Teacher training in Finland and Ukraine

Comparative analysis of teacher training systems

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Abstract

The main purpose of the study is to compare the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine analyzing similarities and differences. The choice of the countries caused by the uniqueness of the cases is not accidental. The Finnish system of education is meant to be the best according to the international comparative studies. High quality of teacher training is one of the main factors of school efficiency in Finland. Ukrainian system of teacher training has a long tradition but now is in the process of reorganization following the new global trends and experiences of other states. Organization of teacher training in these two countries will contribute to understanding of variety of teacher education worldwide illustrating at the same time peculiarities of the concrete cases.

The main criteria for analysis are organization of the process and content of teacher training, assumptions and expectations about ideal teachers, influence of the curriculum development on teacher training and status of the profession in Finnish and Ukrainian societies. Organization of the process of teacher education is seen as a constant development of teacher competence and is examined in the thesis according to the stages of professional training. Preparation and selection to the profession, initial teacher education, entrance to the pedagogical practices and in-service teacher training are the main lines of comparison.

Content of teacher education consists of a complex of main areas of knowledge and skills essential for teacher competence: knowledge of learners and their development in social context; knowledge of subject matter and curriculum understanding; knowledge of teaching, pedagogy and didactics. The analysis gives evidence in which way the relevant subjects are included in curricula of these two countries.

Assumptions about the ideal teachers give explanations of the goals and directions of teacher education and teacher training programs. Curriculum theory and change of curriculum traditions influence the role and duties of teachers both inside and outside the classroom. The comparison shows consequences of changes in curriculum philosophy for teachers in these two countries. Social status, as a reflection of general attitude to the profession, depicts real situation of teachers with its negative and positive sides.

The findings show some definite differences and similarities between the cases. Common features are found in the organization of the process and content of teacher preparation in both cases. As for the duties, role and status of the profession, there are some crucial differences between the cases which evidence about more negative situation of the Ukrainian teachers in comparison to their Finnish colleagues.
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1. **Introduction**

It would not be a hyperbolization to say that each of us, every person is a teacher all the life long. We are both learning and being taught since we are born. From the very first day we learn about life, about the world around us, our existence and our future. To a great extend his perception depends on what teachers we have and how good they are. We learn from parents, society, nature and then later we teach our children, colleagues, let’s say, people around us. We share our experience, philosophic views and expectations about life. This process of teaching and learning depends on what knowledge and skills we have and how good teachers we are. We can both destroy one’s life being a bad example and a bad teacher but also we can make someone successful and achieve the best the possible. We are in charge of what we teach and how we teach! We are responsible for people around us and for the outcomes of this teaching-learning process.

You, I, he, she, we all are teachers. It’s a metaphoric way to look at this profession, profession and at the same time role that we play since we are born and until we die. What about the people who choose to be professional teachers?! It is impossible to exaggerate their importance in the society and their responsibility. No doubt, they carry one of the most difficult services and devote themselves to it for all the life long. It is not enough to be a born-teacher; one should be trained, educated and qualified for it. How to prepare, how to “create” a good, a perfect teacher is one of the main tasks of every society. These thought have been bothering me for quite a period of time. My mother is a teacher, my sister is a would-be teacher, student at teacher training University, and me as well, I am educated as a teacher. I have always been interested to find out the underground and mechanisms of this profession. It has motivated me to do the research on the issue. Personal motivation is the strongest force that drove my interest to examine teacher training.

1.1 **Background and rational of the study**

Teacher training is commonly acknowledged to be one of the most important factors favoring quality of education (Sikula et al., 1996). High level of schooling in each country depends enormously on the system of teacher training, its flexibility and ability to respond to
the demands of the constantly changing society. The latest global trends in teacher education have been influencing the role and the aim of a teacher, setting new tasks and demands for the profession (Schwartz, 1996). Decision-makers and educationalists structuring education systems and developing strategies in order to prepare their countries to deal with the innovative changes pay special attention to the current global trends, experiences of the other countries and, of course, its suitability to their own countries’ potential.

Wholesale reformism concerns to a great extent administration, legislation, organization and content of teacher education. In many countries legislated intervention is focused on the structure of teacher education (Sikula et al., 1996). Highly prescribed regulations for teacher training appeared with the introduction of the new curriculum which corresponds to the changing demands and needs of the society (Murray, 1996). The process increased exercise of governmental control in many countries marked a sharp contrast with previous traditions (Galton & Moon, 1994). This shift in the strategic thinking reinforces the thrust of teacher education towards enhanced professional status and broad acceptance of the need for teachers who can reflect critically on their practice. Giving more autonomy to the teachers governments exercise different types of their accountability to the societies. The balance of central, regional, school and teacher control and autonomy is of particular concern in countries where new definitions of the teacher role are emerging in the period of restructuring of social and educational systems (Schwartz, 1996).

All these new trends and changes in the systems of teacher training lead to emergence of many similarities worldwide. But the variety of diverse forms is still enormous and their efficiency is very different (Darling-Hammond, 2005). It depends on a lot of factors and conditions under which the systems of teacher training are being developed. Historical, cultural and social circumstances and environment have great influence on shaping the peculiarities. Being an integral component of the education system, teacher training is connected with the society and conditioned by the ethos, culture, character of the nation. It is dependent both on the internal (objectives, goals, policies of the state) and external (international influences, reforms) factors. Galton & Moon (1994) state that principles of the state policy, socio-economic conditions, and demands of the constantly changing world are the most important forming components of any system of teacher training.
For better understanding of the current situation in teacher training and its variety worldwide it is expedient to make a cross-national comparison taking as an example some concrete countries. Examination of the legislation, structure, process and content of teacher education in these countries can show distinctive differences or similarities that identify peculiarities of diverse systems. In the present research Finland and Ukraine are chosen to be samples of teacher preparation. The choice of the countries caused by the uniqueness of the cases is not accidental.

Ukrainian case is specific in a way that after the fall of the Soviet Union the country is rebuilding its system accepting the new trends and reforms in education. The country with a population of about 47 million has natural and human resources needed to play a significant role in the world economy: productive land, an industrial base, trained labor, and a quantitatively impressive education system correspondent to its national income (Fimyar, 2008). This former Soviet Union state inherited an education system designed to meet the needs of a centrally planned economy. Funding for education was high and it resulted in high literacy levels: a majority of graduates with solid basic knowledge, plenty of skilled workers available for the industrial sector, and outstanding cultural and scientific achievements (Holowinsky, 1995).

However, between 1990 and 1998 the country experienced one of the most dramatic economic collapses in Eastern Europe. The greater upheaval in the politics and the economy has had a major impact on education (Holowinsky, 1995). Free access to high quality education, good technical support, high qualified teaching staff, high rates of participation and completion for the students of both genders remained in the past, in the era of communism. Poor economic performance left a legacy of rising poverty and falling standards of living, with substantial long term adverse effects on its education system.

The government of Ukraine has remained committed to improving both general education and teacher training in particular even during the worst times of economic crisis. Fymiar (2008) pinpoints two main tasks regarding teacher training that this young independent state faced in the period of reformation: 1) to build a national system of teacher education based on Ukrainian’s cultural roots, 2) to prepare professionally competent teachers to perform their roles effectively according to the needs of the society.
At the moment the country is moving rapidly in the direction of European integration doing its best to improve the quality of education searching for the most appropriate strategies, techniques and methods. Educationalists studying global trends look at the countries which are doing well in the educational sphere, learning from their experience and achievements.

An excellent example of an efficient education system could be Finland meant to be the best in the world. This Nordic country and EU member state is situated between the West and East offering the best of both traditions (Simola, 2005). It enjoys political and economic stability and has a first-class education system. The population of 5.2 million people is small but well-educated. The population density of Finland is among the lowest but its network of higher education institutions is among the densest in Europe (Varra & Alava, 2005).

Educationalists all over the world pay their special attention and research towards education in Finland which is highly valued in the country. It has recently being seen to be the best due to the results of international comparative studies. The PISA 2000, 2003, 2006 projects proved that the Finnish comprehensive schooling is the most efficient. On the website of the Ministry of Education of Finland (www.minedu.fi) there are cited the results of these three surveys showing the achievements of Finnish students:

- In reading literacy: first place in two surveys (2000, 2003) and second place (2006)
- In problem-solving skills: joint second (2003, not assessed in 2000)
- Finland’s score (2006) is the best result ever achieved in any subject area in any of the PISA surveys.

One of the important factors is that the scores showing variations in student and school performance in Finland were among the lowest in the PISA countries (Valijarvi, 2007). Differences between regions are also very small in Finland. Finnish comprehensive school combines high quality performance with a high level of equality in educational outcomes (Simola, 2005).

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1 PISA (The Programme for International Student Assessment) is a joint survey of the OECD member countries and a number of other countries. The tests are administrated in schools every three years to 15-year-olds in the domains of mathematics, science, reading literacy and problem-solving skills. The main focus of the first PISA (2000) was reading, in the second (PISA 20003) it was mathematics, while the latest, PISA 2006 was focused on science (OECD PISA survey. Retrieved March 10, 2009, from http://www.minedu.fi)
Explanations and underlying reasons for the Finnish success in international comparative assessments have been the issues of discussions and research in educational sphere. There are a lot reasons and one of them is competence of the teachers. Finnish teachers and high-quality teacher education are the main factors of the efficiency and quality of the whole system of education in the country (Valijarvi, 2008).

Concrete examples of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine give an overview of the global teacher education process. Organization of training in these two countries will contribute to understanding of the peculiarities of different systems illustrating stages, levels and mechanisms of their development. Quality of teacher education in the countries is seen as the main indicator of the efficiency of the systems.

1.2 Purpose and research questions

In this master thesis I examine and compare the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine. The major research question that has guided the research process is: what are the differences and similarities in these two systems of teacher education. The research question takes into account the following analytical dimensions and subquestions:

- **Organization of the process**: what is common and different between the countries in preparation and selection to the profession, initial teacher education, pedagogical practice and in-service training;

- **Content of teacher training**: what subjects are included in the teacher training curricula and what is their importance for teacher competence;

- **Assumptions and expectations about the profession**: what are the ideal teacher profiles in these two countries, are there any differences or similarities between them;

- **Role of curriculum development for teacher education**: what are the consequences of curriculum development for teacher education, teachers’ role and duties in these two counties;
• **Social status of the profession**: does the profession have the same status in the Finnish and Ukrainian societies.

In order to analyze the findings about all the mentioned criteria a theoretical framework is developed to support the empirical data with theoretical knowledge. This framework is essential for understanding the present research providing theoretical basis and explanations for the chosen dimensions and empirical evidences.

### 1.3 Theoretical background

Theoretical background for the given research comprises a complex of conceptions which correspond to the main analytical dimensions of comparison of the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine. The framework consists of theories about organization of the process of teacher education; a vision of the profession from the point of view of essential for teacher competence knowledge and skills; assumptions about ideal models of teachers with their expected duties and tasks; and influence of curriculum development on teacher preparation.

One of the components of the theoretical framework which corresponds to the first dimension of comparison is an Angelina Rolyak’s (2008) conception of segmentation of the process of building teacher competence. The process is divided into the stages which lead to formation and development of the professionalism of a teacher. Preparation and selection to the profession, initial teacher training, entrance into the pedagogical practice and in-service training are consequential phases and main lines of comparison of the cases.

The other dimension – content of teacher training, is based on a framework of the main areas of knowledge and skills essential for teacher professionalization. Linda Darling-Hammond (2005) presents a theory developed by the committee on Teacher Education of the USA. It comprises knowledge of learners and how they learn and develop within social context; conceptions of curriculum content and goals: understanding of the subject matter and skills to be taught according to the social purposes of education; understanding of teaching according to the content and learners to be taught as assessment and supported by classroom environments.
Assumptions about the ideal teachers are grouped by the scholars: Doyle, Joyce and Zeichner (Sikula et al., 1996), into five main profiles. These models reflect expectations about the competent teacher and explain, to some extent, teacher training programs (their aim, content, organization). The good employee model, the junior professor model, the fully functioning person model, the innovator model and the reflective practitioner model are the main profiles of ideal teachers introduced in the thesis.

The next line of comparison concerns curriculum development, its influence on teacher training and changes of teacher role and duties coursed by changes of curriculum theories. Two main curriculum traditions appropriate both for Ukraine and Finland are discussed and compared. Transition from the traditional didactic model to the self-correcting one is a common feature for the countries under analysis. The traditional didactic model is described with the reference to the syllabus concept of Herbart’s “Lehrplan”. The self-correcting one is presented with the reference to Dewey’s philosophy of learning.

1.4 Research methodology and limitations of the study

The research is carried out utilizing qualitative methods that provide a framework to achieve the main research objective which is to compare systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine. The research design is a cross-national comparative case study as I describe and compare two independent embedded cases with different socio-cultural settings. Each case includes a subcase which pinpoints to the properties of the main one. Data collection and analysis is realized on two levels, national and organizational. More narrow and specific data from the subcases provides concrete evidences for the main cases. The comparison contains replication of the same dimensions showing differences and similarities between the countries.

The research method in this study is a content analysis. The data is collected mainly from official documents and texts (laws, governmental decrees and programs) and official websites of two educational institutions – Slov’jansk Pedagogical University (Ukraine) and Jyväskylä University (Finland). Teacher training programs at these two universities are taken as representatives of the main cases. Slov’jansk Pedagogical University is a public middle-range institution for an average class of the Ukrainian society. The University of
Jyväskylä is chosen to represent the Finnish system because it is one of the largest top-ranked universities in the country. It has its origins in the first Finnish-speaking teacher training college, founded in 1863. Teacher education is the university’s area of special expertise.

Successfulness of this study depends not only on the authenticity, credibility and representiveness of the documents used in the research but also on the researcher’s personal standpoint and her being objective. The fact that I come from Ukraine and that I am a graduator from one of the teacher training institutions in the country can have both positive and negative effects. Advantageous is that I know the system of teacher education in Ukraine from inside; disadvantageous is that the research can be biased by my personal attitude. I tried to be as professional and objective as possible.

The difficulties occurred during the research process are caused by the limits of time and space which are determined by the requirements of a Master’s thesis. The main limitation is that each case contains just one subcase. Enlarged amount of teacher training institutions would make it easier to generalize the findings. Another problematic issue is related to the Ukrainian case – lack of both internal and external research on teacher education. The inconsistency between the legislation and reality in the country influenced collection of trustworthy reliable data. Limitations caused by linguistic problems both for Finnish and Ukrainian cases made the process of data collection complicated and time-consuming.

1.5 Structure of the thesis

The study is organized into seven parts. In the first chapter, introductory one, I introduce the rational of the study, the main purpose, objective and research questions; give a brief overview of what has been planned to be analyzed and how it is conducted. In the second chapter the theoretical background is provided with the description of the theoretical framework for teacher training and curriculum theory. The third chapter explains methodological characteristics: research strategy, design, method and some limitations for the study. The next chapters (chapter four and five) contain data about two descriptive cases, Finnish and Ukrainian respectively. Chapter six represents comparison of two countries with analysis of differences and similarities of the systems of teacher training. The last chapter contains concluding remarks and some comments on the further research.
2. Theoretical framework

2.1 Introduction

The chapter contains a theoretical framework which corresponds to the empirical collections of the study. It gives an explanation to all the analytical dimensions taken for the analysis. The purpose is to construct a theory that would support the data findings with theoretical knowledge. For understanding in theoretical terms what the system of teacher training is I will present conceptions that build up a background for the following items: process of teacher education, content of teacher professionalization, assumptions about the profession, role of curriculum development for teacher education. These theories provide the theoretical basis for the present study and that is why they are essential for understanding the thesis.

The chapter consists of Angelina Rolyak’s (2008) conception of segmentation of the process of becoming a teacher from the very first stage (preparation and selection to the profession) to the lifelong development of professional competence. The next theoretical contribution was worked out by the Committee on Teacher Education of the USA. It is a framework for understanding teaching and learning with the description of the general areas of knowledge and skills that are essential for the teacher profession. The theory is supported by in-detail explanation of the main components: knowledge of learners and their development in social context, knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals, and knowledge of teaching.

Presentation of the models of ideal teachers developed by Doyle, Joyce and Zeichner (Schwartz, 1996), casts light on the expected behavior and tasks of teachers and teacher training programs. The assumptions about the profession explain the current teacher education trends. Curriculum development reflects the directions of teacher education, influencing its aims, tasks and obligations (Holowinsky, 1995). I present and compare two traditions of curriculum planning that are appropriate both for Finland and Ukraine: traditional didactic and self-correcting models. These traditions are ones of the most significant in the history of curriculum theory.
2.2 Process of teacher education

Teacher training is an essential part of any system of education. It is a dynamic and complicated system where all the components are important and interdependent. The system depends on a lot of factors both internal and external (Koshmanova, 2007). Global trends that influence the view of politicians, educationalists and the whole society are crucial for the organization of different parts of the system. Any country and nation has its own specific aims, goals and expectations according to which they structure teacher training.

The system can be divided into some subsystems which correspond to the stages of professional growth of a teacher. Angelina Rolyak (2008) introduced a scheme of organization of the process of teacher education where all the stages are consequential and lead to the formation and development of the professionalism of a teacher.

![Figure 2.1 Organization of process of teacher training (updated from Rolyak, 2008, p. 3)](image)

The first stage can be called a pre-stage where preparation and selection into the profession is organized. The stage is arranged by secondary and higher education institutions which also set the demands and requirements for entrance into the profession in correspondence to governmental programs and orders. Preparation courses and entrance examinations are the essential elements of this subsystem.

Initial teacher education depends on policy of higher education establishments which organize structure, curriculum and duration of programs for teacher training. The main tracks are class teacher and subject teacher preparation programs. There are two main levels of preparation and qualification – Bachelor’s and Master’s one. The crucial components of any program are courses of basic pedagogical and specific subject preparation.

The next stage is organized at the same level. Higher teacher training institutions arrange pedagogical practice and choose the places for its realization. The main purpose of which is to get acquainted with pedagogical activities and to apply theoretical knowledge into the
practice. There are two types of practice, passive and active. On the first stages of practice student-teachers just observe the teaching-learning process and then later participate actively in conducting lessons under the control of qualified instructors. This period is an important element of any teacher training program as it helps to build up teacher competence.

Continuous professional education and development as well as the other stages depend on policies of a government and resources of a state. Universities and other governmental and nongovernmental institutions organize different kinds of in-service teacher education. It could be obligatory and voluntary training where specialists improve and exchange their working experience.

### 2.3 Content of teacher professionalization

There have been a lot of attempts to explore the knowledge, skills, and commitments that should enable teachers to be effective (Murray, 1996). Linda Darling-Hammond (2005) represents a framework that was developed by the committee on Teacher Education of the USA. It provides a set of lenses on any teaching situation that teachers can use to reflect on and improve their practice. The framework highlights three general areas of knowledge and skills that are important for any teacher to acquire:

- Knowledge of learners and how they learn and develop within social context:
  understanding of learning, human development and use of language,

- Conceptions of curriculum content and goals:
  understanding of the subject matter and skills to be taught according to the social purposes of education,

- Understanding of teaching according to the subject content, needs of learners, peculiarities of learning and classroom environments.
2.3.1 Knowledge of learners and their development in social contexts

The first component involves teachers’ knowledge and assumptions about learners’ development in the social contexts. Linda Darling-Hammond (2005) states that the central theories about learning, human development and use of language. It is crucial for effective teaching to understand how children develop and learn, how they acquire and use language.

Understanding learners and learning

In the Handbook of research on teacher education (Sikula et al., 1996) four main components are outlined in the framework of how the process of learning is organized. The effectiveness of teaching depends on the balance of these components.

- Learner-centered: the learner and his/hers strengths, interests, preconceptions. Teacher’s knowledge of child’s development, language, cultural backgrounds, and special needs is essential.
• Knowledge-centered: knowledge, skills, attitudes that are wanted/needed to be acquired and then to be used later. Careful attention must be paid to what is taught, why and how. The content to be learned shapes the whole learning process. Even though the content of what is to be learnt is guided by national, state, local standards teachers must decide how particular ideas may best be taught. Teachers need to anticipate students’ understanding and misunderstanding in specific areas.

• Assessment-centered: assessment of knowledge that both makes students’ thinking visible and guides further learning through feedback. Assessment and feedback are not just evaluation; this is another way of learning.

• Community-centered: within which learning occurs both within and outside the classroom. All learning is culturally mediated, it arises from cultural activity. An effective teacher should provide supportive and flexible settings where people can learn more from one another. Strong social network produces advantages for learning. Experiences that are acquired within the classroom should be linked to those outside of school.

Understanding development

Physical, social-emotional, moral, linguistic and cognitive development is very important for the teaching-learning process. It influences what children experience and how they react to the world around. Teachers need to understand general developmental progressions as well as individual differences in development in order to be ready to prepare and support.

When there is a new task or something difficult for a child, a teacher should be the first to realize what can be effective or what can be harmful (Darling-Hammond, 2005). Understanding stages of development is necessary for an effective teacher so that he/she can understand what is required by the tasks he/she assigns. With the knowledge about children’s development teachers can help pupils to feel inspired to learn.

Deep understanding of diversity is also significant for teachers. Nowadays schools and classes include students with a wide range of cultural, language, ethical backgrounds, experiences and knowledge. The heterogeneity in prior knowledge presents challenges for teachers.
The development and use of language

An especially important aspect of learners’ development involves language. All the process of learning occurs through the use of language. Language that children speak affects the assumptions about students and their abilities. Children need to acquire knowledge skills not only to communicate with others but also to obtain concepts and ideas, to sharpen their thinking (Darling-Hammond, 2005). Language is a tool to understand the reality and to learn about the world around.

Teachers need to be aware of how language and students’ linguistic abilities develop. They should be able to help to develop students’ general communication abilities in their mother tongue. Moreover in order to engage students in academic discourse specialized language of the subject areas should be studied (Sikula, 1996).

2.3.2 Knowledge of subject matter and curriculum goals

The second area of professional knowledge is understanding of curriculum conceptions: subject matter, skills, social purposes of schooling. This knowledge helps to organize the teaching-learning process in light of the goals that it is aimed for (Darling-Hammond, 2005).

Central point is what to teach and why. National, state, local standards reflect the changing purposes of education and the implications for curriculum. It is necessary to have special knowledge to interpret these general guidelines, to create purposeful learning plan so that it fits to the particular students. Teachers’ task is to construct a curriculum for their students in response to broad statements of goals and standards and particular needs of the students. A curricular vision for teachers rests in an understanding of learning and learners as these overlap with educational goals and purposes, understanding of teaching options and possibilities (Schwartz, 1996).

2.3.3 Knowledge of teaching, pedagogy and didactics

Skillful teaching enables learners to access the curriculum. The overall goal is to teach optimizing learning for all students. This involves motivating and organizing students’ work so that it provides access to content and frequent assessments of students’ results in form of feedback and opportunity to improve. Linda Darling-Hammond (2005) outlines four main
areas of knowledge and skills for this process: the development of pedagogical content knowledge in the subject areas; knowledge of how to teach diverse students; knowledge of assessment; and understanding of how to manage classroom activities.

**Teaching subject matter**

Flexible understanding of subject matter is necessary to make the content accessible for the students. Knowing how students understand particular subjects and having strategies to help students to grasp main ideas of the subject is a central part of pedagogic content knowledge. Teachers should diagnose the difficulties and provide strategies for overcoming them.

**Teaching diverse learners**

Students present a wide range of diverse learning needs that a teacher should be able to address. Different social-cultural background, life expectations and believes are mixed in one classroom. A teacher should deal with this diversity, meeting the needs of each child in order to make the teaching-learning process effective. This kind of awareness helps to construct culturally responsive curriculum and to understand strengths and difficulties of children.

**Assessing learning**

Assessment is a very important element of the teaching-learning process. In addition to constructing performance tasks and criteria of evaluating them teachers need formative assessment strategies. These strategies are meant to make students’ thinking and achievements visible, to give feedback, and to guide teaching so that it is responsive to what students need to know and how they learn. A teacher should be aware of how to help students to self-assess themselves.

**Managing classrooms**

Organizing a classroom is important to preserve valuable time and to create a positive environment for teaching and learning. It starts with establishment of curriculum is motivating and inspiring. Further it is strengthened by the creation of learning communities that give students an opportunity to work together productively and to learn in a psychologically safe environment. Teachers who know how to structure the activities and interactions in orderly, purposeful way gain more learning time for the students and give them more opportunity to succeed (Darling-Hammond, 2005, p. 37).
2.4 Models of ideal teachers

All the time the question of effectiveness of teacher training has been one of the most important in education research (Sikula et al., 1996). In order to give teacher education substance and content some scholars – Doyle, Joyce and Zeichner – worked out and proposed five main profiles for the ideal teacher with implications for the elements of the teacher preparation program (Schwartz, 1996). With all the diversity of teacher training systems and programs all over the world it helps to frame and group expectations and assumptions about what the competent teacher is. But even though these models represent some assumptions and traditions of teacher education no single approach can provide the definitive explanation of teacher training program quality and effectiveness of the graduates.

Table 2.1 Models of teachers (modified from Sikula et al., 1996, p. 7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models</th>
<th>Role expectations</th>
<th>Preferred knowledge component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The good employee model</td>
<td>Good teachers in schools and classrooms</td>
<td>Experimental knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deal with real-world problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The junior professor model</td>
<td>Subject matter-based professors</td>
<td>Academic field and knowledge of subject matter discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Often private schools</td>
<td>Pedagogy is not important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fully functioning person model</td>
<td>Psychologists, elementary educators</td>
<td>Personal development of a child, clarification of values, discovery of meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop unique personal style of teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The innovator model</td>
<td>Reformers, educational researchers</td>
<td>New modalities of teaching, renewal of schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reflective practitioner model</td>
<td>Oriented to research</td>
<td>Nature of teaching, to be critical about the work of teaching</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The good employee model. The teacher education program prepares specialists to behave like good teachers in schools and classrooms. They are prepared to deal with real-world problems and situations, provided with technical skills. They are taught to value experimental knowledge and to be as objective and neutral in their personal position as possible (Sikula et al., 1996). This model is preferred by in-service practitioners and administrators for professional expertise.

The junior professor model. The teacher behaves like a subject matter based professor due to additional courses of the academic field and knowledge of subject matter discipline. Methods and pedagogy are not so important; they are just formalities in the teacher preparation program (Schwartz, 1996). According to this model teacher education should be conducted in academic subject departments. The master teacher is almost like a university professor with an excellent knowledge of the discipline. The university program should be selective and academically oriented and it should be deserving of support from art and science faculty, private school personnel and elitist legislators.

The fully functioning person model. Teacher education should be devoted to personal development, self-efficiency, clarification of values, discovery of meaning, and development of a unique and personal style of teaching. This model is a favorite of psychologists, counselors, and elementary educators.

The innovator model. Teacher training programs provide a source of renewal and innovation for schools: individual schools, classrooms, and teachers. Schwartz (1996) states that such teachers are first of all reformers. They are proactive and trained in laboratory settings with new modalities without any influence of outmoded traditional principles of teaching. Social and behavioral scientists, educational researchers, curriculum reformers and teacher education professors prefer this model.

The reflective practitioner model. This program is intended to hone the reflective capabilities of observation, analysis, interpretation, and decision making in the potential teacher. They are taught to be aware of the nature of teaching and to be critical about the work of teaching. Teachers should develop conceptual frameworks for the appropriate use of particular skills (Sikula et al., 1996). Education professors with the qualitative or phenomenological orientations to research and theory favor this model.
2.5 The functioning role of curriculum in teacher education

Any attempts to develop the school system have always been focused on designing new curricula. Curriculum reflects the societal concepts of human being, understanding education, learning and knowledge. Kimonen (2001) stresses that curricula are ever-changing, culturally dependant, practical and interactive by nature. It is constantly changing due to changes in the global society and in any nation. The practical aspect of curriculum is to be seen in the written curriculum, being the central document in schoolwork and the interactive component in the pupil-teacher encounter (Hamilton, 1995, as cited in Kimonen, 2001, p. 125). Foundations of the curriculum are very important for teacher education because they explain the development of school philosophy and outlines duties, tasks and obligations of teachers. They prescribe objectives of teaching and influences, to some extent, the behavior of the teacher inside and outside the classroom.

Two main traditions of curriculum are presented and compared in table 2.2. These are traditional didactic and self-correcting models where the main focus is on subject/teacher- and pupil-centered process respectively. These traditions are seen to be the main and most influential in the history of curriculum theory (McLean, 1995). They were accepted and developed in many countries adapted to individual cultural peculiarities of societies.

The traditional didactic model is associated with the syllabus concept of “Lehrplan”\(^2\). According to this model curriculum is seen as a static list of facts to be learnt. The main assumptions are that essential in learning is to learn the right responses to the given tasks and that learning proceeds typically from the simple towards the complex, from parts to wholes, from lower order to higher order skills. These assumptions are easier to fulfill when the curriculum consists of a detailed program written in advance of teaching (Leino, 1995 as cited in Kimonen, 2001, p. 129). The main advantages are that it provides a uniform system and it is easy to control both the process and the results of teaching and learning. The approach is meant to be stable, static and conservative.

\(^2\) The systematic syllabus concept of “Lehrplan” emphasizes subjects and content. The philosophical basis for curriculum planning was developed by Herbart (1776-1841) in early 19th century when the essential goal of education was moral and the most important task was to prepare the pupils for life in an idealized culture. Herbart chose some basic subjects organized into large, connected units to arouse and keep alive learner’s deep interest (Leino, 1995 as cited in Kimonen, 2001, p. 123).
Table 2.2 Comparison of the main characteristics of the traditional didactic and self-correcting traditions (modified from Lawton, 1982 as cited in Kimonen, 1991, p. 124.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Traditional didactic model</th>
<th>Self-correcting model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Origin</td>
<td>Herbart’s Lehrplan</td>
<td>Dewey’s philosophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophic background</td>
<td>Behaviouristic theory</td>
<td>Pragmatic constructivist view of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method of learning</td>
<td>Deductive</td>
<td>Inductive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Subject-centered</td>
<td>Pupil-centered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means of getting knowledge</td>
<td>Given information</td>
<td>Discovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Subjects: planned and prescribed knowledge</td>
<td>Experiences: real life topics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogic method</td>
<td>Didactic instruction</td>
<td>Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Tests and examinations (public and competitive)</td>
<td>Self-assessment (self-improvement)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussing the curriculum from the point of its central issues: planning, realization and evaluation, the traditional model is seen to have a lot of difficulties. Eija Kimonen (2001) questions the function of a fixed curriculum in a rapidly changing world. She doubts if it could be a realistic plan for complex human activities in the prevailing cultural and historical context. Another problem is that the curriculum has always been the link connecting the administration and the detailed planning of educational process. This entails two sets of goals/aims – high level (general) goals and values of the school system that are politically defined and low level (subject, specific) goals of the teachers who are responsible for realizing the curriculum. In the traditional didactic model these levels turn to be not tightly connected. Different people are responsible for different phases without any cooperation and involvement in the spheres that are beyond their duties.
Another point of the critique of this curriculum tradition is that it ignores individual needs of students providing little teacher initiative. Kimonen (2001) underlines that one of the main characteristics of a good teacher is the skill to transmit knowledge to the learner. The function of pupils is just to be objects of the goals which the teacher is trying to realize. Pupils have just few possibilities to participate in the goal setting or planning and realization of the educational processes and that makes students’ own learning process unimportant.

Core issue in the self-correcting model is the pupil-centered concept which originates from the Dewey’s philosophy of learning³. According to this model curriculum refers to the planning of the child’s learning experiences and should be constructed upon the students’ own understanding of the world (Mc Lean, 1995). The main focus in the school system turns to learning that makes both teachers and pupils more active. The strictly planned context of the traditional curriculum seems very rigid in comparison with an active explorative interaction process where students are activated to search and test different solutions.

Mc Lean (1995) means that one of the advantages of this tradition is that it makes the phases of curriculum planning, realization and evaluation interconnected and dependant on each other. The same people are responsible to some extend for all of them so that it requires flexibility and co-operation: a continuous assessment of the relations between goals, activities and achievement (Kimonen, 2001). Moreover, it is always open for improvement and development. The model is flexible to the changing demands of an individual and depends on his needs and interests. It also gives autonomy to schools and teachers encouraging professional development and making teacher communities to grow towards teamwork and cooperation.

The difficulties within this tradition can be because of the fact that both curriculum planning and implementation are devoted to schools and teachers who sometimes cannot cope with both tasks without more funds for professional development and teacher assistance (Kimonen, 2001). Lack of time and enthusiasm are also one of the problems. This approach is too dependent on personal qualities of teachers. Not all of them are interested or used to planning curriculum and teaching process. A non-prepared teacher with bad skills on

³ American philosopher and psychologist John Dewey developed a theory of education “learning by doing” when teaching is based on the children’s own activity. Knowledge is seen as not permanent and universal but as something contingent. Learning is always a context-dependant and situated interaction process. It is an active process of knowledge construction (selection and interpretation of information) by a learner who interprets information on the basis of his own current world view. The core of the learning process is exploration, problem solving and understanding (Mc Lean, 1995).
curriculum planning can harm the whole learning process. Some of the teachers just do not want to take such a great responsibility and additional work, seeing it to be a duty of the others.

2.6 Summary

The theoretical framework presented in the chapter corresponds to the main lines of analysis: organization of the process, content of teacher professionalization, ideal profiles and influence of curriculum traditions on teacher training. This framework provides a theoretical background for the present research. The process of teacher training is divided into four main stages: preparation and selection into the profession, initial teacher education, entrance into pedagogical activities and continuous professional education (in-service training). All the stages correspond to the professional development of a teacher from the entrance into the profession to the lifelong learning.

The content of teacher training consists of three main areas of knowledge and skills which are: knowledge about learners and their development in the social context; knowledge about subject matter and curriculum goals, and knowledge about teaching, pedagogy and didactics. All the components are closely connected and interdependent and cannot be separated from each other. These areas of knowledge create teachers’ philosophic and professional foundation, guide them and influence the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process.

Assumptions about the competence of the ideal teacher highlight the expected behavior, role and tasks of teachers. The good employee model, the junior professor model, the fully functioning person model, the innovator model and the reflective practitioner model are the main profiles of ideal teachers.

Curriculum traditions and school philosophy influence organization of teacher training in many ways. Two essential traditions of curriculum theory are discussed and compared in this chapter. Stable and conservative subject-centered approach that provides a uniform system and ignores individual needs of students contrasted to the flexible and dynamic pupil-centered approach that gives autonomy to schools and teachers but is difficult to foresee.
3. **Methodology**

The chapter is aimed at describing of the research process with the presentation of the methodological principles of the study. My purpose is to explain the choice of research strategy, design and method which are defined by the nature of the research question and the objectives. Teacher education research with its problems is presented in the chapter giving a theoretical background for the methodological part of the thesis. I will also mention the sources of data collection and discuss the key characteristics of the research quality.

The main focus of the researcher shown in the chapter indicates a framework and a process of how the research has been conducted. The match between the type of research and personality, attributes and skills of the researcher is a very important point. Any study requires examination of researcher’s own orientation to basic tenets about the nature of reality, the purpose of doing research, and the type of knowledge to be produced (Merriam, 1998). In other words, the chosen strategy, design and method in this master thesis give information not just about the nature of research questions but also about the personality and philosophy of the researcher.

3.1 **Teacher education research**

Research on teacher education is becoming a growing area of inquiry, complete with new developments and important advances within a large context of social, political, cultural, financial and interpersonal factors (Sikula et al., 1996). These factors are at different levels, including national, regional, state, school, district, university and school or department education. The identification of contextual factors is a major task in order to advance the understanding of antecedents to effective teacher training and education.

Research is tightly connected to theory, practice and policy making. Lee & Yarger (1996) in the handbook of research on teacher education points out some problems concerning the relationships between the teacher education research, theory, practice and policy making. As for the relation to theory, educational research has been charged with overemphasis on gathering empirical data about the phenomenon of interest and underemphasis on explicating theoretical and conceptual underpinnings (Martin & Sugarman, 1993 as cited in Sikula et al,
1996, p. 34). This problem is inherent in applied research in which the primary interest involves finding out what works and how it works rather than providing explanations for why it works. Theory development should accompany empirical and methodological advancements.

The relationships between research and practice also have been problematic in teacher education. The practical value of research in teacher education is ambiguous. One example is the debate concerning the extent to which research on teacher thinking can contribute to teacher preparation. The applicability of research to practice is a questionable point. There are efforts to converge basic and applied research on teacher education in real-world settings.

The relationship between research and policy making further complicates teacher education research. Policymakers take research findings into account as a source of information, whereas more practical concerns of politics, finance and public opinion dominate the decisions. (Sikula et al., 1996, p. 34). The research is used in a “one-sided” way that better suits the decisions of policymakers ignoring and neglecting the whole picture of findings.

3.2 The Research Strategy

As it was stated in the introductory chapter, the main research objective is to compare systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine. The following analytical dimensions are chosen to be compared between the Finnish and Ukrainian cases:

- **Organization of the process** of teacher training is compared according to the stages of teacher education, which are preparation and selection to the profession, initial teacher training, entrance into the pedagogical practice and continuous professional education.

- **Content** of teacher training is compared on the basis of the three main blocks of knowledge and skills that are essential for the teacher competence: knowledge about learners and their development in the social context, knowledge about subject matter and curriculum goals, and knowledge about teaching, pedagogy and didactics.

- **Assumptions** and expectations about ideal teachers.

- Role of *curriculum development for* teacher education at the end of the XX century.
• Social status of the profession.

The most suitable research strategy that can provide a framework for this study is a qualitative one. In my research I deal not with the numeric data and some static phenomena but I intend to study and interpret the relations within real dynamic systems – systems of teacher training in two countries depicting differences and similarities between them.

Qualitative research emphasizes “understanding of the social world through an examination of the interpretation of that world by its participants”. Another feature is that “social properties are outcomes of the interaction between individuals, rather than phenomena” (Bryman, 2004, p. 266). The purpose of a qualitative inquiry is not to measure the reality neither to confirm a hypothesis but to study the reality as something alive not static.

Constructing the research plan I applied the criteria of Miles & Huberman (1994). Qualitative research process in this study is realized through the following steps which show the progression of the study:

• Choice of general research questions (what are the differences and similarities between the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine);

• Selection of sites and subjects (process and content of teacher training; models of ideal teachers; curriculum development; social status of the profession);

• Collection and interpretation of relevant data (mainly from official documents and websites of governmental educational institutions);

• Conceptual and theoretical work which leads to tighter specification of the research questions (similarities, differences in the process of organization and content of teacher training; assumptions and expectation about ideal teachers; role of curriculum development for teacher education; social status of the profession in the societies);

• Writing up findings and conclusions.

The framework outlined above gives a picture of the organization of the process that I used while doing the research. Detailed planning of the stages with time settings helped me to count on time and be consequent in my work.
3.3 The Research Design

Having started to write the methodology chapter I had some uncleanness with defining the research design. Bryman (2004) underlines that it is very important to be clear with the definition of the design because a choice of research design reflects decisions about the priority being given to a range of dimensions of the research process. I knew what I study, how I would carry out the research, what will be my focus and techniques but I could not find the suitable name for the research design. It was one of the difficulties of the methodological part in my work.

While reading literature on methodology I came across different names of the design I am using as a framework for the collection and analysis of data about the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine. Comparative design, extended case study, multi-case study, comparative case study, cross-cultural or cross-national study are the possible suitable variants. A case study is a key definition that covers the framework for this research. This type of design has recently become a much more prominent mode of inquiry in teacher education research (Sikula et al., 1996). It seems to be particularly relevant to the study of teacher education and teachers because of the obvious importance of understanding the complexities and contextual factors. It is very useful in describing and explaining teacher education systems, programs or institutions across a wide range of conceptual, structural, and managerial issues.

Let me explain why it can and at the same time cannot be just a “case study”. The basic case study entails the detailed and intensive analysis of a single case; it is employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation (Merriam, 1988, p. 19). Another definition of the case study developed by Yin (1994, p. 13) is that it is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. It is an intensive description and analysis of a single unit or a bounded system. The case then could be a person as a student, a teacher, a principle; a program; a group such as a class, a school, a community; a specific policy and a nation (Lee, 1996, p. 25).

All the characteristics of a case study mentioned above match the planned intentions and the main goal of the given research. Moreover, special features of a case study developed by Olson (Hoaglin, 1982, as cited in Merriam, 1988, p. 30) correspond to the present study:
• It is particularistic as it focuses on a particular system. In this research on two systems (the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine). The case itself is important for what it reveals about the phenomenon. It could be influenced by the author’s bias (as it was mentioned in the introductory chapter, the researcher is originally from one of the countries under analysis so I was trying to be as objective and neutral as possible).

• It is descriptive as the end product is a rich description and analysis of two systems of teacher training. The description is qualitative because literary techniques and elicit images are used in the analysis.

• It illustrates the complexities of a phenomenon – the fact that not one but many factors contributed to it. For example, the influences of the passage of time on the issue is shown in this master thesis – curriculum development and reforms in both countries, change of legislation (from Soviet to independent Ukraine), etc.

• It is heuristic as it illuminates the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under the study. It leads to the discovery of new meaning, extends reader’s experience and confirms what is known. Case study analyses, evaluates and concludes, thus increasing its potential applicability.

The research is defined as a case study with a remark – comparative case study. It is advantageous in analysis of two cases as comparison gives an opportunity to concentrate on the same phenomena and entities in two countries uncovering structure, mechanisms, background and hidden reasons for the systems to function (Brochman & Engelstad, 1997). It would be correct to add that cross-national or cross-cultural comparison is realized in the present research because two independent cases are compared with an intention to examine different socio-cultural settings, using the same research instruments. As a researcher, I am trying to seek explanations for similarities and differences between two countries, gain a greater awareness and understanding of teacher education in different national contexts. So, taking into account all these arguments, the research design in the given master thesis is a cross-national comparative case study.

Another peculiarity of the present design is that it consists of two embedded cases and organized at two levels. Robert Yin (1994) states that data from subcases is a part of the
findings for each individual case. In this study two separate cases – the Finnish and Ukrainian one, are supported by the subcases as it is shown in figure 3.1.

![Figure 3.1 Two levels of the case study](image)

Data collection and analysis is realized at two levels, national (level I) and organizational (level II). Data from level II helps the researcher to pinpoint the properties of the cases on level I. Two universities – Jyväskylä University and Slov’jansk Pedagogical University, are chosen to be representatives of the cases. Information taken from the teacher training programs at these universities is more “narrow” and specific data for the Finnish and Ukrainian cases. The comparison contains replication of the same dimensions showing differences and similarities between the cases.

### 3.4 The Research Method

The main research method in this master thesis is content analysis. Two definitions are taken for the introduction of this method. One of Berelson (1952 as cited in Bryman, 2004, p. 182) states that content analysis is a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication. The other of Hosti (1969 sited in Bryman, 2004, p. 182) is that content analysis is any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of massages. Following these two definitions the terms objectivity and being systematic are very important. Objectivity resides in the fact that there is transparency in the procedures for assigning the raw material to categories so that the analyst’s personal biases intrude as little as possible in the process. The quality of being systematic means that application of the rules
is done in a consistent manner so that bias is again suppressed. The process of analysis is one that means that results are not an extension of the analyst personal biases.

The main use of content analysis has been in the examination of printed texts and documents and of mass media items. All the procedures can be clearly set out so that replications and follow-up studies are feasible. It can also allow a certain amount of longitudinal analysis with relative ease. It is a highly flexible method as it is being applied to a wide variety of different kinds of unstructured information (Brochman & Engelstad, 1997).

Successfulness of this method depends enormously on the documents being used. The present research is based on collecting data from official documents and texts (laws on education, governmental orders and decrees, programs for teacher training), official websites of the ministries of education (the Ukrainian – www.mon.gov.ua and the Finnish – www.minedu.fi) and teacher training universities (Jyväskylä University – www.jyv.fi and Slov’jansk Pedagogical University – www.slavdpu.dn.ua), historical reviews and previous research. The main criteria for assessment of the documents are authenticity (true, real, legitimate information), credibility (free from error) and representiveness (if the evidence is typical of its kind). I was selective and critical about the sources trying to be sure that the evidences are genuine and that they are of unquestionable origin.

3.5 Quality of the research

The present research concerns with producing valid and reliable knowledge. It is very important to trust the findings and have confidence in the results of any study. The best way to ensure the quality it is by using such criteria as reliability, replication, and validity (Bryman, 2004). There is a debate in methodological literature about the relevance of these criteria for qualitative research. Lincoln & Guba (1985, as cited in Merriam, 1998, p. 283) suggest the terms of trustworthiness (which is made up of credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability) and authenticity that parallel the above given criteria (Bryman, 2004). Ensuring the quality of this master research I stick to the same terms.

Credibility parallels internal validity and entails how true the findings are and how they could be accepted by the others. It ensures that the research was carried out according to the canons of good practice and that the findings can prove that the researcher has correctly
I understood the social world and the case that he/she was analyzing, in other words, how the findings match a reality (Bryman, 2004). Have I, as a researcher, managed to interpret and present in the realistic and trustworthy way information about the systems of teacher education in Finland and Ukraine? – is one of the main questions I asked myself while writing the thesis. This criterion is ensured by double checking data from different sources.

As for the criterion of **transferability**, it coincides with external validity, whether the results of the study can be generalized and used beyond the specific research context. Ability to generalize to other setting, nations, and countries is ensured through a priori conditions such as assumptions of equivalency between the given case and the others (Bryman, 2004). Teacher education research has its peculiarities concerning this issue. Sikula et al. (1996) conclude that even though narrative inquiry of teacher education has a special importance high quality research doesn’t always mean that the findings have practical value. Research findings have different relevance or significance to practitioners and to policymakers because they are difficult to generalize (Merriam, 1998). In the present research I analyze a case that naturally exists, describing different aspects of it in a given context, providing rich and detailed examination. It provides practitioners and policymakers with opportunities to reflect on and to analyze their own situations. Of course, there is a lot of variation from the case under the study to the other ones and it could be difficult to determine the relevance of the findings to the situations. But rich description provides enough information so that readers will be able to determine how closely their situations match the research situation, and hence, whether the findings can be transferred.

As a parallel to reliability the idea of **dependability** is proposed which is being used to define the consistency of a study. Bryman (2004) states that reliability is based on the assumption that there is a single reality and that studying it repeatedly will bring the same results. Lincoln & Guba (1985, in Merriam, 1998, p. 206) suggest thinking about the “dependability” of the results obtained from data. The question is not whether the findings will be found again in the next study but whether the results are consistent with the data collected. This issue depends enormously on the reliability of sources and documents used in the study and on the analytical tools used by a researcher. In the present research official documents obtained from states, governmental institutions, private resources and scientific research outputs are used. These types of sources, discussed earlier in the same chapter, correspond to a large extend such criteria as authenticity, credibility, representiveness and
meaning (clear comprehensive sense and implications) so that it minimizes the doubt about the consistency of the study.

**Confirmability** is concerned with ensuring that a researcher influences the study as less as possible. Merriam (1998) argues that there is no complete objectivity in social research and any study is biased by the person who carries it out. But the researcher should not allow his/her personal values, opinion, and philosophic inclinations to sway conducting the research and findings (Bryman, 2004). Confirmability must be one of the objectives of any researcher. Even though I am originally from one of the countries under analysis I tried to be as neutral as possible in presenting evidences and findings.

### 3.6 Limitations of the study

There are both predictable and unexpected limitations I faced while doing the research. First of them is connected to the limits of time and space which are determined by the requirements of a Master thesis. That disabled me to enlarge the amount of the subcases for the proper comparison of the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine. I was limited to take just one representative for each case (Jyväskylä University and Slov’jans’k Pedagogical University), thus the findings are difficult to generalize. The programs for teacher training from different universities in both countries would give more depth to the study increasing the quality of research.

Another limitation is caused by the lack of research on education in Ukraine and on teacher training in particular. Programs for teacher preparation at higher education institutions are badly studied and examined. It is very problematic to find any analysis of the programs. There is even less external and international research done on this issue.

One more thing that made me confused about the Ukrainian case is some inconsistency between the legislation and the reality. The whole system of education in the country is under reformation and there are a lot of changes prescribed from the top but still not implemented or under active implementation on the lower levels. So, it was difficult to examine the real situation and understand at which stage the changes actually are (e.g. in the
Ukraine’s national report on the implementation of the Bologna process\(^4\) it is stated that from the 2004/2005 academic year there does not exist the Specialist’s Degree, at the same time Information package of the Slov’jansk Pedagogical University\(^5\) still gives certain requirements for applicants for this degree for the 2009/2010 academic year). This discrepancy doubts not just the data sources but also the policy of the government.

Another limitation concerns linguistic issues. Linguistic barriers made the research process restricted and maybe even one-sided enabling to use the whole scope of information about teacher training in Finland and Ukraine. The fact that big amount of data for both cases is in the native languages made the process of data collection complicated. Luckily, I did not have such problems with the Ukrainian case due to my competence in the language. But translation of some sources, especially governmental documents, into English was time-consuming. The situation with the Finnish case was worse even though the amount of information and research is bigger. I came across some data which could not be used because it was in Finnish.

3.7 Summary

Methodological issues and principles of the research are outlined in this chapter. Teacher education research is presented with its problems regarding to the relation to theory, practice and policymaking which gives a theoretical background to the methodological part of the present study. There is a detailed description of the research process with the stages of the planned work. The choice of the research strategy, design, and method was conditioned by the nature of the research question. Qualitative strategy provides the best suitable framework for the comparison of two embedded cases. Content data analysis method was used for examination of the information from official governmental institutions and websites, historical reviews and previous research. I tried to provide the quality of the study using the most prominent characteristics of the social research, such criteria as: credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability. The techniques used to ensure these criteria are


also discussed in the chapter. Limitations of the research were caused by different internal and external factors. Restrictions of master thesis, data inconsistency and linguistic barriers are the main of them.
4. Unique northern country – Finland

The chapter is devoted to the Finnish case, to the presentation of the teacher education in Finland. It contains both general outline (historical overview, brief presentation of the system of education and curriculum development) and specific information about the organization of the system of teacher training in the country. The subcase of the teacher training in the country will be teacher training programs at Jyväskylä University. The curriculum and structure of the programs for class teacher and subject teacher training are presented in the chapter.

Historical and social background gives a clearer picture of the whole system of education and better explanation of a current situation of teacher training in the country because it states the reasons and preconditions of the development. Peculiarities of curriculum planning as key factors that influence teacher training are introduced in the chapter. I describe the directions of the pedagogical thinking and school philosophy in the country before and after the 1990s.

Presentation of the teacher training is realized through the description of the organization of the process of teacher education. The latter consists of preparation and selection to the profession, initial teacher training, entrance into the pedagogical activities and in-service teacher training. The status of the Finnish teacher in the society and its professional weight will be also discussed in this chapter.

4.1 Brief historical and sociological remarks

Finland is a high income state in the Northern Europe with rather a small population of about 5.2 million inhabitants. It has the lowest population density among the EU member states and big differences among the regions in their population density (Varra & Alava, 2005). The country has borders with Sweden, Norway and Russia and a sea border with Estonia. Due to being a bordering country between the west and the east, Finland incorporates the elements of both western and eastern cultures. Simola (2005) states that the Russian influence is very strong and noticeable in all the spheres of the Finns’ life.
The website of the Finnish National Board of Education (www.oph.fi) informs that since the 12th century when Finland was incorporated into Sweden, education was governed by the Church. It was provided in monastic schools and in the cathedral school established in Turku in the 13th century. Instruction was in Latin until the 16th century when the first Finnish-language ABC book appeared.

The fact that the country went through some severe wars is essential for understanding of peculiarities of the nation’s development in general and education in particular. The most destructive of them were the civil war, linked to the Russian revolutionary movements, and the World War I. Finland declared independence in 1917 and later in 1918 the country was divided into “White” and “Red” camps. From a psycho-historical perspective, the peculiarities of the Finnish drift to social consensus might be understood by delving into these two aspects: the sense of being a border country, and the consequences of the civil war (and the celebrated consensus during the Winter War 1939-1940 in the collective mentality) (Simola, 2005).

Since 1980s educational development in the country was influenced by two processes:

- transition from a mono-cultural, agrarian society to a multi-cultural, high-tech-knowledge economy accepting an active role in shaping the present-day European economic and political environment,
- the Finnish education system has become an attractive and internationally examined example of a well-performing system that combines quality with widespread equity and social cohesion through reasonable public financing (Sahlberg, 2007).

There was a difficult way for Finland from a poor agrarian state to a modern welfare democracy. The process of industrialization and urbanization was quite sluggish until the World War II, compared with the Central Europe and the other Nordic countries (Simola, 2005). In 1945, 70% of the Finnish population lived in rural areas, and nearly 60% were employed in agriculture and forestry. Following the great migration in the 1960s, by 1970 half lived in the cities and 32% were employed in industry and construction (Alapuro, 1987, as cited in Simola, 2005, p. 458). Sahlberg (2007) states that traditional values included such cultural hallmarks as a law-abiding citizenry, trust in authority, commitment to one’s social group, awareness of one’s social status and position, and a patriotic spirit.
In 1990s the country suffered a severe economic crisis. The unemployment rate exploded from 4% to 18% and public debt was over 60% of GDP (Sahlberg, 2007). For the Finnish economy to recover, the nation had to diversify its export structures and encourage business innovation. Sahlberg also notes that the emergence of new knowledge-based industries and adoption of knowledge economy concepts throughout the entire Finnish society stimulated economic reforms.

The process of industrialization and growth of the service sector lead to a rapid structural change in society. Simola (2005) argues that the transition to an industrial and later to a post-industrial society took place within a very short period of time, so it seems that the features of these societies coexist in the country. Industrial and individualist and at the same time agrarian and collectivist, the Finnish welfare state is seen as a product of these historical disturbances. The system of education has also been developing under the direct influence of all the mentioned above historical and social factors forming its specific features.

### 4.2 Basic features of the system of education

The Finnish education system consists of the preschool, comprehensive (primary and lower secondary level), post-comprehensive general, vocational (upper secondary level), higher and adult education (the tertiary level). On all these levels there developed two parallel systems for Finnish-speaking (94% of population) and for Swedish-speaking (6%) students (Moon & Vlasceanu, 2008). One-year preschool education arranged by social authorities at day-care centers is provided for children aged 6 in conjunction with comprehensive schools. About 93% of all six-year-old children take part in it (Moon & Vlasceanu, 2003).

Comprehensive school system was developed quite late, in the 1970s, but very rapidly and systematically. The system provides general education for the whole age group from 7 to 16, taking nine years to complete. The school network covers the whole country (around 3,200 institutions). Well-equipped schools are typically small, with class sizes ranging from 20 to 30 students. The schools are run by local authorities with exception of a few private schools.

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*Source: “General information about education and education systems and institutes in Finland”. Retrieved February 10, 2009, from the official website of the Ministry of Education of Finland http://www.minedu.fi*
There two levels of comprehensive schooling: the lower (years 1-6) and the upper one (years 7-9). Education is almost identical for all pupils with the same subjects and similar instructional contents. About 20% of all classroom hours are reserved for the optional subjects which may include courses in foreign languages, sports, art and music (Valijarvi, 2002). Teaching and educational equipment are free of charge.

Post comprehensive education is presented by general and vocational upper secondary training. The majority of pupils goes to general upper secondary schooling. The curriculum has been designed for three years but pupils may graduate in a longer or shorter period of time. Upper secondary school ends in the matriculation examination which consists of tests in mother tongue (Finnish/Swedish/Sami), the second national language (Finnish/Swedish), the first foreign language, mathematics and general studies. This examination is required for entering universities. About 40% of pupils go directly into different types and levels of vocational education (Moon & Vlasceanu, 2003). Vocational education and training is mainly institution-based. All secondary level vocational programs take three years to complete; minimum six months are devoted to practical on-job training.

Higher education is dual based, it runs parallel at universities and polytechnics which are owned and funded by the state (Valijarvi, 2002). The difference between the institutions lay in the fact that the main accent of training at universities is made on research and theoretical education while polytechnics' training is more practical. The training in the country is realized on three levels. A Bachelor’s Degree (three-four years) and is an intermediate step towards a Master’s one (2 years). After the Master’s Degree Licentiate and Doctor are available only at universities.

The system of adult education is well developed in the country giving a chance to improve knowledge and skills for those who are out of school age. Depending on the needs it provides either vocational education or teaching at comprehensive or upper secondary school level (Hopkins, 2008). The training is organized in higher educational institutions, municipal schools or independent adult education centers.

\(^7\) See footnote 6
4.3 Curriculum development in Finland

The series of earlier curricula in 1952, 1970, 1985, 1994 evidences that Finland has been systematically developing a national curriculum (Sahlberg, n.d.). This development reflects the changing demands and needs of the society and shows the direction of school philosophy of the nation. Changes of curriculum traditions influenced as well understanding of the role and duties of a teacher in the schooling process.

The curriculum reforms in the Finnish comprehensive school during the 1970s and 1980s were focused on highly centralized planning and decision-making. The Committee Reports on the National Curricular Guidelines for the Comprehensive Schools (1970) and the Framework Curriculum for Comprehensive School (1985) were planned and developed centrally (Kimonen, 2001). Kimonen also notes that both of them were classical (traditional) in nature and reflected Herbart’s “Lehrplan”8. The Curriculum of 1970 comprised overall objectives for comprehensive school and subject-oriented syllabus.

The position of the curriculum in the activities of the school was strengthened and clarified in the new school legislation of 1985. There was the first step from teacher-centered towards pupil-centered model of curriculum planning (Sahlberg, n.d.). Local government authorities got more independence and opportunities to supplement the national curriculum. Municipal curricula were approved by the provincial government departments of education. Almost one third of the teachers were involved in constructing curricula. It was based on the naturalistic approach and varied from municipality to municipality, from school to school. The main problems were caused by lack of both time and personal experience in curriculum development. It required wide implementation of curriculum training at teacher training institutions from administrative and pedagogical concerns (Kimonen, 2001).

Until the 1970s-80s the Finnish system remained highly centralized. But it seemed that the idea “education for all” was not being fully realized in the country. Kimonen (2001) states that the need for humanism, democracy and individualization in education became one of the most important formal goals and objectives and the moving force towards a pupil-centered curriculum. In the 1990’s a number of crucial educational reforms took place in Finland. The National Curriculum was replaced by a set of general goals, approved by the Ministry of

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8 Detailed description of this curriculum tradition is given in the theory chapter, p. 25.
Education, while the responsibility for curriculum planning has been shifted to the level of communities and individual schools (Kimonen, 2001). Basic principle behind the curriculum reform of 1994 was that schools should lead the change not adjust to it.

The reforms allowed each school to construct its own curriculum on the basis of general guidelines. Schools have got freedom to compete with each other and parents could choose a school for their children. All members of the school community including parents were encouraged to collaborate in the writing of the curriculum. The main objective was to learn how to learn aiming to change the school into the learning center. Finnish schools have got a high degree of autonomy in pedagogical and curricular practices. Teachers turned to be not just deliverers of the curriculum but what is more important its creators. They become responsible for the content of courses, the choice of textbooks, and results of learning (Valijarvi, 2002).

This new self-correcting Finnish model of curriculum based on a pragmatic view of learning and a “phenomenon-centered” approach is considered to be one of the most efficient. It makes the whole process of schooling and its content flexible taking into account individual needs of children. The themes to be treated can be decided by a teacher but the relevant topics and facts should be found in a process of interaction between teacher and pupils, reflecting the phenomenon in varying contexts (Kimonen, 2001).

**4.4 Process of teacher education**

High standard of teacher training seen as a one of the main conditions of effectiveness of education is guaranteed by national requirements. The law on the university degree system contains a separate section on teacher education with the regulations for each qualification. There are two traditional lines of development of teacher training: education of class and subject teachers (Moon, & Vlasceanu, 2003). Free of charge training is provided by public universities and polytechnics. The majority of teacher education students study at universities. After graduation from a university students are licensed as teachers. It gives them a right to apply for teaching positions at schools.

For the analysis of the teacher education in the country I use the scheme of Rolyak (2008) where the process of teacher training is divided into the following stages: preparation and
4.4.1 Preparation and selection to the profession

This highly respected and appreciated profession attracts a lot of applicants each year. The amount of them is so big that there is no need in additional attracting students. That is why there no special preparation programs are developed either at neither secondary schools nor universities. Higher educational establishments have policies of restricting the number of school graduates who apply for teacher training. Sahlberg (2006) informs that just 10% of the applicants goes successfully through the strict selection and gets admitted to the studies. This means that the universities have an opportunity to choose the most excellent and talented of the nation to educate as teachers.

Contest selection to the profession is organized at two stages. Upper secondary matriculation examination is the first obligatory criterion for admission for those who apply for teacher education. A number of the applicants equals some three to four times the number of available places on the basis of the matriculation examination and accumulated school marks (Moon & Vlasceanu, 2003). Additional points are earned by experience in working with children. The next stage is organized on the university level. Local examinations usually consist of different assignments and personal interviews. Requirements and procedures of selection of would-be class and subject teachers are similar. The only difference is that the accent for subject teacher applicants is made on the main subject.

Finish teacher education attracts the best students giving them an opportunity for constant academic and professional development. Master’s Degree is meant to be one of the factors that the profession is so popular. Moon & Vlasceanu (2003) state that the degree is the basic requirement to be permanently employed as a teacher in a Finnish school. It also guarantees the access to postgraduate studies. Besides, a person with a Master’s Degree in education can be employed in public administration and in private sector.
4.4.2 Initial teacher education

Teacher education is organized either in the faculties of education or in subject faculties. At the first stage students take a Bachelor’s Degree with 180 ECTS credits and then a 120-credit Master’s Degree. They take basic, intermediate and advanced studies (120 ECTS credits) in the major subject, and basic and intermediate studies (60 ECTS credits) in minor subject. It takes about five years to complete a 300-credit degree in order to be qualified to work in a Finnish school (OAJ, 2008). Moon & Vlasceanu (2003) state that the most noticeable feature of the teacher training in the country is that both primary and secondary school teachers must earn a Master’s Degree and that their academic status is the same. Teachers with a Master’s Degree have an option to continue their studies on the doctoral level.

4.4.2.1 Teacher training at Jyväskylä University

In this study teacher training at Jyväskylä University is taken as an example of the Finnish teacher education. The Faculty of Education has its roots in the first Finnish-language teacher training college founded in Jyväskylä in 1863. In 1934 this teacher training college became a College of Education and then later in 1966 a university. As it is cited on the website of the University (www.jyu.fi) the Faculty of Education at the university consists of two departments: the Department of Educational Sciences and the Department of Teacher Education. The main subjects at the Department of Educational Sciences are adult education, special pedagogy and early childhood education. Department of Teacher Education educates class teachers, sign language class teachers, subject teachers and study counselors.

Class teacher education program

The class teacher education is organized at the university on two levels: the Bachelor’s and the Master’s one. The Bachelor’s Degree is seen as intermediate preparation stage for more advanced training at the Master’s level. The structure of both Bachelor’s and Master’s Degree program of class teacher training is presented in table 4.1.

The Bachelor’s Degree program includes the course of communication and orienting studies which consist of introduction to university studies and personal study plan (4 ECST credits), introduction to scientific research (3 ECST credits), information and communication
technology and acquiring information (3 ECST credits), mother tongue communication and interaction (4 ECST credits), Swedish (3 ECTS credits), foreign language (3 ECTS credits). Students become acquainted with the philosophy, history, psychology and sociology of education, as well as the foundations of guidance of learning. School subjects taught in grades 1-6 and the didactics of the subjects are also introduced in the program. Students learn to examine scientific research in the field of education and they are introduced to the central research methods.

Table 4.1 Structure of class teacher education program at Jyväskylä University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study modules</th>
<th>Bachelor’s Degree</th>
<th>Master’s Degree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>180 ECTS credits</td>
<td>120 ECTS credits</td>
<td>300 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication and orientating studies</td>
<td>20 ECTS credits</td>
<td>5 ECTS credits</td>
<td>25 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic studies in education</td>
<td>25 ECTS credits</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject studies in education</td>
<td>35 ECTS credits</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>35 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced studies in education</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>80 ECTS credits</td>
<td>80 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multidisciplinary school subject studies</td>
<td>60 ECTS credits</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>60 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor subject studies (1-2 minor subjects)</td>
<td>25 ECTS credits</td>
<td>35 ECTS credits</td>
<td>60 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective studies</td>
<td>15 ECTS credits</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>15 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aim of the Master’s Degree is to provide theoretical and practical foundation for the teacher’s work. Students learn to examine learning, studying and their own teaching from various theoretical perspectives. The program comprises communication and orienting studies and advanced studies in education. The latter consists of courses in teacher’s ethics and educational philosophy (3 ECTS credits), development and growth milieus (3 ECTS credits), school community and society (3ECTS credits), teacher as researcher of his/her work (4 ECTS credits), instructed adaptive practice (10 ECTS credits), advanced instructed practice (6 ECTS credits), elective advanced studies in education (6 ECTS credits). The essential part of the program is the course of research method studies.

In order to complete the required amount of credits both Bachelor’s and Master’s students take minor subjects which are offered by the Department of Teacher Education. Minor subjects can be also chosen from the university’s broad selection. Depending on the range of the minor subject studies, the degree can also include the subject teacher qualification. As an example, there are courses in drama education, in preschool and initial teaching, visual arts, physical education, multicultural teaching, music, craft education, technology education, science (physics, chemistry, geography, health science, biology), Finnish language and literature.

Subject teacher education program

Subject teacher qualification allows teaching in different educational institutions. The training is also realized on two levels the Bachelor’s and the Master’s one. There are two ways to get specialized: applying separately for pedagogical studies or directly for teacher education when applying to study the subject (Moon & Vlasceanu, 2003). As it is documented in the curriculum of Jyväskylä University the studies comprise the basic and subject studies (60 ECTS credits in total):

Basic Studies in Education (25 ECTS credits):

- Introduction to education
- Psychological foundations of education
- Sociological foundations of education
- Guidance of growth and learning

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10 See footnote 9
• Instructed orientation practice

Subject studies in education (35 ECTS credits):
• Developing individual in group
• Guidance of learning and the learning organization
• Educator’s ethics and educational philosophy
• Research methodology and communication
• Instructed basic practice
• Instructed advanced practice
• Instructed basic practice/ instructed specialized practice (on choice).

Subject knowledge and knowledge about education, learning and teaching are integrated in subject teacher programs. Subject departments are responsible for the school subject studies, and the Department of Teacher Education is responsible for the pedagogical studies. It is obligatory for all the students to complete the teacher’s pedagogical studies at the Department of Teacher Education.

4.4.3 Entrance into pedagogical activities

During the studies students participate in the teaching practice when they learn to plan, implement and evaluate learning and teaching. The aim is to support the students’ growth into investigative and ethically responsible teachers and independent and goal-orientated professionals. Moon & Vlasceanu (2003) state that teaching practice included into the pedagogical studies takes place at training schools of the faculties or at the approved schools which are connected to departments of teacher education. The university practice schools function as normal comprehensive schools following the same curriculum. Kindergarten teacher trainees take practice in day care centers. All student-teachers are guided by supervisors who possess special competence and experience in the particular pedagogical field.

Moon & Vlasceanu (2003) conclude that teaching practice for class teachers and subject teachers appears to be different. Class teachers have many different subjects and methodics to deal with. The most important of them are early childhood pedagogy and psychology. Subject teachers are more oriented on general development of pupils and peculiarities

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determined by the age groups. They are stronger in content knowledge competence and main subject methodics. Cooperation with pupils and their parents is essential both for class and subject teachers.

Students begin pedagogical practice with observation of pupils’ behavior and interaction. Gradually they start to participate actively in the schooling process. The practice extends to different subject matters, teaching methods, and to all aspects of teaching (OAJ, 2008). Every pedagogical practice period is combined with detailed theoretical studies related to some definite topics. Student-teachers obtain increasing knowledge in order to support their teaching practice with theory\(^\text{12}\). It is realized by reading relevant texts and discussing the subjects with each other and with their instructors.

### 4.4.4 In-service teacher training

Traditional compulsory in-service teacher training has disappeared from the Finnish teachers’ life. Moon & Vlasceanu (2003) claim that systematic in-service training does not exist in the country. At the moment school- or municipality-based programs and professional development opportunities are offered by universities and other educational institutions (Sahlberg, 2007). Teachers’ trade unions and subject teacher associations organize different kinds of in-service teacher education regularly offering various courses. Summer universities are also official providers of continuous teacher training in the country.

Teachers in comprehensive and upper secondary schools have some yearly mandatory in-service training but no long-term courses are organized (Hopkins, 2008). The training aims at improving teaching in line with the changing conditions of school reality. The selection of courses has taken place according to market principles. Teachers themselves influence to a great extent the content of training. The main directions of this type of training are new research-, and methodics-oriented approaches aimed at improving the quality of teaching (Moon & Vlasceanu, 2003).

The majority of Finnish teachers is highly motivated to develop their professional skills. Finnish teachers are considered by Kimonen (2001) to be conscious and critical consumers of professional development and different in-service training. Teachers participate on

\(^{12}\) See footnote 11
voluntary basis without any kind of control from the side of neither government nor school administration. A special examination called the Professional Development Examination (40 credits) has also been available. It is designed for teachers wishing to heighten their professional competencies. It has not succeeded in becoming officially established, and its status has remained vague (Moon & Vlasceanu, 2003).

4.5 Teacher in the Finnish society

In Finland the teacher profession has been seen as one of the most important. Simola (2005) states that teachers enjoy a higher status in this society than in any other advanced liberal country. Both the lower and higher social strata appreciate the teacher work. PISA results\textsuperscript{13} show that success in the PISA has also increased positive respective attitude towards the Finnish teachers. The profession has always been highly valued and popular among Finnish post-secondary students. A lot of applicants apply for teacher training each year. According to some polls, over 26% of general upper secondary school graduates rate the profession as the most desirable (Sahlberg, 2007). Moreover, Finnish teachers are identified with the upper social strata.

The Finnish teacher profession is on a par with other professional workers. Teachers are trusted to do their best as true professionals of education. They are expected to diagnose problems in their working places (classrooms and schools), apply evidence-based and alternative solutions, evaluate and analyze the impact of implemented procedures. Välijärvi (2008) states that Finnish teachers are responsible for courses to offer and their content, textbooks, assessment and disciplinary policies. Budget allocation is also one of the duties of the Finnish teacher. Teachers have pedagogical independence in the classroom and autonomy in organizing their work within the limits of the national curriculum. Having a lot of freedom but at the same time responsibility they are satisfied and committed to their work (Simola, 2005).

Sahlberg (2007) underlines the culture of trust in the Finnish society which has being gradually built up from early 1990s, when parents, students and authorities began to trust

teachers and schools. Parents relay on teachers as professionals who know what is the best for their children. Educational authorities and political leaders believe that teachers together with principals know how to provide the best possible education. The culture of trust can exist in an environment that is built upon good governance and absence of corruption (Hopkins, 2008). Hopkins also means that trusting schools and teachers is in a way a consequence of a well-functioning civil society and high social capital.

4.6 Summary

According to the PISA results Finland is a leading country in international comparative studies. School system has a traditional structure of a european type divided into preschool, basic, secondary and tertiary levels of education. Philosophical understanding of the schooling has been moved from the subject- to pupil-centered approaches. Gradual decentralization resulted in local and school autonomy giving more freedom both to schools and teachers in pedagogical and curricular practices. This transformation has changed the teacher role from a deliverer to a creator of curriculum.

Two main directions of teacher education: class teacher and subject teacher training, are organized on university level. Curriculum for teacher education at Jyväskylä University illustrates programs for class and subject teacher training. Teacher education in the country comprises 180 ECTS credits Bachelor’s and 120 ECTS credits Master’s Degrees. The Master’s Degree is a main requirement to work in a Finnish school. All pedagogical studies are organized at departments of teacher education in universities or polytechnics. The main subdiscipline is didactics, both general and subject-matter related. Educational psychology and sociology are the essential components of teacher training curriculum. Student pedagogical practice is conducted at schools which are tightly connected to departments of teacher education.

The teacher profession is very popular among the school graduates. Each year a lot of applicants go through contest selection organized on two levels, national and institutional. The requirements to enter teacher training institutions are high. Narrow selection to the profession let universities choose the best and most talented from the nation to be qualified as teachers. High social status of the Finnish teachers is meant to be one of the reasons that the profession is so popular.
5. Struggling-its-own-way country – Ukraine

The chapter is devoted to the second descriptive case – the system of teacher education in Ukraine. The country will be introduced with some historical remarks crucial for the foundation and development of the system of education. I briefly present changes of the school philosophy and curriculum theory with more detailed explanation of the latest reforms that led to the new role and duties of a teacher.

Description of the system of teacher training is realized through the presentation of information about organization of the process of teacher education including such stages as preparation and selection to the profession, basic teacher training, entrance into the pedagogical activities and in-service teacher training. The subcase of the Ukrainian description case is teacher education at the Slov’jansk Pedagogic University. The University is a teacher training institution with different programs for teacher preparation. Curriculum for class and subject teacher training of Slov’jansk Pedagogical University is presented to show more concrete and specific data about the teacher education in Ukraine. The last criterion in the depiction of the profession is the status of a teacher in the Ukrainian society. I describe the attitude to the profession of both parents and pupils.

5.1 Presentation of the country with some historical remarks

Ukraine is a “young” in terms of its being independent (since 24.08.1991) country of the Central-East Europe. It is the biggest country in the Central Europe. Ukraine has inline and marine borders with Russia, Belorussia, Poland, Slovakia, Hungary, Romania, and Moldova. The country with the total population of 47 million consists of the Crimean Autonomous Republic and 24 regions. Kyiv and Sevastopol are the cities of special status.

Linguistically and culturally diverse country of 47 million people has been struggling its own way from being one of the former Soviet Union’ republics to a newly-born independent state (Koshmanova, 2007). Territorial divisions are very important in all spheres of life since historically different parts of the country (eastern and western Ukraine) were dominated by culturally and politically different powers such as Habsburg and Romanov empires, the
Polish Commonwealth, the Soviet Union (Fimyar, 2008). Fimyar also stressed that in some regions this topic still remains a very problematic and painful issue.

As for the education, the development of public education in Ukraine dates back several centuries to Kyivan Rus. The first schools were established at the end of the 10th century in Kyiv and grew in number during the 11th and 12th centuries (Hilton, 2004). Ukraine’s first higher education establishment was the Kyiv-Mohyla Collegium, established in 1632. Lviv University founded in 1661 is one of the oldest institutions of higher education in Ukraine.

As a Soviet Republic (1922-1991) Ukraine was highly centralised. All spheres of life were under the strict control of the communist government. The economy of Ukraine was the second largest in the Soviet Union being an important industrial and agricultural component of the country’s planned economy (CIA World Factbook, 2007). The republic was heavily damaged by the World War II, and it required significant efforts to recover. The soviet government invested a lot in the country (20% of the soviet budget in 1946-1950)\(^{14}\). It made Ukraine a european leader in industrial production. The republic also became an important center of the soviet arms industry and high-tech research. Good funding of education resulted in outstanding cultural and scientific achievements. Due to the Soviet Union’s emphasis on the total access of education to all citizens, the literacy rate in nowadays Ukraine still remains very high – 99.4% (CIA World Factbook, 2007).

Post-communist Ukraine experienced severe structural, institutional and economic crisis. The system of education required profound educational reforms, including structural organization of secondary schools, universities and curricula at all levels (Koshmanova, 2007). Budgetary constraints, lack of political commitment, expertise and overall strategy slowed the process of reformation. Socio-political and economic transformations were implemented under the weak state’s structure and guidance. It contributed to the country’s openness towards western influences (Fimyar, 2008). Fimyar also states that post-communist legacies remained mixed with the multiple external influences both from the East (Russia) and the West (Europe, USA). Ukraine has taken steps to become a more open society that is compatible with European education systems.

5.2 Brief description of the system of education

Education in Ukraine has a complex structure of the european type. It includes preschool, comprehensive secondary, vocational-technical, higher and postgraduate education. All the levels of education in the country are regulated and prescribed by the law. The system consists of about 48,000 institutions with over 15 million students (Hilton, 2004).

Non-compulsory preschool education is organized in kindergartens which educate children from 1 to 6 years. Content, policy and principles vary from institution to institution depending on type (e.g. focus on languages, physical training) and form of ownership. On average there are 56 % of children (1-6 years) that are involved in the preschool education each year15.

Comprehensive schooling (general secondary education) consists of “pochatkova shkola” (primary), “osnovna shkola” (basic), “starsha shkola” (upper secondary). Educational institutions operate according to the level of accreditation16: I level – “pochatkova shkola”, II level – “osnovna shkola”, III level – “starsha shkola”17. From the 2001 academic year the whole system of comprehensive education, its structure and content is being changed with the implementation of the 12-year term of study and the 12-point scale of marking system18.

“Pochatkova shkola” comprises 4 years of schooling for children aged 6/7 to 11/12. Parents themselves decide on the age of starting education for a child, but not earlier than 6, not later than 7 years. Pupils have one teacher for all subjects (in some schools there additional teachers of music and arts, foreign language, physical training). After “pochatkova shkola” pupils go the II level schools to get basic education which lasts 5 years. In “osnovna shkola” subject teachers conduct lessons for every class. After the completing “osnovna shkola” pupils take examinations and get certificates of completed basic education.

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16 Accreditation is a status granted to an educational institution as measurement of quality of education in correspondence to governmental standards and levels of education (e.g. basic, secondary, higher) (Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine http://www.mon.gov.ua. Retrieved Mai 10, 2009)


Low secondary education (three years duration on general conditions) can be obtained at secondary institutions of the III level and at vocational technical establishments. Education can be organized in correspondence or distance form\(^{19}\). National examinations and attestation of the general secondary education are the final stage of the comprehensive education.

Post secondary education is organized at 232 state and 113 private institutions\(^{20}\). It has the following classification of institutions: technical high schools, vocational schools, colleges, institutes, universities, academies. Vocational technical education is organized at vocational schools, centers of vocational training, vocational art schools, and agrarian firm colleges. The system of higher education is being under reformation according to the international education trends. Bologna Process has brought a lot of changes to the system. During the academic year 2006/2007 in all higher education institutions of the III – IV levels of accreditation there was implemented credit transfer system ECTS. On the website of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine it is stated that 100% of the students of higher education institutions are involved into the two cycle system of training (Bachelor’s and Master’s Degree), which corresponds to the Bologna principles\(^{21}\). For those who started to study before 2006/2007 academic year there still exists an intermediate – Specialist’s Degree (1 year duration after the Bachelor’s program). Completed Master’s Degree gives an opportunity to enter postgraduate studies which lasts three years. Doctoral study programs include both taught courses and independent research. The supervisory and assessment procedures for doctoral studies are being developed and changed after the adoption of the Bologna principles (Hilton, 2004).

### 5.3 Curriculum development

During the period of Soviet era the education system in the country was under centralised planning and administration. The ministry of education of the USSR developed policies for educational practices and determined the content of curricula (Holowinsky, 1995). The

\(^{19}\) See footnote 17


\(^{21}\) See footnote 20
Ministry of Education of the Ukrainian Republic was directly responsible to the Ministry of Education of the USSR. The idea “education for all” was essential in soviet education where social aspects were much stronger then personal. The main goal of education was upbringing of a “new Soviet person” – a builder of the communist society (Holowinsky, 1995). Curriculum was planned according to the Soviet ideology, demands of the Communist Party and needs of production (McLean, 1995). Regardless the areas of specialization all students were required to study several courses connected to Soviet philosophy. The role of a teacher was a deliverer of information prescribed from the top of administration. Teacher was a linking element that brought ideology to the people. Each lesson, calendar and year plan was constructed without any individual approach neither from a teacher nor from a pupil.

The postcommunist period is a new era of the Ukrainian curriculum. The Ukrainian government restructured, rewrote and modified the country’s educational infrastructure and curricula at all levels. New courses, programs and information technologies were introduced to make education flexible and open. Transition from the conventional subject-centered soviet system to a more open and individualized education required the transformation of all components of the process (Koshmanova, 2008). Educational reforms were aimed to make schools independent of governmental funding, to construct a student-centered curriculum, and to develop students’ critical thinking abilities and problem solving skills (Grabovs’ka, 2002 cited at Koshmanova, 2008, p. 138). The role and duties of a teacher were supposed to be changed from mechanical instruction to creative approach and individual planning. More freedom and autonomy both to schools and teachers are expected to make the system more flexible and diverse.

Fimyar (2008) divides the reforms of the curriculum in the independent Ukraine into two stages: 1991-1999 reforms and reforms from 1999 to present time. The first stage was characterized by creating new subjects and its content. Curriculum of humanities was restructured, getting rid of elements of the Soviet ideology. The official post-independent history narrative was introduced into the curriculum. The reform of changing the language of instruction in schools from mostly Russian to Ukrainian is one of the most important in that period. In 1991-1992 academic year, 49% of student were taught in Ukrainian and 50% in Russian, by 200-2001 it turned to be 70% and 29% respectively (Razumkov Center, 2002, as cited in Fimyar, 2008, p. 575). The wave of Ukrainization was quite controversy in different parts of the country, especially in eastern and southern Ukraine. Even though parents had a
right to choose a language of instruction for children in primary and secondary schools, higher education institutions had only Ukrainian as a language of instruction (Fimyar, 2008).

Koshmanova claims (2008) that the reforms were one-sided. Rather than adopting an innovative international experience, educators were more oriented towards Ukraine becoming a state with a distinctly developed culture and national identity. Such subjects as history, social sciences and the humanities, languages were utilized to shift public consciousness from the Soviet-era ideology to a new Ukrainian identity (Koshmanova, 2006 as cited in Koshmanova, 2008, p. 151).


5.4 Teacher training in the country

The website of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (www.mon.gov.ua) informs that teacher education is represented through specialized pedagogical universities that occupy the dominant position: universities that have departments of teacher training, specialized teacher training institutes (III – IV level of accreditation), and colleges (II level of accreditation). The majority of higher teacher training establishments are public. The first private institutions emerged in 1991–1992 (Holowinsky, 1995). State accreditation of private institutions began in 1995–1996. To receive accreditation the university must prove that the curriculum corresponds to the state norms and requirements. In the years from 1997 to 2000, private higher education institutions gained state recognition and issued their first diplomas for qualifying teachers (Tomusk, 2003).

The financing of private teacher training institutions remains complex. Tuition is the principle source of financial support. However, a few private higher education institutions
attract funds from local (e.g., city and regional) authorities\textsuperscript{22}. Budzan (2006) informs the non-public higher educational institutions (approximately 10\%) are legally acknowledged and controlled by the state through the educational activity’s licensing mechanism and accreditation. The number of free of charge or, so called, “budget” places depends on the state order and university budget (Fimyar, 2008).

Tomusk (2003) mentions a special type of private education that exists in Ukraine. When student admission to public universities is restricted and charging of fees forbidden, many public universities establish private and parallel structures to take on more students and collect funds. Without such practices public universities would not survive when the state is unable to meet their funding commitments (Holowinsky, 1995). In teaching and its content, there is no difference between the private and public programs of this type (Tomursk, 2003).

### 5.4.1 Preparation and selection to the profession

Rolyak (2008) claims that the “presteps” into the teacher profession in Ukraine are not organized in a proper way. Specialized education in the senior classes of upper secondary schools is developed poorly. It is not represented on the governmental and state level, just in some private schools, gymnasiums and lyceums. Students do not get any official preparation at public schools to enter to teacher training higher establishments (Holowinsky, 1995).

Some public pedagogical institutes and universities in order to attract students organize the entrance programs which last from some months to a year. Organization, duration and curriculum are decided on local level. It depends on the capacities of an educational establishment (Rolyak, 2008). Very often these are weekend or summer courses at the higher institutions. One of the main difficulties for the students is lack of time (5 days at secondary school and extra 2 days at such preparation course) and transportation. Students who live far from a university have no opportunity to attend these programs. Very many parents send their children to private additional tutoring in order to improve knowledge and be better prepared to the demands of a higher educational institution (Fimyar, 2008).

Selection to teacher training is organized on competitive basis. It is conducted by a special commission which is responsible for the criteria of students’ admission for each academic year. Rector of the educational institution is a head of this commission. The main requirement for applying for the Bachelor’s studies is a completed secondary education (for Specialist’s and Master’s is a completed Bachelor’s one). The next stage of admission is based on the results of the internal (higher education institution) examinations. The big number of applicants for each year is explained not by the strong interest in the profession but by the fact that a teacher training institution as one of the ways to get higher education. Kobzey (2003) documents that a lot of secondary school graduates enter the profession when there is no any other opportunity to get higher education.

5.4.2 Initial teacher training

The website of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (www.mon.gov.ua) informs that training at higher educational institutions can be carried out in a form of fulltime (students have regular classes every day, except weekends) and correspondence education (students have to fulfill some academic requirements by taking exams at an institution) or by blending of these two forms. It is possible to take an individual study plan, combining work and studying during the last semesters of training.

Teacher education in the country is realized on two main levels: Bachelor’s and Master’s one. Bachelor’s education is professional training going on 4 years at the university level. Future teachers receive professional Bachelor’s Degree and are competent for teaching at primary school or one subject at secondary one. Master’s education is academic and professional training for 5-6 years (in total) that qualifies to teach more than one subject. Specialist’s was (and still is for some students who started to study before the reform) a transitional stage of professional training, going on 5 years of studying at the university level.

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24 See footnote 23

Post-graduate education lasts 3 years of specialized research based study. Doctoral study programmes include both taught courses and independent research. After writing a thesis post-graduate students receive a Candidate Degree (corresponds to PhD in Europe (Rolyak, 2008). Candidate can continue his research for additional 3 – 4 years of scientific activities and education to be granted a Degree of a Doctor of Pedagogical Sciences.

5.4.2.1 Teacher training at Slov’jansk Pedagogical University

Slov’jansk State Pedagogical University was established in 1939 as Slov’jansk Teacher Training Institute for training teachers of Ukrainian language, literature, history and early childhood education. The website of the University (www.slavdpu.dn.ua) informs that the University educates teachers according to the following specialities: Pedagogic education (preschool education, early childhood education, technological education, correcting education, social pedagogic), Physical education (physical education), Humanities (Ukrainian language and literature, Russian language and literature, foreign language and literature), Physics and Mathematics (physics and mathematics). Teacher training is carried out according to specialization of teachers at the departments of mathematics and physics, philology, physical education, early childhood and preschool training.

Training of teachers is divided into two tracks: class teacher and subject teacher education which is carried out on three levels (Bachelor’s, Specialist’s and Master’s). Bachelor’s Degree programs last four years and consist of 180 ECTS credits. As it is cited on the webpage of the University (www.slavdpu.dn.ua), for the Bachelor’s degree on the basis of the “junior specialist” qualification (after college, II – III degree of accreditation) of the corresponding specialization the studies last two years just of correspondence form (no fulltime education). On the basis of Bachelor’s degree the University offers the following Specialist’s programs of one year duration26:

- Preschool education (major in practical psychology)
- Early childhood education (and one additional subject, as music/ choreography, Ukrainian studies/ English)

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26 Source: translated from Information package for applicants to Slov’jansk State Pedagogical University. (2007). Slov’jansk: SDPU
• Pedagogy and methodology of secondary school (Ukrainian language and literature/ Ukrainian and English language and literature, English/ German, mathematics/ physics, physical education).

Master’s programs are offered for students who have a completed Bachelor’s/ Specialist’s Degree. Training lasts one year both after four-year Bachelor’s and five-year Specialist’s education. There are both fulltime and correspondence forms of instruction for:

• Preschool education (teacher of preschool pedagogy and psychology )
• Early childhood education (teacher of early education and psychology )
• Pedagogy and methodology of secondary education (teacher of language and literature, physics, mathematics, labour education, physical training).

Class teacher training

The main goal of the class teacher training program, which corresponds to early childhood education, is development of such central abilities as collective working, active culture and different teaching methods27. There is no program that trains “pure” class teacher competence at the University. Students get educated as class teachers with a supplementary qualification. For example, class teacher education with additional competence in one of the languages (native or foreign), literature, music, psychology, etc. The graduates have an opportunity to work not just at the primary schools as class teachers but also as teachers of one of the additional subjects on other levels of the education system.

Curriculum of the education program is divided into main blocks of courses which build up knowledge about teaching and pedagogy (e.g., history of pedagogy, early childhood education, pedagogical mastership), subject matter (e.g., subjects’ instruction and early childhood methodics of instruction ), development of learners (e.g., general and early childhood psychology, sociology), common subjects (Ukrainian language and literature, history of Ukraine, polytology), and additional/esthetical subjects (ethics and aesthetics)28.

27 See footnote 26

The first three blocks of subjects are essential in class teacher training and dominate in the curriculum. Noticeable is that there is an accent on esthetical education in any class teacher training program. An integrated part of the curriculum are subjects devoted to development of creative thinking and esthetical feeling of student-teachers with the purpose that they use these skills in their further professional activities. The complex of obligatory courses includes such subjects as music, choreography, culture and handicraft.

**Subject teacher training**

Teacher education for subject teachers is organized on three main levels: Bachelor’s, Specialist’s and Master’s. The structure and content of the subject teacher training programs at the University are outline in table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Structure of subject teacher training at Slov’jansk Pedagogical University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study modules</th>
<th>Bachelor’s Degree</th>
<th>Specialist’s Degree</th>
<th>Master’s degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Studies in education</td>
<td>22 ECTS credits</td>
<td>22,5 ECTS credits</td>
<td>20,5 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject studies</td>
<td>125 ECTS credits</td>
<td>36 ECTS credits</td>
<td>34 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common disciplines</td>
<td>33 ECTS credits</td>
<td>1,5 ECTS credits</td>
<td>5,5 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180 ECTS credits</td>
<td>60 ECTS credits</td>
<td>60 ECTS credits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the Bachelor’s program subject studies dominate with the great proportion of common disciplines. The Specialist’s training program includes the same amount of modules as the Master’s programme and consists of basic studies of education, subject studies and common disciplines. But the proportion of the courses is different because the main accent of the Specialist’s program is made on subject studies but not on the studies in education as in the

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29 See footnote 26

Master’s one. The main assignment (obligatory paper) is devoted to one of the subject studies courses. Common disciplines get less hours for studying. In Master’s program studies in education dominate. The obligatory paper is also devoted to one of the subjects of education studies.

*Basic studies in education* include subjects and courses of first importance for the profession, which are obligatory for any type of teacher qualification. These are history of pedagogy, child’s psychology and physiology, theory of education, theory of upbringing, pedagogical mastership. There might be a term paper of one of the subjects (for example, on psychology or pedagogy after the 3rd year of studies).

*Subject studies* include subjects that are of tight connection to the speciality (for example, for the teacher of language it would be practice of written and oral language, theoretical grammar and phonetics, linguistics, philology, etc.). These studies include as well a term paper (on methodologies of teaching a language/literature after the 4th year).

*Common disciplines* are those of general importance for example, Ukrainian language, history of Ukraine, physical training, philosophy, religion, sociology etc. They are introduced for each profession at every university in the country.

### 5.4.3 Entrance into pedagogical activities

Educational practice is a very important part of any Bachelor’s or Master’s programme in Ukrainian teacher training institutions. Pedagogical activities are included in the curriculum and are meant to be an essential element of teacher education (Rolyak, 2008). Students must fulfil all the stages of pedagogical practice in order to receive valid Diploma and be qualified to work as teachers (Holowinsky, 1995).

Teaching practice takes place in ordinary schools under usual everyday’s conditions without any break in the teaching-learning process. Some of the schools have tight connection to teacher training institutions, some of them do not. Big amount of students carry out their practice in the schools without any connection to higher education institutions. Those with the connection to teacher training providers have some of teaching staff trained to instruct the students. Appointed teachers both at schools and from teacher training institutions are responsible for the process of pedagogical practice guiding students in their work.
Rolyak (2008) informs that teaching practice for Ukrainian student-teachers is organized in two forms: active and passive. It starts from the second year of studying as a passive observation of the teaching process. Students visit lessons of school teachers, analyse pedagogical activities in their reports (“educational diaries”). They do not conduct lessons but can take part in social life of a school. This type of practice does not last more than two weeks\(^{31}\). After the practice students hand out their dairies to the university teachers of pedagogy and methodics to check and evaluate.

After the third year of studies students have a special type of pedagogical practice. They work with children in summer camps having responsibilities as junior assistants. The aim of this type of practice is to develop skills in leadership and organization of communication. During the last years of studies students take part in the active phase of practice conducting their own lessons. Active practice lasts from 1 to 2 months depending on an institution and specialization. School teachers and appointed university teachers visit lessons to evaluate and guide the students (Rolyak, 2008).

### 5.4.5 In-service teacher training

The system of in-service training is broadly developed in the country giving Ukrainian teachers a lot of opportunities for continuous improvement of their professional competence and exchange of experience with the colleagues. Training is both obligatory and voluntary arranged by governmental and nongovernmental organizations. As it is prescribed by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine every fourth year a teacher goes through mandatory attestation and takes an examination to improve the competence\(^{32}\). Such attestation gives a teacher higher qualification and an increase in salary. On the voluntary basis a teacher can participate in additional courses he/she is interested by applying to local authorities.

The main directions of in-service training outlined on the official website of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine (www.mon.gov.ua) are:

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\(^{32}\) Data is taken from the official website of the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine http://www.mon.gov.ua, Retrieved February 5, 2009
• arrangement of educational activities aimed at providing training, retraining, skills improvement of teachers;
• introduction of a flexible system of continuous education of the teaching staff to ensure adaptation of teachers to carry out professional activities under quickly changing social and economic relations;
• introduction of up-to-date teacher-training technologies as well as advanced national and international experience in educational management and continuous education;
• development of basic requirements expected by education providers and methodologists, implementing scientifically and methodologically based teacher proficiency testing system (testing, certification);
• development and introduction of different types of course training;
• carrying out basic scientific and applied research on the problems of educational development.

The training is organized by educational and methodological institutions. The functioning system of in-service teacher education of Ukraine as a complex of institutions embraces: central Institute (CPPE - central post-diploma education institute), 26 oblast institutes, the Crimea Republican institute of in-service teacher training education, 19 faculties of skill improvement in teacher training universities and institutes, commercial teacher training.

5.5 Teacher in the Ukrainian society

The profession is not enjoying social respect and authority either among children nor parents who doubt the teachers’ competence, criticizing their work. Based on findings from surveys conducted by the Ukrainian Razumkoy Center for Economic and Political Studies (2002, as cited in Khobzey, 2003, p. 26) in all the regions of Ukraine, 41.6% of respondents believed that children rate a teacher’s authority as low; 42.6 % - as average; and 9.1 % believed that teachers enjoyed a high level of authority among children. Only 11.4 % of parents have respect to teachers; 45.8% believed that teachers have medium authority and 34.5 % - low.

The fact that the profession is not popular among school graduates is another evidence of a low social status of Ukrainian teachers. A big number of school graduates applies for teacher

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training programs in “no choice” situation which means that they do not have any other opportunity or just don’t know what they want to be (Fimyar, 2008). Motivation to become a teacher is very low. Teacher training institutions turn to be just a way to get higher education.

One of the reasons of a low status of Ukrainian teachers is small earnings. Khobzey (2003) underlines that the disparity between a teacher’s income and the social role he/she is expected to play is a serious threat to the state. In comparison to all OECD countries which spend on average 5.8 % of their GDP on education, Ukraine spends only 3.7 % of its GDP. Low state expenditures result in low pay to educational workers. Many of teachers are changing place of work in search of a higher income. Some have second jobs in education or in unrelated field to supplement the profits. The problem of teacher income funding is leading to a loss of professional motivation and low quality of teaching (Koshmanova, 2007). In some rural areas the situation is very dramatic due to a constant lack of teachers in some specializations. Student-teachers are not inspired to work at schools especially in rural areas. Meanwhile the number of pension-age workers is growing. Comparing Ukraine with the OECD countries, Khobzey (2003) underlines disadvantageous situation of the Ukrainian teachers regarding to both social (respect) and material (income) earnings of the profession.

5.6 Summary

A newly born after the fall of the Soviet Union, Ukraine is trying to find its own way though the numerous transformations and reforms. The country rebuilds an inherited centralized system of education adjusting it to the European standards. International influence, in particular Bologna Process, has brought a lot of changes to the education sphere.

Teacher education is carried out by public and private colleges, institutes and universities in the form of fulltime and correspondence training. Selection to the profession is realized on the competitive basis according to the results of national testing and entrance examinations carried out by a special admission commission formed by an institution. Two-track education (class and subject teachers) is organized on Bachelor’s, Specialist’s and Master’s levels. Both active and passive pedagogical practice is an essential element of teacher education which takes place either at schools or at higher education institutions.
Curriculum of teacher training in Ukraine (on the example of the programs at Slov'jansk State Pedagogical University) consists of three main blocks of subjects: compulsory studies of education, subject studies (depending on speciality) and common subjects. Research-oriented content of the programs stimulates constant improvement and development of professional competence even after the graduation. In-service teacher education is established and organized at higher pedagogical institutions in all the parts of the country. Compulsory training and attestation gives higher qualification and an increase in salary. The issue of earnings is quite problematic in the country. It is seen to be one of the reasons of low social status of the profession which has little respect both among children and parents.
6. Comparative analysis of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine

The chapter contains comparison of the systems of teacher training in Ukraine and Finland. The purpose is to discover and analyze the differences and similarities between the countries. The analysis is carried out according to the following analytical dimensions: organization of the process of teacher education, where I compare the stages of professional development of teacher competence from the entrance to the profession to lifelong training; content of teacher education with the comparison of the main areas of knowledge included in the teacher training programs in these two countries; general assumptions about ideal models of teachers; curriculum development influencing the training of professionals and their role in the classroom; and status of a teacher in the Ukrainian and Finnish societies. The analysis is based on the data from the previous descriptive chapters devoted to Finland and Ukraine (chapter 4 and 5 respectively) with the correspondence to the theoretical framework outlined in chapter 2.

6.1 Organization of the process of teacher education

6.1.1 Preparation and selection to the profession

The first stage of the process of teacher education is organized differently in the countries under analysis. The main differences in preparation and selection to the profession are outlined in table 6.1. As for the process of preparation, Ukrainian teacher training institutions organize special courses for the students to help entering higher education establishments, stimulating their interest and increasing the possibilities to get admitted. These courses vary in content, duration and organization. It depends on an institution’s resources and governmental order.

In Finland the situation is different. School graduates get prepared for entering high education institutions by themselves without any help on organizational level. Teacher
training institutions do not offer any special preparatory courses. Because of a big amount of applicants for each year universities have policies of restricting but not attracting students.

Table 6.1 Differences in preparation and selection to the profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Ukraine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparation</td>
<td>absence</td>
<td>organized on institutional level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection</td>
<td>restricting the number of applicants elitist, limited narrow and selective high students’ motivation and interest</td>
<td>attracting students non-elitist open for many low interest, just a way to get higher education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Selection of the students in Ukrainian teacher training institutions is competitive and is carried out at two stages. The first one is on the basis of the results of national testing and the second one is on the results of internal teacher training institution’s examinations. Contest selection is conducted by a special commission (with a rector of an institution as a head of it) which is responsible for criteria of students’ admission for each year. The selection is hard because there are a lot of applicants each year trying to enter higher education institutions. But the most striking thing is that the interest in the profession and motivation to be become a teacher is very weak among the secondary school graduates. For the majority of them a teacher training institution is just an opportunity to get higher education which does not mean that they are planning to work as specialists in this field.

In Finland selection to the profession is also carried out on the competitive basis but the requirements and demands for entering teacher training universities are much higher. Only 10% of the applicants gets admitted to the profession. Applicants are highly motivated because the profession is meant to be one of the best in the Finnish society. Upper secondary matriculation examination and local examinations on the university level are the main criteria for admission. Practical experience of work with children is one of the advantages for the applicants. Universities have an opportunity to choose the best and most talented
from the nation. Narrow selection to the profession is one of the guarantees of the high quality of Finnish teachers’ professional competence.

### 6.1.2 Initial teacher training

Teacher education in Finland is free of charge and provided by public universities and polytechnics. It is organized at the faculties of education or at subject faculties. Teacher training in the country is divided into two tracks which correspond to upper (subject teachers) and lower (class teachers) levels of schooling. There are two ways to get specialized as a subject teacher, applying separately for pedagogical studies or directly for teacher education when applying to study the subject. For class teacher education one should apply directly to a training program which includes the required for this specialization courses.

Both class teacher and subject teacher education is organized on two levels. After the Bachelor’s Degree which consists of 180 ECTS credits students should complete a Master’s Degree, 120 ECTS credits. Bachelor’s Degree is seen to be just an intermediate phase; a Master’s one is required to work at a Finnish school. The fact that both primary and secondary school teachers must earn a Master’s Degree and that their academic status is the same is one of the peculiarities of the Finnish teacher education.

Teacher training in Ukraine is provided by higher education institutions of the III – IV (universities and institutes) and II level of accreditation (colleges). The majority of institutions is public but there are some private ones. Education in private institutions is under the control of state authorities which agree on the content of training programs. They receive accreditation if the curriculum corresponds to the state demands. The number of free of charge places and funding in public establishments depends on the governmental order for the number of professionals for each year.

Education of Ukrainian teachers is organized both in a form of full time and a correspondence form of training or by combination of these two forms. It is possible to take an individual plan, combining work and studying during the last year of training. There are three main levels of teacher training in the country: Bachelor’s, Specialist’s (which is an intermediate degree) and Master’s one. After a four-year Bachelor’s Degree students can
choose between a Specialist’s or a Master’s Degree, both of them last one year. Completion of any of three levels allows to work as a teacher in a Ukrainian school.

### 6.1.3 Entrance into pedagogical activities

One of the common features of pedagogical practice in these two countries is that it has two forms: active and passive. It leads to gradual acquaintance with the teaching reality and step-by-step application of theoretical knowledge to the pedagogical activities. Students start with a passive observation of a teaching-learning process of short duration and continue with an active and more advanced form of practice. The differences between the counties lay in organization and content of pedagogical practice as it is shown in table 6.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Ukraine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Place of pedagogical practice</td>
<td>training schools at universities/approved training schools</td>
<td>any school on students’ choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connection between practice field and training institution</td>
<td>tight</td>
<td>loose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control/ Evaluation of the process</td>
<td>appointed teachers</td>
<td>school teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connection to research</td>
<td>tight</td>
<td>loose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>research-oriented theory-supported</td>
<td>few elements of research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The peculiarity of the teaching practice in Finland is that it takes place at training schools of the faculties of teacher preparation or at approved schools which are connected to the departments of teacher education. There is a tight connection and cooperation between a university and a place where students carry out their practice. In Ukraine, a student can conduct the practice in any school he/she wants with an agreement of school administration. There is some kind of control from the teacher training institution but there is no active
participation in it. For example, obligatory work with children in summer camps after the third year of studies is out of reach of some teacher training institutions, they only check and evaluate the dairies of the student-teachers at the beginning of the next academic year.

Another difference lays in content of pedagogical activities. Every teaching practice period for Finnish students is combined with detailed theoretical studies related to the topic. So, practice gets constant support by pedagogical theory. Connecting theoretical aspects and practice students develop research-based thinking. Pedagogical practice for Ukrainian students is also connected to the theory that students acquire during the studies but the connection is not tight. The main task is to imitate and function as a “real”, qualified teacher but not to investigate and examine the pedagogical reality. It makes the practice for Ukrainian student-teachers less research-oriented as for their Finnish colleagues.

6.1.4 In-service teacher training

Teachers both in Finland and Ukraine are offered continuous professional development and encouraged to participate in it. The network of in-service training is developed regionally in both countries. In Finland there is no systematic education, short-time courses and programs are organized by different governmental organizations (e.g. The Ministry of Education, The National Board of Education) and local authorities. Each university has a centre for continuous education and each province has a summer university which also provides in-service education for teachers.

In Ukraine the system of in-service education providers includes the central institute, 26 oblast institutes, the Crimea Republican institute and 19 faculties of skill improvement in teacher training higher education establishments. All of them are aimed at improving scientific, theoretical and methodological training of Ukrainian teachers. Every four-year mandatory attestation leads to a higher level of teachers’ qualification and increase of salary.

The most striking difference between these countries is determined by motivation to participate in in-service training. Finnish teachers are highly interested in professional development and even have influence on the content of in-service courses. Training rests on the personal motivation of teachers, local and school authorities. Moreover, in some cases they pay for participation themselves. In Ukraine, in-service education is mandatory and is
controlled by the local authorities and government. Personal involvement and motivation of teachers are very low.

6.2 Content of teacher education

Comparing content of teacher training in two countries I stick to the framework of understanding teaching and learning developed by the Committee on Teacher Education of the USA which was described in the theoretical chapter. The analysis will be based on the comparison of curriculum and structure of teacher training programs at Jyväskylä University and Slov’jansk Pedagogical University.

Subjects that build up knowledge and skills about learners and their development are included into the programs of both universities. The proportion of such subjects as theories of learning, psychology, communication and interaction, is not big. In Finland the variety and amount of relevant subjects is higher than in Ukraine. Compulsory courses consisting of guidance of growth and learning, developing individual in a group, guidance of learning and the learning organization, school community are included in study modules. Some of the relevant subjects are even offered for students’ choice (e.g., multicultural education). Essential for Ukrainian teacher training are courses on child’s psychology, physiology and theory of upbringing. One of the term papers is devoted to these subjects. Less attention is paid to theories of learning, organization of learning environment and communication.

Subjects relevant to knowledge of subject matter and curriculum understanding train competence in what teachers should know to interpret general guidelines and standards, to create purposeful learning plans. These subjects are aimed to develop curricula vision and to teach students constructing effective curricula that match both general purposes of learning and pupils’ individual needs. Such subjects are introduced in Finnish teacher education training students to make curricula decisions, evaluating and selecting materials to design tasks and assignments. Though Ukrainian students get aquatinted with general prescriptions and guidelines during the period of training they are not supposed to make decisions about curricula planning and content of teaching. These issues are decided on upper levels of administration of the education system in the country.

Courses that train competence in teaching, pedagogy and didactics are included in the curricula of both Jyväskylä University and Slov’jansk Pedagogical University. The Finnish
education provides depth in knowledge of pedagogical sciences. The main subdiscipline is didactics, both general and subject-matter related. Educational psychology and educational sociology are the important part of teacher training curriculum. One of the peculiarities is an attempt to bring together or as close as possible theory and practice so that everyday teaching problems can be solved with the help of theoretical knowledge. As for the Ukrainian case, subjects of this orientation are included in the curricula as well, they are taught during the whole period of studies from the first year until the last semester. These subjects are obligatory and meant to be the most important for teacher professionalization.

As it is described above there are many similarities and differences in the content of teacher education in both countries from the point of the division of three main areas of knowledge and skills. But still there are some other differences in the content of teacher training which are presented in table 6.3

Table 6.3 Comparison of teacher training curricula in Finland and Ukraine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Ukraine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content in terms of connection to specialization</td>
<td>narrow</td>
<td>broad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>flexible</td>
<td>prescribed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compulsory subjects</td>
<td>majority but there are some subjects on choice</td>
<td>almost all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-obligatory subjects</td>
<td>broad scope of choices</td>
<td>limited choice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a noticeable difference in depth and correspondence to specialization between the cases. Finnish teacher training programs consist of fewer subjects than Ukrainian ones focusing on depth and quality of education. Subjects of direct correspondence to specialization are prioritized. Ukrainian education produces specialists of broader orientation. The fact that the amount of subjects is bigger has both positive and negative effects. Advantageous is that students receive knowledge of general importance developing themselves broader than narrow specialists. The negative effect is that it can lead to
superficial learning. Students get to know a bit about everything receiving not profound specialized knowledge.

Ukrainian curriculum consists mainly of compulsory subjects limiting students’ choice and ignoring their personal interests. Students are strictly guided by governmental and institutional prescriptions. The amount of non-obligatory subjects that students could choose is very limited. Finnish curriculum is more flexible and open stimulating students’ individual motivation and development. Students have an opportunity to participate in construction of their own curricula plan with the broad selection of the optional subjects.

One of the similarities between the countries is determined by value of research and its introduction in the study process. Both for Finnish and Ukrainian students research oriented subjects are an integrated part of the compulsory courses. In Finland these subjects are meant to be essential and fundamental in the process of building teacher competence. In the Ukrainian teacher training programs the amount of theoretical subjects introducing research is not big; there are just some modules that are included in the curricula during the first semesters. But the research that students carry out independently is of great value. There are two obligatory semester papers (after the second and the third year of studies) and diploma as a final assignment for students.

6.3 Ideal models of the profession (assumptions)

Assumptions and expectations about what the ideal teacher is meant to be and what his/her duties and responsibilities are influenced both organization of teacher training (structure, process and content of study programs) and role of the teacher inside and outside the classroom. Teacher education programs in Finland and Ukraine reflect the view of the governments and societies upon the profession. Assumptions about the ideal prototype of the profession in these two countries differ in a way that is almost contradicts the role and duties of Finnish and Ukrainian teachers as it is shown in table 6.3.
Table 6. 3 Ideal models of teacher profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finland</th>
<th>Ukraine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Innovator</td>
<td>Good employee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective</td>
<td>Interpretive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative practitioner</td>
<td>Routine follower</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Finnish profile combines characteristics of the innovator model and the reflective practitioner model. The teacher is both a researcher and a practitioner inspired to find the new ways of improvement of the teaching-learning process. She/he is aware of nature of teaching and critical about the work of teaching.

The ideal Finnish teacher is supposed to be a curriculum entrepreneur with an evaluative attitude working in a learning centre. He/she is both a curriculum-maker, an evaluator of his/her own activities as well as of the students’ progress and an academic with a knowledge base in educational science. The ideal teacher supports, gives advice and inspires pupils in their learning process. Carlgren (2008) underlines that in Finland the teacher combines characteristics of a designer of learning environments, result producer and a scientifically legitimised professional.

The ideal Ukrainian teacher is expected to be a good employee and fulfil the requirements and duties that she/he gets from the administration of a school. He/she should behave like a good teacher in schools and classrooms both with colleagues and pupils being an example for them. The teacher is expected to deal with real-world problems and situations using technical skills. But he/she is not supposed to investigate the nature of teaching reality.
6.4 Curriculum in practice

6.4.1 Curriculum development

There is an obvious and distinctive shift of school philosophy and curriculum theory in both countries at the end of the XX century. Finland as well as former communist Ukraine used to be a highly centralized country with curriculum planned on the governmental level. The development gradually led to decentralization of the curriculum or, in other words, to implementation of the local educational policies and individualization. Subject-centered rationalistic way of looking at education has been moved towards a pupil-centered pragmatic theory of learning with the emphasis on locality. The traditional didactic model, which was proper for both countries, has been changed in a way that three main phases – goals, realization and evaluation – became interconnected. In each phase the same people are involved and responsible for the process. The main advantages of this change are flexibility of curriculum and cooperation between the participants. But, of course, there are a lot of differences in this transition process between these two countries under analysis.

In Finland the changes began much earlier than in Ukraine. The first attempts to decentralize the system were made in the 1980s. A huge process of transformation took place in most of schools: administrative, structural, pedagogical changes, changes in human relationships and working communities. In the 1990s the education system in the country was being under intensive reformation. Responsibility for curriculum planning was given to the communities and individual schools which were allowed to construct their own curriculum on the basis of general prescriptions. Schools and teachers got more freedom and autonomy in pedagogical practices. Increased stakeholders’ involvement contributed to the creation of the pedagogical local framework taking into account interests of the whole community and separate individuals.

Another noticeable feature is that the shift of school philosophy in Finland happened very quickly, so that two curriculum theories turn to coexist simultaneously. Carlgren (2008) means that a symbiosis of two traditions and models of curriculum planning: classical didactic and a self-correcting one, is a specific Finnish case. The country manages to preserve and combine the features both of them with the new international trends making education in the country competitive on the global arena.
In Ukraine after the fall of the Soviet Union the whole system of education has been totally changed. There is an obvious influence of the modern Western tendencies on school philosophy and curriculum planning. From the early 1990s there have been some successful attempts to decentralize the school system, to make schooling individualized and pupil-centered, and, what is of special importance, to change the role and duties of a teacher. The government started to rebuild and modify the country’s educational infrastructure and curricula at all levels. The transition from the subject-oriented to the pupil-centered education required new approaches to schooling, additional resources and capacities both from higher administration, local communities and individual professionals.

Non-systematic changes were rapid and not thoroughly planned. The first reforms of the newly-born state were oriented on the development of distinctive national identity and were claimed to be one-sided. Introduction of new subjects and changes in the content of those that were from the Soviet era evidences the strong intention to change the ideology and understanding of schooling. The government started to change the content of curriculum but not the mechanisms of its planning. It resulted in complicated transition and slow implementation of the new school philosophy.

6.4.2 Teacher’s role in putting curriculum in practice

Comparing the role of a teacher in Finnish and Ukrainian schools, their duties and responsibilities in curriculum planning it is important to keep in mind the changes and reforms that took place in the 1990s in both countries. The changes in curriculum understanding influenced greatly the role of a teacher in both In Finland and Ukraine. Teachers have become more empowered and independent in their work but the degree of autonomy and responsibility is different in the countries.

Finnish teachers are both creators and deliverers of curriculum. They have independence and open space for work creating their own curriculum texts without strong pressure neither from the steering documents nor government. Their teaching is meant to be very traditional despite the changes in methods of instruction. A high level of pedagogical discipline and order is one of the peculiarities of the teaching-learning process in Finland. An important task of a Finnish teacher is to create and regulate learning environment in a flexible way. The main condition for this is to get the school system focus on learning and its problems
instead of teaching. Teachers construct curricula in a way that the content of education corresponds to individual needs and interests of pupils.

Ukrainian teachers have got some autonomy and independence in their work since the 1990s. The role and duties of a teacher have been changed from mechanical instruction to creative approach and individual planning. It provided teachers with the opportunity for developing their professionalism. Some degree of freedom and autonomy has been given but there is still high pressure from the top. The main problems that prevent planned objectives are: lack of teacher time, resources, expertise, training, reflection and work activities. Moreover, Ukrainian teachers are used to follow the directions from the top, used to be instructed and guided. Getting autonomy and freedom they do not know what to do with it. Another weak point is that the competence of an average teacher does not correspond to the new demands and duties. The changes on the governmental level are not supported by the theoretical knowledge and training what would qualify and empower teachers in this sphere.

6.5 Status of the profession in the society

There is a huge difference in attitude to the profession and its social position in these two countries. At the time when Finnish teachers enjoy high status and appreciation, their Ukrainian colleagues suffer from disrespect and low authority. The firsts are devoted to their job and enjoy it, while the big number of the latters just fulfills their duties without any personal motivation. In Finland the teacher profession is one of the most important and well-paid. In Ukraine the profession is meant to be one of those that could be changed easily.

Only 11 % of Ukrainian parents are satisfied with the work of teachers and just 9,1 % of pupils have respect to their instructors. Big amount of secondary school graduates enter the profession in “no choice” situation when there is no other opportunity to get higher education. One of the reasons for such a lamentable situation in Ukraine is low state expenditures on education which constitute the half of the expenditures of OECD countries. Small income makes teachers change place of work or get some additional job to support themselves and their families. It results in lack of teachers in certain specialization in some schools (the situation in rural areas is the worst). The availability of student teachers has fallen while the number of pension-age teachers is increasing. Teachers that continue to work in schools demand better payment.
In Finland teacher profession is one of the most desirable and inspiring. It gains overall respect and appreciation. Teachers are identified with the upper social strata being elite in the country. Upper secondary school graduates go through narrow selection and compete for entering teacher training institutions. Finnish teachers have pedagogical autonomy and independence in organizing their work. There is very little control from the government and stakeholders because teachers are trusted as professionals. Well trained and highly qualified Master’s level specialists give no chance to doubt their competence. They do their job showing good results and achievements getting in return trust and respect.

6.6 Summary

Comparison gives evidence about different organization of the systems of teacher education in the two countries though there are observed some similarities between the cases. The main common features are found in examination of the process and content of teacher training. Selection to two-track education in both countries in realized on competitive basis at two stages. Research oriented subjects essential for professional competence is an important part of curriculum of both systems. These are the main observed similarities between the countries.

The differences lay in requirements to enter teacher education, and content of training, expectations about the profession and social status of teachers in both societies. Duration of education and level of qualification (five-year Finnish Master and four-year Ukrainian Bachelor), forms of training (fulltime and correspondence) are also significantly different. Depth and high quality as a result of selection of subjects with direct relevance to specialization are seen as the main advantages of the Finnish training over the Ukrainian one. Though in-service education for Ukrainian teachers is better organized on the governmental level, their Finnish colleagues are more motivated to develop their professional competence. They take part in different short-time courses offered by governmental and non-govermental institutions. Finnish teacher-innovator is a guarantee of high quality education. He/she earns overall respect and appreciation in the Finnish society. The status of the Ukrainian god-employee-teacher is much lower as a result of complex internal and external factors.
7. Discussion and conclusion

Comparative analysis of the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine shows some definite differences and similarities between the cases. Organization of the process and content of teacher preparation; assumptions about the role, duties and status of the teacher differ to a great extent though there are some common features in these two countries.

The first two dimensions of comparison (process and content of teacher training) demonstrate certain similarities between the cases. All the stages of teacher education have similar structure and organization of the process in the two countries. Selection to the profession is realized on competitive basis on two levels both in Ukraine and Finland. Education is divided into two tracks: class teacher and subject teacher training. There are both Bachelor’s and Master’s Degrees programs at teacher training institutions which are oriented to research. Pedagogical practice is conducted in both passive and active forms with the transition from passive observation to advanced pedagogical activities and active participation of student-teachers. Curricula include some common disciplines related to knowledge about learning, teaching, didactics and methodics.

These similarities testify that the countries have some common objectives and views about organization of teacher education system. It proves that there are some similar determiners both inside and outside the education sphere. Similar roots (European mentality) and some historical factors (wars, communist regimes, intensive reformation) could be explanations of these common directions of education development. Discussing the issue of the organization of the process of teacher training the analysis shows some fundamental differences between the cases in:

- selection to the profession (high requirements and narrow selection of highly motivated Finns is contrasted in Ukraine to admission open for everybody, even for those who are not interested in teaching);

- type of institutions and funding (only public and free of charge education at Finnish universities; both public and private at all types of institutions of higher education in Ukraine);
forms (part-time, correspondence and fulltime in Ukraine; only fulltime in Finland) and levels of training (Master’s Degree is required to work in Finnish schools both for subject and class teachers. Bachelor’s, Master’s and Specialist’s Degrees are appropriate for teaching in Ukraine);

- pedagogical practice (at approved schools with appointed teachers in Finland; any school in Ukraine with loose connection to the teacher training provider);

- in-service training (compulsory and systematic in Ukraine contrasts to non-obligatory voluntary participation of the Finnish teachers).

Though the process is organized on the same levels, the Finnish system possesses some more effective mechanisms than the Ukrainian one. High requirements and narrow selection to the profession leads to selection of highly motivated and talented students who represent the best of the nation. Already at this stage the Finns choose the best “foundation” for the teacher profession. The demands that the Finnish state sets for the applicants and students are not one-sided. In return the state offers high quality of free of charge training at higher educational institutions, mainly universities. High requirements and standards in training result in high quality of teacher competence. Contrary to it, Ukrainian institutions let everybody get into the profession, lowering the standards and quality of training. Ukrainian teacher training is just a possibility to get higher education. Those who are even not interested in teaching and this profession take part in the programs. This evidences about the fact that motivation to develop professional competence and to become highly qualified specialists is much lower than in Finland.

Another disputable issue regards forms of education. The fact that training in Ukraine can be realized in a correspondence form influences the effectiveness of education. The Finnish fulltime training improves the conditions for high quality training. Ukrainian education seems to be more superficial giving opportunities to omit in-depth complex approach to training. It lets students look for easier ways to go through training without hard efforts to study. Correspondence form lowers the standards of quality and, what is even of a greater importance, motivation to work hard. The same problems are observed within organization of teaching practice. The analysis shows that pedagogical practice in Ukraine is very little oriented to research. It lacks consistent pedagogical control and guidance as in Finland. Non-
connected to teacher education providers schools where students carry out their practice and absence of appointed instructed teachers is a negative side of Ukrainian teacher education.

Discussing the issue of lifelong learning and in-service teacher training, Ukrainian system has its numerous advantages over the Finnish one. The government offers a well developed network of systematic improvement of teacher competence all over the country. In-service training is obligatory and is controlled by local and governmental authorities. Despite the fact that Ukrainian teachers have many more opportunities to improve their competence than their Finnish colleagues, the Finns are more interested and active in participating. They take part in different types of short-time training voluntary, sometimes even paying themselves for the courses. Personal motivation is seen as one of the advantages of the Finnish teachers who are eager to improve the level of their professionalism.

Regarding the content of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine, there are also observed both positive and negative sides of the systems. Curriculum of Finnish teacher education presents a well balanced complex of subjects and courses that train teacher competence during the whole process of studying. Education builds narrow but deep professional competence comprising the subjects of direct relevance to the specialization. Strong sides of the Ukrainian system are meant to be broad specialisation, orientation to research, focus on pedagogy, didactics andmethodics. It results in broad development of students both inside and outside the professional competence. Despite this fact the analysis revealed some missing elements in the Ukrainian system. Subjects devoted to curriculum planning and improvement of the teaching-learning process are not included in the curriculum. It shows a gap between the new demands and tasks for the teacher and his/her competence in curriculum planning.

Another important issue concerns flexibility of teacher training curriculum. The amount of compulsory and optional subjects differs greatly in these two countries. The Finnish curriculum is flexible and open. There is a big choice of optional subjects which support students’ individual needs and interests. The analysis of the Ukrainian case shows that the majority of subjects are prescribed by a fixed curriculum. Students are guided and controlled in their studies without the opportunity to individualise the learning process.

If the analysis of the first two dimensions showed both some common and dissimilar features in the systems of teacher training in Finland and Ukraine, the last three dimensions
depict totally different sometimes even contrasting characteristics. There were not observed any common or similar tendencies in the given countries in comparison of ideal models of the profession, role and social status of the teacher.

The most fundamental differences are observed in assumptions and expectations about the profession. Views of Ukrainian and Finnish policymakers and the whole society on this profession and its functioning role both inside and outside the classroom differ preconditioning and influencing the whole system of teacher training. The Finnish teacher is expected to be an innovator and a creative practitioner. His essential duties are seen in finding the new ways of improvement of the teaching-learning process. More creative and independent Finnish teachers have a responsibility for constructing curriculum plans and choice of teaching material. The Ukrainian teacher is supposed to act as a good employee and fulfil the requirements of the administration. These arguments give evidence about different degree of teacher involvement. The Finnish teacher guides and the Ukrainian one is guided.

Regarding the issue of social status of the profession, there are also found some fundamental differences in the Ukrainian and Finish cases. These differences testify about better position of teachers in Finland. High quality of teaching earns overall appreciation among parents and pupils. Respected Finnish teachers are meant to be the elite of the society. The situation of their Ukrainian colleagues is not so optimistic. The teachers get neither moral satisfaction nor material compensation for their work. Small income and need in additional earnings are seen to be the main reasons of such a low status.

All the mentioned above factors are tightly related and interconnected influencing each other. The analysis empowers to conclude that the main differences and reasons of effectiveness or inefficiency are determined by personal motivation of teachers, quality of training and social status of the profession. These factors are dependant to a great extent on the governmental policies which prescribe the conditions of effectiveness of the process. Different approaches of governmental regulation and policymaking in Finland and Ukraine result in different organization of the systems and different degrees of quality of teacher training in the countries.

The systems under analysis possess both similar and different features at all the levels of teacher training in the countries. Each system is specific and unique with its weak and strong
sides. Cultural and social background determines both negative and positive effects. The systems are constantly changing being in need of improvement and innovations. Both Finland and Ukraine are sources of exchange of experience for each other. Some positive features, efficient mechanisms and successful achievements can be borrowed and adopted by the other country in the spheres where they are applicable.

7.1 Value of the study and directions for further research

The study has its input in the teacher education research enlarging the scope of findings and evidences about teacher training. The main importance of the study is determined by the fact that it informs about the current situation of teacher preparation in the world on the examples of two countries. The research proves variety and diversity of teacher education worldwide which are determined, to a great extent, by cultural environment and socio-economic conditions. The study contains general information about organization of the process, content and mechanisms of teacher education. It shows the influence of curriculum development and shift of curriculum traditions not only on teacher training but on role and duties of a teacher.

At the same time, the study is particularistic as it depicts characteristic features proper to Finland and Ukraine showing uniqueness and exclusivity of the countries. Historical and sociological factors that influence organization of teacher education have been taken into account in the analysis of the cases. The study provides both theoretical arguments and empirical evidences as it depicts the systems from inside analysing the process, content, assumptions about the profession, curriculum influence and social status of the teacher. These systems are not just studied, they are compared so that the analysis indicates what is common and what is different between the countries depicting positive and negative sides of formation and development of teacher competence and status of the teacher profession.

The study can be of special importance for policymakers, especially in Ukraine and other East-European countries, which are reforming systems of teacher training looking at successful international experience. The Finnish case can be a good example of effective teacher education system. Ukrainian policymakers could look at Finland and take some lessons about organization of the process and content of the programs. Locally, those who take part in construction and implementation of training programs at teacher education
institutions could also get some useful information about structure and curriculum for improvement.

The study can be useful both for teachers, students and teacher educators being teaching and study material. It provides a rich description of the system of teacher training and its functioning elements. The findings show some effective and disadvantageous sides of teacher education. These data can serve as a basis for different assignments for students and already qualified teachers as improvement and selfimprovement of their professional competence.

Another significant issue concerns social status of the profession which was taken as one of the main dimensions of comparison. The differences in the positions of teachers are expected to cause a lot of debates and deputes. High status of the Finnish teachers, their role and duties can be a stimulus for improvement of the situation for their Ukrainian colleagues.

This study is important in a way that it stimulates further research showing the area of unexamined and unexplored issues related to the topic. This research project is a first attempt to compare the systems of teacher training in these particular countries. While conducting the project I faced lack of research done on Ukrainian teacher training in general, and lack of comparison of the system with the others. Ukrainian case seems lacking researchers’ interest though possessing challenging research problems and tasks. This thesis is expected to inspire researchers and stimulate their interest in further investigation of teacher education in the countries under analysis.

Further research can be focused on more detailed examination of any dimension taken for comparison in this Master thesis. Process and content, role and social status of the profession are in need to be studied in a proper way. It would be interesting to investigate the ways of improvement of teacher education organization and curriculum in Ukraine developing strategies and reforms for increasing its effectiveness and quality. Concerning the content of teacher training, subjects, courses and their value for development of teacher competence in these two countries are also advised to be compared.

The concern of number of compulsory and optional subjects, methods of teaching and evaluation, degree of students’ participation in the teaching-learning process draws researcher’s attention to further investigation. The enlarged number of teacher training
programs and institutions will result in higher quality of research providing the findings which can be easily generalized.

Another not less important issue for further research concerns attitude to the profession and motivation to become a teacher. Findings about the Ukrainian case evidence that both school graduates and qualified teachers are poorly interested in development of teacher competence. What are the reasons for this passiveness? What are the requirements and duties that a teacher is obliged to fulfil? Is he/she capable and competent to do it? These questions stimulate to do further examination of the current situation in teacher education sphere.
References


