research/cpahorizons2025/globalforces/downloadabledocuments/globaltrends.pdf>

Wikipedia. (2013). *Comparative education*. Retrieved from:

➤ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparative_education

Teaching notes for the representative syllabus

By: Rukhsana Durrani, Maimoonah Ambreen, and Waheed Akbar

Course assignments

The following assignments may be used in this course. You may choose types of assignments from the list below and develop detailed instructions and criteria for them.

Case studies: Compare education systems between countries or groups of countries using a case study approach.

Comparing systems: Distribute slips of paper with the names of different countries to Student Teachers for a comparison of those education systems with the Pakistani system, applying the methods of comparative education.

Interviews: Let each Student Teacher interview someone who was educated in a country different from their own. Let them prepare questions before the interview. Following the interviews, ask them to write papers in which they compare the education of the people they interviewed with their own education. They might focus on the following questions: Which experiences were similar? Which experiences were different? Why? They should reflect on the political, economic, historical, and cultural forces that shaped each person's education. The report papers should be comparative and not simply descriptive.

Inquiring about issues in education: Let each Student Teacher pick a certain educational issue and conduct an inquiry to find out how different countries are dealing with the issue.

Lesson plans

The following example lesson plans for selected sessions are provided below as samples, along with teaching ideas and resource materials.

Lesson plan for Unit 1, Week 3

Topic: Methods of comparative education

- George Bereday's comparative method in education
- Brian Holmes's problem method in comparative education
- Noah and Eckstein's scientific method

It is recommended that the topics of the unit be covered in two sessions. You may choose to make changes or additions to the lesson plan, such as breaking up the topics or changing the time distribution.

Learning outcomes

At the end of this lesson, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe Bereday's, Holmes's, and Eckstein and Noah's methods of comparative education
- differentiate methods of comparative education
- compare and contrast Bereday's and Holmes's methods of comparative education.

Introduction

Brief the Student Teachers on certain questions related to the lecture before presenting it. This will enable them to focus on the lecture and listen to it critically. Write questions such as those below on the board before the talk.

This learning activity will address the following questions:

- What are the commonly used methods of comparative education?
- What are the stages or steps in each of those methods?
- What are the similarities and differences among the methods?
- In what type of situation might each method be used?

Interactive lecture

Beforehand, prepare a handout in which each method is outlined. Write the three methods of comparative education on the board. Make a map or word web of these three methods, with subtopics for each. Distribute the handouts among Student Teachers and start the lecture.

Lecture notes

Share the main concepts of each method. (Materials and content for the lecture are available below in the Readings and Resources section of the teaching notes.) To make it an active lecture, stop at the end of each approach or method and have Student Teachers take a moment to compare notes before going to the next.

Possible content for the lecture

George Bereday's comparative method in education

Stages: Description and data collection, interpretation, juxtaposition, and comparison

Brian Holmes's problem approach in comparative education

Stages: Problem formulation, policy formulation or hypotheses development, prediction of policy outcomes, analysis of the physical and socio-economic context, and prediction of policy consequences

Noah and Eckstein's scientific method

Stages: Identification of the problem, development of a hypothesis, definition of concepts and indicators, selection of cases for study, collection of data, manipulation of the data, and interpretation of results

Group discussion

Divide the class into three groups. Ask the groups to discuss and identify at least three differences and three similarities among the three methods, and record these on a flipchart. After group discussion, collect the groups' papers and display them.

Lesson plan for Unit 3

Topic: Introduction to factors determining a national education system

Learning outcomes

At the end of this lesson, Student Teachers will be able to:

- describe the factors underlying any educational system
- explain how political, geographical, and social factors affect an educational system
- analyse how a nation's religions, foreign influences, and history contribute to its education system.

Lecture

Introduce factors one by one to the Student Teachers (political, geographical, social, and historical factors, foreign influences, national character, religion, and gender). Explain how the education system is based on these factors. (Note that this is an introduction and that in subsequent sessions, they will learn about these in more detail.)

Class discussion

After the lecture, allow the Student Teachers to discuss what they learned. Pose some questions that require answers based on critical thinking. The questions might include these:

- How do the factors influence the education system? (Application)
- How do these factors differ from each other? (Comparison)
- If one factor were missing, how would it affect the system? (Higher-order thinking)

During the discussion, write factor headings on the board, and then ask the class to suggest what elements constitute each factor. As Student Teachers suggest each point, write it in the appropriate column.

Religious	Geographical	Social	Historical	Foreign influence	National character

Conclusion

Summarize the whole lesson with the help of the above table. You might want to assign two student recorders to fill out the table during the discussion, leaving you free to field the discussion. Then have a third Student Teacher copy the entire table so that you can duplicate and hand it out at the next session.

Reference notes

Content material for the lesson can be found in the course manual *Comparative Education*, retrieved from:

➤ http://www.nou.edu.ng/noun/NOUN_OCL/pdf/EDUs/EDU%20314%20-%20COMPARATIVE%20EDUCATION.pdf

Lesson plan for Unit 4, Week 9

Topic: The education system in Iran

Learning outcomes

At the end of the lesson, Student Teachers will be able to identify and discuss the main features of the education system in Iran.

Introduction

Introduce the topic and objectives of the lesson to the Student Teachers. Draw the following table on the board or flipchart, or provide handouts. Let them complete the table during the presentation.

The education system of Iran

Primary education	Secondary education	Higher education	Additional points

Presentation

Present the topic using content from these websites:

- <http://www.mche.or.ir/English/index.html>
- <http://www.iran-embassy-oslo.no/embassy/educat.htm>

Iran Schoolnet:

- <http://www.iranschoolnet.com>

Conclusion

Divide Student Teachers into groups. Let the groups share their completed tables and discuss them. Summarize the main points at the conclusion of the discussion.

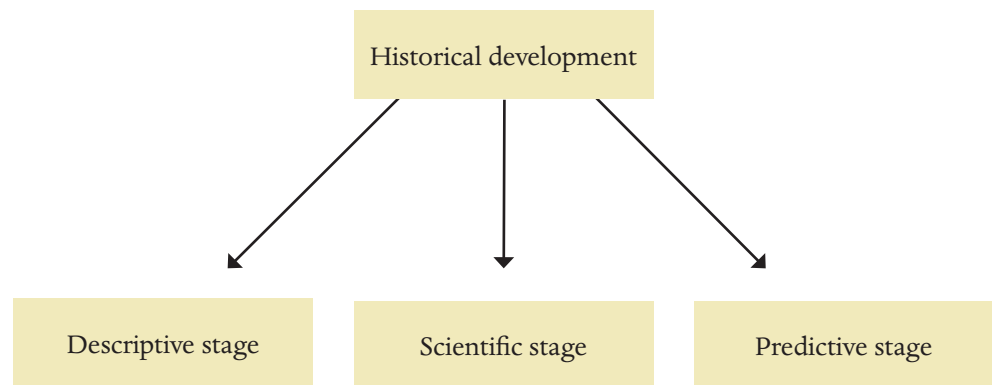
Teaching ideas for Unit 1

Topic: Introduction to comparative education

Focus on the following questions while introducing the first topic:

- What is comparative education?
- What are the purposes of comparative education?

The topic of historical development might be taught through a web of historical development such as this:



Write important points of each stage under that stage on the board while teaching. Give an interactive lecture on the scope of comparative education. As a follow-up to the lecture, ask Student Teachers to recall the important points; write all those points on the board. Give reasons for studying comparative education.

Teaching ideas for Unit 3

Topic: Factors determining a national educational system

The following factors determine a national educational system – political, geographical, social, and historical factors, foreign influence, national character, religion, and gender-related factors.

Use a flowchart drawing on the board as the basis for a mini-lecture or an active lecture, discussing all the factors above and asking the class to suggest examples specific to Pakistan.

Organize groups of four or five people, and assign each group two factors. Let each group brainstorm as many relevant examples of their factors as time permits, and write key points on the board or on chart paper. Review each list of points with the class and ask for suggestions to fill in missing ideas. If any examples are irrelevant, explain why they are not related.

Let Student Teachers work in groups to discuss how the various factors are reflected in the education system of Pakistan. Have groups report. Critique and supplement as needed.

Teaching ideas for Unit 4

Topic: The education systems of Islamic countries

Divide Student Teachers into three groups. Assign a country (Egypt, Malaysia, Iran, or Pakistan) to each group.

Have each group do an inquiry on the educational system of their given country and prepare a talk, for example, a 15-minute PowerPoint presentation. You may want to schedule a session for group presentations or have each group present their talk to one or two other groups.

Follow the presentations with two sessions comparing and contrasting the education systems of the four Islamic countries (Iran, Malaysia, Egypt, and Pakistan). You might use one of the following activities during the comparing and contrasting sessions:

Activity 1: Mini-lecture on prominent aspects of the education system in Iran

Activity 2: Have Student Teachers work in groups to identify similarities and differences among the four countries' educational systems, as well as their strengths and weaknesses.

Teaching ideas for Unit 6

Topic: Teacher education in a comparative perspective

Give an interactive lecture on the topic. Write the topic of the lecture on the board and draw the table below. Ask Student Teachers to create their own table and then ask them to fill it in while they are listening to the lecture. Alternatively, after the lecture, form groups of three or four Student Teachers and ask them to create the table below and record key features of the teacher education systems in countries listed below.

Country	Main points of the teacher education system
Pakistan	
Germany	
Singapore	

Readings and resources

Content materials for Unit 1: Methods of comparative education

Comparing methods in comparative education

➤ <http://www.scribd.com/doc/66367072/44851906-comparative-education-1>

(Used with permission. For educational purposes only.)

George Bereday's comparative method in education

George Bereday is considered to be one of the pioneers of comparative methods in education. According to Kidd (1975), Bereday's method is one of the best-known systematized approaches to Comparative Education, in which an educational system is viewed as a component within a larger cultural context. Bereday perceived Comparative Education as a political geography of schools whose task was to search for lessons that can be deduced from the variations in educational practices in different societies. Bereday advised comparative educators to familiarize themselves with the culture of the societies they were going to study as well as guard against their own cultural or personal biases. In order to compare school systems, Bereday proposed a four-stage method.

Stages in Bereday's Comparative Method in Education

- 1) **Description and data collection:** In this stage, pedagogical data from various countries selected for the study is collected and presented using tables and graphs. The data should be presented in descriptive form to facilitate further analysis at later stages.
- 2) **Interpretation:** This stage involves an analysis of the facts using methods of different social sciences. For example, the researcher could use perspectives from sociology to explain the varying attitudes of pupils towards social science studies. Factors in the contextual background, such as historical, geographical, socioeconomic, and political factors, can be used to explain the issues that have shaped the educational system.
- 3) **Juxtaposition:** In this stage, preliminary comparisons of facts and findings, concepts and principles are used to classify data and process the data. The criteria for comparability are also set out during this stage.
- 4) **Comparison:** This is the final stage of Bereday's comparative method and it involves a final fusion of data from other countries for the purpose of comparison and to derive plans for action. The step also involves hypothesis testing.

Brian Holmes's Problem Approach in Comparative Education

Holmes (1969) sets out his argument by stating that early comparative educators sought to apply learning from other systems for reform purposes. He proposed the problem approach as one that could serve this function, and even go further to meet the needs of those educators who are interested in theoretical understanding of educational phenomena. Holmes argues that pioneers of Comparative Education were administrators who wished to reform their own systems of education. Well aware of the dangers of cultural borrowing, the administrators wished to develop methods of comparison to ensure that whatever they chose to incorporate from foreign theory or practice would benefit their own schools. They needed a predictive instrument enabling them to foresee as far as possible the consequences

of any innovation. Holmes argues that the problem approach is the right instrument for addressing educational problems. He points out that the problem approach presupposes a problem or a limitation in the area inquired into, and guards against accepting superficial similarities, and assures precise comparison of actual and predicted outcomes.

Stages in Brian Holmes's problem approach in Comparative Education

Holmes's method is an adaptation of John Dewey's stages of reflective thinking, which are found in his book entitled *How we think*. According to Dewey, the investigator of a problem assesses the validity of proposed solutions (hypotheses) by comparing predicted with observed events. Agreement offers a verification of the hypothesis or an explanation of the events and provides a springboard for further action. Using this approach Holmes suggested the following stages:

- 1) **Problem formulation:** In this stage the researcher or investigator formulates a vaguely perceived problem as precisely as possible in order to break it down for further study and see to what extent it is universally applicable. This stage is also referred to as problem analysis.
- 2) **Policy formulation or hypotheses development:** The process of problem analysis generates a number of possible solutions. At this point the researcher or investigator examines several hypotheses or policy options that could address the formulated problem. These hypotheses could arise from the current educational discussions. The researcher should note that the hypotheses or identified policy options are based on values and these values need to be evaluated as scientifically as possible.
- 3) **Prediction of policy outcomes:** Using Dewey's stage of reflective thinking, Holmes argues that an evaluation of a hypothesis implies that the consequences flowing from it in any situation should be predicted and then compared with the actual results.
- 4) **Analyse the physical and socioeconomic context:** This step involves describing all circumstances with a potential of influencing the outcome of a selected policy. In order to do this, the researcher must analyse three categories of factors. First, factors related to the normative system; second, factors related to the institutional pattern; and finally, factors related to the physical features of a given context such as the terrain, the climate, and mineral resources. Factors related to the normative system refer to the major norms and values of society, such as people's religious beliefs, or customs that influence their attitudes and behaviour. Factors relating to the institutional pattern refer to social institutions such as government or the economic system that have could have a bearing on the proposed policy. The physical factors are factors such as the climate, natural resources, and other geographical conditions that can influence the policy. These geographical factors should not be underestimated. All the physical and socio-economic factors are supposed to be completely analysed and their possible effects on the policy described. Holmes points out that the importance of case or area studies in Comparative Education is due to the fact that contextual descriptions are necessary to the process of prediction.
- 5) **Predicting policy consequences:** This step involves all possible policy consequences when applied to various contexts. Holmes concludes that the problem approach is forward-looking and represents an attempt to make the study of education scientific and maintains that this is possible through careful analysis of problems and social contexts.

Noah and Eckstein's scientific method

Noah and Eckstein (1969) provide us with a brief evolution of the comparative methods in education. The brief evolution of Comparative Education methods is provided below:

Stages in Noah and Eckstein's scientific method

- 1) **Identification of the problem:** This involves the selection of a particular topic or issue that can be studied comparatively. The selected problem should have a relationship between education and social development.
- 2) **Development of a hypothesis:** Development of a hypothesis is based on a review of literature. The hypothesis should be clear and focus on collection of specific data.
- 3) **Definition of concepts and indicators:** This involves the explanation and clarification of concepts, indicators, and variables. The concepts and indicators must be measurable and quantifiable. For example, a concept such as self-reliance must be redefined to actual indicators of self-reliance in the study. Remember that your definition of self-reliance will vary from another person's definition of self-reliance. In one context a person can identify the following factors as indicators of self-reliance in an adult: ability to pay for medical bills, ability to own a house or rent a house, ability to purchase food or grow food crops, and ability to purchase clothes.
- 4) **Selection of cases for study:** This involves careful selection of countries or regions that have basis for comparability and are relevant to the formulated hypothesis. The selected countries or regions should be researchable and the number of cases small so that you can manage the study.
- 5) **Collection of data:** This involves collection of data and should take into consideration accessibility of data, relevance and reliability of data, challenges in terms of cooperation with sources of data, and the issue of communication both in terms of travel and language.
- 6) **Manipulation of the data:** This involves actual comparison between systematically arranged and quantifiable data from different countries.
- 7) **Interpretation of results:** This involves assessment of the findings of the study in relation to the hypotheses and the findings' relevance and then drawing conclusions.

What is comparative education?

➤ <http://www.scribd.com/doc/66367072/44851906-Comparative-Education-1>
(Used with permission. For educational purposes only.)

Comparative education: Comparative education is a field of study that focuses on the provision of organized learning activities across international and intercultural boundaries and utilizes comparative methods of study. The Wiki encyclopaedia defines Comparative Education as a fully established academic field of study that examines education in one country (or group of countries) by using data and insights drawn from the practices and situation in another country or countries. The field of Comparative Education is supported by many projects associated with UNESCO and national education ministries of various nations.

Educational system: An educational system refers to a structure of operation for the provision of education. Educational systems are influenced by philosophies of policymakers. Educational systems are normally classified around countries, e.g. the Zambian education system, Zimbabwean education system, and Ugandan Education System; or levels of education, e.g. primary education, secondary education, and tertiary education; or around regions, e.g. African educational system, Asian educational system, European educational system, and American education system.

Comparative analysis: Comparative analysis refers to a process of comparing and contrasting two or more things, such as educational systems, methods, theories, or policies with an aim of assessing the relative strength, advantage, or value of one thing over another or others.

What is Comparative Education?

Comparative education is a vast field of study. It does not only study the educational systems of other countries or confine itself to a single strict definition because it covers disciplines such as the sociology, political science, psychology, and anthropology of different countries. Comparative Education is the detailed study of educational systems to find out how a people's values and beliefs affect their educational system and how to provide suitable education for those people.

The field is a deep, critical examination of societal values and educational systems of other countries for the purposes of evaluating one's own system and refreshing one's own culture by adopting progressive aspects from elsewhere on the basis of comparison. According to Noah and Eckstein, "Comparative Education is an intersection of social sciences, education, and cross-national study which attempts to use cross-national data to test propositions about the relationship between education and society and between teaching practices and learning outcomes" (AIOU, 2009). There is a close relationship between Comparative Education and other social sciences; it is the discipline where information about education and other social sciences intersects.

Content materials for Unit 5: Education systems of technologically advanced countries

United States education system

Adapted from:

➤ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_the_United_States

(This is free-use material. For educational purposes only.)

Schooling is compulsory for all children in the United States, but the age range for which school attendance is required varies from state to state. Most children begin elementary education with kindergarten (usually at five to six years old) and finish secondary education with 12th grade (usually at 18 years old). In some cases, pupils may be promoted beyond the next regular grade. Some states allow students to leave school between 14 and 17 with parental permission, before finishing high school; other states require students to stay in school until age 18.

Public education is universally available. School curricula, funding, teaching, employment, and other policies are set through locally elected school boards with jurisdiction over school districts, with many directives from state legislatures. School districts are usually separate from other local jurisdictions, with independent officials and budgets. Educational standards and standardized testing decisions are usually made by state governments. The age for compulsory education varies by state. It begins from ages five to eight and ends from ages 14 to 18.

Post-secondary education, better known as 'college' in the United States, is generally governed separately from the elementary and high school system. In the year 2000, there were 76.6 million students enrolled in schools from kindergarten through to graduate schools. Of these, 72% aged 12 to 17 were judged academically 'on track' for their age (enrolled in school at or above grade level). Of those enrolled in compulsory education, 5.2 million (10.4%) were attending private schools.

Higher education, conducted after obtaining an initial degree and sometimes after several years of professional work, leads to a more advanced degree such as a master's degree, which could be a Master of Arts (M.A.), Master of Science (M.S.), Master of Business Administration (M.B.A.), or other less common master's degrees such as Master of Education (M.Ed.), and Master of Fine Arts (M.F.A). Some students pursue a graduate degree that is in between a master's degree and a doctoral degree, called a Specialist in Education (Ed.S.)

Entrance into graduate programmes usually depends upon a student's undergraduate academic performance or professional experience as well as their score on a standardized entrance exam like the Graduate Record Examination (GRE, for graduate schools in general), the Medical College Admission Test (MCAT), or the Law School Admission Test (LSAT). Many graduate and law schools do not require experience after earning a bachelor's degree to enter their programmes; however, business school candidates are usually required to gain a few years of professional work experience before applying.

United Kingdom education system

Adapted from:

➤ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_England

(This is free-use material. For educational purposes only.)

Education in England is overseen by the Department for Education and the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills. Local authorities take responsibility for implementing policy for public education and state schools at a regional level.

The education system is divided into:

- Nursery (ages 3–4)
- Primary education (ages 4–11)
- Secondary education (ages 11–18)
- Tertiary education (ages 18+)

Full-time education is compulsory for all children aged between five and 16, with children beginning primary education during the school year they turn five. Students may then continue their secondary studies for a further two years (sixth form), leading most typically to A-level qualifications, although other qualifications and courses exist, including Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC) qualifications, the International Baccalaureate (IB), and the Cambridge Pre-U. The leaving age for compulsory education was raised to 18 by the Education and Skills Act of 2008. The change will take effect in 2013 for 16-year-olds and in 2015 for 17-year-olds. State-provided schooling and sixth-form education are paid for by taxes. England also has a tradition of independent schooling, but parents may choose to educate their children by any suitable means.

Primary and secondary education

The school year begins on 1 September (or 1 August if a term starts in August). Education is compulsory for all children from their fifth birthday to the last Friday in June of the school year in which they turn 16. This will be raised, in 2013, to the year in which they turn 17 and, in 2015, to their 18th birthday.

Curriculum

All maintained schools in England are required to follow the National Curriculum, which is made up of 12 subjects. The core subjects – English, Mathematics, and Science – are compulsory for all students aged five to 16. A range of other subjects, known as foundation subjects, are compulsory at one or more key stages:

- Art and Design
- Citizenship
- Design and Technology
- Geography
- History
- Information and Communication Technology
- Modern Foreign Languages
- Music
- Physical Education

Higher education

Students normally enter university from age 18 onwards, and study for an academic degree. Historically, all undergraduate education outside the private University of Buckingham and BPP University College was largely state-financed, with a small contribution from top-up fees; however, fees of up to £9,000 per annum were charged from October 2012. There is a distinct hierarchy among universities, with the Russell Group containing most of the country's more prestigious, research-led and research-focused universities. The state does not control university syllabuses, but it does influence admission procedures through the Office for Fair Access, which approves and monitors access agreements to safeguard and promote fair access to higher education. Unlike most degrees, the state still has control over teacher training courses, and uses its Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) inspectors to maintain standards.

Content materials for Unit 6

Topic: Teacher Education in comparative perspectives

The following document provides information about teacher education in Pakistan before the reforms initiated by the Education Policy 2009:

USAID (United States Agency for International Development). (2000). *Pakistan Teacher Education and Professional Development Program (PTEPDP)*. USAID Contract EEE – I – 00 – 01 – 00010 – 00. Retrieved from:

➤ http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADI362.pdf

The following websites provide information about teacher education in Pakistan as a result of reforms between 2010 and 2013:

National Professional Standards for Teachers in Pakistan:

➤ <http://unesco.org.pk/education/teachereducation/files/National%20Professional%20Standards%20for%20Teachers.pdf>

National Education Policy 2009:

➤ <http://unesco.org.pk/education/teachereducation/files/National%20Education%20Policy.pdf>

Information on the four-year B.Ed. (Hons) and the Associate Degree in Education (ADE):

➤ <http://www.hec.gov.pk/InsideHEC/Divisions/AECA/CurriculumRevision/Documents/Education-2012.pdf>

General information about reforms:

➤ <http://www.pakteachers.org/>

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Adeyinka, A. A. (1994). *Popular topics in comparative education for Nigerian tertiary education students*. Ilorin: Success Education Services.

Alabi, I. O. (1998). *Comparative education: A handbook for teachers*. Oyo: Odumat Press.

Awolola, A. (1986). *Readings in comparative education*. Ibadan: Stevelola Educational Publishers.

Kosemani, J. M. (1995). *Comparative education: Emergent national system*. Port Harcourt: Abe Publishers.

Lawal, B. O. (2004). *Comparative education*. Osogbo: Swift Publishers Nigeria Ltd.

Osokoya, I. O. (1992). *Comparative education*. Ibadan: University of Ibadan.

Web resources

Mbozi, E. H. (n.d.). *Comparative education*. African Virtual University. Retrieved from:

- <http://www.scribd.com/doc/66367072/44851906-Comparative-Education-1>

National Intelligence Council. (2008). *Global trends 2025: A transformed world*.

Retrieved from:

- <http://www.aicpa.org/research/cpahorizons2025/globalforces/downloadabledocuments/globaltrends.pdf>

Noah, H. J., & Eckstein, M. A. (1998). *Doing comparative education: Three decades of collaboration*. Retrieved from:

- <http://www.fe.hku.hk/cerc/Publications/CERC-5.htm>

Noah, H. J., & Eckstein, M. A. (1998). *Doing comparative education: Three decades of collaboration*. Part I.VII. Use and abuse of comparative education. Retrieved from:

- <http://www.hku.hk/cerc/1g.html>

OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). (2004). *OECD handbook for internationally comparative statistics*. Retrieved from:

- http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/oecd-handbook-for-internationally-comparative-education-statistics_9789264104112-en

USAID (United States Agency for International Development). (2000). *Pakistan Teacher Education and Professional Development Program (PTEPDP)*. USAID Contract EEE – I – 00 – 01 – 00010 – 00.

- http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADI362.pdf

Wikipedia. (2013). *Comparative education*. Retrieved from:

- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Comparative_education

During the curriculum development process, faculty were encouraged to keep notes that would be useful to them and others who may teach the course in the future. These were submitted along with the course syllabus. Teaching notes include ways to introduce the course, ideas for teaching units and sessions, sample lessons plans, and suggestions for reading and resource material. These have been integrated into a single section of this document to create a rich and varied collection of ideas easily accessible to others. The section is organized by theme. Except in cases where there is duplication of ideas, faculty are credited with their contribution.

Session outline: Introduction to comparative education

Contributed by: Nadeem Khan

NOTE TO FACULTY TEACHING THE COURSE: You can prepare a brief, 15-minute introductory lecture using content provided in the course manual *Comparative Education*, retrieved from:

- http://www.nou.edu.ng/noun/NOUN_OCL/pdf/EDUs/EDU%20314%20-%20COMPARATIVE%20EDUCATION.pdf

Activity: Introduction to KWL

Introduction (10 minutes)

Give Student Teachers a brief overview of the course. Let them go through the syllabus. Explain and clarify any points that are unclear in the syllabus.

KWL (15 minutes)

Tell Student Teachers to draw the table below in their copies. In column K, let them write what they know about comparative education, and in column W what they want to know about it. Let them leave the L column blank, because at the end of the lesson they will write in it what they have learned.

K (Know)	W (Want to know)	L (Learned)

Mini-lecture (15 minutes)

Tell Student Teachers that you will give a brief talk and instruct them to take notes on main points. (You might refer to the course manual *Comparative Education* in preparing the mini-lecture.)

Conclusion (20 minutes)

After the mini-lecture, ask Student Teachers to fill in the L column of the previous activity and share their work with the whole class.

Session outline: Introduction to comparative education

Contributed by: Dr Mumtaz Akhter and Dr Rafaqat Ali Akbar

Think, pair, share (10 minutes)

Tell Student Teachers to think for two minutes about their understanding of comparative education and give real-life examples. Instruct them to work in pairs, sharing their thoughts with the person in the next chair. Invite Student Teachers to share their thoughts.

Introduction to the course

Introduce the course content, the teaching-learning approaches, and the assignments of the course. Explain to the Student Teachers that you require them to maintain a reflective journal throughout this course so that they can compare their own learning from the start to the end. Mention that they may also peer-review their journals to see how their growth compares with that of their classmates.

Individual reading (20 minutes)

Distribute an introductory reading. For example, you might use the three common approaches to comparative education. (See the References and Resources section above.) Tell the class that they have about 20 minutes to read the materials.

Discussion (10 minutes)

Working with the same person with whom they made their definition earlier, ask Student Teachers to discuss where their own ideas from the 'think, pair, share' activity fit among those of the comparative educationists. Ask them where they see similarities and/or differences, and let them list these in their notebooks.

Sharing (10 minutes)

Invite Student Teachers to share their list of similarities and differences with the whole class.

Conclusion (5 minutes)

Summarize the main points on the definitions of comparative education.

Session outline: The purposes of comparative education

Contributed by: Dr Mumtaz Akhter and Dr Rifaqat Ali Akbar

Instructor preparation

Prepare a short lecture on the purposes of comparative education. You may want to use the course manual *Comparative Education* from the following website in your preparation:

- http://www.nou.edu.ng/noun/NOUN_OCL/pdf/EDUs/EDU%20314%20-%20COMPARATIVE%20EDUCATION.pdf

Introduction

Have the Student Teachers consider the following question for a minute or two and share their thoughts: Why should we compare education systems both across countries and within a country?

Lecture

Tell the Student Teachers that you will give a short lecture on the purposes of comparative education and that you expect them to take notes, writing down the main points. They should note different purposes using bullet points. To make the lecture interactive, pause after the main points and encourage them to compare notes for a moment.

Group work

Divide the class into groups of five or six members and ask groups to identify and list five main purposes of education. Tell them that if they think of any other purposes that may be relevant, they should add those to their lists as well.

Chart making

Have each group make a chart of their list of purposes of comparative education and display it for the class. Display the charts in a gallery walk.

Session outline: The uses of comparative education

Contributed by: Dr Mumtaz Akhter and Dr Rifaqat Ali Akbar

Group presentation

Divide Student Teachers into groups. Give the topic 'The uses of comparative education' to each group to prepare a 5–7-minute class presentation based on the previous introductory session on comparative education and their prior knowledge. Allow about 15–20 minutes for preparation. Organize presentations so that each group shares with one other group. This will allow all groups to share without it requiring an entire session. Follow up with a whole-class discussion in which you ask groups to identify key points they learned from each other.

Reading

Provide Student Teachers with the reading material given below. Read and identify the points touched upon in presentations and note those that were not mentioned. Share any overlooked points with the whole class.

Adapted from:

➤ <http://www.out.ac.tz/avu/images/Education/COMPARATIVE-EDUCATION.pdf>
(Used with permission. For educational purposes only.)

Problems transcend national borders. To attack a national problem, it is useful to seek possible solutions from a similar experience in another country. To do so we must investigate commonalities and differences between and among nations. The first use of comparative education is what is referred to as educational borrowing. In this instance, comparative education is used to obtain solutions to problems that are plaguing us. Many educational questions can be examined from an international perspective. For instance, educators and policymakers can draw on the actions that are taken by education systems in various countries, such as Zambia, where a Re-entry Policy was formulated and is being implemented to enable girls to go back to school whenever they are ready. Comparative education in this area is useful in borrowing successful forms of education, ideas, and activities from other countries or regions to be adopted, and at times adapted, to our own system of education.

The second use of comparative education is to facilitate planning of educational programmes, curricula, teaching methods, and activities. Studying case studies on various educational systems can facilitate educational planning, both at national level and in the classroom. Before educational policies are made, policymakers need to evaluate the anticipated consequences of the policy as well as identify possible constraints. Studies of educational systems that share similar problems or have formulated policies to overcome similar problems provide information for learning possible consequences. Country case studies on educational systems may provide data on what other countries are doing, planning, or changing in their educational systems, and thus provide invaluable information for decision-making regarding what to adopt, modify, or avoid.

The third use of comparative education is to facilitate educational assessment or evaluation. Comparative education enhances evaluation of educational outcomes by showing us how we are performing in a particular area of education compared to other countries, and this evaluation ideally should go beyond performance in national examinations. Noah (1984) points out that comparative education facilitates the establishment of comparative standards. Descriptive studies provided by the country studies give an opportunity to estimate a country's standing in relation to other nations in the dimensions of education that are selected for analysis. He further points out that the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement is one such initiative that uses comparative data. Given the above uses of comparative education, the traditional users of the field have been the policymakers, curriculum developers, and educational scholars. The educational scholars usually are interested in widening their knowledge of educational philosophies and learning theories, as well as discovering the effects of practices within various social contexts. A fourth category of users of comparative education ideally should be teachers. However,

most teachers do not perceive themselves as users of comparative education because they associate it with policymaking and curriculum development.

Noah, H. J. (1984). The use and abuse of comparative education. *Comparative Education Review*. 28, 550–562.

Faculty notes: The purpose of studying comparative education

Contributed by: Sabira Ali, Qadir Bux Laghari, and Saira Soomro

The purpose of studying comparative education is as follows:

- to assist in understanding one's educational institutions as well as their educational practices
- to assist in understanding the factors responsible for various educational changes
- to educate teachers and Student Teachers on the procedures through which educational changes occur
- to contribute not only to the educational development of the society but also to its general development
- to serve as an academic discipline
- to assist in solving one's educational problems
- to open one's eyes to the educational philosophies, theories, and practices of other countries
- to assist both Student Teachers and teachers of discipline in gathering reliable information on educational systems
- to assist in the promotion of international relations
- to contribute to the formulation of a country's educational systems.

Session outline: Comparability as an historical journey

Contributed by: Dr Mumtaz Akhter and Dr Razaqat Ali Akbar

Instructor preparation: This session uses the jigsaw reading method. Prepare handouts from three selections of reading materials. (You can use readings from the websites given below.) Make enough copies of each reading for one-third of the class to receive it. (Each Student Teacher will get only one of the three readings.)

Form 'home teams' of three members each. Distribute one copy of each reading to each team. Team members must agree on who will work on which reading. Next, each home-team member joins with all others studying the same reading material, thus forming 'expert teams'.

Expert teams should be small and may choose to divide, since teams of six to 10 are too large for substantive dialogue. Each expert team member reads the handouts and notes main points, adding points from their prior knowledge of the topic. After the reading, expert teams discuss the information in the texts, and agree on and record the main points.

The home teams re-form and share the new ideas, clarifying any issues and synthesizing the three expert sets of information.

Readings and resources related to the activity

Reading A: Use the 'Historical background' section of the course manual from:

➤ http://www.nou.edu.ng/noun/NOUN_OCL/pdf/EDUs/EDU%20314%20-%20COMPARATIVE%20EDUCATION.pdf

Reading B: Use Chapter 3 article ('Comparability as an historical journey') by A.

Nóvoa and T. Yariv-Mashal, in *Comparative research in education: A mode of governance or a historical journey?* Retrieved from:

➤ http://repositorio.ul.pt/bitstream/10451/680/1/21185_0305-0068_423-438.pdf

Ideas for teaching: Approaches to comparative education

Divide Student Teachers into eight groups. Let each group take one of the approaches listed below, prepare a presentation, and present it to the class.

- Thematic or problem approach
- Case study approach
- Area study approach
- Historical approach
- Descriptive approach
- Philosophical approach
- International approach
- Gastronomic approach

Readings and resources related to the activity

Nóvoa, A. & Yariv-Mashal, T. (n.d.). *Comparative research in education: A mode of governance or a historical journey?* Retrieved from:

➤ http://repositorio.ul.pt/bitstream/10451/680/1/21185_0305-0068_423-438.pdf

National Open University of Nigeria. (n.d.). *Comparative education*. Course guide.

Retrieved from:

➤ http://www.nou.edu.ng/noun/NOUN_OCL/pdf/EDUs/EDU%20314%20-%20COMPARATIVE%20EDUCATION.pdf

Ideas for teaching: Methods of comparative education

Contributed by: Dr Mumtaz Akhter and Dr Rafaqat Ali Akbar

Prepare a lecture on the topic. You may want to use the content given below.

Readings and resources related to the activity

➤ http://www.wwwords.co.uk/pdf/freetoview.asp?j=rcie&vol=1&issue=4&year=2006&article=1_Phillips_RCIE_1_4_web

This website has an article by Phillips, D. (2006). *Comparative education: Method. Research in Comparative and International Education*, 1(4), 304–319. Phillips argues that comparative education is set apart from other areas of study because it must take culture into account. Prominent methods such as Noah and Eckstein’s scientific method are discussed.

Faculty notes: Comparative education in the United States, Finland and Japan

Readings and resources on education systems of selected developed countries are provided below. You can make lesson plans and develop activities using them.

Education in the United States of America

Contributed by: Dr Mumtaz Akhter and Dr Rafaqat Ali Akbar

Adapted from:

➤ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_the_United_States
(Free-use site. For educational purposes only.)

Each state in the United States has the power to establish its own system of education. The local districts within the states also have the power to establish school boards and to found schools as well. The power of the states to set up schools does not in any way prevent the church from establishing schools in any of the states.

The education levels in the United States include the following:

- Nursery (pre-school) education
- Elementary (primary) education
- Secondary education
- Adult education (which may or may not include university credits)
- Higher education (university or college, including teacher education and other specialized fields)
- Graduate schools and postgraduate studies (extended college studies for specialized fields such as medical school, law school, and other areas)

Nursery education

Initially (around 1868–1873), nursery education was part of primary school. By 1888, nursery school had spread to many places in the United States. The Lanham Education Act of 1940 also enhanced the development of nursery education in America by providing subventions (grants) from the federal government. Later, individuals who had an interest in the education of children started to take part in the running of nursery schools. Also, churches have participated in establishing them. Currently, American parents may choose to send their children to nursery school as early as the age of one year, and children may attend until they are old enough for primary school. Most parents must pay for nursery education privately. Programmes for infants through year three or four are play oriented. Many programmes for three- and four-year olds begin to introduce some work, such as recognition of colours, letters of the alphabet, and the like.

Primary (elementary) education

Primary education in the United States varies in length, generally running from kindergarten (usually for five- or six-year-old children) through either fifth or eighth grade. Some areas include 'junior high school' or 'middle school' (grades 6–8) in the primary school; others keep those grades separate. The purposes of American primary education include:

- turning out well-adjusted and well-informed citizens
- helping the children to be active participants in the building of their own lives
- assisting them in understanding the roles expected of them in establishing a better American society.

Primary school subjects include Mathematics, Science, Geography, History, Social Studies, English language and literature, usually Physical Education, and in some schools, a selection of foreign languages (most often Latin, French, German, and Spanish), Art, and Music. However, religious subjects are not included in the public school curriculum because the United States has constitutionally protected freedom of worship. In the primary schools, the promotion of the pupils is based on continuous assessment and not on specific promotion examinations. Since the enactment of the No Child Left Behind laws in 2001, more emphasis has been placed on the primary school's role in helping children acquire basic skills in reading and arithmetic in order to pass benchmark assessments. States are required to develop and administer these assessments at all grade levels if they are to receive federal funds for schools. It is the duty of the local school board to provide basic texts and some other school materials.

A public primary school is headed by the principal, who is the administrative head of the school. While a primary school teacher is expected to have a university degree, a principal is generally expected to have master's degree in educational administration and supervision, and must be certified by the state.

Because the federal government by law does not include religious instruction in school curricula, some Christian groups (notably Catholics), as well as other religious groups, have established their own schools where religious instruction may be added to the secular curricula. There are also other types of accredited private schools, such as schools for gifted students or disabled students, or boarding schools that start

preparing students early for college. Thus, there are both private and public primary schools in the United States.

Secondary (high school) education

Secondary education, or high school, in the United States usually lasts for four years, from about age 14 to 18. A primary goal of secondary education is to prepare students to be full participants in a democratic society where everyone will have equal opportunity. A high school diploma may be terminal or it may be preparation for college. That is, some schools offer tracks that prepare students to enter the job market upon completion of high school. In large cities, vocational schools often perform this function. Other schools offer college preparation courses that fulfil admission criteria for most colleges and universities. Some students take advanced placement courses that give them academic credit in a college or university while they fulfil their high school diploma requirements.

States provide free secondary education and usually free textbooks for students up to the age of about 18 years, though some states only require students to attend school to the age of 16. Graduates of primary schools are always admitted into public secondary schools.

There are both public and private secondary schools in America. Public senior high schools are tuition-free. Provision of learning materials for schools and the general financing of schools are responsibilities of the local school districts. In the United States, private high schools or secondary schools are also allowed by the Constitution. However, unlike the public high schools, tuition is not free and religious education is allowed as an addition to the secular topics.

Teacher education

Teacher education in the United States, as in other places, refers to the professional training given to would-be teachers. It is considered a part of college or university education. The aims and objectives of American teacher education include the following:

- preparing teachers for the needs and aspirations of the United States as a democratic nation
- preparing teachers to assist in the education of children and/or adults.

The preparation of primary and secondary school teachers is done by teachers colleges (formerly known as normal schools) or at universities. There are several models of teacher preparation. The predominant model is four years of undergraduate preparation. Many states require an undergraduate liberal arts or social sciences degree as a prerequisite to teacher preparation. Teacher preparation is done at a graduate school of education in those states. Undergraduate programmes continue to exist in these states and Student Teachers who graduate from them are required to complete their M.A. within five years following graduation in order to be certified as a teacher. Other states require five years of undergraduate work. Teachers earn a B.A. degree after four years, but the fifth year must be completed within the first five years after graduation.

The subjects being offered in teachers colleges include coursework in subject or content areas, methods of teaching, and foundations courses. The programme for primary and secondary school teachers is equally rigorous. Primary school teaching candidates are prepared to be generalists. Secondary school teaching candidates

must specialize in a subject or content area such as Mathematics, History, Music, or Science. Programmes in school administration, psychology, and health are frequently offered by teacher education institutions as well.

In most cases, a teacher's appointment is on a contract basis and it is renewable yearly. Public schools typically award tenure to a teacher after a two- to three-year period. The school district board of education has the constitutional power to terminate the contract appointment of any of its teachers. A teacher with tenure may be terminated if they do not continue to perform their professional duties, but careful attention must be paid to procedures outlined by the school district and teachers' union or professional organization.

University and college education

In the United States, higher education is provided in colleges, higher technical institutes, and universities. Teacher education is considered a part of university or college education. In 1862, the American government passed the Morrill Act, which made it compulsory to make land available to the federal government for the development of universities and higher institutions of learning.

Two major sources of higher education in the United States are:

- state universities and colleges, which are maintained by the state; limited tuition is charged to state residents while out-of-state students pay tuition to attend
- independent universities and colleges, which are run by various private for-profit or non-profit organizations.

In these private colleges and universities, school tuition and other fees are charged, although limited scholarship funding is sometimes available. A basic degree programme usually lasts for four years, but there are certain two-year degrees and many types of advanced (graduate) degrees as well.

Adult education (continuing education) in the United States

Adult education is offered by colleges, high schools, and private groups or individuals, and may be for the purpose of gaining college credits or degrees, or simply for self-culture, community instruction, and mutual discussion of matters of common public interest. Most colleges and universities have extension classes that offer both credit-bearing and non-credit-bearing courses.

Technical education (vocational training)

There have been technical or vocational training institutions in the United States since at least the middle of the 19th century. Institutions that provide technical education require a high school diploma for admission and focus on preparing graduates in specialized fields. Some are two-year programmes offered by specialized institutes or affiliated with two-year colleges. These programmes are more advanced than high school vocational education, but may offer similar training. Other programmes are housed at universities or colleges, and lead to a bachelor's degree or to M.S. and Ph.D. degrees. Students in four-year undergraduate programmes take foundations courses as well as technical courses in order to meet broader university requirements. Programmes in agriculture, engineering, and computer technology are examples of technical education.

Administration of education in the United States

Education in the United States is decentralized. Therefore, it is the responsibility of each state, as well as private individuals, to take care of their schools. In 1867, the National Office of Education was set up, headed by the Education Commissioner, an appointee of the American president. Since the enactment of the No Child Left Behind law, states may not qualify for federal funds without meeting the requirements of the law.

The federal government assists the state governments in the funding of technical and vocational education. The state universities are financially aided by the federal government. At the state level, there is a state Department of Education under the leadership of an Education Director, who is elected by the people within the state or appointed by the governor of the state and approved by the state legislature for a period of two to four years.

Locally, each local government has a board of education, usually headed by a Superintendent of Schools in the district. His or her duties include supervising the appointment of teachers and other personnel who will be working in the district. In larger school districts, the superintendent supervises heads of various departments such as personnel, curriculum, elementary schools, and secondary schools. The superintendent is also responsible for budget and finance. The superintendent meets with the local board of education and is responsible for presenting school matters to the public through the media or called meetings.

The financing of education in the United States

According to figures released by United States Census Bureau in 2009, 'funding for public education in the United States is a joint effort between federal, state and local governments—and is the single largest category of state and local government spending . . . Of the money received by public school systems, 91 percent came from state and local sources; 9 percent came from the federal government. The \$591 billion in total funding in 2009 works out to about \$10,499 per pupil, a 2 percent increase from 2008.' Retrieved 28 April 2013 from:

➤ <http://blogs.census.gov/2011/05/25/funding-public-education/>

In private schools, starting from nursery school and continuing to university, parents of students pay school tuition and fees in addition to the normal governmental taxes for which they are responsible. These fees support the operations of the schools, although many well-to-do individuals also donate funds to support various schools. Private schools also depend on annual fundraising events and periodic capital campaigns designed to raise significant amounts of money for school improvements.

Additional resources

Historical timeline of education in the United States:

- <http://www.arc.org/content/view/100/217/>

Provides dates in the development of education in the United States from 1647. Brief annotations provide insight into the history of public education.

Labree, D. F. (n.d.). *An uneasy relationship: The history of teacher education in the university*. Retrieved from:

- http://www.stanford.edu/~dlabaree/publications/An_Uneasy_Relationship_Proofs.pdf

An analysis of the tension inherent in the academic and professional goals of university teacher education in the United States. The author takes a historical perspective, tracing the development of teacher education and considering its legacy in teacher preparation today.

The education system in Finland

Contributed by: Sabira Ali, Qadir Bux Laghari, and Saira Soomro

Retrieved from:

- <http://www.minedu.fi/OPM/Koulutus/koulutusjaerjestelmae/?lang=en>
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The Finnish education system is composed of nine-year basic education (comprehensive school), preceded by one year of voluntary pre-primary education; upper secondary education, comprising vocational and general education; and higher education, provided by universities and polytechnics. Adult education is available at all levels.

Basic education is free general education provided for the whole age group. Upper secondary education consists of general education and vocational education and training (vocational qualifications and further specialist qualifications). The higher education system comprises universities and polytechnics, in which the admission requirement is a secondary general or vocational diploma.

Universities, which are academic or artistic institutions, focus on research and education based on research. They confer bachelor's, master's, licentiate, and doctoral degrees.

Adult education is provided at all levels of education. Adults can study for a general education certificate or for a vocational qualification, or modules included in them, take other courses developing citizenship and work skills, or pursue recreational studies.

The welfare of Finnish society is built on education, culture, and knowledge. All children are guaranteed opportunities for study and self-development according to their abilities, irrespective of their place of residence, language or financial status. All pupils are entitled to competent and high-quality education and guidance and to a safe learning environment and well-being. The flexible education system and basic educational security make for equity and consistency in results.

The education system in Japan

Retrieved from:

➤ <http://www.education-in-japan.info/sub1.html>

(Used with permission. For educational purposes only.)

In Japan, education is compulsory at the elementary and lower secondary levels. Most students attend public schools through the lower secondary level, but private education is popular at the upper secondary and university levels.

Junior schools in Japan

Lower secondary school covers grades seven, eight, and nine, children between the ages of roughly 12 and 15, with increased focus on academic studies. A growing number of junior high school students also attend *juku*, private extracurricular study schools, in the evenings and on weekends.

High school

Upper-secondary school is not compulsory in Japan. Private upper-secondary schools account for a majority of all upper-secondary schools, and neither public nor private schools are free. The most common type of upper-secondary school has a full-time, general program that offered academic courses for students preparing for higher education as well as technical and vocational courses for students expecting to find employment after graduation. A small number of schools offer part-time programs, evening courses, or correspondence education.

The first-year programs for students in both academic and commercial courses are similar. They include basic academic courses, such as Japanese language, English, Mathematics, and Science. In upper-secondary school, differences in ability are first publicly acknowledged, and course content and course selection are far more individualized in the second year. However, there is a core of academic material throughout all programs.

Most upper-secondary teachers are university graduates. Upper-secondary schools are organized into departments, and teachers specialize in their major fields although they teach a variety of courses within their disciplines. Teaching depends largely on the lecture system, with the main goal of covering the very demanding curriculum in the time allotted. Approach and subject coverage tends to be uniform, at least in the public schools.

Higher education in Japan

The overwhelming majority of college students attend full-time day programs. In 1990 the most popular courses, enrolling almost 40 percent of all undergraduate students, were in the social sciences, including Business, Law, and Accounting. Other popular subjects were Engineering (19 percent), the Humanities (15 percent), and Education (7 percent).

Ideas for teaching and faculty notes: Comparative education in Bangladesh, Cuba, India, and Sri Lanka

Information about education systems of selected developed countries is provided below. You can make a lesson plan and develop activities using them.

Contributed by: Sabira Ali, Qadir Bux Laghari, and Saira Soomro,

Activity: Comparing four developing countries

You can prepare an interactive lecture on the education system of developing countries. The table below gives an example of a way for Student Teachers to take notes during the active lecture. After each country is presented, allow them a few minutes to fill in information related to that country, or have them compare notes following the presentation on each country. Following the lecture, instruct Student Teachers to work in pairs to complete the table.

Countries	Primary education	Secondary education	Higher education	Similarities	Differences
India					
Sri Lanka					
Bangladesh					
Cuba					

Readings and resources

The education system in India

Contributed by: Sabira Ali, Qadir Bux Laghari, and Saira Soomro

Retrieved from:

➤ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_system_in_india

(Free use. For educational purposes only.)

The Indian government lays emphasis to primary education up to the age of fourteen years referred to as Elementary Education in India. However, due to shortage of resources and lack of political will, this system suffers from massive gaps including high

pupil-to-teacher ratios, shortage of infrastructure and poor levels of teacher training. Education has also been made free for children for 6 to 14 years of age or up to class VIII under the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act of 2009.

Secondary education covers children of ages 14–18, which covers 88.5 million children according to the Census of 2001. A significant feature of India's secondary school system is the emphasis on inclusion of the disadvantaged sections of the society. Professionals from established institutes are often called to support in vocational training. Another feature of India's secondary school system is its emphasis on profession-based vocational training to help students attain skills for finding a vocation of his/her choosing.

The main governing body at the tertiary level is the University Grants Commission (India), which enforces its standards, advises the government, and helps coordinate between the centre and the state. Accreditation for higher learning is overseen by 12 autonomous institutions established by the University Grants Commission. In India, education system is reformed. Three Indian universities were listed in the Times Higher Education list of the world's top 200 universities: Indian Institutes of Technology, Indian Institutes of Management, and Jawaharlal Nehru University in 2005 and 2006. Six Indian Institutes of Technology and the Birla Institute of Technology and Science Pilani were listed among the top 20 science and technology schools in Asia by Asiaweek. The Indian School of Business situated in Hyderabad was ranked number 12 in global MBA rankings by the Financial Times of London in 2010 while the All India Institute of Medical Sciences has been recognized as a global leader in medical research and treatment.

Education in Sri Lanka

Contributed by: Sabira Ali, Qadir Bux Laghari, and Saira Soomro

Retrieved from:

➤ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Sri_Lanka

(Free use. For educational purposes only.)

Sri Lanka's education structure is divided into five parts: primary, junior secondary, senior secondary, collegiate and tertiary. Primary education lasts five to six years (grades 1–5) and at the end of this period, prospective teachers may elect to write a national exam called the Scholarship exam. After primary education, the junior secondary level (referred to as middle school in some schools) lasts for 4 years (Grades 6–9) followed by 2 years (Grades 10–11) of the senior secondary level which is the preparation for the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E) Ordinary Level (O/Ls).

Due to the variety of ethnic groups in Sri Lanka, many schools teach only in either Sinhala medium or in Tamil medium and not the English medium. The elite colleges in major cities such as Colombo and Kandy, teach in all three medium.

National Schools come under the direct control of the Ministry of Education therefore have direct funding from the ministry. Most of these schools were established during the colonial period and therefore are established institutions. Provincial Schools consists of the vast majority of schools in Sri Lanka. Funded and controlled by the local governments, many suffer from poor facilities and a shortage of teachers.

Piriven are monastic colleges (similar to a seminary) for the education of Buddhist priests. These have been the centers of secondary and higher education in ancient times for lay people as well.

There has been a considerable increase in the number of private schools in Sri Lanka, due to the emergence of the upper middle class during the colonial era. These private schools follow the local curriculum set up by the Ministry of Education in the local language mediums of Sinhala, Tamil or English. Many of the private schools have access to newer facilities than state run schools.

Tertiary education

Undergraduate education in State Universities is also free but extremely limited. However fewer than 16% (less than 16,000 students) of those who qualify get admission to State Universities and of that only half graduate. Admission to the university system is based on the highly competitive GCE Advanced Level examination. The universities offer the following certificates and degrees:

- Certificate: 1 year of study or less
- Diploma: 1–2 years of study
- Bachelor's degree
- General degree: 3 years of coursework without a major
- Honours/Special degree: 4 years of coursework and research with a major/ specialization in a particular field
- Master's degree: Undertaken after the completion of one or more bachelor's degrees. Master's degrees deal with a subject at a more advanced level than bachelor's degrees, and can consist of research, coursework, or a mixture of the two.
- Doctorate: most famously Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), which is undertaken after an Honours bachelor's or master's degree, by an original research project resulting in a thesis or dissertation.

The education system in Cuba

Information can be retrieved from:

- <http://knowaboutcuba.com/2012/06/a-look-at-the-education-system-of-cuba/>

The education system in Bangladesh

Information can be retrieved from:

- <http://educationsystembd.blogspot.com/2012/01/educational-system-in-bangladesh.html>

Session outline: Comparative analysis of the education system of Pakistan with those of developed and developing countries

Contributed by: Sabira Ali, Qadir Bux Laghari, and Saira Soomro

Introduction: Parameters of comparative education

Explain that in this session, education systems will be compared using the following parameters:

- Standards-based education
- Inclusivity (ethnicity, social status, multiculturalism, gender, etc.)
- Integration
- Assessment and curriculum
- Progress in education
- Challenges and issues

Distribute a name of a country to each of the Student Teachers, and explain that you expect them to compare that country with Pakistan according to the parameters you have discussed. They may select any approach of comparative education to do their comparisons.

Venn diagram

Ask Student Teachers to make a comparison of the education system of Pakistan and one other country. Ask them to present their ideas in a Venn diagram:

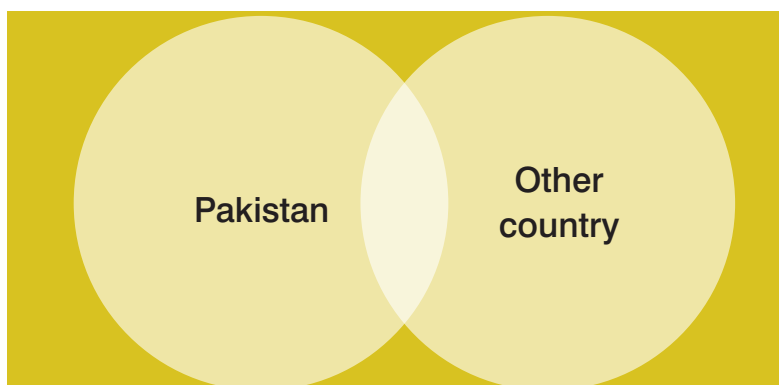


Figure: Example of a Venn diagram set up to compare Pakistan and another country

Course assessment and assignments

Examples of assignments that could be graded are given below.

Comparison of education systems of developed and developing countries

Assignment 1

Let each Student Teacher select any country and compare its education system with that of Pakistan. Ask them to write a paper focusing on similarities and differences between the systems of the two countries.

OR

Let each Student Teacher write a report proposing an improvement plan for Pakistan's education system on the basis of another country's experiences.

Assignment 2

Divide the class into three groups. Give each group a pair of topics for comparison. Suggestions are in the list below. If groups become too big, then divide the class into six groups and have two groups work on each topic. The topics for comparison can include the following:

- Compare public and private education systems in Pakistan
- Compare education in a madrassah with education in a government school
- Compare distance learning and formal education

Let the groups do inquiry fieldwork on the assigned area.

Assignment 3

Select two particular education institutions in your respective city, town, or area and do an inquiry for purposes of comparing and contrasting. Institutional pairings might be a madrassah and a public school, a private and a public school, a private and a public university, or an open and a regular (formal) university. Let Student Teachers write an action plan stating how they will do the comparisons. Have them visit institutions and observe, interview, talk, and/or take pictures. Afterwards, let them write a comparison report or prepare a presentation.

Conduct a SWOT (structured analysis, as shown below) on the education system of Pakistan. After analysis, have Student Teachers write reports focusing on how other countries' experiences and practices might be used to improve the education situation in Pakistan.

SWOT = Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats (Comparison)

	Weaknesses What is the weakness of the national education system? Which area in the education system is more important to be improved?
Opportunities What trends and conditions may positively influence the education system of Pakistan? What opportunities are available for further development and improvement?	

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Student Reading: Comparative analysis of teacher education programmes



Iqbal, M. (2011). Comparative analysis of teacher education programs at Pakistan and UK. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 21(2), 227. Retrieved from:

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Abstract

It was an exploratory study that analytically compared pre-service teacher education programs in Pakistan and UK, to explore similarities and differences and their comparative adequacy to identify gaps for learning lessons. Randomly chosen 138 staff members of 8 schools: 4 at Bradford, UK, with PGCE and 2–5 years of experience and 4 at Peshawar, Pakistan with a B. Ed degree and same length of experience constituted the sample. 92 were interacted with survey questionnaires and 46 were interviewed personally by the scholar at Bradford and Peshawar. The resemblances and dissimilarities were explored, and the level of performance and satisfaction of the graduates was ascertained. On the basis of results, review of B. Ed course has been suggested to make it less examination oriented and more process focused through practical, reflective, interactive and evaluative activities at the college and placement schools.

1. Introduction

The importance of education is well recognized as a powerful catalyst for socio economic developments and welfare of the societies, which as planned by philosophers and development professionals, can see the face of reality, only if these aspirations are merged in the educational process by teachers. In fact the key player in every educational system is the teacher, the backbone and a pivot around which the whole system revolves. This superb role is the result of teachers' professional standing: a direct outcome of their education, thus linking up standards of education greatly with standards of teacher education. Ascertaining their efficacy asks for objective analysis in the national and global perspectives, as no country can afford to live in isolation. Many scholars throughout the world have propounded that, in order to survive successfully in the global community, and to bring the indigenous teacher education practices closer to the international standards, it is pertinent to critically analyze the local prevailing teacher education programs and to compare these with well delivering systems of the world. This study made an attempt in the same direction. It is a bitter fact that teachers in the developing countries, like Pakistan, do not enjoy the status to commensurate with their role and teaching often fails to attract brilliant students which puts great responsibility on teacher educators to comprehensively educate all those who pledge to teach, as per national and international standards.

In Pakistan, due to persistent focus on quantitative expansion necessitated by substantial raises in population, the qualitative dimension of teacher education had remained overshadowed, resulting in passing out of scores of teachers with inadequate grip both over the content and methodologies. This situation is prevalent in all provinces but Khyber Pakhtoonkhwa, particularly Peshawar has experienced even greater

deficiencies, due to added load of millions of Afghan refugees since 1979, huge influx of IDPs (Internally displaced persons) owing to strong wave of terrorism affecting education sector the most, unprecedented floods that had ruined the normal life adding to the magnitude and diversity of demand for more schools and better teachers.

1.1. Why compare Pakistan with the UK?

England has been taken as a role model with very high literacy and participation rates and enviable academic standards. The present system of education in Pakistan is a legacy of the British colonial rule, and the levels of education, medium of instruction at higher levels, systems of examinations and supervision and the titles of degrees are still unchanged. Teacher education systems also retain same fundamental structures of pre independence time, making it convenient to compare and analyze. Pakistan is a federal territory with considerable provincial autonomy in its four provinces: Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab, Sindh, and Balochistan, and the UK is a union of four countries: England, Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland, with sufficient devolved powers. Teacher education is the responsibility of each province at Pakistan and of each country at UK. Both popular routes of teacher education for primary and secondary schools, PGCE at England, and B.Ed in Pakistan take one year in duration, are offered to graduates or post graduates, for acquiring pedagogical skills. Bradford has been sampled, as a large number of students and teachers hail from Pakistan, with a sizable proportion from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. These commonalities and other diversities had promoted interest and convenience for comparison at the sampled cities.

1.2. Dimensions of comparison

The key aspects of comparison were the prerequisite level of general education; the adequacy of duration, theory, and practice balance; and preparation ability of pedagogical skills for efficiency and effectiveness of teaching.

2. Literature review

The significant impact of teacher education on student performance had been established through quite a few studies. Farrant, J. (1990) argued, “The key to the quality of every formal system of education rests squarely on the quality of the teachers who operate the system. That is why teacher education is vital.” Darling, H. (2000) gave evidence that “Fully prepared and certified teachers were better rated and more successful at performance of students than teachers without this preparation”. Furlong and Maynard (1995) observed, “Teaching by nature is complex and requires proper education for the acquisition of a wide range of skills”. Imig and Imig (2007), in a study highlighting the far-reaching impacts of teacher education, stated, “There is almost a universal quest for better teacher quality, and with it, exists a demand for higher quality teacher education”. Sheikh and Rasool (1998) stated “Teacher education is not only teaching teacher to teach, it is to kindle his/her initiative, to keep it alive, to minimize the evils of the ‘hit and miss’ process; and to save time, energy, money and trouble of teacher and the taught.” Gumbert, B. E. (1994) claimed, “The success of reform movements in several countries had proven to have strong links with effective quality of teacher education and with their quality, status and working conditions.”

Sodhi (1993) highlighted that the educational system of a country grows out of its historical background, economic social and political conditions, geographical features, and no country can totally adopt the educational patterns of another country as such.

But lessons can be learnt, and successful practices can be adopted to meet the needs of that country. At present with fast progression in ICT; distances have shrunk and similarities caused by science and ICT are overpowering the cultural diversities, facilitating learning from each other's experiences to save time, energy and resources required for the 'try and learn' activities. Edmund J. King (1989) commented that the degree of backwardness or advancement of systems can be ascertained only through analytical comparisons. Bereday (1990) stated, "Comparative education promotes benefiting from similarities and differences among educational systems. It catalogues educational methods of each country as one variant of the total store of mankind's educational experience and, the like and contrasting colours of the world perspective make each country a potential beneficiary of the lessons thus received."

Yogesh and Nath (2008) elaborated that the philosophy of teacher education starts with the problem of trainee entrants initially but concerns itself with their expected roles, their educative process, expected professional standing, and with the processes of activities encompassing the two major disciplines, pedagogy and psychology along with the development of the personalities of the prospective teachers. Farrant J. (1990) recommended reorganization to make time in schools the focus of teacher education, and to make university courses more coherent, relevant and useful by integrating the subjects with school and classroom culture. Brian C. (2007) also recommended, "Pre-service teacher education would improve if there were more school based experiences of longer duration offered to student teachers, being educated for their future roles, with a balanced blend of theory and practice". Zeichner and Gore (1990), Wasely (1991), and Fullan (1993) through their researches and exploratory studies investigated similar issues about teacher education and had deduced that teachers learn to teach by being socialized in schools, communities and education system in which they work. Even very good philosophies and college interactions are conceptualized and comprehended not by sitting in the class but by practicing at schools. The survey conducted by Bale and McPartland (2006) about Geography students in the UK undertaking PGCE, indicated that many students in under graduate courses had not covered all topics which they were expected to be competent with and teacher education programs do not cover the subject deficiencies, so it had lead to passing out of teachers with inadequate subject grip, and thus recommending subject content courses for such deficiencies.

S. A. Siddiqui (1990), discussing problems and developments of teacher education in Pakistan, observed that teacher education could not make remarkable progress due to a lack of conviction by high ranking policy makers about its significance; non professional heads of institutions of teacher education, who lacked commitment with teacher; gap of demand and supply due to exaggerated figures about teacher requirements, hazy targets for universalization of primary education; theoretical teacher education and acute shortage of qualified teachers, especially female teachers in rural areas of Pakistan. As per observation of Westbrook J. (2009) "research on the effectiveness of teacher education and the relationship between training and actual classroom practice, particularly at Peshawar, Pakistan stands to be very limited, even though it appears to be highly pertinent to sustained improvement of educational quality". It is with in this context that the study has been carried out.

3. Statement of the problem

The study explored the effectiveness of the prevalent teacher education programs at Peshawar, Pakistan, and compared with those being practiced at Bradford, UK, to find out their current status, similarities, diversities, and effectiveness. The comparison was based on data collected at the sources from the graduate teachers with an experience of two to five years ending 2009, to identify gaps in teacher education in Peshawar-based institutions of Pakistan, and Bradford-based institutions of England, UK, for implementable solutions.

4. Delimitation of the study

The study was delimited in scope to the pre-service teacher education programs namely B.Ed at Peshawar, and PGCE at Bradford, conducted at Colleges and Universities of Peshawar and Bradford, and judged through the graduates with 2–5 years of experience at schools of Peshawar and Bradford.

5. Questions of the study

The following key questions were examined in the study:

What are the similarities and differences in teacher education programs at Peshawar and Bradford?

Is the pre service teacher education program being run in Bradford, more adequate, balanced and practical than the one being implemented at Peshawar?

Are teachers graduating from teacher education colleges at Bradford more well equipped for teaching to meet their professional responsibilities in a better and befitting way?

What is the impact of both teacher education programs on ground realities in terms of their effectiveness?

What are the gaps in the system of teacher education at Peshawar and Bradford? How could those identified gaps be addressed for implementable solutions?

6. Methodology and tools of the study

It was a descriptive study that explored and compared the sampled programs (B. Ed and PGCE) of the two countries to identify their strengths and weaknesses for effective service delivery and to assess their utility on ground. The instruments utilized for data collection included two survey questionnaires, modified as per pilot study results. These had both closed- and open-ended items and incorporated the Likert scale, to assess the degree of agreement with provided options. Interviews as a primary source of qualitative information for interacting personally both at Pakistan and UK were also conducted. Secondary sources of data included research studies, books, websites and journals, reviews of strategic documents, Institutional syllabi and reports of multinational agencies operating in both the countries.

7. Population and sample of the study

All teachers with a B. Ed degree at Peshawar and with professional qualification of PGCE at Bradford were the population of this study in general. But specifically 404

personnel including teachers, assistant teachers, principals, heads, deputy heads and coordinators of four selected schools situated at Peshawar and four at Bradford formed the population of this study. Randomly chosen 138 staff members with a B.Ed degree at Peshawar, PGCE at Bradford and with 2–5 years of experience formed the sample. Four schools at Bradford included Frizinghall Primary School, Green Lane Primary School, Feversham College for Girls, and Thornton Grammar School for Boys and Girls. Four schools of Peshawar included Qurtuba School and College for Girls and Boys, LIMS School for Boys and Girls, Government Boys Secondary School and Government Girls Primary School. An effort was made to select teachers with a varied subject specialty, to make the sample broad based and to keep the size of the sample fairly large for reliability and fair representative. The overall sample was 34 % of the total population, with teachers 31 % and administrators 56 % of the population of this cadre.

8. Results and discussion

- 1) When the data of the two sets of reasons for selecting teaching profession were compared, dominance of the influence of society, family, parents and religion appeared very prominent at Peshawar to the extent of 58%; but at Bradford a negligible percentage chose teaching due to cultural and family influence. From the responses of teachers about duration-adequacy of programs, it was found out that teachers at Peshawar unanimously termed it as inadequate to meet their needs, due to long theoretical courses, passive interactions at college, too many subjects to study and very little practice at schools. But teachers at UK by a sweeping majority termed the duration as very adequate, and appreciated the blend of theory with practice, but some termed it as too hectic and demanding.
- 2) The compulsory subjects for B.Ed were Perspectives of Education and Contemporary issues; Educational Psychology, Guidance and Counseling; Curriculum and Instruction; Islamiat and Islamic Ethics; Evaluation Techniques; and Functional English. As regards elective subjects all of them had studied one of the subjects from a group of four, including Foundations of Education; Modern Approaches to Teaching; Educational Planning and Management; or Comparative Education, along with Methods of Teaching two subjects of their choice, according to their subject specialty. The subjects that respondents at Bradford had studied included Teaching Methods of English, Mathematics, ICT and Science, Classroom Management, Educational Psychology, Child Psychology, Behaviour Management, Assessment Techniques, Meeting Individual Needs, Meeting Special Needs, Art and Design, National Curriculum, Planning and Pedagogy Skills, Professional Attributes of teachers, General School Teaching, English Literature, Post-Colonial Literature and African-American literature. When the number of subjects were compared both had quite a few to study in one year, but when nature of the subjects was considered it was noticed that those at Peshawar by nature were more theoretical and general, as compared to those being studied at Bradford which were more practical and specific.
- 3) Responses to most useful elements of B. Ed at Peshawar revealed that all those methods were termed useful which involved active participation of students in the teaching learning process. Had those been discussions, question answer sessions use of audio visual aids, modern approaches or teaching practice at schools. Teaching Methods were rated the highest, and assessment and evaluation techniques followed the preferences from the usefulness standpoint.

Responding to the query as which elements of PGCE proved to be helpful and useful while teaching at schools, the respondents identified school placements to the extent of 54% as most useful, and 17% felt that each and every element of the program was useful. About 9% declared reflective exercises at college and 8% found planning for individual needs and practicing National Curriculum as beneficial, whereas 5% of the sample found project work and practical activities as most useful elements of PGCE program.

- 4) The components of B. Ed that were identified as non-relevant included theoretical syllabus and exams, too advance philosophies, all references of European literature and researches, rote learning, teaching methods for ideal class rooms, and very teacher centered lectures. Teachers surveyed and interviewed at Bradford considered over focused classroom displays in ICT; over ambitious course targets in the given time frame, too basic ICT training; too elaborate History of Education; Dyslexia studies never been used in class; some too general lectures without giving specific guidance; and writing of very long essays as quite non relevant.
- 5) When the two teacher education programs were compared from the parameter of 'satisfaction' as per adequacy of the programs in meeting the job demands, or job preparedness ability, as reflected in this figure, 72% of the surveyed professionals at Bradford and 10% at Peshawar reported to be greatly satisfied. 20% of respondents at Bradford and 60% at Peshawar were reported to be partially satisfied; but 8% at Bradford and 30% at Peshawar exhibited great dissatisfaction.

9. Conclusions

The two programs had quite a few similarities and differences:

I. Similarities

The two programs were found to be very alike from the perspectives of level of popularity, course duration, admission pre requisites and for being a mix of theory and practice. Both B. Ed at Peshawar and PGCE at Bradford were found to be the most sought after teacher education programs without any doubt. The overall duration of both the programs was one year in total. Both were conducted at post graduate levels and acquired for learning pedagogical skills. The aspiring candidates were required to hold a Masters or Bachelor's degree with adequate subject mastery, a good character certificate or an assurance of not being convicted in any misconduct or legal offence, a domicile/nationality certificate and a detailed marks certificate/DMC, reflecting the candidate's academic standing. A physical fitness or medical certificate was also an essential precondition, and candidates with some relevant teaching experience in schools were given preference. Both programs were a blend of theoretical interaction at college and practical activities at the nearby schools.

II. Differences

The comparative study of relevant documents, results of survey and interviews revealed much dissimilarity in the two sampled programs. Main differences were noticed from the perspective of factors affecting selection of teaching as a profession, route flexibility, financial allocation, duration adequacy, key subjects studied, nature of activities, theory versus practice, main weaknesses and effectiveness of programs as perceived by school administrators.

i) Factors affecting selection of teaching profession

When the two sets of factors were compared and analyzed it was noticed that the teachers at Bradford had more solid and professional reasons motivating them to be

teachers, whereas reasons at Peshawar were more emotional, sociological and a bit theoretical by nature.

ii) Route flexibility

There were very many routes to do PGC and different ways to do ITT (Initial Teacher Training) courses, providing great flexibility and multiple opportunities to every keen aspiring teacher. With limited seats and tough competition best candidates were selected. Whereas, no multiple routes were available for B. Ed except for doing it regularly or privately, with only one pre set criteria for admission, but with many institutions in the public and private sector many get admitted.

iii) Means/end

PGCE at Bradford was a route or means to the end of attaining QTS (Qualified Teacher's Status) and entailed passing of QTS Skills test in Literacy, Numeracy and ICT; but B. Ed was both a means and an end in itself. B. Ed degree qualified every person as a trained teacher, and the concept of attaining of QTS status and obligatory teaching of one year as NQT did not exist at Pakistan.

iv) Financial allocation

At Pakistan only 2.3% of GNP and at UK about 5.3% of GNP was being spent on education. For teacher education allocations had been inadequate in every Annual and Five Year Plan in Pakistan, but the capacity to utilize the earmarked funds could not be developed throughout; and spending had been far lesser than the less allocations.

v) Duration adequacy

A big majority (88%) of the respondents at Peshawar considered the duration of B.Ed program to be highly inadequate with reference to meeting their needs, after the study of a wide variety of subjects and very extensive, highly theoretical courses studied therein. Time at schools was found to be too short. that the duration was only nine months. On the other hand a sweeping majority, 95% of the respondents, at Bradford found the length of the PGCE program very adequate, and was quite satisfied with the overall duration.

vi) Study of key subjects

A big majority of the respondents at Pakistan felt that they were made to study far too many subjects that were very abstract, theoretical, quite outdated and not of much help during their work at schools. But a vast majority of the teachers at Bradford appreciated the subjects taught at the College and found those to be very relative and facilitative in meeting the demands put on them at school.

vii) Nature of activities of the programs

As per respondents most of the activities in B. Ed classes had an excessive theoretical tilt and examinations used as main yardstick for assessing students' performance level. The interactions revolved around passive listening to lectures, notes taking, with limited classroom participation negligible analysis and nil reflection. Activities at Bradford College were reported to be pretty participative by nature, included critical analyses of different pieces of literature, provision of analytical and evaluative feedback about microteaching, reflecting upon different hypothetical incidents, interactive lectures, and seminars with no formal examination, other than skills' tests.

viii) Main weaknesses of programs

The main identified weaknesses of B.Ed at Peshawar included abstract curriculum, traditional teaching methods and theoretical examinations promoting rote learning; inadequate and unstructured practice at schools; crowded classes; financial constraints for AV aids; very little practical work; no reflective, evaluative, and outdoor activities; lack of political will; and political instability. At Bradford the identified weaknesses of PGCE included a lot of paper work, highly demanding program with meeting 33 standards in a short duration inhibiting thorough grip of concepts and inadequate support available inside the classrooms of school placements.

ix) Teaching practice

Teaching Practice at Peshawar was much shorter (12% of total time) and less structured as compared to that at Bradford (50% of total time) which was quite rigorous and systematic. The role of school mentors at Bradford during school placements was much substantial and contributive for which they were trained and guided by the College, but this attention was not available to school staff at Peshawar.

Preparation of Professional journal / dossier to exhibit evidence to meet thirty three required standards for QTS promoted a lot of reflection, evaluation and introspection in trainees of Bradford.

x) Program effectiveness as perceived by school administrators

Administrators interviewed at Peshawar found teachers with B. Ed better than untrained ones, but they were reported to possess a lot of theoretical knowledge with inadequate grip over practical skills, and were very weak at linking theory with practice. Administrators at Bradford were fairly satisfied with the abilities of the PGCE graduates, but were very apprehensive about their ability to take full teaching load. They felt that less teaching load during two school placements was unable to prepare them for handling multiple lessons daily. Some considered PGCE more mechanical and less creative. Though, some appreciated the free time slot available for reflection, and evaluation for QTS standards.

10. Suggestions/implications

In the light of the results B Ed course at Peshawar needs to be reviewed to make it more practical, interactive, learner-supportive and less examination-oriented. Teaching learning process should be improved to incorporate reflective, introspective and evaluative activities for better grip of concepts for effective delivery as reported by respondents of UK. Time at schools needs to be increased, made more structured, and guidance rendering. School staff requires to be trained for playing a supportive, mentoring role and experienced school staff need to be involved at college in the policy making session about teaching practice. Spending on improvement of teacher-education programs must be increased facilitating better emoluments and incentives to better performing teachers in order to attract brighter candidates for B. Ed. At Bradford excessive paper work, some over theoretical components and desired support by the mentors inside the classrooms can be looked into.

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Comparative education research: Who, what, and why?

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Slide 1

Comparative Education

A field constructed by:

- Intellectual traditions (courses, books, journals)
- Institutional traditions (departments, societies)

Shaped by geopolitics, historical shifts, power plays

(Manzon, 2011)

Slide 2

A brief history

- Travellers' tales (early 19th Century)
- Borrowing good practices (mid 19th Century onwards)
- Encyclopaedic studies (late 19th Century)
- Understanding forces and factors (early 20th Century)
- Social sciences quantitative analysis (mid 20th Century)
- Intranational comparisons (1990s-)
- Multilevel & multidisciplinary analyses (21st Century)

Bereday (1964), Noah & Eckstein (1969), Crossley & Jarvis (2000), Bray (2007)

Slide 3

Units of analysis

- locations
- systems
- policies
- times
- cultures
- values, conflict resolution & citizenship
- educational achievements, international indicators & student performance
- curricula
- educational organisations, governance & accountability

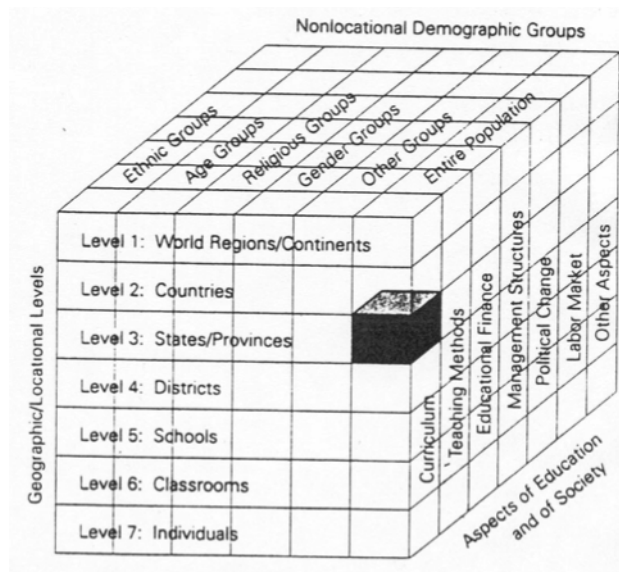
Slide 3 (continued)

Units of analysis (continued)

- ways of knowing & learning
- ways of teaching
- economics of education
- assessment
- teacher education & professionalism
- ideologies, goals & purposes of education
- social equity and access to education
- language in education

Slide 4

Bray & Thomas (1995) Cube



Slide 5

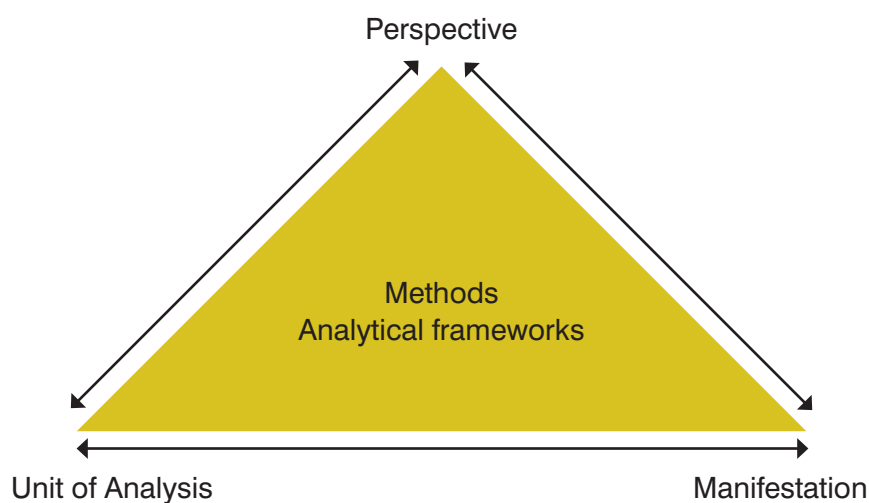
Who compares? And why?

- **Students** to select electives
- **Parents** to find institutions that will meet their children's needs most effectively
- **Principles and teachers** to improve the operation of their institution
- **Policy makers** to find ways to achieve social, political and other objectives in their own settings
- **International agencies** to improve the advice they give to national governments
- **Academics** to improve understandings of educational processes and impacts of processes on social development

(Bray 2007; Adamson & Morris, 2007)

Slide 6

How can we compare?



Slide 7

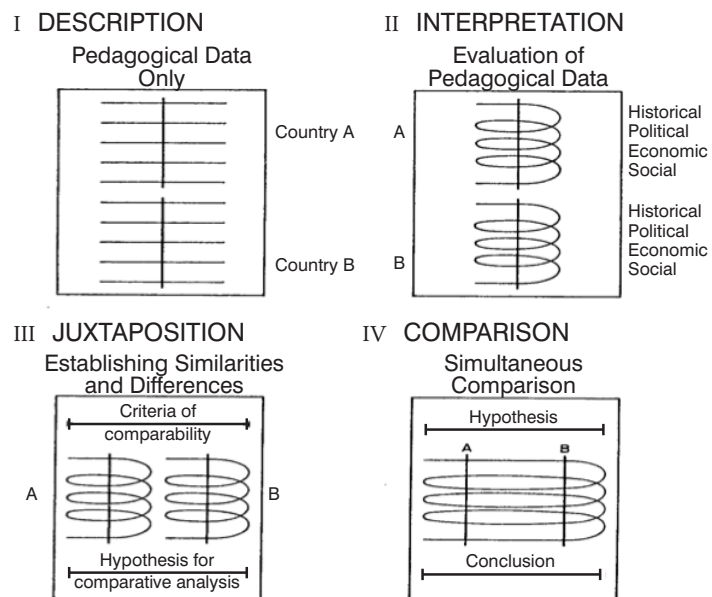
How can we compare?

Research perspective:

- Investigative
- Evaluative
- Interpretative
- Critical
- Developmental/action-based

Slide 8

Bereday's Model



Course manual: Comparative education



This manual was prepared by Emmy H. Mbozi for the African Virtual University. It was designed for self-study in distance-learning programmes but is a rich resource of readings, references and learning activities that can be adapted for face-to-face instruction with a class of Student Teachers.

The full manual is available at:

➤ <http://oer.avu.org/bitstream/handle/123456789/69/Comparative%20Education.pdf>



An uneasy relationship: The history of teacher education in the university

13 October 2006

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For better and for worse, teacher education in the United States has come to be offered primarily within the institutional setting of the university. In many ways, this came about by historical accident. In the nineteenth century, teacher education, if it took place at all, occurred in a variety of organizational settings, until the state normal school emerged in the last quarter of the century as the emergent (if not yet predominant) model. In the early twentieth century, however, this model went through a rapid evolution, from normal school to state teachers college to general-purpose state college to regional state university. Since the 1970s, teacher education has been a wholly owned subsidiary of the university.

Ironically, although teacher education was a latecomer to the university in the U.S., it was at the core of the original form of the university that emerged in medieval Europe. Early in this institution's history, an advanced liberal arts education was primarily intended to prepare teachers. The university was then constituted as a craft guild for teachers, whose highest degrees (the master's and doctorate) were badges of admission to the status of master teacher and whose oral examinations were tests of the candidate's teaching ability (Shulman, 1986; Durkheim, 1938/1969). But over the years teacher education was gradually pushed from the center to the periphery of higher education, which is where it was found in the early nineteenth century when American teacher education started its long march back.

In this chapter I examine the history of teacher education in the U.S. for insight into the situation facing teacher education today. As it turns out, the relationship between the university and teacher education has been an uneasy one for both parties. There has been persistent ambivalence on both sides. Each needs the other in significant ways, but each risks something important by being tied to the other. The university offers status and academic credibility, and teacher education offers students and social utility. But in maintaining this marriage of convenience, the university risks undermining its academic standing, and teacher education risks undermining its professional mission. I explore some of the central issues that surround this awkward relationship: the centrality of teacher education's status problem in shaping its relationship with the university; the roots of this problem, both in the market pressures that shaped teacher education's history and in the problems of practice that shaped its professional role; the status politics that shaped the situation of teacher

education within the university; and the differences in the relationship between TE and university that come with the latter's location in the university status order.

The History

Teaching existed long before teacher education.¹ In the years preceding the emergence of the normal school in the mid nineteenth century and continuing afterward, prospective teachers in the U.S. followed many routes into the classroom. In general, the assumption was that anyone who had completed a given level of education could turn around and teach it. Teachers needed no special preparation in the art of teaching; they just needed modest familiarity with the subject matter they would teach. This lack of formal training in pedagogy was not unique to teaching. Before the twentieth century, most professionals did not learn their craft by enrolling in a program of professional education but rather by pursuing an apprenticeship with an experienced practitioner. What was distinctive about the preparation of teachers, however, was that it involved neither formal instruction nor informal apprenticeship. Instead, the rule was simply: take the class, teach the class.

Early Forms of Teaching and Teacher Education

In early nineteenth century America, education took place in a wide variety of settings: home, where children acquired basic literacy and numeracy skills; church, where children learned via sermons, study groups, and Sunday schools; a variety of lyceums and public lectures; apprenticeships, which required the master artisan to provide some general education as well as trade craft; dame schools, in which students learned elementary skills in the home of a neighbor; private tutors; private schools relying on tuition; free schools for paupers operated by the local municipality; public schools in New England towns; academies, providing secondary education; and colleges, operating preparatory departments. The setting determined the identity of the teacher, who could be any of a number of persons: a parent, a preacher, a master craftsman, an association leader, an adult in the neighborhood, an itinerant tutor, a private contractor, a town official, a corporate employee, or a college professor.

The arrival of the common school in the 1830s initiated a process of simplifying this complex structure of education and making it look more like the system we have today. The emerging model was the community elementary school, operated by local public officials and supplemented over time by a grammar school and a high school. In this new structure, teachers were public employees, appointed by a school board acting as the agent for the community. The criteria for hiring teachers varied. Perhaps the most important characteristic was the ability to maintain order among the students (Sedlak, 1989). It also helped if the candidate was local and needed the work. As for educational qualifications: at the very least, you needed to have completed the level at which you would be teaching. As standards increased over time, the educational requirement became completion of the level above that. Grammar school graduates thus were viewed as prospective elementary teachers, and high school graduates as grammar school teachers. College students often taught in the summer, and college graduates frequently taught for a while until something better came along.

With the development of the common school system, however, came the first effort to establish a system of formal preparation of teachers for these schools.

¹ This section draws from Labaree, 2004, chapter 2.

Leaders of the common school movements, like James Carter, Horace Mann, and Henry Barnard, were also strong advocates for teacher education. One innovation that became prominent during the middle of the century was the summer teacher institute, which was a set of lectures and classes aimed at developing the skills of teachers in both pedagogy and subject matter. These institutes constituted a form of on-the-job training for teachers, the first formal effort to provide teachers with professional development opportunities. They typically took place during the summer, over a period ranging from one to eight weeks, usually organized by the county school superintendent or a group of school districts (Mattingly, 1975).

The Normal School

The major teacher education initiative that came out of the common school movement, however, was the state normal school. One reason for this was the sharp increase in the demand for teachers that arose with the adoption of the common school model. In place of the vast array of mechanisms for providing instruction that marked education at the start of the nineteenth century, the common school system established a single standard model, the publicly operated community school. The process of creating these schools all over the country produced an enormous and continuing shortage of teachers who could be employed to occupy the new classrooms. The normal school was to be the primary means of providing these teachers. However, the common school movement generated not only a demand for teachers but also a demand for higher teacher qualifications. When education shifted from an ad hoc and voluntaristic mode of delivery to a systematic and publicly sponsored form, teaching became a kind of public trust, which required systematic training and professional certification for teachers in order to insure that they were capable of meeting their new public responsibility for educating the nation's children. As their name suggested, normal schools were expected to set the standard – the norm – for good teaching.

Normal schools took a variety of forms. Major cities set up their own normal schools, or normal departments within the high school, in order to train teachers for the local system. Often counties established normal schools to feed into their own school districts. But the most prominent and ultimately most influential form was the state normal school, the first of which opened in Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839. The state normal school, which started out at the level of a high school, was a single-purpose professional school for future teachers. In order to accomplish this end, the curriculum had to be a mix of liberal arts courses, to give prospective teachers the grounding in subject matter they had not received in their earlier education, and professional courses, to give them a grounding in the arts of teaching. Initially the course of study lasted for one or two years.

In the eyes of reformers like Mann, the primary aim of the state normal school was to prepare a group of well educated and professionally skilled teachers who could serve

as the model for public school teachers throughout the country. Here is the way Cyrus Pierce, the founder of the Lexington normal school, put it in a letter to Henry Barnard:

I answer briefly, that it was my aim, and it would be my aim again, to make better teachers, and especially, better teachers for our common schools; so that those primary seminaries, on which so many depend for their education, might answer, in a higher degree, the end of their institution. Yes, to make better teachers; teachers who would understand, and do their business better; teachers who should know more of the nature of children, of youthful developments, more of the subject to be taught, and more of the true methods of teaching; who would teach more philosophically, more in harmony with the natural development of the young mind, with a truer regard to the order and connection in which the different branches of knowledge should be presented to it, and, of course, more successfully. (Borrowman, 1965, p. 65)

This was a noble professional mission for the normal school; one can hear echoes of it in the debates about today's university-based schools of education. But it directly conflicted with the other main purpose of the normal school, which was to fill empty classrooms with much-needed teachers. It is hard to see how the normal school could have satisfied both of these aims at the same time. From the very beginning, it was caught in a classic bind between quality and quantity. It could provide a few model teachers with a high degree of professional training; or it could provide the large number of teachers needed for the expanding common school system by skimping on professional preparation. It could be professionally strong but functionally marginal, leaving the vast majority of teachers to reach the classroom with less rigorous training; or it could be professionally weak and functionally central, turning out large numbers of graduates with minimal preparation.

It should surprise no one that normal school leaders ended up choosing relevance over rigor. Doing otherwise would have been difficult. To preserve academic rigor would have meant opting for professional purism over social need; it would have meant leaving mass teacher preparation to less qualified providers; and it would have meant depriving their institutions of the funding, power, and opportunities for expansion that would come with making themselves useful. As I examine in more detail later, this same debate about the role of teacher education continues today. Schools of education at elite universities generally have opted for rigor over relevance, with boutique teacher education programs that provide academically credible preparation for a small and highly selective group of students. But schools of education at regional state universities – the heirs of the normal schools, which reside at the bottom of the university status order – have opted for programs that mass produce teachers to fill the continuing demand in schools. This tension between rigor and relevance, it seems, is endemic to teacher education, and criticisms customarily descend on the heads of education schools for erring in both directions. A recent report by Arthur Levine (2006), *Educating School Teachers*, is only the latest in a long line of polemics that lambaste the university school of education for being both academically weak and professionally irrelevant.²

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2 Chapter headings in the report tell the story of an institution failing in both dimensions: The Pursuit of Irrelevance; Inadequate Preparation; A Curriculum in Disarray; A Disconnected Faculty; Low Admission Standards; Insufficient Quality Control; Disparities in Institutional Quality (Levine, 2006). Earlier attacks in this genre include: *The Miseducation of American Teachers* (Koerner, 1963); *Ed School Follies* (Kramer, 1991); and *Tomorrow's Schools of Education* (Holmes Group, 1995).

Under these conditions, the number of state normal schools grew rapidly. After their start in 1839, they grew to 39 in 1870, 103 in 1890, and 180 in 1910 (Ogren, 2005, pp. 1-2). Enrollments at public normal schools (which included a few city and county normals) grew from about 26,000 in 1879-80 to 68,000 in 1899-1900 and 111,000 in 1909-10 (Ogren, 2005, Table 2.1, p. 58). This rapid increase had the effect of dramatically lowering both the status of these institutions and the quality of their programs, a point I develop later. Even though they were running hard to catch up with the demand for teachers, by the end of the century normal schools still had not been able to do so. As David Tyack has pointed out, "By 1898 the number of public normal schools had reached 127, with about the same number of private ones. But all the normal schools together graduated no more than one-quarter of the new teachers." (Tyack, 1967, p. 415)

The Evolution of the Normal School into the Regional State University

At the same time that normal schools were under pressure to meet the demand from school districts for more teachers, they were also experiencing another kind of demand, this coming from their own students. If the first kind of pressure sought to turn normal schools into teacher factories, the second sought to turn them into people's colleges.

From the perspective of their students, normal schools were more than just a way to become a teacher. They were also a way to acquire a local, affordable, and accessible form of higher education. Private colleges were expensive. State universities were almost as expensive, they were usually far away, and gaining admission was not easy. But normal schools were less expensive; they were located at geographically accessible points around the state, allowing students to commute and thus keep down living costs; and admission was easy. The only problem was that normal schools focused entirely on preparing students for a single occupation, teaching. But on this point, it turns out, the normal school was prepared to be flexible. It really had no choice.

Like American higher education in general, both then and now, state normal schools were dependent on student tuition. They received appropriations from state government, but these funds were only adequate to support a portion of the costs of educating students. The rest had to come from tuition. With money comes power. In order to survive and prosper, normal schools needed to keep attracting student tuition dollars, which meant competing with other higher education providers in their market area to offer students the kinds of educational services they wanted. What these consumers wanted was not a single, narrowly-defined program for preparing teachers, but instead an array of programs that offered broad access to a variety of possible jobs. They did not want a normal school; they wanted an open-access liberal arts college. Adapting to this consumer demand was mandatory for the normal schools; if they failed to do so, students would go to competitor institutions that had already made the adjustment. And adapting to this demand was also relatively easy. In order to provide prospective teachers with the subject matter knowledge they needed, normal schools already had a group of professors who were teaching history, English, math, science, and the rest of the core liberal arts curriculum, in addition to courses in pedagogy. It was thus a simple matter for normal schools to supplement their core teacher education program with a series of programs of study that drew on these liberal arts courses. And that is what they did.

In his book *And Sadly Teach*, Jurgen Herbst (1989) describes in detail the process by which normal schools gradually abandoned their commitment to professional education and allowed themselves to be lured into mimicking the liberal arts college. For proponents of high quality professional education for teachers, this is not a pretty story. But for those who see education as an important way to allow individuals to get ahead in society, it is a heartening tale of expanding educational opportunity and social mobility.³ As was the case when normal schools expanded to meet the demand from school districts for more teachers, they were just doing what people wanted them to do. The market spoke – first employers, then consumers – and normal schools responded. Depending on one’s point of view, this response may or may not be admirable, but it is certainly understandable.

The evolution of the normal school into a people’s college helps explain the rapid expansion and proliferation of these institutions in the late nineteenth century. It also helps explain why this expansion was insufficient to meet the demand for teachers, since an increasing share of the normal school student body was there to pursue other professional goals. But the process by which the normal school adapted to consumer pressure from students did not stop with the development of a multipurpose institution. If students wanted the normal school to be a local, inexpensive, and accessible form of a liberal arts college, then it made no sense to stop with the addition of a few new programs. After all, the normal school was still more high school than college, so it could not provide the kind of social mobility opportunities that a real college could. Students wanted college status for the normal school, and so did its faculty members and administrators, all of whom would benefit from being able to ride this institution to a higher level in the educational system. The same was true of members of the community surrounding the normal school, local legislators, and also communities that were hoping to open new such institutions in their own areas.

Given the array of constituencies supporting this elevation, it was inevitable that by the start of the twentieth century state legislatures would begin transforming normal schools into teachers colleges, and between 1911 and 1930 there were 88 such conversions (Tyack, 1967, p. 417). With this change, the former normal schools could grant bachelor’s degrees, giving heft and credibility to all their programs. But the process did not end there. These teachers colleges had already diversified their programs, turning themselves into de facto liberal arts colleges, with teacher education playing a smaller role in the curriculum every year. So it made sense to recognize this fact, remove the word “teachers” from their letterhead, and change to a more generally recognized and marketable label, “state college.” This started happening in the 1920s, and by the 1950s the last of the normal schools were formally disappearing from the scene. Finally, this process of institutional evolution reached its culmination in the 1950s, 60s, and 70s, when one after another of these former normal schools took the last step by seeking and winning the title “university.” In the century-long race to adopt the most attractive institutional identity, being a college was no longer good enough; only becoming a university would do. The large majority of the old normal schools followed this route – from normal school to teachers college to state college to state university – with only minor variations in labeling and timing.

³ For other accounts of this process, see Altenbaugh and Underwood, 1990; Eisenmann, 1990; and Labaree 2004.

For example:

State Normal School, Albany, NY, 1844; State Normal College, 1890; State College for Teachers, 1914; State University College of Education, 1959; State University College, 1961; State University of New York at Albany, 1962.

State Normal School, Millersville, PA, 1859; State Teachers College, 1927; State College, 1959; Millersville University of Pennsylvania, 1983.

State Normal School, Mankato, MN, 1868; State Teachers College, 1921; State College, 1957; State University, 1975; now Minnesota State University, Mankato.

Northern State Normal School, De Kalb, IL, 1899; Northern State Teachers College, 1921; Northern State College, 1955; Northern State University, 1957.

State Normal School, Montclair, NJ, 1908; State Teachers College, 1929; State College, 1958; Montclair State University, 1994. (Ogren, 2005, appendix)

An Alternate Route: Education in Elite Universities

There was another route that brought teacher education into the university, this one much more direct though much less common. In the late nineteenth century, universities started adding chairs in pedagogy or education. These were flagship state universities and private universities, which were destined to occupy the top tier in the emerging hierarchy of higher education in the twentieth century (with the former normal schools, now regional state universities, occupying the lower tier). Historians generally give University of Iowa credit for establishing the first permanent professorship in pedagogy in 1873 (Tyack, 1967, p. 415; Clifford & Guthrie, 1988, p. 62), but University of Michigan claims this honor for itself with a chair established in 1879 (University of Michigan, 2005). Others quickly followed: Columbia (Teachers College) in 1887; Chicago, Stanford, and Harvard in 1891; Berkeley in 1892; and Ohio State in 1895 (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988, pp. 62-63). Education began at these institutions as individual professorships and then quickly evolved into departments and finally schools or colleges of education. The latter stage arrived at Ohio State and Iowa in 1907, Berkeley in 1913, Stanford in 1917, Harvard in 1920, and Michigan in 1921 (Clifford & Guthrie, 1988, p.64).

These education schools saw themselves playing a markedly different role from the one assumed by normal schools (Powell, 1976). Whereas the latter focused on meeting the central needs of an expanding education system, by preparing a large number of teachers for the elementary schools, university education professors focused on the preparation of a much smaller number of high school teachers and school administrators and on the production of educational research. Not by accident, the large majority of these university education students were men, whereas most normal school students were women. This sharp divergence in mission laid the groundwork for the continuing dichotomy in education roles that characterizes the contemporary university, with education schools at former normal schools going one way and those at elite universities going another. I will have more to say about that issue later in the chapter.

Converging on a Canonical Model

By the 1960s, through the diverse processes I have outlined here, teacher education in United States had stumbled upon a model of organization that quickly became canonical. Teacher education, it turned out, was going to be carried out within a university, under the leadership of professors in a school or college of education located there. By this time, the former normal schools had evolved into universities, and once they achieved this status they naturally imitated the structure of existing universities by setting up education schools and then assigning them the work that had once constituted the normal school's entire mission, preparing teachers.

In allowing itself to become incorporated within the university, teacher education was just following in the path of the other more prestigious professions. As I noted earlier, until the late nineteenth century the primary route into all of the professions was apprenticeship (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997). A prospect would work out an arrangement with an experienced practitioner: to learn by doing, in the manner of an apprentice carpenter or shoemaker; and to study the books in the practitioner's library. The traditional high professions – clergy, law, and medicine – have had a place in university faculties from medieval times to the present, but only the pinnacle of the practitioners in these professions studied there; the large majority had always followed the route of apprenticeship. By the 18th and 19th centuries, colleges and universities were providing the liberal component of the education of the high professions, but apprenticeship was still the means of acquiring the skills of professional practice. Gradually, individual practitioners started specializing in professional preparation, gathering groups of apprentices together into what amounted to proprietary professional schools. Then, in the last quarter of the nineteenth century, universities started establishing formal professional schools that incorporated both academic study and guided practice, and this spelled the beginning of the end of independent professional preparation.

The university was emerging as a powerful new form of American higher education during this period (Veysey, 1965). As Clark Kerr (2001) has noted, it combined the British college, which focused on undergraduate education, with the German graduate school, which focused on advanced studies and research, and then added the American land grant college, which focused on practical-vocational education. In this setting, professional schools were a natural addition, drawing on the German and American elements to produce a graduate school for practice. And the growing prestige of the new university made it attractive for prospective practitioners to start seeking professional education there instead of through apprenticeship. By 1900, more than 10 percent of doctors, lawyers, clergymen, and college professors had received training at a university professional school (Brubacher & Rudy, 1997, p. 383). Abraham Flexner's 1910 report on medical education set off a cascade of demands for reform of professional education more generally, seeking to improve the quality of this preparation by reinforcing the connection with the research university. Soon it became difficult and eventually unthinkable for professional schools in any major field to exist on their own. Only schools for training practitioners of the lesser trades – like cosmetology and truck driving – could survive independently. For teacher education, as with other programs of professional preparation, there was really nowhere else to go but the university.

Teacher Education and the University: The Nature of the Relationship

This is how teacher education ended up in the university. Now we need to explore the kind of home it found there: the nature of the relationship between the education school and the larger institution, and the consequences of this arrangement for both parties. In particular, I focus on the kind of exchange that has been involved in maintaining this relationship. As I suggested at the beginning, the university provides status and academic credibility for its part of the bargain, and in return teacher education provides students and social utility. Below I explore the terms of this exchange: the roots of teacher education's status problem, the programmatic and professional consequences of using university status to remedy this problem, and the significant differences in the nature of the bargain with education at elite universities vs. regional state universities (the former normal schools).

Education's Status Problem

Teacher education has long suffered from low status.⁴ Everyone picks on it: professors, reformers, policymakers, and teachers; right wing think tanks and left wing think tanks; even the professors, students, and graduates of teacher education programs themselves. In part this status problem is a legacy of the market pressures that shaped the history of the normal school; in part it is a side effect of the bad company that teacher education is seen as keeping; and in part it is a result of the kind of work that teachers and teacher educators do. Let us consider each of these in turn.

Legacy of Market Pressures: At the core of teacher education's status problem are the market pressures that shaped the history of the normal school. One kind of market pressure came from employer demand. There was a seemingly endless call for warm bodies to fill the ever expanding number of classrooms in a school system that was increasing in size both horizontally (incorporating the entire age cohort) and vertically (extending the school career from elementary school to grammar school to high school). Normal schools expanded to meet this demand, and in doing so they necessarily relaxed professional standards for teacher preparation. This meant making teacher education easy to enter, short in duration, modest in academic rigor, and inexpensive to maintain. The normals were being asked to turn out large numbers of teachers at low cost and with minimal qualifications, and they did so. But, of course, being accommodating in this manner sharply lowered their institutional status. And this stigma has stuck with teacher education as it migrated into the university, where it has retained the reputation for being an academically weak program produced on the cheap for students of modest intellect.

Another kind of market pressure on teacher education came from consumer demand. Students entering the normal school wanted a credential that would open a much wider array of occupational doors than a simple teaching degree, and the normal school obliged by expanding programs and evolving into a college and then university. In the process of doing so, however, the normal school had to abandon its focus on the professional preparation of teachers. Teacher preparation became increasingly marginal within the expanding college and university context. No longer the centerpiece of the institution as it was in the normal school, education was now just one school among many; and the responsibility for teacher education itself became diffused across the

⁴ This section draws from Labaree, 2004, chapters 2 and 3.

entire university. Prospective teachers acquired general education and knowledge of the school subjects they would teach in departments elsewhere on campus, leaving the education school with responsibility only for courses in pedagogy. Thus the evolution into a university meant that the normal school lost both its professional mission and its control over the education of teachers. This left the university education school with a function that seemed vestigial. It looked like the “real” education of teachers in academic subject matter took place elsewhere, whereas the education school seemed responsible only for the vocational side of things – teaching lesson planning and classroom management, and supervising student teachers. In the status hierarchy of the university, which values the academic over the vocational and the theoretical over the practical, this put education on the lowest tier.

Bad Company: Another source of teacher education’s low esteem is the apparently bad company it keeps. Teacher education serves stigmatized populations, as defined by gender, class, and age. This is a problem, since professions derive much of their esteem from the quality of their associations. For one thing, the emergence of the common school movement quickly turned teaching from men’s work into women’s work. In part this change was ideological, grounded in a vision that nurturing the young was best handled by women. In part it was practical, grounded in the need for vast numbers of teachers, and the understanding that women were willing to work at half the pay demanded by men. Becoming defined as women’s work has never helped the status of an occupation.

In addition, teaching was not an exclusive profession but more like a mass occupation. As such it drew a large number of practitioners from the working class and lower middle class, whereas the more esteemed professions drew aspirants from the higher classes. At the same time – unlike the prestigious professions, whose clients were among the more elevated members of society – public school teaching expended its efforts on behalf of a clientele of students who were concentrated at the lower parts of the social spectrum. As the most accessible of the professions serving the least advantaged members of society, teachers – and the programs for preparing them – carry a stigma of class.

Finally, there is the issue of age. If professionals earn part of their status from the status of their clients, then teaching’s focus on children works against it since adult clients carry more cachet. Doctors, lawyers, accountants, and architects deal primarily with adults; even if a doctor has a child as a patient, the clients are the parents. The rungs in the status ladder of teaching correspond to the age of the student, with professors in graduate programs at the top and early childhood educators at the bottom. Elementary teachers are just a rung above the latter and high school teachers a rung above that.

The Nature of the Work: A third factor in the low status of teacher education is the nature of the work that teachers do. Teaching is an extraordinarily difficult job that looks easy, which is a devastating combination for its professional standing and for the standing of its professional educators. Why is teaching so difficult? One reason is that teaching cannot succeed without the compliance of the student. Most professions can carry out their work independent of the client; surgeons operate on the anesthetized and lawyers defend the mute. But teachers can only accomplish their goals if students are willing to learn. They exert their efforts to motivate student compliance in the task of learning,

but they cannot on their own make learning happen. Compounding this problem is the fact that students are generally in the classroom under duress. Pressure from parents, truancy laws, and the job market bring them and keep them there. But unlike the clients of most professionals, they are not contracting with the teacher to deliver services that they themselves want. Add to this another complication, which is that teachers usually carry out their practice under conditions of isolation, in a self-contained classroom where they are the only professional and only adult in the room. Finally, teachers have to function in a situation in which they lack a proven technology that works, a clear definition of success, or even a definite fix on the identity of the client (who can be construed simultaneously as the student, the parent, and the community).

Teaching is therefore a very difficult form of professional practice, which makes teacher preparation equally difficult. Complicating this challenge, however, is the general perception that teaching is actually easy. As Dan Lortie (1975) has explained and generations of teacher educators continually rediscover, one reason for this perception is that teaching is extraordinarily visible. We all undergo a 12 year apprenticeship of observation in the elementary and secondary classroom, watching teachers on the job. Compared to our knowledge about other professions, whose work we encounter only occasionally and whose workings we see only obliquely, we think we really know what teaching is all about: maintaining order, asking questions, grading tests, assigning work. As a result, prospective teachers think they know how to teach before entering teacher education programs, which allows little authority or esteem for these programs. In addition, teaching appears to be a natural skill rather than one that one needs to learn through a rigorous program of professional education. We think of it as something that individuals either have or they do not have: a way with kids, a confident and forceful personality. Whatever it is, no one can really learn it in a teacher education program. Finally, teaching is a rare profession in which practitioners succeed by making themselves dispensable. Most professions rent their expertise, which requires clients to return every time they need help. But teachers give away their expertise, by showing children how to learn on their own. This makes the skills of the teacher seem transparent and ordinary, whereas the skills of other professionals seem obscure and remote. If teaching is this difficult and if it appears this easy and commonplace, there is really little need for, and no special esteem associated with, the work of preparing teachers.

In light of all these factors, teacher education's status problem is understandable. It bears the legacy of a historical evolution that undermined its commitment to professionalism and marginalized it within a university setting where it is given little respect; it lacks the high status associations that enhance the prestige of the major professions; and it is stuck with problems of professional practice that are overwhelmingly difficult but that earn it little public credit. Under these circumstances, the advantages for teacher education in migrating from the normal school to the university seem compelling, as compelling as the advantages that lured European peasants to Ellis Island. In status terms, there seemed to be everything to gain and nothing to lose.

The Exchange: Its Costs and Benefits

Benefits to Education: Teacher education desperately needed a status boost, and the university had status to spare. So to incorporate the former into the latter seemed to provide the answer to teacher education's big problem. By making this move, normal

school teachers became university professors, teacher candidates became university students, and education schools assumed a proud place alongside law schools and medical schools. Teachers would now enter the profession with the blessing of the most potent credentialing institution of the modern era.

Not only would this connection with the university grant teacher education the status it craved; it would also imbue this program of professional preparation with the academic credibility it had so sorely lacked in the days of the normal school and teachers college. By the twentieth century, the university had a monopoly on the highest levels of learning. It was the place that brought together the top experts in their fields, who generated the most important forms of new knowledge, and who taught this knowledge to the leaders of the next generation. Being there meant that education school faculty members were now anointed the experts in their domain, who could be trusted to develop the knowledge base for the whole field of education and then imbue this knowledge into the newly emerging members of the teaching profession.

Benefits to the University: Bringing teacher education into the university offered great benefits to the education, but what was in it for the university? One benefit was that teacher education brought with it a large number of students. Like the rest of American higher education, the university has long been heavily dependent on tuition to pay the bills. This is most obviously the case with private institutions, but it holds for public institutions as well. State appropriations pay only part of the cost of running a public university, so student tuition is crucial for its ability to maintain itself and to expand. And state appropriations themselves are usually prorated according to the number of students. So no university can afford to ignore a large pool of potential students who could contribute to the institution's greater welfare. Teacher education offers such a pool. Teaching is by far the largest of the professions, so the demand for teachers, and thus for teacher education programs, is substantial and enduring. Even today, after a long period during which the number of students enrolling in higher education has expanded much faster than the number of openings for new teachers, teaching still employs about 15 percent of all college graduates every year. That is a market that is too big to pass up.

What makes teacher education so attractive to universities, however, is not only the numbers of students it brings but their low cost. Universities have long treated teacher education as what has come to be known as a "cash cow." In these programs, if one is not too punctilious about maintaining high professional standards, an education school can generate a nice profit for the rest of the university. This is possible if the school keeps class sizes large and faculty salaries low, and if it dispenses with the need for the kinds of expensive laboratories and extensive libraries and intimate seminars that drive up the costs in more prestigious programs.

Of course greater numbers of students, by themselves, are not necessarily beneficial for a university, even if the costs are low. Elite universities are careful to limit access in order to maintain exclusivity and thus drive up the exchange value of their credentials. Opening the doors to a flood of education students, especially if this means lowering academic standards, would be counterproductive to this strategy. But even in this elite sector of higher education, teacher education has its advantages. For one thing, it provides support for a number of large academic departments, whose graduate

programs offer prestige to the university but whose undergraduate programs are often unattractive to potential majors. Programs in English and history and music and art, for example, benefit greatly by being able to offer potential majors the possibility that they could actually make a living in this field by teaching the subject at the secondary level. For these departments, it is critical to have a viable and sizeable teacher education program on campus.

For the university more generally, teacher education helps out with another related problem: relevance. Prestige accrues to a university for having the most advanced graduate programs and generating the most esoteric research. But public support for the university depends on being able to make a claim for its public usefulness. Legislators and voters want to know what benefits the state gains through its support of the university. One of these benefits is providing access to higher education for the state's young people, which means that the university cannot take the pursuit of exclusivity too far. It pays to have some open access programs for ordinary folk, programs like teacher education that have traditionally provided easy entry into higher education. Another public benefit the university can claim is that through education it makes a contribution to solve pressing social problems in the state. The work of education school faculty members can support this claim, both as researchers exploring educational problems and as teacher educators preparing teachers for the state's schools.

This analysis points back to Clark Kerr's insight about the kind of balance that is so critical to the American university. This institution needs to combine the British focus on the undergraduate college (providing a basic college education for a large number of tuition paying students), the German focus on research and advanced graduate study (providing the advanced knowledge and highly selective graduate programs that are so critical to university status), and the American focus on vocational-professional education and practical problem solving. Teacher education thus helps the university with the first and third components of this triad, by providing a large number of undergraduates and a strong practical-vocational rationale, both which serve to support (both financially and politically) the other component, those prestigious and costly graduate programs. What makes the university work is striking the right balance between the elite on the one hand and the populist and the practical on the other, and teacher education is key to achieving this balance.

Costs to Education: The primary price that teacher education pays for its affiliation with the university is the potential loss of its professional mission. This is the Faustian bargain identified by critics of the university school of education like Herbst (1989) and Clifford & Guthrie (1988), in which the education school accepts university status in exchange for its professional soul. As we have seen, this bargain took form early in the history of the normal school – when normal schools agreed to expand beyond their ability to preserve high quality professional programs, and when they adapted to consumer pressure by increasing academic programs and marginalizing teacher education. By the time normal schools became universities in the mid twentieth century, the terms of the deal were already in place. The last stage in this evolutionary path simply formalized the situation, making education just one school among many and assigning it a supporting role in the larger university enterprise (to provide low cost students and a practical rationale).

Costs to the University: The most significant potential cost of this bargain for the university is that incorporating teacher education can undercut its own academic credibility and thus institutional status. The university in general has unassailable standing in the American educational scene. But individual universities operate in an extraordinarily competitive environment, in which they must constantly attend to the possible loss of their position in the academic hierarchy. This is a main theme of Jerome Karabel's book on the history of admissions at Harvard, Yale, and Princeton in the twentieth century (Karabel, 2005). All three institutions were running scared during this entire period. They were afraid of being pushed aside by one of their longstanding competitors (like the other ivies) or by an upstart (like Stanford or NYU). Universities look like they have status to burn, but the market in higher education means that they have to worry constantly about losing position to their peers. This means that they cannot afford to preserve academically weak programs, even if these programs offer great ancillary benefits. Therefore teacher education is on the radar of every university administrator. As a weak program with benefits, it is useful to have around as long as it is not embarrassing; but its position in the university is never completely secure. As we will see next, however, this is particularly the case with universities at the top of the pecking order.

Different Bargains at the Top and Bottom of the University Status Order

As we have seen, university schools of education came about through two different mechanisms – evolution into a university, from normal school to teachers college to state college to state university (the route followed by Millersville, Mankato, and Montclair), and evolution within a university, from chair to department to school of education (the route followed by Harvard, Michigan, and Berkeley). These differences in origin have carried over to the present as differences in orientation.⁵

Education schools at regional state universities, many of which evolved from normal schools, focus primarily on the preparation of future teachers and the professional development of current teachers, and they maintain close connections with the profession and the schools; they devote little time to doctoral study or research. Their identity is clear: they are professional schools. As a result, in general they tend to be professionally strong but academically weak. On the other hand, education schools at top-ranked universities focus primarily on doctoral programs and research; they spend relatively little time preparing teachers or maintaining ties to the profession and the schools. Their identity is more academic than professional, since they construct themselves more as graduate schools of educational studies than schools of teacher education. As a result, in general they tend to be academically strong but professionally weak. Overall, education schools tend toward one pole or the other in these terms, with relatively few occupying the middle ground.

These two types of education schools present strengths and weaknesses that are mirror images of each other. In theory, therefore, both would seem to be at risk of appearing misplaced at the university, each in its own way. Education schools at the regional state universities make a clear case for their inclusion in the university on professional grounds (they are unquestionably professional schools of education), but their weakness in research and advanced degree programs calls into question their suitability on academic grounds. Conversely, those at elite universities make a clear

⁵ This section draws from Labaree, 2004, chapter 6.

case for their inclusion in the university on academic grounds (they devote nearly all their energies to enhancing their scholarly credibility); but their weakness in teacher education and in connections with schools calls into question their suitability on professional grounds.

In practice, however, only one of these types of education schools is truly at risk of being drummed out of the university, and that, ironically, is the education school at the pinnacle. Consider recent history. Education schools were eliminated at Yale and Johns Hopkins in the 1950s, Duke in the 80s, and Chicago in the 90s. This almost happened at Berkeley in the 80s, at the same time that there were scares at Michigan and Stanford. Meanwhile education schools at regional state universities have remained unthreatened.

The reason for this striking difference in viability is in the differences in the bargain struck between the education school and the university at the opposite ends of the status ladder. At the low end, education schools bring the expected benefits to the university: a large number of low-cost students (regional state universities produce the large majority of the country's teachers) and a strong reputation for relevance to community concerns. The modest academic reputation of these schools is not a problem, since universities at this level have only a modest academic reputation themselves. These universities therefore have less status to lose by including education; like education, they justify their programs more on practical than academic grounds. At the same time, these education schools have less status to gain from the exchange. This means that, unlike their counterparts at the other end of the scale, they are not under compulsion to emphasize the academic at the expense of the professional. They do not feel the same need to sell out their professional mission in order to maintain academic credibility.

At the high end of the spectrum, education schools occupy shakier ground. Such a conclusion seems odd, at first glance, since these are the education schools with the strongest publication records, the biggest research grants, the most successful doctoral programs (measured by size, selectivity of admissions, and placement of graduates), and the top rankings in *U.S. News and World Report*. Life is good at such institutions – until the ax falls. The problem is that, compared with their counterparts at the former normal schools, they are in a situation where the university has more status to lose from its association with education and the education school has more status to gain from this arrangement. This means that these education schools have a very powerful incentive to abandon their professional mission in order to establish the highest possible level of academic credibility.

Consider the situation of today's elite education schools in the years after World War II, when established research universities were desperately seeking to distinguish themselves from the lower tier of colleges and universities, which were rapidly expanding in response to the G.I. Bill. They did so by visibly increasing academic standards. In part this meant identifying weak programs and telling them to become more academic or risk elimination, which made both education and business schools obvious targets on these campuses. Both types of schools ended up adopting the same basic strategy for responding to this pressure: they abandoned undergraduate programs of professional preparation, refocused their instructional efforts at the graduate level, drew heavily on academic disciplines, and started churning out a lot of

research. This strategy was markedly successful for both: the universities found these reconstructed schools worthy of inclusion academically, and most of these education and business schools are now at the top of their respective fields.

But this strategy had its down side. Education schools on these elite campuses had established strong academic credibility, as requested, but they had done so at the expense of their identities as professional schools. Business schools managed to avoid this problem through the invention of the Masters in Business Administration, which they turned into a high status program for the professional preparation of business leaders and made the keystone of the new business school, thereby reinforcing its connection with the profession. There has been no parallel program in elite education schools, which have focused instructionally on a variety of doctoral programs while maintaining boutique programs in teacher education. As a result, these schools have come to face another threat from the university. They may be academically strong, but they can also appear professionally irrelevant. They do serious research on education, applying the disciplines of sociology, psychology, anthropology, political science, history, philosophy, statistics, linguistics, and so on. But research universities already have separate departments in each of these areas, where scholars have the high academic standing that comes with full disciplinary credibility. So administrators can easily ask: Why do we have an education school to carry out disciplinary work in education, when we have the real thing elsewhere on campus? If the school of education is not a professional school, then why do we need one? If it is neither disciplinary nor professional, it has no rationale for existence as a separate school in a research university.

Therefore, a number of these elite education schools disappeared in the last 50 years, and others escaped after a close call. Many of the survivors have learned a lesson from this experience, which is that life at the top of the rankings requires a delicate balance between the academic and professional. These education schools need to be academically strong, while at the same time maintaining a modest but credible professional profile. Watching what happened to institutions that failed to heed this lesson, deans at many top education schools have worked carefully in the last 20 years to move their institutions one or two steps in the direction of the professional without threatening their academic credibility. This has meant shoring up connections with local schools, modestly increasing the education of teachers and administrators, and augmenting master's programs for practitioners.

Conclusions

Starting in independent professional schools 150 years ago, teacher education in the United States ended up in universities. This was not the result of a plan to enhance the quality of professional education for teachers. Instead, it was a side effect of the growing dominance of the university over all matters educational, which meant that teacher education, like other professional domains, had no other place to go. Education gained access to the inner sanctum of higher learning on terms that were not of its own making and that have been often problematic for its professional mission. In the terms of this bargain between the two parties, teacher education has ceded control over its professional programs, cooperated in undermining the professional quality of these programs, and allowed these programs to become marginalized within a university setting that grants them little respect. In return it has been allowed to bask in the glow of the university's high status.

The effects on professional education, however, have varied according to the university's location in the academic hierarchy. At the low end, the modest status benefits of affiliation with regional state universities have permitted education schools to maintain a relatively strong professional identity, although often at the expense of both academic and professional quality. The resulting accommodation has shown remarkable stability over time. But the same cannot be said about the situation of teacher education at the high end. Leading research universities have exerted strong pressures on education schools to pursue academic credibility at the expense of professional mission, while at the same time requiring them to maintain sufficient professional identity to differentiate themselves from the disciplines. This accommodation has been more unstable.

Education schools at these institutions find it difficult to strike the right balance of the academic and professional, since the terms of that balance vary according to time and place, and the consequences of erring too far in either direction can be fatal.

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Methods and strategies to use during this course

The following is a list of some of the strategies that can be used for teaching and learning during this course.

Active lecturing: An active lecture is not too different from any good lecture, but it attempts to involve listeners directly. There is no single best way to give an active lecture, but it includes the following:

Give information in small chunks (about 10 minutes), and then have students do something with the information for 1–3 minutes. You can use the same activity after each chunk of information is given or you can vary them. Examples of activities are:

- Write a 1-minute reaction to what you have just heard.
- Talk to the person next to you about what you heard versus what they heard. Do you agree? Do you have questions?
- List as many key points as you can remember.

Compare notes taken during the 10-minute chunk. Help each other fill in gaps or determine if crucial information is missing. (Some people do not allow note-taking during the lecture, but this is up to the Instructor.)

Another way to give an active lecture is as follows: hand out three colours of cards or slips of paper. When people are listening to your comments, have them hold up a different colour for:

- I understand
- I don't understand
- I disagree

Then either stop and allow questions or adjust what you are saying so there are more 'understand' colours showing. This is particularly effective with large groups of 50 or more people.

Ambassadors: This is a useful way to get groups or individuals to exchange information. Two or more members move from one group to another to share and compare the group discussions, or you may wish to have half the group exchange with another group. This is especially useful if you do not have ample time for a full class discussion.

Brainstorming: This is a technique for getting creative ideas on a topic. It may be an individual activity or be organized as a group activity. Give people a limited amount of time (e.g. a minute) to say or write down as many ideas as they can on a topic. No matter how unrelated an idea seems, write it down. (Alternatively, ask the whole class to brainstorm and write down all ideas on the class board.) After the brief period of brainstorming, ideas may then be analysed, organized, or critiqued. Brainstorming is often used as a problem-solving technique. Ideas are analysed in light of how useful they might be in solving the problem.

Gallery walk: This is a strategy that borrows its name from a visit to the art gallery. Students walk through an exhibit of posters, artefacts, or display items they have completed. They may or may not be directed to take notes. The idea is to thoughtfully look at what is displayed.

Group work: There is no single best way to form groups. The best way for you is the way that suits your purpose. Use a more complicated strategy if students need a break or need to be energized. Use a simple technique if time is short. Some group-forming methods are as follows:

- Ask people to count from one to five (depending on the number of people you want in a group). Appoint all the ones to go to one table (or area of the room), all the twos to a different area, and so forth, until the whole class is divided into groups.
- Before class, determine how many people you want in a group or how many groups you need. Use different-coloured stickers, stars, or dots. Put one on each student as they enter class. When it is time to form a group, ask students to find people with the same sticker and sit together.
- Put different-coloured bits of paper in a cup or jar on each table. Have people take one and find other people in the room with the same colour to form a group.
- Have students get together with everybody born in the same month as they were.

Make adjustments to the groups as needed.

KWL (Know-Want-Learn): KWL is a strategy that provides a structure for recalling what students know about a topic, noting what they want to know, and finally, listing what has already been learned and is yet to be learned. The strategy allows students to take an inventory of what they already know and what they want to know. Students can create a chart on paper or the Instructor can draw one on a board, making sure to have three columns, with the headings K, W, and L. Students can categorize information on the topic that they expect to use as they progress through a lesson or unit.

Mini-lecture: A mini-lecture contains all the components of a good lecture, and is sharply focused. It begins with an introduction that provides an overview of what you will discuss. It makes one or more sharply focused points, with an illustration of each. It summarizes only the main point or points and then concludes.

Minute paper: Ask people to write for a minute on a particular topic (it might be their reflections or you might assign a specific subject). They are to focus on writing down their ideas, rather than on proper grammar and spelling. A minute paper differs from brainstorming because there is more focus.

Pair-share: Use this technique when you want two people to work together to share ideas or accomplish a task. Simply ask people to work with someone next to them, or you can have them find a partner using some other criteria. It is very useful when you want people to quickly exchange ideas without disrupting the flow of the class. (Sharing in triads or foursomes is another small-group technique.)

Poster session: This is a useful way to have students organize their thinking on a topic and present it to others in a quick but focused way. Have individuals or small groups work to create a poster to explain or describe something. For example, if they have been doing an inquiry on a particular topic, they would want to include their focus, methods, and outcomes along with colourful illustrations or photographs. The poster can be self-explanatory or students can use it to explain their work. As an in-class tool, a poster session is often combined with a gallery walk so that students visit a number of posters in a short period of time.

Roundtable technique: The class is divided into small groups (four to six) with one person appointed as the recorder. A question is posed that may have many answers, and students are given time to think about those answers. Afterwards, members of the team share responses with one another round-robin or roundtable style. The recorder writes down the answers of the group members. The person next to the recorder starts, and each person in the group (in order) gives an answer until time is called.

Text-against-text: This is a way of helping students learn to analyse and compare written documents. The idea is to look at two documents and search for overlap, confirmation, or disagreement. It is a way of looking at different perspectives. Sometimes it is useful to give students readings prior to class and ask them to compare the readings, following a set of study questions. For example:

- 1) Look at each author separately. What do you think the author's main point is?
- 2) How does the author support the argument?
- 3) Look at the authors together. In what ways do they agree?
- 4) What are their points of disagreement?
- 5) What is your opinion on the issue?

Text-against-text may be used to compare a new reading (or a set of information) with a reading or information students have already read and discussed in another unit or earlier in the unit. In classrooms where the whole class uses a single textbook, facilitators often find they are teaching against what is in the textbook. Sometimes it is hard for students to accept that a textbook can and should be questioned. Putting together a text-against-text activity, using the textbook and an article or a set of articles to read instead of the text, can help them understand that there may be legitimate differences of opinion on a subject.

Another way to use the activity is to put a set of materials at each table or with each group of students. Some university faculty like to put together text sets that include both scholarly and non-scholarly works and have students think about differences. For example, you might provide all students – regardless of their reading level or learning style – with a 'way in' to thinking about a topic by using some materials that are easy to read. Even competent adult learners seek out easy books or materials to learn about a new or complex topic. Providing a picture, newspaper article, and children's book in a text set might give everyone a means of connecting to or understanding some aspect of the larger subject. Articles need not contradict each other. They may be about the same topic, but offer students different ways of seeing a subject.

Using quizzes or pop tests

Short quiz (15 minutes)

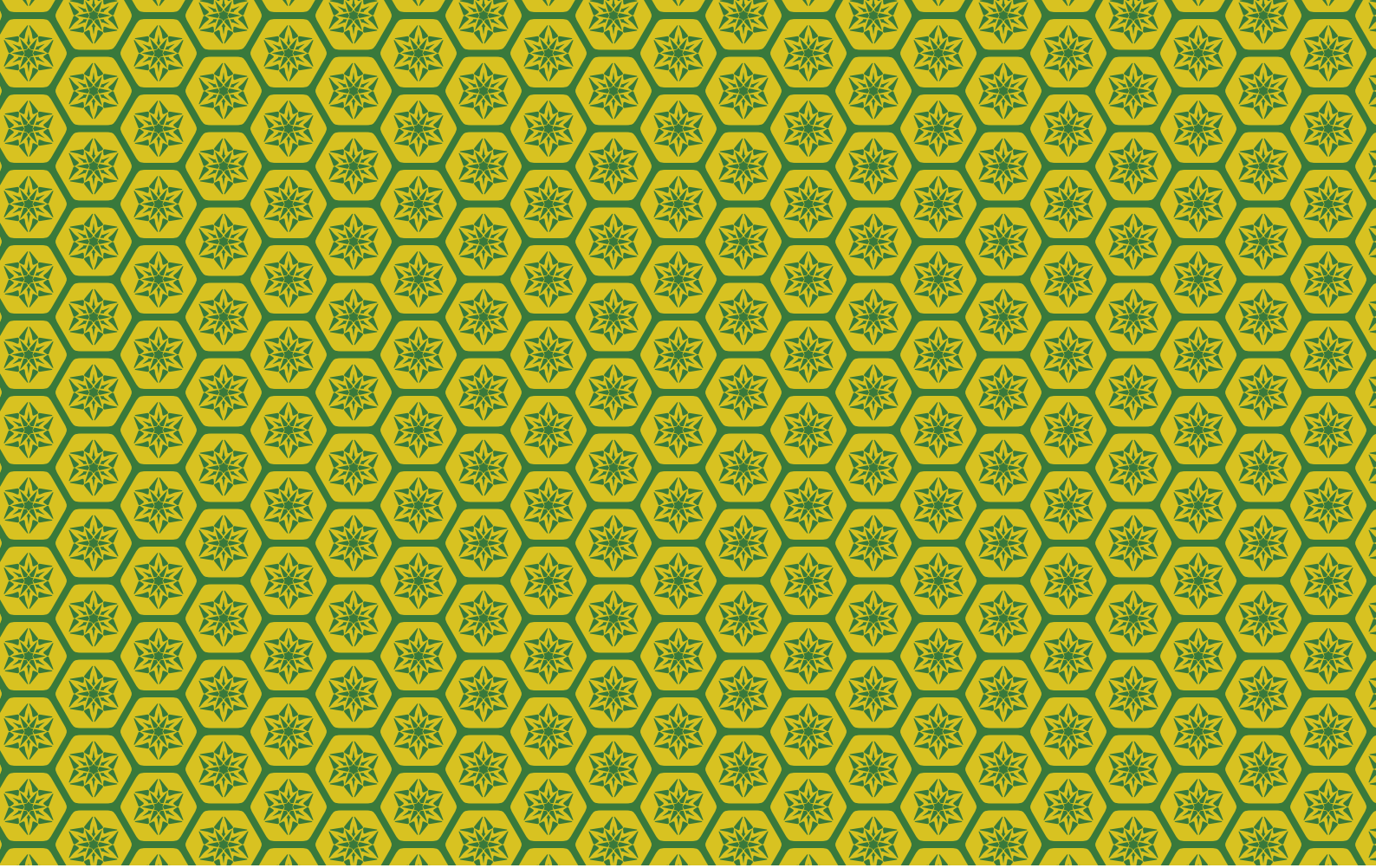
- Prepare and give a short quiz on the different aspects of comparative education covered in the unit.
- Have students take the quiz and then circle items about which they are unsure.

Triads share (10 minutes)

Have students meet in groups of three to go over items about which they are uncertain.

Review (30 minutes)

- Go over the quiz with students, having them look at their own work and make corrections.
- Notice points they had difficulty remembering and take time to review them. You may ask students to assist with this, sharing how they were able to remember certain points.
- This is a time to correct any misconceptions.
- Have students save their quiz for future study.



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