

1 **The Impact of Global**
2 **Tendencies on the German**
3 **Teacher Education System**

4 **SIGRID BLÖMEKE**

5 **The Political Economy of Germany's Education Reform**

6 The structural core characteristics of the German teacher education system
7 developed in the first decade of the nineteenth century under the influence of
8 Wilhelm von Humboldt. Since then, German federal states have demanded
9 that high school teachers undergo a university-based teacher education
10 programme leading to a state examination. For Germany, this policy marks
11 the starting point of the teaching profession as a special career (for more
12 details, see Blömeke, 2002). The introduction of state exams was not a
13 detached innovation but part of a fundamental modernization of the public
14 administration after Napoleon had defeated Prussia in 1806 (Führ, 1985,
15 pp. 418ff.). A new humanism had become influential with Humboldt as one
16 of the most prominent educational philosophers. General education of all
17 children was the most important value underlying educational policy
18 ('enlightened absolutism'). Regarding the teaching profession, Humboldt's
19 goal was a state-controlled training of civil servants with high qualifications.

20 This idea of teacher education survived the nineteenth and the
21 twentieth centuries in spite of important changes in German society.
22 Industrialization, the First and Second World Wars, Nazism, the division of
23 Germany into two countries – none of these events resulted in fundamental
24 changes in the teacher education system (this was true in West Germany, and
25 the developments in East Germany were dissolved as a consequence of
26 reunification). Throughout this time, only gradual modifications were made.
27 Two examples are: the introduction of one-year, on-the-job training as a
28 second phase of teacher education in the last decade of the nineteenth
29 century, and the reform of teacher education for elementary schools to a
30 more academic level in the second half of the twentieth century (for more
31 details see Blömeke, 1999). A number of historical, socio-economic and
32 political reasons for this long-lasting stability are discussed below.

33 Historically, Germany (like France, Greece, Italy and other states in
34 ‘Old Europe’) has a strong and early philosophical tradition, which
35 influenced the development of its social system. With regard to teacher
36 education and schools, this tradition led to the development of educational
37 features around 1800, which were – in comparison to other countries – very
38 advanced at that time. The problem at present is that these traditions have
39 meanwhile turned into limitations. In several aspects the traditional features
40 are no longer appropriate since they were part of a society with high social
41 immobility. For example, in the 1800s, less than 5% of the pupils of a cohort
42 took the *Abitur* (the high school exit exam after grade 13). In contrast, a
43 modern knowledge society needs a more democratic school system, which
44 leads a far higher percentage to the *Abitur* and as a consequence to higher
45 social mobility. As the results of TIMSS and the PISA show, the German
46 school system fails completely in reaching these goals (Baumert et al, 1997,
47 2001) – but since the traditional features of the school system have existed
48 for a long time and are embodied deeply in the German mentality, they can
49 only be changed very slowly.

50 Socio-economically, there has traditionally been a close connection
51 between educational degrees and social status in Germany. The German
52 school system and consequently the German teacher education system have
53 been highly stratified. This stratification follows a ‘theory’ according to which
54 three different kinds of natural talent exist (manual, technical and
55 intellectual) that must be developed in three different kinds of schools
56 (Spranger, 1974). The three types of schools lead to separate levels within
57 society (working class, middle class and upper class). This is an anomaly
58 when compared to many other school systems in the world, and has persisted
59 although Germany has been profoundly criticized for this during the
60 nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The forces of persistence have been
61 strong enough to maintain this structure even after it was faced with
62 empirical findings disproving the basic theory of talent (Roth, 1969).

63 Politically, the stratification of the German school system has been
64 subject to highly controversial clashes with ideological connotations as long
65 as political parties have existed (Herrlitz et al, 2001). Conservative-oriented
66 parties have more or less wanted to save the triple subdivided social
67 hierarchy. During centuries, they have supported a stratified school and
68 teacher education system. The more socialist-orientated parties have
69 criticized the theory of three stable natural talents using as a principal
70 argument the equality of opportunity and have usually argued for integrated
71 schools. Since both sides had sufficient political power during the two
72 democratic phases in German history – the Republic of Weimar from 1918 to
73 1933 and the post-war Federal Republic of Germany (since 1945) – these
74 differences have resulted in a kind of stalemate.

75 The historical, socio-economic and political characteristics described
76 underlie the long-lasting stability of the German teacher education system
77 and probably account at least partly for some other European educational

78 systems (see the academies in France and the private school system for the
79 English upper class, for example). Two other occurrences in the twentieth
80 century fostered the stability of this situation in Germany once more: the
81 Nazism and the following Cold War. Both occurrences strongly influenced
82 West German post-war politics, especially in educational issues. Between
83 1933 and 1945 the political influence of the Nazi state on the educational
84 system was very strong (Keim, 1995; Bracht, 1998; Dithmar, 2001). After an
85 examination of these dynamics, one of the most important agreements after
86 1945 was to never again allow dictatorial influence on educational questions.
87 For West Germany, this implied – among other changes – the formation of a
88 Federal Republic (FRG) in which the rights of each federal state are
89 extensive, especially regarding educational policy, to prevent strong central
90 power.

91 In most federal states the fundamental characteristics of the regional
92 educational systems dating from the 1920s – including stratification – were
93 reinstalled (Führ, 1998). This stratification was enacted as a direct response
94 to the instalment of a comprehensive school model from grades 1 through 9
95 in the German Democratic Republic (GDR). Since the two German
96 countries represented the frontline countries of the Western bloc and the
97 Eastern bloc, any decision in West Germany was highly political and its
98 repercussion upon the Western bloc was always the subject of critical
99 discussion.

100 Against this background it has been almost impossible to reform teacher
101 education for a long time because any proposal was compared either to
102 Nazism or GDR politics. Any similarity was used as argument to prevent
103 change. Reform discussions during the 1960s and 1970s are prominent
104 examples of this. Humboldt's idea of a university as a union of educators and
105 students, a union of research and instruction, and as a union of academic
106 disciplines seemed to disintegrate in this period (Anrich, 1962; Schelsky,
107 1962/1971). More and more high school graduates wanted to enrol at
108 university. Academic disciplines became more specialized and professional
109 studies were integrated into the university. In addition, the traditional
110 hierarchical order of few full professors, subordinated associate or assistant
111 professors and students without any right of participation was questioned.
112 Parallel to this, the efficacy of the school system was doubted. After the so-
113 called 'Sputnik shock' Picht (1964) analysed the German situation as an
114 educational catastrophe: in an international comparison it amounted to a low
115 number of high school graduates of low technical competence. Ten years of
116 heated political discussion followed in which a large number of reform ideas
117 were developed: integrated schools, whole-time schooling, testable learning
118 objectives, and individualized curricula. Some federal states even tried to
119 reduce the former freedom and self-organization of universities which had
120 reached a peak after 1945. The opponents of such reforms successfully
121 rejected these innovations by comparing the reform ideas either with similar
122 state measures during Nazism or with similar school characteristics in the

123 communist world – disregarding the fact that a large number of Western
124 countries had more state control, accountability systems or comprehensive
125 schools than Germany.

126 **Globalization Influences in German Education**

127 Against this historical, political and socio-economic background, the present
128 process of change is almost surprising given the former stability of teacher
129 education. At present, German teacher education is in a process of
130 transformation from state-controlled to university-controlled teacher
131 education programmes and from informal to formal accountability
132 mechanisms. The ongoing reform is the farthest reaching change in the
133 German education system in the last 200 years. The two most important
134 consequences of the growing globalization are: the adaptation of German
135 teacher education to a form of course organization prevailing in English-
136 speaking countries (which can be seen as an introduction of implicit
137 accountability mechanisms) and the implementation of education standards
138 and evaluation (which can be seen as an introduction of explicit
139 accountability mechanisms). These changes are seen as a result of
140 globalization forces working against Germany's national peculiarities and
141 closely linked with developments in schools (Meyer et al, 1977; Ramirez &
142 Boli, 1987; Kamens et al, 1996). As in other countries the German system
143 has developed in congruency with the image of the ideal citizen, and
144 consequently of the ideal teacher.

145 During the twentieth century in almost all countries schools emerged as
146 institutions to develop the skills and the knowledge of the next generation.
147 Their institutional characteristics reflect parallels across countries even if the
148 national cultural contexts were different: a requirement to attend school
149 starting at a certain age, state control, diachronical and vertical subdivisions
150 into years and classes, emphasis on core content areas such as mathematics,
151 mother tongue and history, some basic definitions of teaching qualifications,
152 and so on. These universal phenomena were not planned systematically but
153 developed at a number of places at the same stage of social development
154 because of their national value. Parsons (1971) called this phenomenon
155 'evolutionary universalities' and developed his hypothesis that a society can
156 only reach the next developmental stage if crucial institutional features are
157 formed. Nevertheless, deeper inquiry into the specific features of the school
158 system reveals national peculiarities and a broad diversity (Schriewer, 1992,
159 pp. 25ff.).

160 For the German education system, this means for example that
161 structural reforms followed global tendencies only partly and turned to
162 internal, culturally bound efforts instead. The same phenomenon of
163 intertwining can perhaps be discovered regarding the structure and content
164 of teacher education. In Germany as in almost all industrialized countries
165 teacher education is at least partly located at universities, it consists of

166 courses in subject matter and pedagogy, and it is divided into primary and
 167 secondary teacher education (with a stress on pedagogy in the first and on
 168 subject matter in the latter case). In this respect, the development of the
 169 teaching profession itself could be seen as a global phenomenon, again with
 170 visible national peculiarities. For Germany this seems to apply especially to
 171 the mechanisms of accountability.

172 **Globalization and Teacher Education in Germany**^[1]

173 When discussing teacher education in Germany, one has to distinguish
 174 between global influences directly affecting its *structure and organization* and
 175 global influences on the German society which have led to changes regarding
 176 the *content* of teacher education. These two perspectives represent the
 177 difference between education *in* a global world and education *for* a global
 178 world (Lenhart, 2000).

179 *Teacher Education in a Global World*

180 Internationalization and deregulation are global processes which have heavily
 181 influenced national teacher education systems. A number of influences are
 182 discussed below by taking a closer look at universities (Scott, 1998; Wächter,
 183 1999), where the first phase of teacher education takes place.

184 *Regarding internationalization*, mobility has become one of the most
 185 important policies in Europe to be realized by implementing new university
 186 degrees, by intensified cooperation between universities and by exchanges of
 187 students and professors. Indeed, the European Union has become an
 188 important actor in the global context by funding research and studies abroad.
 189 An increasing de-nationalization of universities through EU programmes like
 190 TEMPUS, SOCRATES and ERASMUS can be noticed (Hahn, 2003,
 191 p. 55). In addition, within Europe a new currency for university courses – the
 192 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) – has been developed to make
 193 student exchanges easier. Since lectures can nowadays easily be credited as a
 194 part of the course of study at the home university because of its common
 195 currency, students don't lose a semester anymore when studying abroad. The
 196 development toward a common education area culminated in the so-called
 197 'Bologna Declaration' of all European ministers of education with the
 198 'objective of increasing the international competitiveness of the European
 199 system of higher education.'^[2]

200 These measures have also reached the teacher education system, even
 201 though it is more nationally bound by its very nature than courses of study in
 202 medicine, engineering or business administration for example. In Germany
 203 however, it appears as if teacher education has become the *driving force* for
 204 the reforms (Bellenberg & Thierack, 2003). This surprising development is
 205 grounded in the state control of teacher education. After the release of the
 206 Bologna Declaration, most academic disciplines were very resistant to its

207 accountability implications for German courses of study (this is explained in
208 more detail below). Since university autonomy is relatively high, it turned out
209 to be more difficult for the ministers of education to influence the
210 implementation process than anticipated. Subsequently, many federal
211 ministers of education took another choice: they used their influence on
212 teacher education institutions to implement some important measures.
213 Decrees were released requiring universities to change the structure and
214 organization of teacher education according to the Bologna Declaration; lack
215 of compliance would result in the states reducing the funding proportional to
216 the number of future teachers graduating. Since teacher education students
217 amount to between 15 and 25% of the whole student body at almost all
218 German universities, this is a strong threat. Furthermore, in English-speaking
219 countries where teacher education programmes mostly take place in separate
220 schools or colleges of education this threat would only mean the closing of
221 one single part of the university. In contrast, in Germany almost all university
222 departments are involved in teacher education programmes. Diploma,
223 magister **WHAT IS THIS?** and state exam candidates are taught together in
224 the same lectures and seminars. Thus, the threat concerns the whole
225 institution with the university departments having a 'choice' between three
226 possibilities:

- 227 • To change only the structure and organization of the teacher education
228 programmes and to teach future teachers separately from diploma and
229 magister candidates (i.e. very expensive since all lectures would have to
230 be presented twice).
- 231 • To follow up the state decree by changing all degrees into the new
232 Bachelor/Master system (i.e. much cheaper since the university
233 departments could go on teaching all students together).
- 234 • To give up teacher education (with the closure of several departments
235 especially in the humanities and in science as a consequence since the
236 majority of students are teacher education students).

237 Hence, regarding the alternatives and bearing in mind the low funding of
238 German universities the departments did not really have a choice. At present,
239 most universities in most federal states are changing the traditional German
240 degrees into what is worldwide known as Bachelor's and Master's Degrees.

241 Parallel to this process of internationalization, processes of *deregulation*
242 have to be discussed. In the 1990s universities and schools have been given
243 more autonomy step by step (Atrichter et al, in press **UPDATE?**). The state
244 controls universities on a more global level, defined by goals (connected with
245 evaluation and funding) instead of the former input measures like budgets
246 and regulations. Regarding teacher education, this process has not come very
247 far yet, so I can only speculate on possible effects. In principle, the process
248 could have positive and negative effects. On the one hand, decisions could be
249 made in a more decentralized manner. This would probably result in
250 decisions more appropriate to local conditions. Up to now, the federal states

251 have enacted budgets and regulations on the state level without consideration
252 of local differences. Hence, weaknesses in teacher education could not be
253 eliminated nor could strengths be expanded. On the other hand, the
254 decentralization would make it more difficult to ensure high-quality teaching
255 and equal standards across the country, especially as market-driven processes
256 are allowed to operate.

257 At the university level the effects of these measures can already be felt.
258 New mechanisms of funding according to criteria of efficacy – drop-out rates,
259 success in getting research funds, citation index and so on – are common in
260 almost all federal states now. Whether they meet the special needs of teacher
261 education can truly be questioned. In contrast to other university disciplines,
262 research in teacher education is situated in real-life contexts (and not in
263 laboratories). Its applied nature challenges the traditions of strictly
264 experimental research, making it difficult to get scientific funding and to
265 disseminate results in refereed journals. Regarding cost, teacher education is
266 often more expensive than other courses of study, as future teachers not only
267 learn cognitively but by watching professors acting as teachers, making the
268 need for small-group instruction necessary for good-quality teacher
269 education.

270 *Teacher Education for a Global World*

271 Internationalization and deregulation are influences of globalization on
272 teacher education in a structural way. In addition to these institutional
273 changes, content-related issues of teacher education for a global world must
274 be discussed. Globalization is connected to *international migration* as well as
275 to increasingly complex *political and social questions in everyday life*. Schools
276 must respond to these challenges by dealing with a more heterogeneous
277 group of pupils and by preparing them for their role as citizens in a global
278 world. As a consequence teacher education is affected.

279 Indeed, *international migration* seems to have a dualistic effect on
280 countries. On the one hand, every nation has become more diverse. In
281 Germany, all schools have pupils from foreign countries (Gogolin, 2003). On
282 the other hand, people fear fragmentation and look for cultural or ethnic
283 identity. Teachers have to deal with the consequences of these dualistic
284 features. Firstly, they have to take into account that their pupils may lack the
285 ability to use their mother tongue and/or German as an effective tool for
286 school learning. This makes the development of language skills necessary in
287 order to ensure the pupils' ability to follow the instruction process (Gogolin,
288 1994). Several federal states have therefore recently decided to train future
289 teachers in teaching German as a second language. Secondly, the social,
290 cultural and intellectual background of children is becoming more diverse
291 through immigration and this may influence the learning processes. This
292 heterogeneity also poses a real challenge to instructional processes (Krüger-

293 Potratz, 2004). Most federal states have increased their efforts to make
294 corresponding content compulsory in teacher education.

295 Instructional efforts toward international phenomena respecting the
296 growing *complexity of everyday life* have been important in Germany for
297 several years now, even if they are not yet a common theme at all schools.
298 Nevertheless, human rights education can almost be counted as a traditional
299 element of lessons in a democracy. Peace education has been part of the
300 curriculum in some federal states since the last decade of the Cold War.
301 Environmental education has become increasingly important as changes in
302 the world climate become more pronounced. Since the UN conference on
303 ecology and development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 Germany has funded
304 corresponding instructional efforts on a broad scale (Bayrhuber & Rost,
305 2004). Another content-related perspective for teachers is the preparation of
306 pupils for gaining cross-curricular competencies like information and
307 communications technology. Finally, it has to be pointed out that after 9/11
308 reflections on questions of world ethics as well as an education for more
309 tolerance in religious affairs have become relevant again (Gebhardt, 2003).
310 These efforts are now seen as part of a global education (Tye, 1999; Adick,
311 2002).

312 For teacher education this brings the added challenge of imparting the
313 knowledge necessary for future teachers to be able to teach these themes at
314 school and to lay the basis for a lifelong learning process. Responses to this
315 challenge are overdue.

316 **New University Degrees and their** 317 **Effects on German Teacher Education**

318 In 1999, the European ministers of education decided at a conference in
319 Bologna to unify the European university degrees by changing to a
320 consecutive Bachelor and Master system by 2009. This means to adapt to a
321 system of university organization prevailing in English-speaking countries
322 (including the idea of subdividing the student population into years and
323 classes – in Germany this has only been done at K-12 schools until now).
324 The ministers expect to shorten the traditionally long duration of higher
325 education in Germany, to increase the prospects of European graduates on
326 the job market all over the world and to attract more excellent graduates
327 from non-European countries to Europe. The period between 1999 and
328 2004 has been seen as a time of probation. In the following, I will explain
329 what this change means for German universities in general. Secondly, I will
330 analyse the consequences for German teacher education.

331 *Implementation of New Degrees at Universities*

332 In Germany, almost all university courses of study comprise five years. Their
333 degrees are highly respected qualifications on the labour market, even if

334 Germany has had periods when employers could not offer enough and
335 suitable positions to graduates. Nevertheless academics have always had a
336 lower level of unemployment than other sections of society because of the
337 broad and deep training obtained in a course of study that extends over five
338 years. Since five years is also the minimum duration that qualifies for the
339 senior civil service, there have been only very few possibilities for university
340 students to graduate earlier with a lower degree; the idea of consecutive
341 degrees has been completely unknown up to now. To be able to understand
342 the university system completely it is important to know that studying in
343 Germany is highly individualized and self-directed by the students. Every
344 student decides on her/his own how many lectures she/he wants to take in
345 each semester. A common schedule for all students of one year does not
346 exist.

347 This kind of organization has lasted for almost 200 years. In addition to
348 introducing state exams for the teaching profession at the beginning of the
349 nineteenth century, Wilhelm von Humboldt initiated the system still followed
350 by today's universities. He founded the University of Berlin (the present
351 Humboldt University) in 1810. Its basic characteristics were spread over the
352 German states and they remained – apart from massive extensions in the
353 1970s – almost unchanged up to now (Boockmann, 1999).

354 Compared to this tradition, Bachelor programmes are shorter and they
355 do not qualify for the senior civil service. With their subdivision in years they
356 point more at schooling than at university types of organization. This
357 explains why a good number of German researchers had assumed that
358 Bachelor's degrees would not be accepted when the Bologna Declaration was
359 published (Blömeke, 2001). Firstly, employers doubt the quality of the new
360 degrees. Secondly, it is doubtful whether the students will approve of leaving
361 university with only a Bachelor's degree. They are used to getting a degree
362 that enables them to become a senior civil servant or a senior manager, for
363 example, for which a Master's degree is necessary now.

364 These assumptions turned out to be wrong. Although the
365 implementation of Bachelor programmes was declared to be a pilot scheme
366 and the job prospects of the graduates cannot be assessed yet, it seems at
367 present as if the old system of state examination, diploma, and magister will
368 not survive. This is a result of the reforms which solve a number of
369 organizational problems at German universities as the old system is more and
370 more considered unacceptable in a global world with international
371 competition. As a consequence of the individual responsibility of German
372 students to organize their programme of study on their own, they usually take
373 longer to receive a university degree than the formally prescribed five years.
374 In liberal arts as well as in engineering, business administration, teacher
375 education, law or medicine it is not unusual that students take seven or even
376 eight years on average to finish their studies. At the same time, drop-out rates
377 are very high: 25% on average, and in some subjects up to 50%.
378 Consequently, the subdivision of the student population into years with a

379 prescribed schedule – which is connected to the idea of Bachelor
380 programmes – is seen as a possible way to solve this problem.

381 But there are more reasons for the general change in attitudes towards
382 the Bachelor programme. A number of students do not aim at senior
383 positions or they have difficulties with the high standards of a five-year
384 programme. For this group the new Bachelor's degree offers the attractive
385 option of a short but nevertheless academic training (Bensel et al, 2003).
386 Simultaneously, the attractiveness of the new system lies in the reduction in
387 courses that lead to a Master's degree. If students for the most part left
388 university after having taken a Bachelor's degree, the overcrowding of
389 lectures would be clearly reduced. The gains this policy would bring to the
390 currently low budget of German universities made the idea of introducing
391 Bachelor programmes more attractive.

392 It is not quite clear yet what effects the introduction of BA/MA
393 programmes at German universities will have on teacher education. To
394 clarify the impact of the reform I will therefore analyse the German teacher
395 education system as it is at present and try to sum up some possible
396 consequences of the reform (see also Blömeke, 2001).

397 **The Present Teacher Education System in Germany**

398 It is often said that the outstanding characteristic of Germany's teacher
399 education system is the fact that future teachers have to receive two degrees
400 which build on each other – but as a matter of fact this doesn't stand in
401 contrast with many other states all over the world which demand a university
402 degree first and then a training phase mostly at an institution outside the
403 university (e.g. United Kingdom, Italy, and the USA). What makes the
404 German system so unique is the fact that *both* preparation phases offer
405 specific courses of study for future teachers, the academic phase as well as the
406 practical phase. Whereas in the UK, Italy and the USA students acquire their
407 Bachelor's degrees independent of specific professions, a German student has
408 to decide on her/his professional career immediately after her/his high school
409 exam at the age of 19-20. The teacher education system is (and this is quite
410 different from other European countries like Finland for example) low
411 selective, that is there are no tests carried out before enrolling at university or
412 at the second institution to establish whether the applicant is suited to the
413 teaching profession or not.

414 The curriculum of teacher education is partly prescribed by the 16
415 federal governments. Regulations for every course of study and for the final
416 exam exist in which the extent of the studies and the most important themes
417 are fixed. In addition, a central law describes overall characteristics of teacher
418 education to make sure that the degrees of the 16 federal states are
419 comparable. The university courses of study culminate in the first of two
420 state examinations necessary to apply for a teacher's position. The
421 examination is not a university exam – it is carried out by a special state

422 institution. The head of the examination committee has to be a teacher; the
423 professors who are responsible for preparing the students are hired by the
424 state to carry out the exams. The first state exam consists of a thesis and
425 several oral and written exams in subject matter (of at least two subjects),
426 subject pedagogy (the same), and general pedagogy. The regulations for the
427 second phase of teacher education which are enacted by regional
428 governments are more detailed and the exams are strictly monitored by
429 representatives of the government. This is a consequence of the training
430 institutions being established as a part of the state government.

431 Compared to the teacher education systems in other countries,
432 Germany's idea of teacher education is based on fragmentation (Blömeke,
433 2004; Terhart, 2004). Like law and medicine, teaching is seen as a profession
434 that needs broad practical and broad theoretical knowledge. This is mirrored
435 by the fact that the process of teacher education takes place in two different
436 institutions: generally speaking, theory is up to universities and practice is up
437 to state institutes of teacher education independent of the university. Both
438 institutions are once again divided internally, as special departments are
439 responsible for the different content areas of teacher education. In the case of
440 a future teacher of mathematics and sports, this means that she/he has to go
441 to the mathematics faculty for her/his mathematics and mathematics
442 pedagogy lectures, to the sports faculty for her/his sports and sport pedagogy
443 lectures, and to the faculty of arts for her/his lectures of general pedagogy.

444 At universities, yet another level of fragmentation exists albeit more
445 informal and within the different departments. The teacher educators are
446 regular university professors who are specialists either in a subject (like
447 Theoretical Physics or German History of the Middle Ages), in a subject's
448 pedagogy or in a discipline of general pedagogy (like Comprehensive
449 Education). The benefit of this system is that at any moment of the process
450 experts in the respective field train future teachers. One limit is that no core
451 institution of teacher education exists which allows the students to identify
452 themselves as students of the teaching profession. They are spread all over
453 the university (Rinkens et al, 1999). Another limit is that this high-level
454 specialization does not lead to a broad overview of the field but causes gaps
455 and missing links in the body of knowledge future teachers are expected to
456 acquire. One of the most discussed problems of teacher quality in Germany
457 links the current gap that exists between the long, highly specialized teacher
458 education process on the one hand and poor pupil performance on the other.

459 *Standards and Evaluation in Teacher Education*

460 Up to now Germany has had no explicit control system to assess the
461 educational system's efficacy comparable to those in Australia, UK, the USA
462 and most other English-speaking countries. PISA and TIMSS have been the
463 first attempts to get feedback on pupil performance. Further accountability
464 mechanisms discussed at present in Germany, including these international

465 comparisons, can be seen as another consequence of global influences on
466 education. In the following, I will concentrate on the present accountability
467 situation first. Then the results of TIMSS and PISA which ‘shocked’
468 German educators will be summarized before analysing the accountability
469 mechanisms implicitly and explicitly introduced at the present time.

470

471 *‘Accountability’ as it was understood up to now.* Germany’s outside image is of a
472 centralized, bureaucratic and highly controlled state. At a first glance this
473 seems to be true for the educational system, too. Yet, to get an appropriate
474 impression of the significance control has for German teacher education (and
475 it is widely the same for schools), it is necessary to point out that this control
476 has mostly served to control ‘inputs.’ That means that the federal states enact
477 educational laws and further regulations like the curriculum (consisting
478 mostly of fundamental guidelines), provide the teacher education institutions
479 with the financing necessary beforehand and hire the staff. In addition,
480 educational policies are always up to the federal states; a nationwide
481 education policy has never existed.

482 Assessments usually consist of self-prepared assignments instead of
483 testing performance in a standardized manner. This applies for K-12 schools
484 as well as for teacher education. Teachers and teacher educators are regarded
485 as being fully responsible for assessment. Even the state exams are developed
486 locally, and then administered by the state to the institutions in which the
487 future teachers are trained (although the state hires examiners to administer
488 the exams ‘externally,’ currently these examiners are, for the most part, based
489 in the teacher education institutions).

490 A number of schools have tried to develop internally working in groups,
491 according to self-developed criteria, and with inclusion of parents and pupils
492 in the past two decades to ensure quality (Altrichter et al, in press). This
493 collaborative approach saw schools as learning organizations and the teaching
494 staff as a learning community who also served as a local informal
495 accountability mechanism.

496 Since formal accountability in the sense of controlling the efficacy of the
497 education system has always been controversial in Germany and has for the
498 most part been rejected successfully, teachers have enjoyed broad autonomy
499 to design their lessons. Teachers do not generally see the implementation of
500 state guidelines as their responsibility. This rationale goes along with a strong
501 priority of goals over content and methods (Westbury, 1998). The general
502 goal of schooling – *Bildung*, composed of self-determination, participation in
503 society, and solidarity – is seen as a process and a product of human
504 development guided by reason. Teachers have to decide by themselves which
505 contents are useful and relevant to reach these goals. In principle, this also
506 means that a specific content topic can be no more than an example
507 (Hopmann & Riquarts, 1995). There exists *freedom* combined with the
508 *necessity* of interpretation of the rough curriculum guidelines as well as the
509 possibility to combine the guidelines with the teachers’ individual ideas. This

510 rationale has its correspondence in the fact that teachers are employed as
511 senior civil servants. This makes it difficult to *enter* the profession – but those
512 who manage to enter are ‘in’ for their whole professional life. Civil servants
513 cannot be made redundant unless they commit a serious crime and are
514 sentenced to at least two years in prison. It is this security that offers the
515 possibility to teach freely according to one’s own values. It is highly unlikely
516 for a teacher to leave the profession to seek a job in another field.

517 The university system – where the first step of teacher education takes
518 place – does not differ much from these characteristics of the school system.
519 Universities are financed by the state in a typical input manner. The
520 distribution of financial resources is oriented toward supporting comparable
521 conditions at all universities and not toward rewarding outstanding
522 performance, punishing low quality or supporting efforts of strengthening in
523 weak areas. Regulations concerning content are not very detailed and the
524 broad autonomy of universities includes freedom of teaching with the
525 additional result that the curriculum differs from university to university.
526 Teacher education enjoys relative autonomy to train the future teachers –
527 within the general state guidelines. Even though the second institutions of
528 teacher education which mentor the on-the-job training have to follow
529 regulations that are more detailed, there is no output control in a
530 standardized manner because – as mentioned above – even the final exams
531 are carried out locally.

532
533 *The ‘shocking’ TIMSS and PISA results.* Germany experienced painful
534 educational deficits in many surveys on pupil learning during the 1990s.
535 Whereas the TIMSS results were known only to a small group of experts,
536 nearly everyone in Germany was shocked when the results of the PISA study
537 were published in December 2001. This international comparison showed
538 that German students only achieved results at the lower end of the scale
539 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2001). Of the
540 31 participating OECD countries, the German students came 27th in
541 reading, 28th in mathematics, and 25th in science. More than 20% of
542 German pupils failed in achieving the second competence level which is
543 regarded as the absolute minimum requirement to become a crafts or trade
544 apprentice. In contrast, Asian and Scandinavian countries did very well,
545 especially Finland, Korea, Japan and Sweden. One of the most worrying
546 results of international student assessments like TIMSS and PISA was the
547 uncovering of an unusually close relation between social background and
548 academic achievement in Germany – much closer than in countries like the
549 UK, France or the USA. A close relationship exists with regard to two
550 aspects of social background, namely social class and ethnicity. The higher a
551 student’s social class is, the higher is her/his chance of graduating, especially
552 with good results. With regard to ethnicity, native German students have
553 much better chances of graduating with good results than immigrants

554 (especially in the case where both parents were born in a non-German
555 country).

556 Another alarming result of the PISA study was the enormous difference
557 between schools and federal states. A discrepancy of up to two years exists in
558 pupil performance between different federal states (Baumert et al, 2002).
559 Viewed against the background of the high unemployment rate in Germany,
560 there is strong competition among pupils to obtain apprenticeships and
561 university admissions. Students need to have very good grades to secure an
562 attractive job; that is, pupils attending schools with stricter systems of
563 examinations and grading than others are put at a disadvantage because they
564 have to work harder to achieve the same grades. At the same time, pupils
565 attending low-level schools do not have the possibility to acquire the
566 competencies necessary for succeeding in everyday life.

567 To sum up, these results show that Germany has missed the two most
568 important goals of school systems: to reach high scores in pupil learning and
569 to reduce socioeconomic, ethnic and gender-associated diversity in these
570 scores.

571

572 *Implementation of explicit accountability mechanisms.* Since the PISA results
573 became known, a number of possibilities have been discussed to improve the
574 quality of schools. Among other measures the development of nationwide
575 standards – for example, performance expectations at the end of primary and
576 lower secondary school in the core subjects of mathematics, German and
577 English (Klieme et al, 2003) – as well as corresponding standardized tests of
578 pupil performance seem to be necessary. At the same time a whole number of
579 changes concerning teachers have taken place. Steps on the career ladder
580 shall no longer be distributed along the lines of seniority but along
581 qualifications. Exams for promotion which were seen as formal and
582 superficial obstacles in former times should develop into tests of knowledge,
583 skills and competencies in the future (Strukturreformgesetz, 2005).

584 Alongside this, a discussion has arisen about whether it would be
585 possible to introduce a ranking of universities in Germany as it is common in
586 other countries like England for example. In Germany, some rankings exist
587 which were generated by big newspapers like *Die Zeit* or *Stern*. They are
588 supported by the private Centre for University Development (Centrum für
589 Hochschulentwicklung). To compare the quality of German universities
590 instruments like ratings of professors, students and companies are used.
591 These rankings have been discussed controversially from the beginning one
592 decade ago. Up to today, every new ranking triggers many critical comments.
593 The impact of these rankings however, has not been a subject of empirical
594 research – neither by the supporters nor by the opponents.

595

596 *Introduction of implicit accountability mechanisms.* The new Bologna system of
597 B.A. and M.A. degrees also means the introduction of implicit accountability
598 mechanisms. To subdivide the courses of study into years necessarily implies

599 arrangements between the single university departments to make sure that a
 600 specific lecture is offered at a certain time and to a sufficient extent with
 601 regard to the number of students enrolled. This is a widely new idea for
 602 German universities. Regarding the broad freedom of students to make their
 603 own choice of lectures as well as the broad freedom of professors to decide
 604 themselves on the themes of their lectures, controlling seemed to be
 605 unnecessary. Thus, even if obligations and control existed, it used to be a
 606 formality only. Without hesitating one can say that this was a system of
 607 ‘organized irresponsibility.’

608 Another accountability mechanism implicitly introduced with the BA
 609 programme was the requirement to clearly describe the contribution of
 610 particular lectures to specific courses of study. This has become an implicit
 611 requirement if the newly developed Bachelor degrees aspire to qualify for the
 612 labour market. In the past, even courses of study which *seemed* to point to a
 613 narrow area of professions (like law or medicine) were meant to provide
 614 broad preparation. In contrast to Bachelor degrees in the USA, for example,
 615 German courses were not at all specialized; breadth was always more
 616 important than depth.

617 Outside Germany, the impact of these changes is probably hard to value
 618 but it means for example a significant loss of importance of all those
 619 academic areas which do not qualify directly for a job. Whereas the
 620 philosophy and the history of education had a strong position in teacher
 621 education in the general/pedagogy part of the old system, the number of
 622 courses in educational psychology and teaching methods has increased
 623 significantly in the Bologna system at the expense of more philosophical and
 624 historical orientated courses. Within a short time this change has also had
 625 consequences for the advertisement of professorships. The number of
 626 professorships in the philosophy and history of education was significantly
 627 lower in the past two, three **UNCLEAR** years than is usually the case
 628 (Tippelt et al, 2004).

629 **Policy Implications and Conclusions**

630 As a consequence of the German TIMSS and PISA results as well as of the
 631 European Bologna process, explicit and implicit accountability mechanisms
 632 have been introduced into German teacher education within a few years,
 633 combined with far-reaching structural changes at universities. This has
 634 happened despite the long-lasting stability that had characterized the
 635 education system. On a broader level the implementation of the
 636 accountability mechanisms seems to be typical of the present globalization
 637 process but this could be a too one-dimensional and short-sighted
 638 interpretation.

639 First, international orientation is not a new phenomenon. Political
 640 discussions on education were already occurring in the 1960s by
 641 international comparisons between the Western and the Eastern world.

642 Picht's (1964) warning of an educational catastrophe if school quality was
643 not improved has been heard widely because of the success of the former
644 Soviet Union. That the USSR – as the leading nation of the Eastern Bloc –
645 was able to send a satellite into space first raised doubts about the level of
646 technical knowledge in the Western world. In Germany, this led to inquiries
647 on the quality of the school system as well (even though without leading to
648 deeper reforms).

649 Second, the general thesis of borrowing global ideas to push local
650 interests (Schriewer, 1992; Cowen, 2002; Steiner-Khamsi, 2002) can be
651 demonstrated in the field of German teacher education. This process has
652 important actors at the national level which use global discussions and trends
653 to advance their own aims. For example, one group is the Association of
654 High School Teachers. Since the philosophy and history of education is
655 valued much less compared to subject matter and also to subject pedagogy,
656 high school teachers expect to regain the former social status this profession
657 had by turning to a subject matter orientated kind of teacher education.
658 Another group is for example the group of empirical researchers that will be
659 in charge of developing the standardized tests. They can expect more power,
660 more funding and more acknowledgment. One can possibly generalize this
661 phenomenon; in a pluralistic society like Germany there will always be a
662 group of people profiting from any development. If this group has enough
663 influence, global tendencies can spread and be implemented by its members
664 – in effect enacting the phenomenon known as 'globalization.' Further
665 inquiry requires exploring whether this thesis applies to more countries other
666 than Germany and to more historical periods than the present one. The well-
667 known phrase 'think globally, act locally' could then be changed into 'think
668 locally, act globally.'

669 **Notes**

670 [1] Most of the data used for this chapter are taken from existing literature in
671 Germany. During the past decades research on teacher education, the
672 teaching profession and the school system was one of the main fields of
673 inquiry in German history and sociology of education. To a vast extent these
674 data are of a descriptive character. A gap exists especially in trying to connect
675 German developments to developments elsewhere and to broader theories.
676 To overcome this deficit, the existing data are systematically analysed
677 according to the research questions guiding this book. That means that the
678 linkage of global influences to German teacher education and the specific
679 reception process will be the first focus of the following analysis. The second
680 focus is directed more specifically to the accountability mechanisms
681 introduced by this development.

682 [2] http://www.bologna-berlin2003.de/pdf/bologna_declaration.pdf

683 **References**

- 684 Adick, C. (2002) Ein Modell zur didaktischen Strukturierung des globalen Lernens,
685 *Bildung und Erziehung*, 55(4), pp. 397-416.
- 686 Altrichter, H., Brüsemeister, T. & Heinrich, M. (in press **UPDATE?**) Merkmale und
687 Fragen einer Governance-Reform am Beispiel des österreichischen Schulwesens,
688 *Österreichische Zeitschrift für Soziologie*, 30(4), **PAGE NUMBERS?**.
- 689 Anrich, E. (1962) *Die Idee der deutschen Universität und die Reform der deutschen*
690 *Universitäten*, 2nd edn. Darmstadt: Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft.
- 691 Baumert, J. et al **PLEASE GIVE ALL NAMES** (1997) *TIMSS – Mathematisch-*
692 *naturwissenschaftlicher Unterricht im internationalen Vergleich. Deskriptive Befunde.*
693 Opladen: Leske & Budrich.
- 694 Baumert, J. et al **PLEASE GIVE ALL NAMES** (Eds) (2001) *PISA 2000.*
695 *Basiskompetenzen von Schülerinnen und Schülern im internationalen Vergleich.*
696 Opladen: Leske & Budrich.
- 697 Baumert, J. et al **PLEASE GIVE ALL NAMES** (Eds) (2002) *PISA 2000 – Die*
698 *Länder der Bundesrepublik Deutschland im Vergleich.* Opladen: Leske & Budrich.
- 699 Bayrhuber, H. & Rost, J. (2004) Umwelterziehung und Bildung für eine nachhaltige
700 Entwicklung, in S. Blömeke, P. Reinhold, G. Tulodziecki & J. Wildt (Eds) *Hand-*
701 *buch Lehrerausbildung*, pp. 603-613. Bad Heilbrunn/Braunschweig:
702 Klinkhardt/Westermann.
- 703 Bellenberg, G. & Thierack, A. (2003) *Ausbildung von Lehrerinnen und Lehrern in*
704 *Deutschland. Bestandsaufnahme und Reformbestrebungen* [Education of teachers in
705 Germany. Stocktaking and reform efforts]. Opladen: Leske & Budrich.
- 706 Bensel, N., Weiler, H.N. & Wagner, G.G. (Eds) (2003) *Hochschulen, Studienreform*
707 *und Arbeitsmärkte. Voraussetzungen erfolgreicher Beschäftigungs- und*
708 *Hochschulpolitik.* Bielefeld: Bertelsmann.
- 709 Blömeke, S. (1999) „... auf der Suche nach festem Boden?“. *Lehrerausbildung in der*
710 *Provinz Westfalen 1945/46 – Professionalisierung versus Bildungsbegrenzung.*
711 *Internationale Hochschulschriften*, 321. Münster: Waxmann.
- 712 Blömeke, S. (2001) B.A.- und M.A.-Abschlüsse in der Lehrerausbildung – Chancen
713 und Probleme, in N. Seibert (Ed.) *Probleme der Lehrerbildung. Analysen,*
714 *Positionen, Lösungsversuche*, pp. 163-183. Bad Heilbrunn: Klinkhardt.
- 715 Blömeke, S. (2002) *Universität und Lehrerausbildung.* Bad Heilbrunn/Obb.:
716 Klinkhardt.
- 717 Blömeke, S. (2004) Empirische Befunde zur Wirksamkeit der Lehrerbildung, in
718 S. Blömeke, P. Reinhold, G. Tulodziecki & J. Wild (Eds) *Handbuch*
719 *Lehrerbildung*, pp. 59-91. Bad Heilbrunn & Braunschweig: Klinkhardt &
720 Westermann.
- 721 Boockmann, H. (1999) *Wissen und Widerstand. Geschichte der deutschen Universität.*
722 Berlin: Siedler.
- 723 Bracht, H.-G. (1998) *Das höhere Schulwesen im Spannungsfeld von Demokratie und*
724 *Nationalsozialismus. Ein Beitrag zur Kontinuitätsdebatte am Beispiel der preußischen*
725 *Aufbauschule.* Studien zur Bildungsreform 31. Frankfurt am Main: Lang.
- 726 Cowen, R. (2002) Sketches of a Future: renegotiating the unit ideas of comparative
727 education, in M. Caruso & H.-E. Tenorth (Eds) *Internationalisierung –*

- 728 *Internationalisation. Semantik und Bildungssystem in vergleichender Perspektive,*
729 pp. 271-283. Frankfurt am Main: Lang.
- 730 Dithmar, R. (Ed.) (2001) *Schule und Unterricht im Dritten Reich*. Interdisziplinäre
731 Forschung und fächerverbindender Unterricht, 7. Ludwigsfelde: Ludwigsfelder
732 Verlagshaus.
- 733 Führ, C. (1985) Gelehrter Schulmann – Oberlehrer – Studienrat. Zum sozialen
734 Aufstieg der Philologen, in W. Conze & J. Kocka. (Eds) *Bildungsbürgertum im 19.*
735 *Jahrhundert T. 1. Bildungssystem und Professionalisierung in internationalen*
736 *Vergleichen*, pp. 417-457. Industrielle Welt, 38. Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta.
- 737 Führ, C. (1998) Zur deutschen Bildungsgeschichte seit 1945, in C. Führ & C.-
738 L. Furck (Eds) *Handbuch der deutschen Bildungsgeschichte. Bd. VI: 1945 bis zur*
739 *Gegenwart. Erster Teilband: Bundesrepublik Deutschland*, pp. 1-24 Munich:
740 C.H. Beck.
- 741 Gebhardt, G. (2003) Weltethos, in W. Wölfling & V. Lenhart (Eds) *Globalisierung und*
742 *Bildung. 4. Heidelberger Dienstagseminar*, pp. 119-132. Schriftenreihe der
743 Pädagogischen Hochschule, 41. Weinheim: Beltz.
- 744 Gogolin, I. (1994) *Der monolinguale Habitus der multilingualen Schule*. Internationale
745 Hochschulschriften. Münster: Waxmann.
- 746 Gogolin, I. (2003) Multilingualität und Bildung, in W. Wölfling & V. Lenhart (Eds)
747 *Globalisierung und Bildung. 4. Heidelberger Dienstagseminar*, pp. 135-142.
748 Schriftenreihe der Pädagogischen Hochschule, 41. Weinheim: Beltz.
- 749 Hahn, K. (2003) Die Globalisierung des Hochschulsektors und das „General
750 Agreement on Trade in Services’ (GATS), *Die Hochschule*, 1, pp. 48-73.
- 751 Herrlitz, H.-G., Hopf, W. & Titze, H. (2001) *Deutsche Schulgeschichte von 1800 bis zur*
752 *Gegenwart*, 3rd edn. Weinheim: Juventa.
- 753 Hopmann, S. & Riquarts, K. (1995) Didaktik and/or Curriculum. Basic Problems of
754 Comparative Didaktik, in S. Hopmann & K. Riquarts (Eds) *Didaktik and/or*
755 *Curriculum*, pp. 9-40. Kiel: IPN.
- 756 Kamens, D.H., Meyer, J.W. & Benavot, A. (1996) Worldwide Patterns in Academic
757 Secondary Education Curricula, *Comparative Education Review*, 40(2),
758 pp. 116-138.
- 759 Keim, W. (1995) *Erziehung unter der Nazi-Diktatur. Bd. 1: Antidemokratische*
760 *Potentiale, Machtantritt und Machtdurchsetzung*. Darmstadt: Primus.
- 761 Klieme, E. et al **PLEASE GIVE ALL NAMES** (2003) *Zur Entwicklung nationaler*
762 *Bildungsstandards. Eine Expertise*. Frankfurt am Main: Deutsches Institut für
763 Internationale Pädagogische Forschung.
- 764 Krüger-Potratz, M. (2004) Umgang mit Heterogenität, in S. Blömeke, P. Reinhold,
765 G. Tulodziecki & J. Wildt (Eds) *Handbuch Lehrerbildung*, pp. 558-566. Bad
766 Heilbrunn/Braunschweig: Klinkhardt/Westermann.
- 767 Lenhart, V. (2000) Bildung in der Weltgesellschaft, in A. Scheunpflug & K. Hirsch
768 (Eds) *Globalisierung als Herausforderung für die Pädagogik*, pp. 47-64. Frankfurt
769 am Main: IKO.
- 770 Meyer, J.W., Ramirez, F.O., Rubinson, R. & Boli-Bennett, J. (1977) The World
771 Educational Revolution. 1950-1970, *Sociology of Education*, 50, pp. 242-258.

- 772 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2001) *Knowledge and*
 773 *Skills for Life. First Results from the OECD Programme for International Student*
 774 *Assessment (PISA) 2000*. Paris: OECD.
- 775 Parsons, T. (1971) *The System of Modern Societies*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- 776 Picht, G. (1964) *Die deutsche Bildungskatastrophe. Analyse und Dokumentation*.
 777 Olten/Freiburg i. Br.: Walter.
- 778 Ramirez, F.O. & Boli, J. (1987) The Political Construction of Mass Schooling.
 779 European Origins and Worldwide Institutionalization, *Sociology of Education*,
 780 60(2), pp. 2-17.
- 781 Rinkens, H.-D., Tulodziecki, G. & Blömeke, S. (Eds) (1999) *Zentren für Lehrerbildung*
 782 *– Fünf Jahre Unterstützung und Weiterentwicklung der Lehrerbildung. Ergebnisse*
 783 *des Modellversuchs PLAZ*. Paderborner Beiträge zur Unterrichtsforschung und
 784 Lehrerbildung, 2. Münster: Lit.
- 785 Roth, H. (Ed.) (1969) *Begabung und Lernen. Ergebnisse und Folgerungen neuer*
 786 *Forschungen*. Gutachten und Studien der Bildungskommission, 4. Stuttgart: Klett
 787 4. Aufl.
- 788 Schelsky, H. (1962/1971) *Einsamkeit und Freiheit. Idee und Gestalt der deutschen*
 789 *Universität und ihrer Reform* (1962). Düsseldorf: Bertelsmann Universitätsverlag
 790 2. Aufl. 1971 **DOES THIS MEAN IT WAS REPRINTED IN 1971?**
 791 (Wissenschaftstheorie – Wissenschaftspolitik – Wissenschaftsplanung, 20). **IS**
 792 **THIS THE SERIES TITLE WHICH APPLIES TO THE 1962 EDITION?**
- 793 Schriewer, J.K. (1992) *Welt-System und Interrelations-Gefüge. Die Internationalisierung*
 794 *der Pädagogik als Problem Vergleichender Erziehungswissenschaft*. Berlin: Humboldt-
 795 Universität/Philosophische Fakultät IV.
- 796 Scott, P. (Ed.) (1998) *Globalization in Higher Education*. Buckingham: Society for
 797 Research into Higher Education/Open University Press.
- 798 Spranger, E. (1974) *Gesammelte Schriften. Bd. 4. Psychologie und Menschenbildung*.
 799 Tübingen: Niemeyer.
- 800 Steiner-Khamsi, G. (2002) Re-framing Educational Borrowing as a Policy Strategy, in
 801 M. Caruso & H.-E. Tenorth (Eds) *Internationalisierung – Internationalisation.*
 802 *Semantik und Bildungssystem in vergleichender Perspektive*, pp. 57-89. Frankfurt am
 803 Main: Lang.
- 804 Strukturreformgesetz (2005) *Gesetz zur Reform der Strukturen des öffentlichen*
 805 *Dienstrechts. Entwurf v. 12.04.2005.*
 806 http://www.dbb.de/htm/pdf/gesetzentwurf_strukturreformg_0405.pdf (28 June
 807 2005)
- 808 Terhart, E. (2004) Struktur und Organisation der Lehrerbildung in Deutschland, in
 809 S. Blömeke, P. Reinhold, G. Tulodziecki & J. Wild (Eds) *Handbuch*
 810 *Lehrerbildung*, pp. 37-59. Bad Heilbrunn & Braunschweig: Klinkhardt &
 811 Westermann.
- 812 Tippelt, R., Rauschenbach, T. & Weishaupt, H. (Eds) (2004) *Datenreport*
 813 *Erziehungswissenschaft 2004*. Schriftenreihe der DgE. Wiesbaden: VS.
- 814 Tye, K.A. (1999) *Global Education. A Worldwide Movement*. Orange: Interdependence
 815 Press.
- 816 Wächter, B. (Ed.) (1999) *Internationalisation in Higher Education*. Bonn: Lemmens.

- 817 Westbury, I.D. (1998) Didaktik and Curriculum Studies, in B.B. Gündem &
818 S. Hopmann (Eds) *Didaktik and/or Curriculum. An International Dialogue*,
819 pp. 47-78. New York: Peter Lang.