

CHAPTER ELEVEN

INTRODUCTION TO TEACHER EDUCATION

Introduction to Teacher education refers to the policies, procedures and provision designed to equip (prospective) teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school and wider community. Those professionals who engage in this activity are called Teacher educators (or, in some contexts, teacher trainers).

The process by which teachers are educated is the subject of political discussion in many countries, reflecting both the value attached by societies and cultures to the preparation of young people for life, and the fact that education systems consume significant financial resources.

However, the degree of political control over Teacher Education varies. Where TE is entirely in the hands of universities, the state may have no direct control whatever over what or how new teachers are taught; this can lead to anomalies, such as teachers being taught using teaching methods that would be deemed inappropriate if they used the same methods in schools, or teachers being taught by persons with little or no hands-on experience of teaching in real classrooms. In other systems, TE may be the subject of detailed prescription (e.g. the state may specify the skills that all teachers must possess, or it may specify the content of TE courses).

Policy cooperation in the European Union has led to a broad description of the kinds of attributes that teachers in EU Member States should possess: the Common European Principle for Teacher Competences and Qualifications. A teacher's job is a highly respected and specialized field, be it teaching kindergarten, grade school, high school, college, or post-graduate courses. Teachers are necessary in all fields of education, and in order to be teachers themselves, they need to be educated by experts in their desired fields.

Teacher education is a diverse field, covering numerous subjects and various methods of teaching. Teaching in any field is demanding and is a challenging task. Beyond regular education, some people choose to follow specialized paths, such as early childhood education or special education. These teachers need extra educational background in order to be certified

to deal with their specific students. These teachers need to have extensive patience and be friendly with toddlers. Innovative play way methods need to be adopted to ensure continuing interest among kids.

Another specialized educational field is Montessori teaching. This style of teaching appears to be simple, but in reality, it is highly demanding. As this is a specific style of teaching, aimed at gifted or advanced students, with a degree of flexibility and customization not found in traditional curriculums, teachers will need to learn the best ways to work within the Montessori structure, and apply their educational background to this style of teaching. Elementary or primary school is the backbone for all people's education. Thus, these teachers have to be able to convey basic principles, such as reading, spelling, writing and math, as well as cover basic science, social studies, and sometimes foreign language courses. Of course, all of this has to be taught in an age-appropriate fashion. Elementary teacher education focuses on methods that work best for young students.

High school teachers face challenges elementary school teachers usually do not. Because they teach teenagers who are dealing with the issues of adolescence and can often "act out," teachers need to learn how to engage and motivate this difficult age group. Subjects are taught in greater depth in high school, as well, so the teacher will need more specific knowledge. They also sometimes have to be ready to compensate for any gaps in elementary education, particularly deficiencies in the basics - reading, writing and math. Ultimately, the goal of teacher education is to provide future teachers - or teachers looking to further develop their teaching ability - with the skills they need to convey essential information to their students. The training they will require depends on many factors, including the age group, subjects, and type of school they will be teaching in.

It is well known that the quality and extent of learner achievement are determined primarily by teacher competence, sensitivity and teacher motivation. The National Council for Teacher Education has defined teacher education as – A programme of education, research and training of persons to teach from pre-primary to higher education level. Teacher education is a programme that is related to the development of teacher proficiency and competence that would enable and empower the teacher to meet the requirements of the profession and face the challenges therein.

According to Goods Dictionary of Education Teacher education means, ? all the formal and non-formal activities and experiences that help to qualify a person to assume responsibilities of a member of the educational profession or to discharge his responsibilities more effectively.? In 1906-1956, the program of teacher preparation was called teacher training. It prepared teachers as mechanics or technicians. It had narrower goals with its focus being only on skill training. The perspective of teacher education was therefore very narrow and its scope was limited. As W.H. Kilpatrick put it, ? Training is given to animals and circus performers, while education is to human beings.? Teacher education encompasses teaching skills, sound pedagogical theory and professional skills.

Teacher Education = Teaching Skills + Pedagogical theory + Professional skills.

Teaching skills would include providing training and practice in the different techniques, approaches and strategies that would help the 3 teachers to plan and impart instruction, provide appropriate reinforcement and conduct effective assessment. It includes effective classroom management skills, preparation and use of instructional materials and communication skills.

Pedagogical theory includes the philosophical, sociological and psychological considerations that would enable the teachers to have a sound basis for practicing the teaching skills in the classroom. The theory is stage specific and is based on the needs and requirements that are characteristic of that stage.

Professional skills include the techniques, strategies and approaches that would help teachers to grow in the profession and also work towards the growth of the profession. It includes soft skills, counselling skills, interpersonal skills, computer skills, information retrieving and management skills and above all lifelong learning skills. An amalgamation of teaching skills, pedagogical theory and professional skills would serve to create the right knowledge, attitude and skills in teachers, thus promoting holistic development.

Nature of Teacher Education

- 1) Teacher education is a continuous process and its pre-service and in-service components are complimentary to each other. According to the International Encyclopedia of Teaching and Teacher education (1987),? Teacher education can be considered in three phases: Pre-service, Induction and In-service. The three phases are considered as parts of a continuous process.?
- 2) Teacher education is based on the theory that? Teachers are made, not born? in contrary to the assumption? Teachers are born, not made.? Since teaching is considered an art and a science, the teacher has to acquire not only knowledge, but also skills that are called? tricks of the trade?.
- 3) Teacher education is broad and comprehensive. Besides preservice and in-service programmes for teachers, it is meant to be involved in various community programmes and extension activities, viz adult education and non-formal education programmes, literacy and development activities of the society.
- 4) It is eve revolving and dynamic. In order to prepare teachers who are competent to face the challenges of the dynamic society, Teacher education has to keep abreast of recent developments and trends.
- 5) The crux of the entire process of teacher education lies in its curriculum, design, structure, organization and transaction modes, as well as the extent of its appropriateness.
- 6) As in other professional education programmes the teacher education curriculum has a knowledge base which is sensitive to the needs of field applications and comprises meaningful, conceptual blending of theoretical understanding available in several cognate disciplines. However the knowledge base in teacher education does not comprise only an admixture of concepts and principles from other disciplines, but a distinct '=gestalt' emerging from the '=conceptual blending', making it sufficiently specified.
- 7) Teacher education has become differentiated into stage-specific programmes. This suggests that the knowledge base is adequately specialized and diversified across stages, which should be utilized for

...the process of preparing entrant teachers for the
...which a teacher is expected to perform at each stage.

...it is a system that involves an interdependence of its inputs,
...and outputs.

...education, any of the formal programs that have been
...for the preparation of teachers at the elementary- and
...school levels.

...arrangements of one kind or another for the education of the young
...at all times and in all societies, it is only recently that schools
...as distinctive institutions for this purpose on a mass scale,
...as a distinctive occupational category. Parents, elders, priests,
...men have traditionally seen it as their duty to pass on their
...and skills to the next generation. As Aristotle put it, the surest
...is a man's ability to teach what he knows. Knowing, doing,
...and learning were for many centuries—and some societies are
...—indistinguishable from one another. For the most part the
...of the young into the ways of acting, feeling, thinking, and
...that are characteristic of their society has been an informal—if
...and important—process, accomplished chiefly by means of
...contact with full-fledged adults, by sharing in common activities,
...acquiring the myths, legends, and folk beliefs of the culture.
...ceremonies, such as the puberty rite, marked the point at which it
...that a certain range of knowledge and skill had been
...and that the individual could be admitted to full participation in
...life. (Residual elements of such ceremonies remain in some modern
...; it has been seriously contended that the study of the Latin
...in the Renaissance and post-Renaissance school can be
...as a form of puberty rite.) Even in the formally established
...of the Greek city-states and of the medieval world there was little
...between, on the one hand, the processes of organizing and
...down knowledge and, on the other, those teaching this knowledge
...others.

This does not mean, that prior to the 19th century little attention was given
...a training in teaching methods as distinct from "subjects." The great
...of medieval scholasticism were essentially textbooks that were

designed to be used for the purpose of teaching. Today, as in the medieval world, methods of teaching and the organization of knowledge continue to be reciprocally influential. Nor are the problems that today surround the qualifications and certification of teachers wholly new. State, church, and local authorities everywhere have long recognized the importance of the teacher's work in maintaining or establishing particular patterns of social organization and systems of belief, just as radical and reformist politicians and thinkers have looked to the schools to disseminate their particular brands of truth. In medieval and post-Reformation Europe, for example, there was considerable concern with the qualifications and background of teachers, mainly but not entirely with reference to their religious beliefs. In 1559 Queen Elizabeth I of England issued an injunction that prohibited anyone from teaching without a license from his bishop. The license was granted only after an examination of the applicant's "learning and dexterity in teaching," "sober and honest conversation," and "right understanding of God's true religion." Thus the certification of teachers and concern for their character and personal qualities are by no means new issues.

What is new for most societies—European, American, African, and Asian—attempt to provide a substantial period of formal education for everyone and not just for the small proportion of the population who will become political, social, and religious leaders or for those few who possess surplus time and money for the purpose. Universal literacy, already achieved in most European and American and many Asian societies, has become the goal of all. In an increasing proportion of countries every child now proceeds automatically to secondary education; many remain at school until 16 or 18 years of age, and large numbers go on to some form of postsecondary education and training. The scale and variety of educational provision that all this requires makes the supply, education, training, and certification of an adequate number of teachers a worldwide issue of education policy and practice. In developed and developing countries alike, no factor is of greater importance in relation to the quantity and quality of education; it is significant that a substantial proportion of the budget of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is devoted to the improvement of teacher preparation.

The term "teacher" in this article is used to mean those who work in schools providing education for pupils up to the age of 18. Thus, "teacher

education" refers to the structures, institutions, and processes by means of which men and women are prepared to work in elementary and secondary schools. This includes preschool, kindergarten, elementary, and secondary institutions for children from the age of two or three to 18.

The Evolution of Teacher Education

Teacher education, as it exists today, can be divided into two stages, preservice and in-service. Preservice education includes all the stages of education and training that precede the teacher's entry to paid employment in a school. In-service training is the education and training that the teacher receives after the beginning of his career.

Early development

The earliest formal arrangements for teacher preparation, introduced in some of the German states during the early part of the 18th century, included both preservice and in-service training. A seminary or normal school for "young men who had already passed through an elementary, or even a superior school, and who were preparing to be teachers, by making additional attainments, and acquiring a knowledge of the human mind, and the principles of education as a science, and of its methods as an art" was set up by Halle in 1706. By the end of the century there were 30 such institutions in operation in Germany.

Systematic training was linked to an equally systematic process of certification, control of teaching conditions, and in-service study. All public teachers were required to attend a series of meetings to extend their practical knowledge. Parochial conferences took place monthly in the winter, district conferences bimonthly in the summer, a circle conference twice a year, and a departmental conference annually. Each seminary was responsible for maintaining contact with all the teachers working within a six-mile radius, and some established "repetition courses" for experienced teachers who wanted to refresh and add to their knowledge.

Nineteenth-century developments in education in the United States, Britain, France, Belgium, and Japan owed much to the pattern that had been established in Germany. In France at the time of the French Revolution efforts were made to set up a system of normal schools. The *École Normale* (later the *École Normale Supérieure*), founded in 1794, closed after a few months; but it was reestablished by Napoleon in 1808 to

train teachers for the lycées. After 1833 a uniform system of *écoles normales* (initially only for male students) was created, and the normal-school systems of several countries date from the third decade of the century.

During the first 30 years of the 19th century, teacher preparation in the United States, Britain, and elsewhere was dominated by the monitorial methods introduced by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster. In the simplest terms, the method involved a master instructing a number of senior pupils or "monitors," who then passed on their newly acquired knowledge to a larger number of pupils. Such methods were cheap, simple, and, it was widely believed to be effective. They required a necessary emphasis upon facts, drill, repetition, mechanical learning, and ease of teaching. By 1820 there were 20 Lancastrian schools in the state of New York, where the system had official status until the middle of the century.

With hindsight one can easily condemn the monitorial system. At the time, however, the supply of educated persons available and willing to teach in the elementary schools was severely limited, and the public funds to employ them were in short supply. The monitorial system, although faulted, enabled a large number of children to achieve the minimum level of literacy on which future development could build. Just as the organization of knowledge that prevailed during medieval times implied its own pedagogical methodology, so the Lancastrian system embodied a distinctive approach to the process of teaching; one of the attractions of such systems is that they provide a built-in solution to the problem of reconciling what the teacher needs to know and the pedagogical methods he should learn. Connect with Britannica

Among those who were unimpressed by the claims of the Lancastrian system was David Stow, who in 1834 founded the Glasgow Normal Seminary from which "trainers," as his graduates came to be called, went to schools in Scotland and many of the British colonial territories. In the United States, after an uncertain start, the Massachusetts Normal Schools founded by Horace Mann in the 1830s became a model for similar developments in Connecticut, Michigan, Rhode Island, Iowa, New Jersey, and Illinois. In England, churches and voluntary foundations were in process of establishing the first of the teacher-training colleges. Australia began the organized preparation of teachers in the early 1850s. At this

early stage certain issues were already emerging that were to remain alive for the next hundred years and that are to some extent still relevant today.

The needs of pupils and schools were beginning to advance beyond basic literacy. Human knowledge was becoming more diverse and scientific and was being organized into new disciplinary systems. Secondary education was expanding. The early inclusive pedagogic systems were falling into disfavour. The problem arose of reconciling the teacher's personal need for education with his professional need for classroom technique. There were other than purely pedagogic considerations involved; the inhibitions of class society in England, the demand for practicality in the United States, a fear of liberal agitation in France, the patriotic missionary role of the teacher in Japan—all tended to maintain an emphasis upon the practical techniques of school management and to limit the range and level of the elementary teacher's intellectual accomplishments to mastery of only such subject knowledge as was needed at the school level.

Some educators asserted that the curriculum of the normal school should be academic, on the ground that the future teacher needed nothing more than experience of conventional subjects soundly taught. Others argued that training should have a purely professional function, including only such subject knowledge as the teacher would need in his classroom work. Some advocates claimed that the liberal and professional elements could readily be harmonized or integrated. The work of Derwent Coleridge, principal of St. Mark's College, London, who admitted that he took his models not from the pedagogical seminaries of Germany but from the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, exemplified the attempt to introduce a larger element of general education into teacher preparation. Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth, founder of another London college, emphasized basic subject matter; he held that not merely the subjects of instruction, but also the methods of teaching the candidates, should be so ordered as to be in itself a preparation for their future vocation as teachers. On this account the oral instruction of classes in a Normal school is greatly to be preferred to any other mode.

In the United States, Horace Mann supported the value of a training in the "common branches" of knowledge, as a means of mental discipline. But the views of Derwent Coleridge, Kay-Shuttleworth, and Horace Mann, in common with those of many other educators of the time, reflected social

as well as pedagogical considerations. Mann, it has been suggested, failed to recognize that the Prussian system that so impressed him was one that took lower class pupils and trained them as teachers of the lower classes—a system already under fire from German educators at the time that it was being used as a model for developments abroad.

Between 1870 and 1890, legislation was enacted in a number of countries to systematize and broaden the work of the normal schools. In Japan an ordinance of 1886 established higher normal schools providing a four-year course for boys and girls who had completed eight years of elementary education. A French law of 1879 established a nationwide system of colleges for training women primary teachers (*écoles normales d'institutrices*). In Russia a statute on teachers' seminaries was promulgated in 1870; within five years there were 34 such institutions, with nearly 2,000 students. A further statute in 1872 provided for institutes to train teachers for the new higher grade schools that were beginning to appear in the larger towns. In Scotland, the universities of Edinburgh and St. Andrews established chairs in education in 1876. In the United States a large number of universities had by 1895 set up education departments, and in some of them the preparation of teachers for work in the schools was beginning to be combined with systematic study and research in education processes.

Developments in American universities owed a great deal to the efforts of men such as Henry Barnard, who, as schools commissioner in Rhode Island from 1845 to 1849, stimulated a local interest in education that led to the creation of a department of education at Brown University. Barnard wrote an influential series of books on pedagogy and teacher education and later, as president of Columbia University, inspired Nicholas Murray Butler and others to found Teachers College in 1888. This soon became the foremost university school of education in the United States. It incorporated two schools as teaching laboratories, enrolling children from kindergarten to college age. As its "Announcement" of 1901 made clear, it was not restricted to any one level of professional preparation:

The purpose of Teachers College is to afford opportunity, both theoretical and practical, for the training of teachers of both sexes for kindergartens and elementary and secondary schools, of principals, supervisors and

superintendents of schools, and of specialists in various branches of school work, including normal schools and colleges.

Late 19th- and early 20th-century developments

Until about 1890 the "theoretical" elements in teacher preparation were of two kinds: the study of certain principles of teaching and school management, exemplified in the textbooks written by experienced schoolmen that were published in many countries during the second half of the 19th century; and instruction in "mental and moral philosophy," history of education, psychology, and pedagogics. Some of the most popular and influential works, such as Rosencrantz' *Philosophy of Education*, which was translated into English in the 1870s, made little distinction between philosophical and psychological data. But after 1890 psychology and sociology began to crystallize as more or less distinctive areas of study; students of education had a wider and more clearly structured range of disciplines to draw upon for their data and perspectives and to provide a "scientific" basis for their pedagogic principles.

In the middle years of the 19th century the ideas of the Swiss educator J.H. Pestalozzi and of the German Friedrich Froebel inspired the use of object teaching, defined in 1878 by Alexander Bain in his widely studied *Education as a Science* as the attempt to range over all the utilities of life, and all the processes of nature. It begins upon things familiar to the pupils, and enlarges the conceptions of these, by filling in unnoticed qualities. It proceeds to things that have to be learnt even in their primary aspect by description or diagram; and ends with the more abstruse operations of natural forces.

The work of these pioneers also led to a clearer recognition of the developmental needs and character of childhood. Later contributors to the corpus of ideas that underlie the processes of teacher education continued to provide philosophical, sociological, and psychological justification for particular views of the nature of education and of teaching, and also had a greater or lesser influence on the methods to be employed in classroom and school.

The work of the German philosopher Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776–1841) was of particular importance in this latter respect. Herbart wrote a number of pedagogical works during his teaching career at the universities

of Göttingen and Königsberg. In the latter part of the 19th century, the study of education along Herbartian lines became established in every European country, in America, and in Japan. Herbartianism offered a complete system—a philosophical theory, a set of educational aims, a rational psychology, and a pedagogy. Teaching, it held, should build on what the child already knows and should seek to inculcate, by the choice of appropriate materials, the highest moral character. It should be organized in accordance with the “five formal steps” of preparation, presentation, comparison, generalization, and application. The Herbartian doctrine rested as much upon the interpretation of his followers as upon the master's own works, and its influence was of relatively limited duration. Other ideas were coming to the fore, less direct and comprehensive than Herbart's but having greater impact upon the educational consciousness of the next half-century.

The influence of Darwinian evolutionary ideas upon pedagogy was very marked. To the extent that the evolutionary viewpoint emphasized the processes by which individuals become adapted to their environment, as in the teachings of the English philosopher Herbert Spencer, their influence was profoundly conservative. But evolutionary ideas were also embodied within the child development theories of the American psychologist G. Stanley Hall, who argued that the stages of individual growth recapitulated those of social evolution and therefore that the distinctive character and status of childhood must be respected. The American philosopher William James also included evolutionary notions in his psychology. James's emphasis, however, was not so much upon the processes by which individuals adapt as upon those through which they react creatively and positively with their circumstances, helping to shape and change these to meet their needs. James's formulation of associationism, the building up of useful habit systems, had implications for the study of learning that teacher educators were quick to recognize and that were made more significant by the later experiments of the American psychologist Edward L. Thorndike (1874–1949). Thorndike's work with animals stands at the beginning of a tradition that continues to the present day. The laws of learning that he formulated have for long been a staple of teacher-training courses in many countries. Thorndike saw psychology as the basis of a genuinely scientific pedagogy and claimed that “just as the science and art of agriculture depend upon chemistry and botany, so the art of education

depends upon physiology and psychology." He went on to argue, with a degree of confidence that rings strangely today, that

A complete science of psychology would tell every fact about everyone's intellect and character and behavior, would tell the cause of every change in human nature, would tell the result which every educational force—every act of every person that changed any other or the agent himself—would have.

The greatest influence on teacher-training curricula in the United States and many other countries was exercised not by the experimental psychologists but by the pragmatist philosopher John Dewey. Dewey began with a conception of the nature of scientific method that he generalized into a specific pedagogical approach (popularized by others as the "project" method and, more recently, as inquiry-based learning). This he combined with a consideration of the nature of the child's interests and capacities for learning and life experience, the nature and claims of different types of subject matter, and the importance of democratic values in the social context of the school. Just as James's psychology gave back to the teacher and the school some of the influence on individual development that the interpreters of evolutionary adaptation had seemed to deny, so Dewey's notion of the school as the embodiment of community ideals and the spearhead of social reform lent a new importance to the processes of teacher education.

It is tempting to categorize these various perspectives as "conservative" or "progressive." The former stress the importance of subject matter and of standard methods of effective instruction: the need for regularity and order in the classroom and for means that will encourage children to apply themselves diligently to learning, the importance of the teacher as a subject-matter expert and as an exemplar of accepted morality, and the existence of objective standards of scholarship and achievement to which teachers and students alike should aspire. The progressives, on the other hand, emphasize a more child-centred approach, designed to build upon the natural interests and curiosity of the child: a flexible pattern of teaching and classroom organization recognizing individual differences in motivation, capacity, and learning style; a conception of the teacher as an organizer of children's learning rather than as an instructor; and the need to

integrate the subject matter of different disciplines into topics and projects that have meaning in terms of the pupil's own experience.

Such conservative and progressive ideas have their roots in differing conceptions of the nature of man and society, of knowledge, and of the learning process. The differences are not new. The fortunes of the two perspectives tend to wax and wane in accordance with the times. Thus, in the United States, fears of a loss of technological supremacy in the late 1950s encouraged conservative critics to point to the weaknesses of "child centred" education. In the same way, anxieties about the meaninglessness of the education experienced by the poor, coupled with evidences of widespread alienation among the young, encouraged a revival of interest in progressive ideas in the early 1970s. Many educators, of course, do not fall into either the conservative or the progressive category but draw their ideas from various sources. There has been a tendency in many countries, however, for the curricula of teacher-preparing institutions to be identified with progressive educational ideas.

Many other ideas also influenced the curriculum and organization of teacher preparation during the last decade of the 19th and the first half of the 20th centuries. The dynamic psychology of Sigmund Freud and his early associates, the work of the Gestalt psychologists, the methods of measuring human abilities that were being developed in France, Great Britain, and the United States, the development of religious ideas in the Roman Catholic countries, the imposition of Marxist and Leninist ideologies in the former Soviet Union—all of these affected the normal schools, teachers' colleges and seminaries, and university departments of education. Such new ideas and systems of thought had their impact at three main levels.

First, they influenced the nature of the social commitment that teacher preparing institutions strove to instill in their students: commitment to the values of democracy and of opportunity in the United States, as exemplified in the writings of Dewey; to a sense of national purpose or patriotism, as in France, Germany, and Japan; to the pursuit of the socialist revolution, as in the post-tsarist Soviet Union; or to a religious outlook as manifested by Catholic doctrine in Italy, Spain, and Latin America.

Second, the philosophers, psychologists, and sociologists helped to redefine the teacher-pupil relationship. Whatever their differences of view, clear continuities are visible among them on such issues as the significance of the child's needs and interests, the weaknesses of the formal academic curriculum, and the nature of individual development.

Third, the new contributions affected the organization of learning through the measurement and assessment of abilities, the diagnosis of special learning problems, the placing of children in homogeneous age and ability groups by means of "tracking" and "streaming," the emphasis on problem solving, and the project method. These changes, reflected both in the way in which teachers were trained and in the architecture and equipment of schools, transformed education for younger children in many countries during the first half of the 20th century.

Organization of Teacher Education in the 20th Century

The educational doctrines that inspired, conceptualized, and legitimated this transformation themselves reflected other social, political, economic, demographic, and technological changes. Urbanization, the reduction of infant mortality, improvements in child health, the fact that families, individuals, and whole societies could afford longer and better schooling, growth in the size of populations, greater capacity for control by central and local government, the availability of new kinds of educational apparatus and teaching aids—all these did much to shape the progress of teacher education during the decades after 1900.

Among the countries of the world the arrangements for the preparation of teachers vary widely. In some countries "monitors" still receive short courses of training as their preparation to teach large classes of young children. In North America, and to an increasing extent in other developed countries, most teachers are university graduates who begin their teacher preparation after completing four to six years of secondary education. Between these extremes many other arrangements exist. At one level, which for present purposes might be called Normal School A, entry is prior to the usual age of completion of secondary education. Training is limited to the achievement of competence in teaching a range of the subjects taught at the primary level and does not last more than five years.

The second level, which may be called Normal School B, also begins prior to the age of completing secondary education but usually after the "first certificate" at approximately age 16 or at the end of the period of compulsory schooling. This level provides combined courses of education and professional training, the former not necessarily limited to subjects taught at the primary level and extending beyond the usual age of completion of secondary education.

A third level, the college level, requires a full secondary education, usually ending at 18 but not necessarily with the same qualifications as are demanded of university entrants. Two- or three-year concurrent courses of general and professional education lead to the award of a teaching certificate, often valid for work in primary, intermediate, and lower secondary schools.

Finally, there is the university level, in which, after completing a full period of secondary education, the future teacher enters a multipurpose institution of higher education to follow three- to five-year courses of combined general education and professional training, the latter being either concurrent or consecutive, that lead to the award of a university degree and teaching qualification. Such qualification is considered valid for work at primary or secondary levels, or at both, according to the nature of the course followed.

Until the middle 1960s the normal-school pattern applied to students preparing for primary work in many European countries (Austria, Belgium, Spain, France, Italy, Iceland, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Turkey), in Latin America, and in a number of Asian countries, although in many places there was more than one route to the attainment of qualified teacher status. The education and training of secondary school teachers was complicated by the general growth of secondary education for all. This encouraged the tendency to educate and train both primary and secondary teachers alongside one another in postsecondary colleges or in multipurpose universities. More recently there has been a widespread movement away from the types of training described here as Normal School A and B to the college and university patterns. But the fact that a country has adopted what has been called here the university pattern of training should not be taken to mean that all the institutions in which

teachers are prepared are comparable to the pre-existing universities; some are devoted mainly to teacher preparation.

AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The aims of teacher education are,

- To evolve instructional strategies to improve effectiveness and efficiency of instructional process in B.Ed program.
- Providing instruction in particular courses of study in B.Ed.
- Restructuring the existing curriculum of teacher education programme completely.
- Efforts in the second category aimed at enhancing the impact potential and practical relevance of particular courses of study in B.Ed.
- To build a national system of teacher education based on India's cultural ethics, its unity and diversity synchronizing with change and continuity..
- To facilitate the realization of the constitutional goals and emergence of the social order.
- To [prepare professionally competent teachers to perform their roles effectively as per needs of the society.
- To upgrade the standard of teacher education.
- To enhance the professional and social status of teachers and develop amongst them a sense of commitment.