The SAGE Handbook of Research in International Education

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As can be seen from the chapters in this Handbook, there are numerous present and evolving perspectives on international education, and just as many on international (or global) teacher education. International teacher education often refers to the preparation of teachers who can demonstrate intercultural understanding and competence, global/cosmopolitan citizenship, international mindedness and activism for social justice and human rights. It can feature elements of ‘global’, ‘multicultural’, ‘peace’, ‘development’, ‘urban’ and ‘sustainability’ education. While there has been discussion about the differences and similarities in the terms ‘global’ and ‘international’, for purposes of this chapter they are synonymous.

**INTERNATIONAL SETTINGS**

This chapter will address the conceptual framework, structures and content of the programmes and practices that prepare novice teachers for ‘international settings’. The term ‘international settings’ in this chapter refers to what Knight (2004) characterized as ‘internationalization at home’ and ‘internationalization abroad’. Shaklee and Baily (2012) have also asserted that a changing world has created a realistic context for an evolving global education community that brings the global to the local so that teacher education institutions might ‘serve as key change agents in transforming education and society’ (UNESCO, 2005: 12). Due to globalization and the mobility of human and material resources, ‘international settings’ can be domestic or overseas. Teachers who successfully complete an international preparation programme are capable of teaching in schools that enrol students from different countries or have various national origins and home languages. These include international schools that serve the expatriate student, as well as domestic schools that feature second-language learners of diverse heritages.
While the settings of these schools, as well as the skills and knowledge teachers develop in their pre-kindergarten – university (PK–16) students in the different programmes may not be exactly the same, they are equivalent enough that teacher education graduates should have the knowledge and ability to be successful educators in all contexts.

**GLOBAL SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE FOR STUDENTS AND TEACHERS**

To understand the nature of international teacher education it is helpful to first become familiar with the competences, skills, knowledge and dispositions that PK–16 students and teachers must demonstrate to be considered global citizens. In addition to advancing the review of the global teacher competences described by van Werven in the following chapter of this *Handbook*, this chapter will also focus on the skills and knowledge that national systems believe are important for students.

**Globally Competent PK–16 Students**

Students are the centre of our work as educators. If we are to prepare them to be globally competent citizens, it is important to first consider the knowledge, skills, dispositions and competences they should develop by graduation, and build upon them as learning goals. Understanding the scope and nature of education that should be provided for students during these years also provides teacher educators with a foundation for establishing the necessary coursework and learning experiences for pre-service teachers. Several researchers have also pointed out that the skills, knowledge and perspectives that are expected of high school and university graduates parallel those required for teachers (Boix Mansilla and Jackson, 2011; Crawford, 2013; Cushner, 2012; Deardorff, 2006; Longview Foundation, 2008). To this end, globally competent graduates should have developed the following:

- **Cultural Awareness and Understanding**
  - Understand their own culture within a global and comparative context
  - Have an in-depth knowledge and understanding of one international culture different from their own
  - Know world geography
  - Understand the relationship between behaviour and culture
  - Recognize and describe cultural differences without judging
- **Awareness of World Events and Global Dynamics**
  - Understand that global issues are complex and changing and have historic, political, economic and ecological dimensions and consequences
  - Understand that local issues and global issues are interrelated
  - Be able to understand and critically evaluate world events from the perspective of different cultures
- **Effective Communication Skills**
  - Be proficient in a second language
  - Be able to recognize the impact of culture on communication
  - Be able to adapt their own written and spoken communication in order to be understood by a non-native speaker
- **Cooperation and Collaboration**
  - Think critically and solve problems collaboratively with individuals from diverse cultures
  - Function effectively as a member of a multinational team
  - Be receptive to others’ views, respectful of differences in interpretation and judgement, and able to revise and expand personal views
- **Attitudes and Dispositions**
  - Appreciate the language, art, religion, philosophy and material culture of different cultures
  - Demonstrate an ongoing willingness to seek out international or intercultural opportunities
  - Understand that the development of cultural understanding is a lifelong process

**Globally Competent Teachers**

The skills, knowledge, dispositions and attitudes desired for teachers correspond to
the competences listed above for PK–16. If students are to graduate with global competences and knowledge, it follows that their teachers must also be prepared to be the facilitators and developers of this knowledge. In general, teachers must be interculturally sensitive and open to diversity. In addition to their content knowledge, they should be flexible and demonstrate mastery of a set of culturally appropriate pedagogical skills. Teachers should also be competent in more than one language, be familiar with theories of second language acquisition, and have an understanding of linguistic diversity and the relationship of language and power in world settings.

In the mid-1990s, educators began to address the importance of preparing teachers (and their students) to be members of a world citizenry. During that time, Richardson (1996) identified four aspects of global citizenship that are both structural and personal, and which relate to the education of the internationally competent teacher:

- status, rights and obligations;
- social inclusion and active participation;
- sentiment and sense of identity; and
- political literacy and skill. (p. 5)

In addition, Steiner (1996) emphasized the postmodernist, social justice aspect of the field, characterizing a global teacher as someone who:

- Is interested in and concerned about events and movements in the local, national and global community;
- Actively seeks to keep informed while also maintaining a skeptical stance towards her sources of information;
- Takes up a principled stand, and supports others who do so, against injustice and inequalities relating to race, gender, class, physical or mental attributes, and to international systems of trade, finance and production;
- Informs herself about environmental issues as they impact upon her community and on other communities and ecological systems globally; and
- Values democratic processes as the best means of bringing about positive change and engages in some form of social action to support her beliefs. (p. 21)

To provide an expanded perspective to sets of institutions’ definitions and lists of competences, a study by Merryfield (2013) sought to capture what teachers believe to be the important characteristics of a global citizen and their approach to teaching world citizenry in their classrooms. Merryfield asked 126 International Baccalaureate teachers two questions: What does it mean to be a global citizen? What are you doing day-to-day to prepare your students to think and act as citizens of the world? Findings shared through her blog indicated that ‘open-mindedness was the primary attribute that most of the teachers – no matter from what country – described as fundamental in developing globally knowledgeable and engaged students’. The findings revealed a general agreement among the teachers that they should provide their students with personal cross-cultural and cross-national experiences with people of other cultures (e.g., through literature, work with local immigrants, migrants or refugees, online connections, and/or travel).

The teachers in this study also believed that they should model and promote values of respect, empathy and caring for those different from themselves. It was also important that teachers have their students practise skills in listening, enquiry, evaluation, analysis of conflicting points of view and reflection. With regard to content and classroom materials, the teachers felt that they should select content that is international in scope and provides opportunities for students to develop understanding of global interconnectedness, global issues and perspectives through these readings and other learning materials. The learning experiences that develop international mindedness also deepen students’ understanding of their own culture, history and current issues facing their community.


Globally Competent Citizens

Oxfam also emphasizes an awareness of power differentials and the importance of understanding various viewpoints. It believes that the best way to build global citizenship is through a Learn–Think–Act process.

- Learn – Exploring an issue, considering it from different viewpoints and trying to understand causes and consequences
- Think – Considering critically what can be done about an issue, and then relating this to values and worldviews with an effort toward trying to understand the nature of power and action
- Act – Thinking about and taking action on the issue as an active global citizen, both individually and collectively (Oxfam, website, n.d.).

UNICEF stresses the importance of universal human rights as a foundation for building a critical understanding of the world and global citizenship capacity in teachers and students (Crawford, 2013). The following example of a unit to be used in the primary grades (3–5) captures a sample of UNICEF’s curricular work.

Exploring Our Roles as Global Citizens is a four-lesson unit with extension activities and a student-led inquiry project that is designed
- To introduce the concept of global citizenship, including relevant knowledge, skills, values, and civic actions;
- To educate students about universal human rights outlined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and what their responsibilities are to ensure these rights are protected;
- To foster students’ skills in developing perspectives, critical and creative thinking, research, and decision-making about a chosen global issue using a student-led inquiry model; and
- To empower students to recognize and use their individual strengths to make a positive difference in their local communities. (p. 1)

Additional attributes and competences for the global citizen were provided by University College London (2014), as follows. The global citizen is:

- a critical and creative thinker;
- ambitious – but also idealistic and committed to ethical and socially responsible behaviour;
- aware of the intellectual and social value of cultural difference;
- an entrepreneur with the ability to innovate;
- willing to assume leadership roles: in the family, the community and the workplace; and
- highly employable and ready to embrace professional mobility.

The following section addresses several approaches for internationalizing teacher education programmes designed to prepare teachers for global classrooms.

CONCEPTUALIZING GLOBAL TEACHER EDUCATION

Given the foregoing student and teacher competences as developed over time, how might global teacher education be best conceptualized in the coming years? There are, of course, a number of perspectives to consider, including a focus on values held by self and others, multiple realities, cross-cultural awareness and comparisons between local and global issues, and a critical understanding of global contexts. Global teacher education in certain countries, notably the UK and USA, also includes an emphasis on the tenets of social justice, political awareness, educational development, inclusion and the critical role of language and power in educational settings (Fox, 2012). This orientation focuses on the learner and differs from the more exclusionary comparative approach. For example, the focal point of British global education and global teacher education continues to be world citizenship – that is, a planetary awareness of both diversity and commonalities, with a clear goal of inclusion (see the chapter in this volume by Gillian MacNaughton and Dimity Peter on social inclusion – Chapter 25). As a result, global teacher competence in many countries has come to include the development of skills, knowledge and attitudes related to equity and power, as well as a responsibility to positively influence the world in which
future citizens will live (Cushner and Brennan, 2007).

As noted, British global teacher education has maintained a strong focus on inequities, social justice and development (Steiner, 1996). In addition, a variety of programmes in the USA (e.g., Teachers College, Columbia) also share this perspective. Zhao (2010) articulated a new imperative and framework for US teacher education to prepare globally competent teachers for the twenty-first century. However, the internationalization of teacher education is highly influenced by a country’s global history. As noted in the final section of this Handbook, many countries that were colonized by the West (e.g., in the Middle East, Asia and Latin America) have taken cautious approaches to preparing teachers and their students for global competence. We now turn to the concepts and research that should be considered when creating or updating teacher education programmes for a world orientation.

In addition to the importance of context conceptualization, Merryfield, Jarchow and Pickert (1997) and Merryfield (2001) present other essential questions that designers of global teacher education programmes need to address:

• **Global content**: How will teacher candidates acquire the knowledge of the world and its peoples? There are a variety of disciplines within the social, behavioural and physical sciences that can be consulted for content.

• **Intercultural learning**: How will future teachers experience, participate in and learn to live with cultures different from their own? What types of experiences will provide the knowledge and skills to successfully communicate across cultures?

• **Pedagogy for a global perspective**: What instructional methods will teachers learn that are appropriate for a global perspective, and how will they learn them? Who will model them, and how will teachers be able to apply these strategies to individual students?

These questions continue to be an important guide for any teacher education faculty or design team. Cochran-Smith (2003) elaborated on these concepts by stating that teacher educators (especially those seeking to emphasize diversity) should also concentrate on outcomes and recruitment. She believed that the outcomes of teacher preparation should move beyond a narrow focus on the academic achievement and test scores of primary–secondary students and looked at programme outcome data as one means of studying the impact of coursework on pre-service teachers’ learning. She also considered that teacher educators should carefully articulate recruitment goals and selection schemes in order to identify the best candidates for diverse educational systems.

Zhao (2010) suggested that global teacher education in the USA and elsewhere should be partially conceptualized in terms of the challenges caused by globalization. These include the competitiveness reflected in a global job market and international standards and assessments such as the PISA and TIMSS assessments (see the chapter by Niemann and Martens on PISA in this volume – Chapter 33). It is important for teacher education to shift its thinking from serving only the local community to the global. Currently, programmes in the USA include numerous required courses and experiences, many of which do not address global needs and international perspectives. Though there is increasing evidence of efforts toward internationalization in many teacher education programmes (e.g., Kent State University offering an IB certified programme for their early childhood teacher education programme), programmes are needed that feature carefully scaffolded and globally oriented experiential activities, such as study abroad, overseas internships, field work in diverse linguistic settings, global content in methods and other courses, and specialized education for foreign language teachers. As noted by Cochran-Smith (2003), along with this attitudinal and policy shift should be a set of clear expectations and measurable objectives for teacher candidates to become globally competent. They would link to the competences listed above for PK–16 students, such as those recommended by the Longview Foundation (2008) in its
call to change teacher education to embrace globalization. Partnerships with international organizations could also assist in the metamorphosis from a domestic to a worldwide orientation (Zhao, 2010).

As noted, teachers need to be prepared to educate PK–16 learners for a changing world. In both the EU and the USA, where previously the focus was on teacher knowledge, teacher education curriculum now emphasizes the achievement of competences (outcome measures) for both teacher preparation and advanced teacher development programmes. While outcome measures are critical, it is difficult to assess teaching skills in global competence. This point will be further discussed below.

Since the version of this chapter that appeared in the first edition of this Handbook (Levy, 2007), there have been significant movements to develop international teacher education programmes and resources. A number of universities now offer teacher education programmes, there is a Global Teacher Education website (www.globalteachereducation.org) and several print and e-publications have begun to address the topic. These resources often focus on updating teacher education curriculum in order to help PK–12 students achieve global learning outcomes. They feature targeted projects and assignments that require students to demonstrate competences that apply the knowledge, skills, and perspectives that signify their development as global learners. (For example, see www.nafsa.org/Find_Resources/Internationalizing_Higher_Education/Internationalizing_the_Curriculum/).

A consortium of three universities has created the International Teacher Education for Primary Schools (ITEPS) programme that prepares teachers for a primary school teaching career in international schools all over the world. The four-year programme emphasizes high performance and intercultural awareness. Students are exposed to different national and international educational approaches and systems and are taught by professional specialists from several countries (see www.iteps.eu). Further details about ITEPS are presented by van Werven in Chapter 20 of this volume.

Complementing the increased presence of more globally focused pedagogy, many discipline-specific standards are now expanding their focus to incorporate an international perspective (e.g., www.socialstudies.org/positions/global/whatisglobaled). The Twenty-first Century Skills Framework emphasizes global competency as its call to action (www.p21.org/news-events/p21blog/1460-young-global-competency-p21s-call-to-action). Another example can be found in the graduate-level certificate for in-service educators offered by the Asia Society, Teachers College, Columbia University and World Savvy (http://globalcompetencecertificate.org).

STRUCTURE OF GLOBAL TEACHER EDUCATION

What are the major components of a teacher preparation programme that produces globally competent educators? The following categories have been compiled from a number of different sources and teacher education programmes worldwide.

- **General education coursework** that helps each prospective teacher develop deep knowledge of education and at least one world region, culture, or global issue.
- **Intercultural competence for teachers** – according to Cushner (2012: 42), intercultural competence refers to ‘the critical knowledge and skills that enable teachers to be successful within a wide range of culturally diverse contexts’.
- **Understanding of second language acquisition and the role of language and power in educational settings** – Fox (2012) addresses the understanding that teachers should have with regard to the critical role that language and culture play in the teaching and learning in international classrooms.
- **Teaching of world languages and the preparation of world language teachers**, including those who are proficient in less-commonly-taught languages, are interculturally competent and
promote linguistic pluralism with an expanding multilingual mindset (Pearce, 2013).

- **Professional education courses** that develop culturally responsive pedagogical skills that enable future teachers to integrate global dimensions into their subject matter. The global content should be infused throughout the teacher education programme, including field experiences, internships and sites for school/ university collaboration, and purposeful curriculum development. It should include interdisciplinary, curricular connections between multicultural and global education as well as other related fields (peace education, conflict resolution, etc.; Cochran-Smith, 2003).

- **Field experiences and clinical practice** that support the development of pre-service teachers’ global perspectives. These should include at least one in-depth cross-cultural experience for every pre-service teacher by promoting study or student teaching in another country, or field work or student teaching in a diverse community setting. (For examples of international field experiences see Chapter 20 by van Werven in this volume.)

- **Formative and summative assessments** to evaluate the effectiveness of new strategies in developing the global competence of prospective teachers.

- **Teacher inquiry/teacher research** as an investigative approach to understanding teaching and learning, classroom interactions and discourse in the context of changing demographics and international education.

The following sections address global teacher education as it pertains to programme contexts that may be domestic or non-domestic and prepare teachers for in-country or out-of-country schools.

**‘International Abroad’: Global Teacher Education for Non-domestic Settings**

This section presents an overview of programmes and practices for faculty who are preparing to teach, or who are already serving outside their home countries. Most of the programmes cited pertain to teachers at international schools overseas. These schools, referred to often in this Handbook, enrol both expatriate students from international families and/or affluent local students who have frequently travelled or lived abroad. Some are increasingly enrolling scholarship and other local students from the areas served by international schools, creating a school that is both domestic and international in context.

A number of universities in the UK, Australia, Canada and the USA offer pre- and in-service programmes to international school educators. At the pre-service level teacher candidates work toward a licence or certificate that is awarded by a government or university. They generally receive a qualification in primary education, a secondary subject area, or PK–12 English as a Second Language (ESL) or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). Coursework is offered on the home campus, online (at a distance), or at university centres throughout the world.

One of the first programmes to prepare teachers for overseas international settings was FAST TRAIN, located at George Mason University in the USA. Beginning in 1990, FAST TRAIN began providing pre-service coursework for American international schools. While satisfying state requirements for licensure, the curriculum focuses on developing internationally minded teachers who complete their internship abroad (see Duckworth et al., 2005). Today, the programme has furthered its international initiatives by being the first graduate programme in North America to offer an advanced graduate certificate in International Baccalaureate (IB) studies; most recently, the IB Advanced Certificate in Teaching and Learning Research has become a specialization in Mason’s advanced master’s programme for practising teachers.

Other pre-service programmes also partner with the International Baccalaureate (IB) organization to offer the IB Certificate in Teaching and Learning. Future teachers take 1–3 university courses as part of their pre-service (often undergraduate) programmes. In Australia, Curtin University’s
undergraduate teacher education programme provides an IB stream in its pre-service teacher certification programmes that incorporate the key theories and principles relating to the International Baccalaureate with a focus on the fundamental concepts, learner profile and holistic learning, and curriculum planning and assessment. (See, for example, http://courses.curtin.edu.au/course_overview/undergraduate/early-childhood-education.)

Most university-based in-service professional development programmes lead to a master’s degree, though there are a few doctoral programmes available for international school educators. As noted, the master’s coursework can be offered on campus, online, or on-site at an international school. When offered on-site, it is tailored as much as possible to the needs and interests of the school faculty. Curricula range from mixed models in which the university combines a required core sequence of classes with others selected from a broad menu, to straightforward coursework in which individual class titles do not change but the content is adaptable to the local context. They can be offered in hybrid delivery mechanisms that combine face-to-face and online classes. These types of programmes have existed for over 40 years, and have expanded in number and design with increasing globalization. One of the most well-known and highly respected programmes is offered at the University of Bath in the UK.

There is also a wide range of professional development available to international school educators through national governments, international associations (such as the IB and the European Council of International Schools) and NGOs. The US State Department’s Office of Overseas Schools supports a number of activities at American international schools. In addition, there are regional associations of international schools (e.g. East Asia Regional Council of Schools [EARCOS, http://www.earcos.org], Tri-Association: The Association of American Schools [http://www.tri-association.org], European Council of International Schools [ECIS, http://www.ecis.org]) that also facilitate the professional growth of teachers and administrators.

Finally, a number of NGOs (e.g. International Society for Teacher Education; International Council on Education for Teaching; American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education [AACTE]) and individual consultants also assist international schools to meet their professional development needs. Associated with the AACTE in the USA (www.aacte.org) is a newly formed Topical Action Group (TAG), Internationalization of Teacher Education. The website states that it supports the integration of international, intercultural, and global experiences and perspectives into the curriculum of teacher education (including the clinical component) to ensure that all teachers are properly trained to prepare their students to thrive in a globally connected, diverse world. This TAG focuses on identifying and assessing unique indicators of global competency in pre- and in-service teachers and programs. (AACTE, 2015)

‘International, Home and Abroad’: Pre-service Global Teacher Education for Domestic and Non-domestic Settings

Because national teacher education systems are concerned with preparing faculty for the home country, pre-service teachers do not normally study comparative structures of other countries’ education systems. Nonetheless, many national systems are increasingly recognizing the importance of globalization and include the need to develop international mindedness in mission statements and PK–16 programmes. They are reforming teacher preparation curricula accordingly, and it is now not uncommon for future teachers to serve internships abroad. Examples of such programmes are provided by van Werven in Chapter 20 of this Handbook.

In Europe, the single currency and interconnectedness of the European Union has enabled labour to increasingly move across borders. In order to facilitate this movement, the Organisation of European
Co-operation and Development (OECD) created the National Qualification Frameworks that helped bring consistency to the professional development programmes in various countries. While each country creates its own Qualification Framework, the structure is flexible yet constant across borders. Thus, teachers prepared in one European Union country have similar pre-service experiences as those in neighbouring countries, facilitating movement. The preparation of teachers also experienced a formal metamorphosis toward uniformity through the 1999 Bologna Declaration, in which many of the European education ministers decided to move toward a system that featured consecutive bachelor’s and master’s degrees (ETUCE, 2008).

Students who eventually become teachers therefore can gain increasing access to cross-border universities and faculty positions. While the adoption of the new system has been uneven – and it is not clear how many teachers have actually received teacher education in one country and moved to another – the globalization of teacher education has increasingly made this a more active possibility (Blömeke, 2006; Loomis et al., 2008).

An important change has evolved in the area of foreign/world language teacher education, where the objective of language learning is no longer defined solely in terms of the acquisition of communicative competence in another language. In a Council of Europe report (Beacco et al., 2010), in addition to targeting a high level of language proficiency as a learning goal for the world language learner, teachers are now also expected to teach both intercultural communicative competence and embrace the concept of plurilingualism as an element for equitable education. Byram et al. (2002) noted the following about intercultural communicative competence in language learning:

> When two people talk to each other, … their social identities are unavoidably part of the social interaction between them. … the ‘intercultural dimension’ in language teaching aims to develop learners as intercultural speakers or mediators who are able to engage with complexity and multiple identities and to avoid the stereotyping which accompanies perceiving someone through a single identity. (2002: 9)

Though travel across borders in the EU is quite easy, research shows that teachers may not automatically incorporate international perspectives in their practice. For that reason, pre-and in-service teachers need to focus beyond the teaching of content and must be equipped with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes required to accomplish the wider task of incorporating global dimensions and achieving intercultural competence. The foreign language teachers in a study by Sercu (2005) did not all reach a level of intercultural competence themselves nor did they incorporate international perspectives in their curriculum and teaching practice with PK–12 students. Clearly, this is an area for ongoing teacher education discussion, as there is a call for developing intercultural competence for teachers in other content areas as well.

In recent years, as teacher education curricula offered in local settings have become more uniform, this broader preparation can provide teachers with a greater opportunity to take positions outside their home countries. These expanded curricula provide another reason for preparing teachers for international positions. For example, UNESCO (website, n.d.) has developed consortia of schools and universities in all regions of the globe (e.g. Africa, Asia and Pacific, Arab States, Latin America, North America and Europe), increasing communication and collaboration among educators. United World Colleges has also developed a network of 14 schools and colleges around the world that educate students between the ages of 2 and 19 (UWC, website, n.d.).

Tudball (2012) discussed the increasing recognition by Australian authorities of the need to incorporate global education in PK–16 policy and practice. They built student and teacher awareness of the more than three billion Asians in diverse countries who populate Australia’s ‘neighbourhoods’. 
Some of these collaborations include short-term internships in Africa or student study abroad through service learning. As a result, in ‘Australian universities, there is now constant interaction and movement across cultures and nations, among staff and students. This includes transnational interactions at personal, academic, and institutional levels, but at the same time there are also large-scale global convergences and cross-border collaborations’ (2012: 97).

‘International Home’: Pre-service Global Teacher Education for Domestic Settings

Domestic multicultural teacher education often includes both diversity education and global content, generally in relation to the various identities of diverse groups of students. These include ethnic, racial, linguistic, gender, class, ability and other characteristics. It combines two broad models in its approach to preparing teachers for pluralist settings, one called ‘outside-in’ and the other ‘inside-out’. The ‘outside-in’ model is generally more prevalent since it consists of culture-specific and culture-general content that relates to students from cultures with whom the teachers will most likely work. For example, in the Netherlands multicultural teacher education might include content on the societies in former Dutch colonies, such as Surinam, the Antilles and Indonesia, as well as countries that send workers to the Netherlands, such as Morocco and Turkey (Campbell, 1993). The multicultural education component of US teacher preparation programmes often includes content about African Americans, Latinos, Asian Americans and Native Americans (in addition to the aforementioned diversity-related content, such as class, language, gender and exceptionality). Increasingly, a service learning component is included as part of teacher education licensure coursework, though these are often one-way in nature and do not reflect true partnerships between the university and community.

A culture-general focus is designed to enable teachers to develop skills and knowledge that are applicable with diverse student groups. Thus, pre-service candidates might study the work of researchers who analyse culture from a variety of perspectives, such as Hofstede (1980, 1986, 2010), Hall (1989) and Kluckhohn (1950). Unfortunately, unless they spend a great deal of time in fieldwork and internship in diverse settings, or unless the experience is accompanied by a carefully cultivated development of international perspectives that are scaffolded by critical reflection and collaborative discussions (Quezada and Alfaro, 2007), the preparation is not likely to result in an expansion of international mindedness or global perspectives.

In the ‘inside-out’ approach, the teacher reflects on his/her own cultural development. It is thought that once this is understood, she/he is better able to work with children who are experiencing their own identity development. By starting with ‘self’ teachers have the possibility of seeing and understanding the cultural and linguistic influences present in their lives, and in turn can use those insights to help them work with students whose backgrounds and languages differ from theirs. ‘Our autobiographies as learners in childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood frame our approach to teaching at the start of our careers, and they frequently exert an influence that lasts a lifetime’ (Brookfield, 1995: 50). However, it should be noted that in order to help teachers move beyond mere reflection in a ‘hall of mirrors’ (Fendler, 2003), the development of reflective capacity should be accompanied by carefully selected readings and dialogic discussion to expand the pre-service teacher’s understanding of multiple perspectives. In her research on defining and assessing intercultural competence, Deardorff (2006) concluded that two of the most important elements are attitude and mindfulness. Thus, in addition to being open-minded, teachers and students need to
develop the habit of analytical self-reflection in learning and employing intercultural skills. The two models of intercultural competence described by Deardorff both follow the ‘inside-out’ orientation in that internal frames of reference (adaptability, flexibility, ethnoretivism, empathy, etc.) precede effective and more appropriate external behaviour.

Most domestic multicultural programmes in the USA include both approaches in varying degrees, though they need to incorporate targeted international perspectives in order to expand teachers’ thinking to a global level. Unfortunately, there remains limited research available that describes the effectiveness of these two approaches.

Multicultural teacher education in the USA also emphasizes the importance of constructivism and multiple perspectives. As noted by James Banks in his five dimensions of multicultural education, the significance of multiple perspectives is based on the idea of knowledge construction. Teachers need to ‘help students understand, investigate, and determine how the implicit cultural assumptions, frames of references, perspectives and biases within a discipline influence the ways that knowledge is constructed’ (Banks and Banks, 2012: 17).

While written policies and anecdotal records of multicultural practices are well conceived, it is not clear how effective they are. In the USA, racial and class differences continue to be a significant predictor of the academic achievement gap. Further, a not uncommon characteristic of pre-service teacher education is the occasional disconnect between the methodology taught at the tertiary institution and that practised in schools. Often, pre-service teachers learn student-centred, constructivist strategies that are favoured by teacher educators in universities and government centres. When they arrive in schools, however, they may still encounter traditional, teacher-centred contexts that steer them away from their progressive orientation. There is a solid line of research in the US that describes slippage between the beliefs and strategies favoured in teachers’ preparation programmes (more progressive) and their actual practice (more traditional) (Pajares, 1992; Pohan and Aguilar, 2001; Raths, 2001; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981).

Similar concerns are present in Guyana, where ‘teachers find that much of the knowledge and skills they gained in training cannot be implemented in the classroom’ (Jennings, 2001: 108). As a result, while pre-service teachers might learn to respect the importance of multiple perspectives, this might not transfer into their actual classroom practice. Further, teacher education programmes in developing countries tend to focus on subject matter knowledge and teaching strategy, rather than coursework to reduce prejudice and provide for social justice (Watson, 1996).

Even if teacher preparation programmes emphasize constructivism and multiple perspectives, there is limited evidence that they favour multiple international perspectives. The variety of views on a particular topic might reflect different political, social, or cultural positions taken within a country, rather than between countries. Once again, however, in societies with large immigrant populations a constructivist orientation might present the perspectives from these different communities. In addition, those who have been prepared to work with diverse domestic student groups would hopefully be able to transfer their skills to international contexts or to classrooms comprised of international students.

**RELEVANT FACTORS FOR DOMESTIC GLOBAL TEACHER EDUCATION**

There are a number of variables that influence how well teachers prepared through a national system can work with domestic and non-domestic international student populations. These include the diversity, location and political status of the country in which
the teacher is educated and its national policies toward multiculturalism and multilingualism. A country’s governance and the status of cultural groups, including immigration and language policies must also be considered. In addition, the term multilingual increasingly describes the students in both domestic and non-domestic international schools. Furthermore, a teacher’s race, ethnic background, second language competence and academic record should be considered (Villegas and Davis, 2005; Zumwalt and Craig, 2005). Following is an overview of these categories.

Diversity of Country, National Policy on Multiculturalism

A crucial factor is the importance placed on multiculturalism and multilingualism by the national government. Gören (2013) analysed cultural and ethnic diversity throughout the world. Due to the many tribal groups and languages, the countries with the most cultural diversity are in Africa: Chad, Cameroon, Nigeria, Togo and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Canada is the only Western country in the top 20. The USA, thought to be a highly diverse country, actually falls in the middle of the list, more diverse than Russia but less than Spain (Gören, 2013; Morin, 2013). In an earlier international analysis of ethnic diversity, Van den Berghe (1989, as cited in Craft, 1996) concluded that by using the criterion of 90% or more of the population speaking the same language, only 10% of the 150 countries in the United Nations in 1989 could be called culturally homogeneous.

Multilingualism has become typical in most societies (Aronin and Singleton, 2008). It seems logical, therefore, that the greater the ethnic and linguistic diversity in a country the support provided by the government should be greater, with a corresponding focus on preparing teachers to work with students from various language and cultural backgrounds. Unfortunately, this is not always the case for policy. An example is drawn from the Bahamas, where in the past ‘primary school teachers are not being exposed to the content and methodology courses in their training that would prepare them to teach Standard English to Bahamian Creole speakers as well as to an increasing number of non-native speakers of English (largely of Haitian origin) who are entering the school system’ (National Task Force on Education, 1994: 31; cited in Jennings, 2001: 114).

Teachers need not only to understand bilingualism and multilingualism, they must also develop multicompetence themselves (Franceschini, 2011). ‘Multicompetence, or multilingual competence, is at the same time a tool and a state and relates to the complex, flexible, integrative, and adaptable behavior which multilingual individuals display’ (Franceschini, 2011: 351). Specifically, teachers need to have an understanding of multilingualism that includes supporting students’ language development, as well as their content knowledge and cognitive development.

In the Netherlands, Dutch students often learn three or more languages (Dutch plus English, German, French or Spanish) because citizens frequently travel outside the country for business, education or pleasure. The Dutch government recognized the importance of both Dutch and international needs and wished to provide its students the opportunity to work with people around the world. Approximately 20 international schools were established throughout the country, which were funded jointly by the Dutch Ministry of Education and local multinational corporations and companies (Pearce, 2013). Their connection to international education is strongly tied to the Dutch and international business community. ‘Globalization expands boundaries, broadening our horizons and making our world smaller .... Pupils who come into contact with the international and intercultural community at a young age through internationalization at school have a broader perspective and better chances on the international job market’ (European
Platform, 2013, as quoted by Allan in Pearce, 2013: 153). As a result, a Dutch teacher must be capable of working with students from different countries and thus may be more internationally focused than a teacher from a largely monolingual society.

In the UK, the Blair government (1997–2007) allocated start-up funding to allow each local authority to introduce the IB Diploma into one of its schools. Unfortunately, since the support only covered initial costs, a number of the schools have subsequently dropped the programme. State-funded international schools (including some that offer the IB Diploma) exist in Scandinavia, the USA, China and Spain (Allan, 2013).

Countries that value multiculturalism may prioritize diversity in the recruitment and employment of teachers and teacher educators. This has been the case in the UK (Basit and McNamara, 2004) and in standards in the USA (CAEP Standards, 2013). A society that seeks to identify and prepare representatives of various ethnic, class and gender groups for the classroom will quite possibly produce teachers who are globally minded. A nation that focuses on gender-equality will probably graduate teachers who are sensitive to differences. Recruiting and maintaining a diverse teaching force has been a particular challenge in the USA, where the overwhelming percentage of teachers are female, white and middle class, and the students are increasingly African American, Latino/Hispanic and Asian (Villegas and Davis, 2005). It is a generally accepted belief that recruiting and retaining a diverse faculty can have a significant positive impact on the achievement gap between white students and students of colour (Landorf et al., 2007). Carrington and Skelton (2003) cautioned, however, that many programmes rely on the ‘role model’ criterion when recruiting teachers of colour, and do not fully examine other qualifications such as knowledge of subject and instructional strategies. While this can be controversial, recruitment for diversity should nonetheless remain a priority in internationalizing teacher education.

**Governance**

One important consideration in terms of the approach to pluralism in teacher education is governance. In a system where control devolves to the state or region – such as in the USA, Germany, Australia and Canada – concern for preparing teachers for plural school environments very much depends upon the context within various locales. Even in more centralized countries such as China, France, Greece, Japan, Sweden and Thailand, where the national government decides on the content of teacher education, there are a variety of approaches (Watson, 1996; see also chapters on China and Japan in Part IV of this volume).

Many countries, however, do include policy statements acknowledging the importance of diversity in education and teacher preparation. Often teacher education governing bodies include standards and competences that broadly address the importance of diversity and respect for different cultures, such as this statement from the Norwegian Ministry of Education:

> At the same time, education should pave the way for a society based on individual freedom and self-determination, where individuals show responsibility for their own and other people’s lives and well-being. Education should promote respect and tolerance for different cultures and life styles, and thereby combat discriminatory attitudes. It should also foster moral responsibility for the society and the world that we live in. (KUF, 1999, as cited in Stephens et al., 2004: 123)

In an analysis of education policy across twenty-five European countries, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2005) noted that high-quality teachers can create effective learning environments for different types of students. Specifically, they can ‘deal effectively with different languages and student backgrounds, … be sensitive to culture and gender issues, … promote tolerance and social cohesion, … respond effectively to disadvantaged students and students with learning or behavioural problems’
(2005: 2). This recognition has placed greater responsibility on teacher education institutions to prepare teachers with relevant knowledge and skills.

In the USA most pre-service teacher education programmes emphasize diversity and multicultural education for domestic student groups. With regard to the accreditation of teacher preparation, an interwoven element of the newly formed Council for the Accreditation of Education Professionals (CAEP), formerly the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), is directed toward diversity.

Diversity must be a pervasive characteristic of any quality preparation program. The Commission expects responsible providers to ensure that candidates develop proficiencies in specific aspects of diversity that appear in the Commission’s recommended standards and to embed diversity issues throughout all aspects of preparation courses and experiences. (2013: 3)

Status of Cultural Groups

The nature of a country’s diversity is another aspect tied to international teacher education. The recognition given to pluralism depends on how different groups are perceived by governments in terms of their economic, political or numerical status. As noted in the final section of this volume, a country’s approach to international teacher education is influenced by its global history. Many governments state that they value diversity yet explicitly practise assimilation. As stated by Watson (1996):

… in societies that are multiethnic or multilingual as a result of war, colonialism, conquest and history – such as Belgium, Cameroon, China, India, Malaysia, Nigeria, Singapore, Switzerland, the former USSR, to name but a few – emphasis in teacher education is inevitably concerned with linguistic and cultural differences. Teachers are expected to be at least bilingual, and where relevant, to be aware of ethnic and cultural differences. This is particularly true in India, Malaysia and Singapore. Trainee teachers are recruited from the different ethnic groups and are expected to understand and be sympathetic towards, other groups; but in all cases, the national language (Hindi or Bahasa Malaysia) has to be promoted above the other languages. (1996: 167)

A similar situation as that described by Watson exists in Pakistan, especially with regard to linguistic minorities, as documented by Gouleta (2013) and addressed by Coleman and Capstick (2012). As noted by Zhao (2010) elsewhere in this chapter, globalization has created a movement toward standardized assessment and accountability. This has fed an assimilationalist focus on economics and employability, despite government and organizational statements that highlight diversity.

Immigration and Language Groups

Countries that have experienced large-scale immigration, such as the USA, Canada and Western Europe, have experimented with a variety of policies regarding assimilation and acculturation. These have resulted in different emphases in teacher education – for example, from bilingual education to English as a Second Language, and/or from antiracist education to a concentration on basic literacy. In Sweden teachers could be prepared to teach in any of more than 50 languages. France, like the USA, has also allowed for the different language mediums of instruction, but has been mostly concerned with the preservation of French (or English, in the USA) as the national language.

However, over the past decade, some regional languages, such as Basque in France and Spain, have experienced resurgence, with an accompanying call for targeted teacher preparation for bilingual instruction (Gorter and Cenoz, 2011). In the EU, regional language revitalization and teacher education are influenced by the language policies of the EU and particularly of the Council of Europe through the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (Council of Europe, 1992). The Charter is part of the legal framework to promote and protect the
cultural heritage of languages in Europe (De Bot and Gorter, 2005: 613). Germany, in contrast, recruited Turkish and Croatian teachers, and provided courses in multicultural education in teacher preparation curricula (Watson, 1996).

While, as expected, there is no single pattern of teacher preparation in pluralist societies, many countries recognize the importance of educating teachers to work effectively with immigrant students and diverse language groups. As stated in a 2002 EURYDICE publication:

Immigration has altered the working conditions of teachers in many European countries, and had a direct impact on the composition of classes. Teachers may be confronted with different cultures, religions, and languages in a single learning environment. Not all pupils necessarily relate to this environment in the same way and many often have insufficient knowledge of the language of instruction. Attention is therefore increasingly devoted to the acquisition of methods involving cross-cultural approaches to teaching, as well as the psychological and sociological aspects of handling situations that arise in a multicultural context. (EURYDICE, 2002: 48)

**Internal Cohesion**

Naturally, those countries whose citizens are divided by social and political cleavages will have greater difficulty in addressing international/multicultural content in teacher education. Israel’s Ministry of Education has not been able to develop a comprehensive policy on pluralism in education, and as a result, multiculturalism in teacher education is practised on a voluntary basis (Yogev, 1996: 57). Hemson (2006) and Alexander (2003) cite a similar situation in post-apartheid South Africa where educators continue to be challenged with how to effectively address diversity in their classrooms. Pakistan is another country that has had difficulty in establishing a cohesive language policy in education contexts (Coleman and Capstick, 2012; Gouleta, 2013). These are areas for future research.

**Geographic Location**

Another significant factor in the implementation of global teacher education is the geographic location of the country and the nature of its interactions with its neighbours. Discussions within the European Union continue regarding a teacher qualification that would be accepted throughout the region. Similarly, the South-East Asia Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) frequently discusses educational issues of importance to the area. One example with relevance to international education and pluralism is the efforts of Vietnam to prepare teachers for multigrade teaching with minority groups in rural areas. Since this is a characteristic of many of the SEAMEO countries, the results of the effort (funded by UNICEF) will have a likely impact beyond Vietnam (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2012; Thomas, 1996). Similarly, members of the Caribbean Community Secretariat (CARICOM) emphasize the need for teachers to be prepared for ‘inclusive’ education. ‘Inclusive’ in this case refers to youngsters who hitherto have been excluded from final examinations and boys in the Caribbean school systems that are underachieving (Jennings, 2001: 128).

**CHALLENGES TO PRACTICE**

While there are a number of global teacher education efforts, they are not without challenges. Assessing international mindedness, global citizenship or intercultural understanding is an exceedingly complex, and yet often a difficult and confused process (see Chapter 3 by Haywood on international mindedness in this volume, and Deardorff, 2009). As Byram et al. (2002) noted, the most difficulty exists in assessing whether or not learners have changed their attitudes or made progress in their development of intercultural competence because these areas are not succinctly defined or easily quantified. It might be argued that even if we can...
test these areas, we should likely not be trying to quantify them. In terms of providing evidence of learners’ competences, a portfolio approach is a viable tool for examining areas of growth over time. The Council of Europe (2002) has developed a European Language Portfolio in which students (and teachers) provide a record of their ‘intercultural experiences’ as an integral part of the evidence of their language knowledge. The language portfolio encourages learners to become aware of their own development of intercultural competence and can help them realize that they acquire these abilities in many different ways, both inside and outside the classroom (Byram et al., 2002).

Deardorff (2006) conducted a broad study to first define intercultural competence and then design a measurement scheme. Utilizing both quantitative and qualitative techniques with administrators of university international programmes and prominent scholars in the field, her study determined that the experts preferred a broader definition than a specific recitation of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Nonetheless, they agreed on 22 essential elements of intercultural competence. They believed that it is best to use multiple measures of assessment rather than a single measurement, such as a survey or questionnaire. Most of their preferred strategies were qualitative, including interview, observation and case studies. The experts were not able to fully agree on the use of quantitative methods, with some favouring pre–post inventories and standardized competency instruments. While they agreed on a broader definition of intercultural competence, they nonetheless stated that it is possible to assess the specific components of the concept rather than try for a holistic measurement.

A potential advance in assessment of international teacher education might be contributed by UNESCO and the Brookings Institute (2013). Through their Metrics Task Force, they initiated an extensive study in 2013 of the global measurement of learning. The Task Force included representatives of 30 member organizations, and it collected input from three technical working groups of 186 experts, and ultimately a total of 1,700 individuals in 118 countries. The initiative was structured around three guiding questions: What learning is important globally? How should it be measured? How can measurement of learning improve education quality? By the end of 2015, the task force aims collectively to achieve the following five key results:

**Technical:** Indicators in each of the areas recommended for global tracking are developed by partners.

**Institutional:** At least 10 Learning Champions use task force recommendations to support country-level work on learning assessment and use of assessment data to improve learning.

**Political:** The post-2015 global development and education agendas reflect task force recommendations.

**Assessment as a Public Good:** A strategy is developed for advancing an agenda in which student learning data is supported as a global public interest.

**Knowledge Sharing:** Actors and experts in learning assessment share knowledge and coordinate efforts.

In a study of the international components of undergraduate secondary teacher preparation programmes in the USA, Schneider (2001) provided some recommendations for improvement. After collecting data from more than 100 university educators and 65 teachers in more than 10 states, she reported that the single greatest need is in academic and career advising. Future secondary teachers in the areas that she surveyed felt that they were not advised sufficiently about international opportunities and perspectives. In addition, undergraduates were not aware of the services provided by the Office of International Programs. Further, they stated that their curricula did not include enough globally oriented content – a majority of the respondents suggested that more international courses or content needed to be integrated to the existing curriculum and presented through a variety of forums and learning experiences. Of particular attention was
the need for increased *study of world languages*. Nearly all of the respondents felt that teachers should attain a practical proficiency level in a second language. There was also universal support for increased *study abroad* experiences for both pre-service candidates and faculty. The participants agreed that *professional development* be provided for university faculty in international education, and that candidates for professorships should demonstrate both international and foreign language competence. Other recommendations included the strengthening of *teacher licensing* requirements to include global considerations (Shonia and Stachowski, 2014; Schneider, 2001). (For an expanded description of the barriers to internationalizing domestic teacher education programmes see Chapter 20 by van Werven in this volume).

It is clear that additional research and evaluations are needed to measure the impact of global teacher education, on teachers and their students.

**ENSURING EFFECTIVE GLOBAL TEACHER EDUCATION**

There are many examples of teacher education programmes that use international content to prepare teachers for both domestic and overseas settings. Since earlier work conducted in 1994 and 2000, Merryfield has continued to focus on determining the elements and salient characteristic of successful global teacher education programmes and to examine the results of globalization efforts on teachers (Merryfield and Kasai, 2010). Findings from the 1994 study highlighted the importance for programmes to articulate international goals, develop content based on global interconnectedness and incorporate course delivery that emphasizes active, experiential learning and reflective practice. Teacher participants isolated three particular aspects of the programmes that were memorable: the relationship between multicultural and global education, the emphasis on global and local linkages in terms of economic interdependence, and the use of the environment as a springboard for discussion of multiple perspectives. The realization of the importance of economic interdependence is an example of the recommendation on globalization put forth by Zhao (2010) more than a decade later.

In her 2000 study with 80 effective global teacher educators, Merryfield sought to discern the qualities and experiences that facilitated their success. The most meaningful occurrences were those in which participants interacted with different cultures and had to adjust to varying norms, values and practices. In most of these cases the participants were in the minority, and their learning grew out of feelings of awkwardness, confusion and sustained reflection. Notably, there was a significant difference in the responses of people of colour (outsiders in their own country who were discriminated against) and whites who travelled abroad. Nonetheless, this speaks to the importance of providing experiential learning opportunities in the preparation of teachers for international settings. Experiential learning projects and internships in international settings need to be carefully scaffolded so that teacher education students’ existing assumptions and stereotypes do not remain static. In order for change to occur, these experiences should be accompanied by pre-, during- and post-programme development and discussion.

An increasing number of teacher candidates in Europe, the USA, Australia and Canada are choosing to complete an internship outside of their home countries. At Bilkent University, in Ankara, Turkey, student teachers serve in five different schools, only three of which are local. They also teach in a school in either Istanbul or Izmir, and one in the USA. One of the Ankara settings is an international school (Sands and Stevens, 2004). In addition to an overseas internship, there are a variety of other global teacher education efforts, including professional development schools’ networks in global education, cross-cultural experiential education with international
students, overseas study tours, student and teacher exchanges and semesters abroad (Merryfield et al., 1997; Steiner, 1996).

While international teaching experiences may not be part of one’s teacher education programme, there are independent options for those teacher education candidates who seek to internationalize their teaching practice. For example, some countries sponsor internship abroad programmes through their embassies (e.g., the French Ministry of Education and the Cultural Services Department of the French Embassy offer approximately 1,500 teaching assistant positions each year for Americans to teach English in France).

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In recognition of the multiple definitions of the terms ‘international settings’ and ‘international teacher education’, this chapter approached the topic broadly. It examined pre-service teacher preparation from three perspectives – programmes oriented toward teachers who serve abroad, those that include global content in their national programmes, and those that focus on domestic multicultural concerns. In each category the professional development provided was constructivist in nature and emphasized multiple perspectives and reflective practice. While focused research is still needed to investigate the effectiveness of these orientations toward producing internationally minded teachers or students, all three perspectives highlight the knowledge, attitudes and skills to facilitate global awareness.

As noted, the chapter was intended as an overview of the field, rather than an extensive analysis. As a result, its coverage is limited in two main ways. First, the discussion targeted the preparation of pre-service teachers in global education. This does not deny or ignore the importance of continuing professional development for in-service teachers to expand their knowledge of international issues.

Second, the research reviewed was largely accessed through database and Internet searches conducted using university libraries, bookstores, publishers and accessible search engines. While this yielded a number of print and electronic sources, not all the literature uncovered through this process was accessible practically and this limited the review. The majority of research took place in English-speaking Western countries, and was published in English-medium journals. The publications were written in English and largely produced by Western publishers. There are, no doubt, accounts of global teacher education efforts that have been written for non-English audiences or may not have a website or database presence for searching. These might include descriptions of programmes in Europe that prepare teachers for service throughout the Union, or similar programmes in Asia, Africa, the Middle East or Latin America. While attempts were made to locate these resources, this aspect of our research remains ongoing.

To offset these limitations, future reviews of international teacher education might be conducted by a team of researchers with multilingual ability and access to a wider variety of resources. Such research might be part of a broader initiative to highlight various perspectives on the field and develop pilot partnerships across countries. The effort might be jointly sponsored by a cross-national group of education organizations such as UNESCO/UNICEF, the Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE), the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education (AACTE), the Alliance for International Education (AIE) and the Comparative and International Education Society (CIES).

In closing, it can be said that the dynamic and crucial outgrowths of globalization have not been lost on teacher education. This is a vibrant and growing direction for teacher education in the twenty-first century. From a variety of perspectives and mechanisms, organizations, universities, colleges and individuals are slowly responding to the
challenge of building international awareness and teaching skills. Hopefully, these efforts will both increase and improve with time. Faculties of education must also seek international experiences if they are to prepare their teacher education candidates and advance the knowledge of practising teachers and our research in this area.

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