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Professionalism in a Governance Perspective

The governance of teacher education and teacher profession in a global perspective

Introduction

The development of higher education has been remarkable in the last 50 years. Higher education has become a mass education close connected to the development of the welfare state and the need for a more qualified and specialized workforce.

The teacher profession is in this context atypical because teacher education in most countries was established much earlier and normally interlinked to the compulsory school system. Both the compulsory school system and teacher education were a result of governance.

Teacher education and the compulsory school are traditionally regarded as a national issue. The purpose of schooling is to provide the nation with a qualified workforce, but also to bring to new generations the cultural heritage, language and to strengthen national identity. Increasing global competition intensify the tension between the dual aims of education. This makes teacher education reforms ideologically and politically more important than before (Hargreaves 1994).

Analytical models

Even though the new educational reforms and rhetoric the last decade have a national mission and agenda, the reforms are imbedded in an increasing globalization. Therefore, governance of teacher education has to be analysed as an interactive process between different level.

Macro level

Micro level

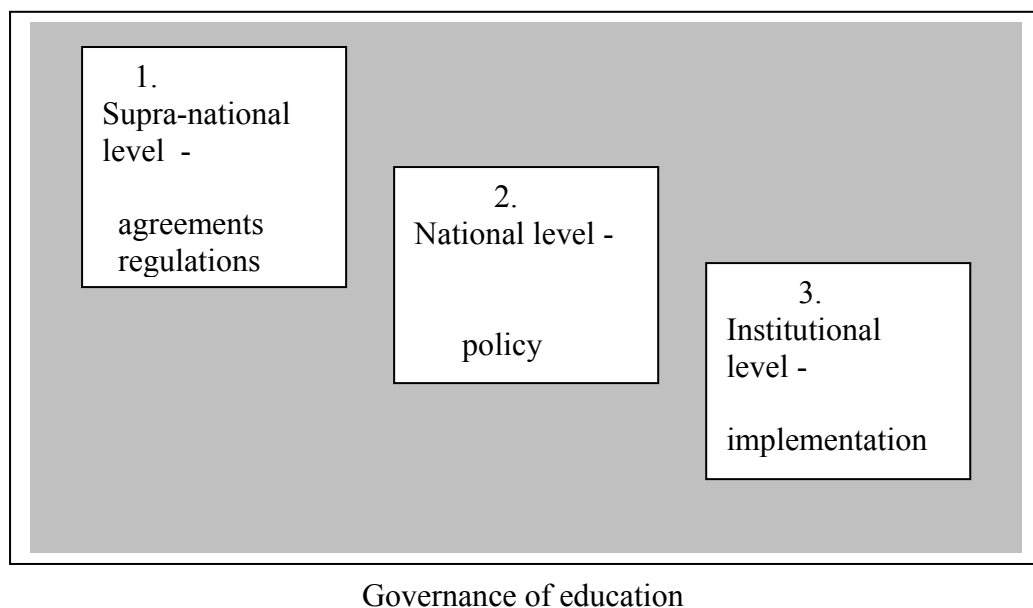


Fig 1 Levels in governance of teacher education

The model (fig 1) shows the three levels involved in the study of governance of teacher education. The model (fig 2) shows the interrelations of forces and actors between supra-national and national level. (The model is inspired by work of Rokkan (1987), Daun (1998) and Dale (2000), but further developed).

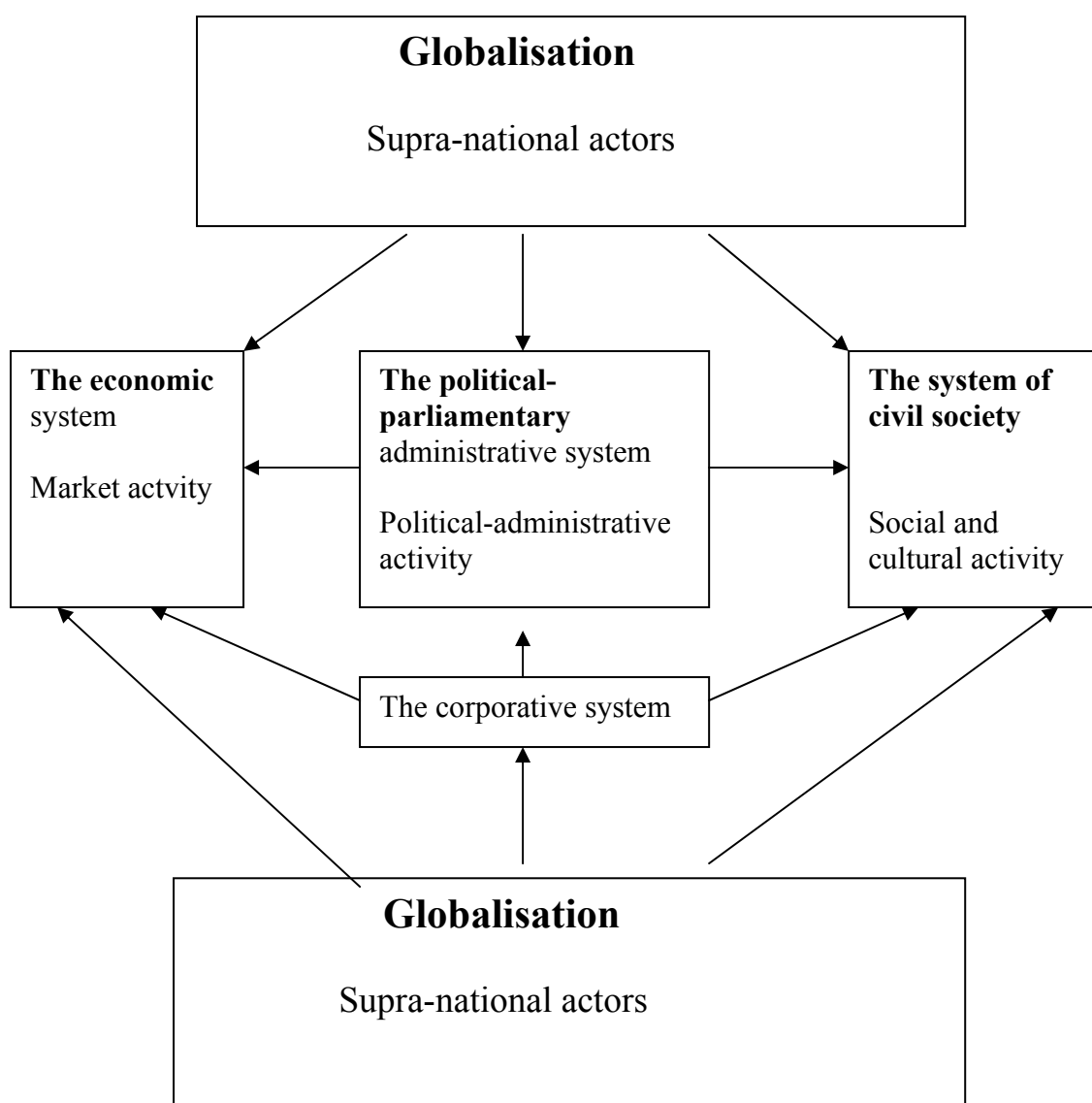


Fig. 2 Governance of teacher education: The interrelation of forces and actors.

Globalisation has led to a flood of influences environmentally, politically, socially and culturally which are almost impossible to protect oneself against (Martin & Schumann 1996). Some of these areas open possibilities for economic advance and prosperity, environmental cooperation, development of democracy, social and cultural enrichment, but also greater economic difference, extreme commercialisation, a depleted environment, increasing democracy deficit, dispersion of diseases, cultural littering, and direct criminal activities. A main hypothesis is that we are pressed towards standardisation.

There seems to be considerable agreement among researchers that at the core of globalisation lies the new market economy with its market-capitalism and worldwide economic activity (Held 1998). Globalisation is further interpreted as a consequence of modern science and new technology, particularly in connection with information technology. The world has shrunk to a 'global village' because improved communication and new forms of communication have

created new possibilities to travel, transfer capital, make contact and cooperate. Globalisation is a phenomena with consequences and influences – good and bad – for people and societies in other places on Earth.

Governance is normally seen as an execution of power with a legal and legitimate basis. In literature of social science, governing as a phenomenon is therefore normally associated with the state, understood as the political and administrative system, on a macro level (Rokkan 1987, Dale 2000).

The core at national level is *the state* understood as the democratic, political-administrative system, with a legal framework as a base accompanied by related political, judicial and administrative state organs. The idea of the state itself is linked to civil rights and duties. The school system is one of the key institutions in a national state. Education is consequently both a right and a duty for the individual citizen. The school is central in creating competence and in a *continual psychological integration* connected to the building of state and nation.

The Market is the arena of the capital. Market activity within the economic system is primarily connected to economic transaction. Continual activity within the market illustrates the dynamics of supply and demand, production and consumption of goods and services. The market, understood as rational decision-making, puts both the political and administrative system under pressure and weakens the channel for corporative decisions.

The civil society can be understood as the 'glue' in the society. Set in this light, the formation of state and citizenship provides a framework for rights connected to democracy, political consultation and the development of life, within culture or religion, in or outside institutional and organisational frames.

The growth of the organisational society contributes to the development of new cooperative - and conflict structures nationally and internationally. Within the Norwegian and Nordic state system, organisations gradually became a formalised decision-making channel as an addition and to some extent an alternative to the representative, elected-democracy. Rokkan (1987, 61) characterised this governing-regime as "corporative pluralism". Teacher unions have been important in this corporative regime.

Internationally we can see a parallel formation of new institutions opening new channels, but also *more hidden channels for influence and power*. Commonly corporative power is connected to participation in committees, hearings and negotiation between the state and the organisations at national level, and between states and its representatives at supranational level.

Challenges for the national governance system

This national power and governance system is being challenged by globalisation (Bauman 2000). Bauman claims that the territorial representative, parliamentary democracy, when limited to national state-agents with agreements about rules within the structure of the national state, is being squeezed by global market liberalism. It threatens to make national democracy irrelevant and powerless. It challenges political order and mutual trust established within the rules of a national system. The market itself asserts considerable influence, and from a deeply rooted global perspective, the national state is put under pressure. It has made it necessary to put into use new managerial and governing strategies.

The New Public Management (NPM) has been the main international governing strategy with a mainly *liberal and conservative ideological foundation* (Busch et.al. 2001). It appeared on the horizon in the 80's and 90's with its belief in the market as an agent for economic growth and prosperity. The idea was that a society guided by the market would stimulate production, vitalize civilian society, strengthen the nation and the family and contribute to the individual developing a sense of duty, responsibility, self-discipline, self-respect, and a strong and genuine personality.

A main element in NPM was an emphasis on *individualism and freedom of choice*. Governance reforms should therefore facilitate improved service for the general public. *Decentralisation and liberalisation* was another element in the NPM as an agent of improved utilisation of resources and procurement of new local resources. It was important to get more cost-efficient production and a better service performance for the users. Education, as an important part of the public sector, became in a vulnerable position.

A third main element in NPM thus became *privatisation and market-orientation* with competition as a driving force. The perception was that the public sector, including education, was unproductive and unwilling to change. In the 90's, governing means were re-organisation, de-regulation of public activities. The individual and the institution had to be given larger freedom being able to improve their ability to compete. The models for this kind of institutional governance were mainly taken from trade and industry.

It is not unproblematic when notions and concepts from economy uncritically are applied in an area such as education. Even if there are similarities between schools as organisations and production enterprises in that they are targetting and structuring, the school as an organisation historically finds itself somewhere between enterprise and the family. The pupil is both 'raw material' and 'finished product'. When knowledge and socialisation are referred to as "products" and "educational services", and the school has to "adapt to the market" and "be competitive", it is not only a question of words, but an expression of thinking. It legitimizes what Lennart Lundquist (1998, 10) calls "economism" as political ideology also for teacher education.

This is the background for an intensive period of educational reforms and restructuring in Norway, like other countries, and particularly regarding teacher education (Garm 2002, Karlsen & Kvalbein 2003, Smehaugen 2001) where a new reform took place in 2003.

Governance of the Teacher education Reform in Norway

Historically there have been two different pathways to the teaching profession in Norway. One has been the *teacher training colleges* spread around the country, earlier called "seminars". These state colleges date back to 1826 and are among the oldest colleges in the country. Historically they are related to the institutional development of schools and schooling. For a long period of time teacher education was embedded in religious education and for many students the teacher profession was regarded as a "calling". Within the teacher training colleges a specific "seminarist" culture developed with a broad approach to teaching and learning (Dahl 1959, Halvorsen 1999). Formal teacher education did not only give professional competence in teaching, but also provided the basis for political, cultural and social activities in the local community. Many teachers obtained a dual position in society as professionals in schooling with social and cultural authority. From a classical understanding of professionalism, teachers were not really professional, barely semiprofessional (Torgersen 1972, Karlsen & Kvalbein, 2003; Smehaugen, 2001). The teacher education colleges

primarily qualify teachers for primary and lower secondary school and for teaching most of the school subjects. They still offer a wide range of subjects and are socially oriented (Riksaasen 1999).

Another pathway to the teaching profession has been *through university studies*. This is a more discipline-oriented teacher education with more specialization, normally made up of one to three subjects studied in depth or a vocational diploma. The specific professional teacher preparation is mainly organized as a one-year programme in educational theory and practice on top of an academic degree. Normally university teacher education qualifies for secondary school and for adult education (Haugaløkken, Hestbek & Arntzen 2001).

Historically there has been, and still is, a tension between these two routes to teacher qualification related to a focus on academic competences versus focus on schooling as a whole. The gap between these two routes has decreased the last decade. A fundamental governance reform took place in 1994 when 98 colleges were merged into 26 college centers. The teacher colleges and thereby teacher education now became parts of larger, multi-purposed higher education institutions. The main argument for this was to make the institutions more efficient and secure higher quality by specialization and division of labor. However, teacher education in Norway is still organized in separate administrative units and is not fully merged into the university system.

During the last decade there have been three reforms of teacher education in Norway. The reform in 1992 extended the general teacher education from three to four years and gave compulsory subjects a larger share than before (KUF 1994). Subjects like Norwegian language, mathematic and religion were strengthened. The balance between academic subjects studies and pedagogy changed, resulting in *less emphasis on pedagogy*.

The teacher education reform in 1998 was mainly a consequence of the curriculum reforms in secondary education in 1994 and primary education in 1997 (Ministry of Education 1997). In short, these two reforms in 1992 and 1998 *extended the compulsory part of teacher education*, leaving only 60 of the 240 credit points open for students' choice. The main argument for this move towards centralization and reduction of institutional autonomy and individual choice was the principle of *equality of educational opportunity* (St. meld. nr. 48 1996-97, Government White paper). This has been one of the most important principles in the history of Norwegian education last century (Rust 1990, Solstad 1994, Welle-Strand & Tjeldvoll 2002). Politically the school in Norway has been regarded as a vehicle to achieve equality as OECD pointed out in an evaluation of Norwegian education policy from 1988 (OECD 1988). As a result the great majority of Norwegian children attend their neighborhood school regardless of social and cultural background, gender or abilities.

The new teacher reform passing the Norwegian Parliament in 2002 was implemented from the academic year of 2003. From 2001 there has been a coalition government in Norway involving three political parties. The Conservative party has the majority in the government with 10 of 19 ministers, including the Minister for education and research.

The new teacher education for the compulsory school is still a four years programme and a three years programme for preschool teaching. For two of the four years students are given freedom to choose subjects, but half of the choices have to be among subjects that are compulsory in primary school. According to international standards one year gives 60 credit points. The programme is designed in a common model where two years consist of

compulsory subjects: Norwegian language, Maths and Education all with 30 credit points each, and a new subject of 10 credit points “Basic instruction of Reading, Writing and Maths” and a 20 credit points subject “Christianity, religion and ethical knowledge“ reduced from 30 credit point from former. The latter subject has always been a part of Norwegian teacher education, but was surprisingly not proposed in the Governments white paper led by the prime minister Kjell Minge Bondevik from the Christian Peoples’ Party. However, the subject was restored by the parliament after a public debate. Historically there has been a dissension between the left and right side in Norwegian educational policies about the role of Christianity and religion in the compulsory school and in teacher education. The Lutheran church still has status as state religion in Norway, but due to the increasing multicultural population there is an intense debate going on.

Compared with teacher education in other countries (Clarke 2001) the new reform extended the specific Norwegian system where *students earn their teacher certificate if they pass their exams*, and thereby demonstrate that they have reached the specific standard in each discipline. There is still no certification after a period of work and a teacher can freely move and use the certificate in the whole country.

The Government expressed an increasing belief in the value and importance of teachers’ education for student achievement (St.meld. nr 16 2001-2002). Teacher education in the new reform was regarded as more instrumentally linked to the compulsory school system. The main assumption is that subject knowledge is the very core in teacher competence. The reform ended up with emphasis on academic skills and subject knowledge.

The main argument from 1998, the principle of equality of educational opportunity, was more or less absent in the political rhetoric few years later. Key words in the rhetoric this time were higher “quality” and better “governance” in education. The Norwegian Parliament approved a new “The Quality Reform of Higher Education” in 2001 (St. meld. 27 2000-2001). In this reform “Quality” was interpreted as high academic level in accordance with international standards. “Governance” was understood as increased institutional and individual freedom and autonomy inside a “Management by Objective “ governance strategy. Institutions were rhetorically given freedom to choose means to become more efficient and increase the quality in accordance with central aims and state control over assessment and certification. The “quality reform” encompassed both college and university education and adjusted Norwegian higher education to international standards and “new public management” as governance strategy (Karlsen 2002).

Governance of teacher education in a global perspective

The governance of teacher education has to be analysed in the light of globalisation and driving forces behind. The new liberal economic political climate became institutionalised and globalised through important supranational institutions established such as the World Trade Organisation (WTO), The International Monetary Fond (IMF), the World Bank, The organisation for Economic Coperation and Development (OECD) the G8 countries and the regional liberalised markets EU, NAFTA and APEC. A common element to all these institutions was the *emphasis of free trade (liberalisation) and free capital movement* as a common political and ideological ground. Particularly important were international agreements regarding world trade and the establishment of WTO as a perpetuation of GATT. These institutions are mainly dominated and controlled by the world’s richest countries. Behind these institutions, strong capital forces exist which have had considerable influence,

lobbying towards the political system. The leading actors of globalisation have in practical terms been major banks, multinational industrial groups, media and oil companies.

In the globalised economy, education and research are seen as an important competitive advantage. More than before "human resource development" are emphasized precisely with the help of education. Teacher education has a central role to play here. It is about developing a workforce motivated for "lifelong learning", which is innovative and highly qualified (Karlsen 2002). Education and research are in themselves seen as industries for growth within a growing global educational market. WTO's work on liberalising of services, including education, will stimulate this development further (GATS). Globalisation, with a larger mobility of workforce, has also led to remedial action to harmonise educational systems. This harmonisation can be regarded as centralization from a governance perspective.

Historically the Norwegian teacher education has been highly centralized. There has been a tension between central governance and control versus local/institutional autonomy. Normally the state has been the owner of the teacher education institutions. Some teachers colleges are privately owned but have been governed by the same national laws and regulations. There has been a detailed national curriculum for teacher education and rather rigid central instruction for how to organise teacher education at institutional level. The centralization has even increased during the 90s due to reduction of student choice and a more similar and fixed organizational structure. However, the new teacher education reform has increased student choice moderately, still within a common structure.

Central governance is not necessarily to be understood as the national level. Supra national bodies like EU and premises from international organizations like OECD and WTO have a more hidden, but important power (Scott 2002). Educational governance, including teacher education, is more than before a part of globalization. Education of high quality and thereby a more qualified workforce is important in the new global economy. Because teacher education is so close to the whole education system and its quality, the teacher education becomes a key sector. Reforms in teacher education must therefore also be understood in *the context of globalization*. Martin Carnoy (1999) has stressed how economic global forces have impact on many areas down to the classroom level. The new global economy needs students with high academic standards in central subjects, but at the same time project competent, flexible and innovative-oriented students who quickly can learn and adapt to change and use new technology. Global business interests have more focus in education than before.

Within the teacher education institution we can find *an increased tension between individual freedom and institutional control*. More precisely this relates to what is considered important to govern and control and what is left for the institution or the individual professional teacher to decide upon. Delandshere and Ares (2001) interpret the new teacher education reforms as decreasing teachers' degree of freedom to shape their own role as teachers.

Both at national and international levels we can identify the same dynamics in the new governance strategies. Politically there has been a rhetoric advocating for decentralization and competition within "Management by Objective" in order to become more efficient and acquire higher quality at the same time. This dynamic has been characterised as "decentralized centralism" (Karlsen 2000) where the centralization and decentralization processes are going on as parallel movements. The main element in this dynamic governance interaction at national level can be understood as a reflex of a more global new-liberal governance trend over time emphasizing management for efficiency.

Teacher education has historically played an important role in building a democratic system on national level. An important question for governance is whether globalisation represents the decay of politics and a threat against forms of democracy or also the sprouts of democratic renewal.

Globalisation and democracy – decay or renewal?

These point can be developed by illustrating two lines of thoughts. The first is Zygmunt Bauman's (2000) analysis regarding forms of democracy and governance as being territorial, whilst power is ex-territorial. From this perspective, globalisation leads to power becoming 'unrulable' by democratic, national institutions. This again means that democratic governance of market forces becomes impossible. The market is what guides us in the sense that nations and democratic forums have to adapt to the demands and the logic of the market.

The second line of thought is from Anthony Giddens (1998, 1999) who introduces the term *cosmopolitan democracy*. Here a vitalisation of democratic national state governance is linked together with a vision of global governance. The reasoning for this link is the extensive institutionalisation which has taken place. One point here is that it already has been developed a global civil society through institutionalisation of cooperation and the construction of organisations.

In terms of governance, this entails a weighting of how democracy should be practised, something we recognise well from the Norwegian EU-debate. Should we gamble on keeping our national sovereignty and our democracy even if we in practical terms are influenced and must fall into line with decisions in international organisations, or should we enter the international arena and gamble on our voice being heard?

At the same time, there is no such link from democratic processes to new institutions in the way we recognise it from our own elective system and representational democracy. According to Habermas (2000) we can ask what legitimate these new institutions as organs for global governance. Global procedures for democratic formation of will have not been established as well as collective decisions from modern democratic governments, even though such procedures exist within many of the institutions (Eriksen 1994). The cosmopolitan democracy is rather a form of anarchical communication.

From this we can see the outlines of a new global civil society, as it is also obvious that economies have assumed a type of functional disconnected- liberal system which is separate and apart from political government and control.

An important element from this point of view, is that globalisation here seems to have a non-policy function because the lost national power cannot be localised or determined. Actual political processes will not be the object of insight and control or neither linked to present debate. Politics has become entertainment where our task is to applaud or disapprove. The major challenge is strictly about winning back the politics as a form of current debate and a struggle for power.

Non-political teacher students?

This reasoning can to some degree be tested by presenting data from the project StudData. The project is a longitudinal database for studies of recruitment, motives, values, interests and qualification of about 40 professions, inclusive teacher education. Data for teacher students refers to students of three Norwegian colleges. In this context some data about political interest

among teachers students and how they evaluate politics compared with other topics, seem relevant. Students who started their teacher education in 2000 were asked about their interest of politics. The following tabular show the interest for female and male and in sum using the Likert scale where 1 is very high interest and 5 is very low interest.

Table 1. Teacher students interests in politics, fall 2000

Interest in politics	Gender		Sum
	Female	Male	
1 Very high interest	2.1	2.7	2.3
2	13.4	25.9	17.3
3	36.9	29.9	34.7
4	29.0	28.6	28.8
5 Very low interest	17.7	12.9	16.2
Don't know	0.9	0.0	0.6
Sum	100.0	100.0	100.0
N=	328	147	475

The picture is clear. The political interest among teacher students is modest. Most of the new teacher students have a low interest for politics. Only 1 of 5 reports a rather high interest, but close to half of them have a rather low interest. 45 % has marked 4 or 5 on the scale. We can also observe a gender difference. The political interest among male students are a little higher than for women.

The same question was asked to the same group after three years as teacher students.

Table 2 Teacher students interests in politics, spring 2003

Interest in politics	Gender		Sum
	Female	Male	
1 Very high interest	3.2	7.8	4.6
2	18.9	32.4	22.8
3	34.9	30.4	33.6
4	33.3	17.6	28.8
5 Very low interest	9.2	11.8	10.0
Don't know	0.4	0.0	0.3
Sum	100.0	100.0	100.0
N=	249	102	351

The table shows a modest change toward more political awareness and more political interest among teacher students at the end of their education, but still they report low than high interest. We can also see a change toward more interest for both genders, but males are still more interested than females. The finding does not give the reason for this change, but

hopefully this is a result of being a teacher student. But there can be other explanations, for instance the increasing international political tension after the September 11 in 2001, and three years of maturing can be another explanation.

Low interest is a relative phenomenon. What is considered as a low score of interest has to be compared with other topics and how values are estimated. For this purpose I have constructed a table using 16 variables both from the start (2000) and the end (2003) of the study. Students were asked to evaluate different topics after a scale where the extreme points were “very important” and “not important at all”. The table is a ranking based on only the value “very important” and shows percentage of students for female and male and in sum giving each topic the value “very important”.

Table 3. Teacher students evaluations of importance of different topics

Degree of importance

	2000	2003				

		Gender		Gender		
	Sum	Female	Male	Sum	Female	Male
Family	67,3	86,5	61,6	87,1	88,7	83,3
Friends	63,9	77,1	70,7	78,5	81,8	70,6
Leisure time	36,6	41,2	46,9	56,2	57,5	52,9
Education	23,0	31,7	16,4	52,1	58,3	37,3
Art/culture	14,7	13,1	18,3	20,1	21,1	17,6
Work/job	11,8	15,2	11,8	16,1	18,4	10,8
Religion	11,3	9,0	16,8	9,5	8,9	10,9
Politics	1,9	1,6	2,8	3,2	2,8	4,0
N= 557	473	327	146	350	348	102

Teacher students appear relation-oriented emphasising the importance of family and friends. This is a stable value for female students over time, but an increasing value orientation for male students. At the end of the study they are close to the female in their high valuing of family and friends. The value of education has increased, but most for women. May be we can see from this data a more strategic behaviour for men knowing that education is no longer a guarantee for job and high income. When leisure time and art/culture, except females in 2000, are estimated higher than work/job, we can probable see a teacher profession with a broad approach valuing social and cultural activities. To some degree we can still observe elements from the “seminarist” tradition, but with two striking differences.

Valuing of religion as stable low and for male there is a clear drop in the valuing of the importance of religion. Even though the subject “Christianity, religion and ethical knowledge” is a compulsory in the teacher qualification in Norway, there is no sign that this is leading to a higher valuing of religion.

Politics has decidedly the lowest value and importance, and absolutely lowest for females entering their studies. We can observe a slight increase during the study for both men and

women, but the main impression is that teacher students have a very low valuing of politics and teacher studies have, if any, only a modest increasing effect. Therefore these data support the reasoning of de-political trend. The globalisation process and the related governance and education reforms are probably leading to more decay than renewal if we want a politically interested and engaged teacher profession.

Conclusion

In relation to governance of teacher education in Norway there has been broad consensus about more institutional autonomy. In this consensus there is a common acceptance for deregulated market activities and less governmental intervention. Choice, autonomy, flexibility and competition are politically valid arguments, even though there are nuances among political parties.

From a governance perspective the new teacher reform of 2003 was primarily a result of the “quality reform” in higher education and thus an adaptation to international trends and standards. An important part of this adaptation is internationally mutual recognition of education and training, diplomas and periods of stay in other countries. These efforts of harmonization have been on the European political agenda for a long time. The Council of Europe’s “Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region” from April 1997 in Lisbon came into force 1 February 1999 (Council of Europe 1997). Norway ratified the convention in April 1999. Later the same year Norway also ratified the Bologna-declaration with the intention to create a common European space for higher education together with 29 other countries (Bologna-declaration 1999). The inter-ministerial meeting in Berlin in September 2003 on higher education passed the responsibility for the next stage of the Bologna-process to the Norwegian government, as hosts for the next conference in Bergen in May 2005. One important consequence is that Norwegian higher education, inclusive teacher education, now are adjusted to the international bachelor and master degrees. The institutions were given greater freedom to design profiles and programmes locally, but within the new framework. The focus on outcomes and external control are more dominant.

Schools and teacher education seem to be important elements in the new market economy and are governed by the same rationality and rules. We can see the impact of the new global market orientation in the national discourses and in the governance of teacher education. Teacher students have a low political interest and compared with other topics politics have the lowest valuing.

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