Who is a Suitable Teacher? The Over-100-Year Long History of Student Selection for Teacher Training in Finland

Satu Uusiautti¹, Kaarina Määttä¹

¹University of Lapland, Finland

Abstract: When many countries struggle with finding ways to attract the youth to apply for teacher training, Finland has about ten times more applicants than what is possible to take in. These applicants represent straight-A students. Indeed, constant debate about how to develop student selection so that the best of the best would be selected is going on in Finland. The selection for teacher training has long roots and the criteria have changed along the years, and yet, some themes have lasted unchanged. This article describes the history of selection processes for teacher training in Finland and discusses the significance and development of selection for finding the best persons as student teachers and prospective teachers.

Keywords: Teacher selection; teacher student; teaching profession; professional development; teacher educator

Introduction

As long as a Finland has had class teachers and teacher training, the suitability of those applying to the field has been evaluated. Every applicant has been seen, heard, and assessed, and the selection process has always been rigorous. This holds true still today.

The criteria of student selection have corresponded to the contemporary teacher ideals and virtues. In 1850–1917, teachers were expected to be loyal, diligent, upright, physically healthy, and regular (Rinne, 1986). Later on in 1917–1958, teachers had to have reputable, healthy, and musical, too (Paksuniemi, 2009; Paksuniemi and Määttä, 2011). Then in 1959–1970, the emphasis was on teachers’ good performing skills and behavior, but still, teachers were expected to have a healthy body and regular character along with musicality. In 1970–1986, teachers had to have hobbies, and be straight-A students, extrovert, and suitable. The present criteria for student selection emphasize motivation and suitability appearing quite broad compared to previous criteria (Laes, 2005; Räihä, 2010).

In this article, we analyze the nature of the criteria for teacher student selection. Who have been considered suitable prospective teachers in Finland? What have been regarded as an appropriate measurement of one’s suitability to a teacher’s profession in different eras and how this appears in today’s student teacher selection. We lean on previous research and theoretical reviews of the theme. Finally, we contemplate the functionality of student selection processes and possibilities of developing the selection system.

The popularity of class teacher training

In Finland, the class teachers’ profession has been popular among the youth for past few decades. Many dream of the teacher’s profession and sometimes, people apply for teacher training many times, year after year. Many of those who do not become selected use the time between entrance tests to gather points needed for selection: they increase their teaching experience or study at open universities or other academic courses to increase their points and thus secure their selection. It is not unusual to take the entrance test even three or four times (Räihä, 1997; Kemppinen and Kuusela, 2006).

Although age groups become smaller and smaller, the number of applicants for teacher training has increased since 2007 due to the renewed national university admission system (see Figure 1).
Each year, 1470–1637 applicants have gained admission to class teacher training which means that there are almost ten applicants per each admission. Finland has ten teacher training departments, one of which is Swedish-speaking. Certainly, these departments can select the best among the best, whereas for the youth, the high number of applicants is a challenge. Numerous applicants and several times of trying to gain admission make the teacher’s profession look elusive. Upper secondary education graduates know that it is extremely difficult to gain admission to teacher training right after graduation: either their points are not sufficient or at the second phase of the entrance test, namely the aptitude test, a more experienced applicant becomes selected. Indeed, Räihä (2010) points out that the entrance test has mystified the whole quiddity of a teacher’s profession.

Because of the demanding entrance test, newcomers in teacher training are older by their average age in Finland than in many other countries (Eurostudent, 2005). For example, in 2005 only 9 % of the applicants who became selected in Finland had graduated from the upper secondary education in the same year (Räihä, 2010). Do these teacher students feel their calling more clearly than others (Korthagen, 2004; Serow, 1995) or are the more decisive in their choice of a profession (Eccles, 2009; Lent, Brown and Hackett, 2000)? If this is the case, they have probably consciously gathered information about the selection, evaluated, contemplated, and compared options, and become certain (see, Janis and Mann, 1997). On the other hand, the desire to become a teacher may have resulted from their own educational and school experiences (e.g., Crossman and Hammerness, 2009; Määttä, 1989; Uusikylä, 1983).

The motives of those who become teachers have been studied extensively both in Finland (Laes, 2005; Jussila, 1976; Jussila and Lauriala, 1989; Perho, 1982) and internationally (Alexander, 2008; Hoy, 2008; Watt and Richardson, 2008). But do these motives explain the success and development in a teacher’s career? How significant the entrance test is for the development of the teacher’s profession or what kind of an image of a teacher do entrance tests maintain? To discuss these questions, we will first have a look at the criteria of student teacher selection in Finland—before and today.

Selection for teacher training in 1863–1920: integrity and religiosity

For a long time, the criteria for student selection were very strict. The decree for teacher training colleges in 1863 defined the preconditions that the applicants had to fulfill in order to gain admission to a teacher training college. Applicants had to be at least 18 years old, graduated from a confirmation class, physically healthy, and mentally peaceful, and behave irreproachably, religiously, and diligently. If this is the case, they have probably consciously gathered information about the selection, evaluated, contemplated, and compared options, and become certain (see, Janis and Mann, 1997). On the other hand, the desire to become a teacher may have resulted from their own educational and school experiences (e.g., Crossman and Hammerness, 2009; Määttä, 1989; Uusikylä, 1983).

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Christian doctrine, proper reading skills, faultless writing skills with legible handwriting, fair skills of using four mathematical methods with integers and fractions, aptitude for drawing and singing, and dexterity for handicrafts. The personally-written and signed applications had to include a priest’s statement, a doctor’s certificate, a proof of required skills, and a note of the applicant’s mental health and suitability for a teacher’s profession (Nurmi, 1979).

When teacher training was started in Finland, the entrance tests were not very wide because of the low number of applicants. As there were not many applicants, almost everyone became selected but only a few graduated (Nurmi, 1979). The situation of that time was the absolute opposite from today’s situation: now, there are plenty of applicants and only a minimal part of them, about every eighth, is selected, and everyone almost invariably graduates.

For example, the very first application round at the teacher training college in Jyväskylä took place in 1863: altogether 18 women and 42 men applied. All women were invited to take the entrance test. Because of the defective applications, eight women remained uninvited. After the test, 33 men and 16 women were selected for a trial period. However, everyone did not start studies: the register contains personal information of 15 female and 24 male student teachers. Before the trial period had ended, three men were encouraged to quite voluntarily because of their poor study results. Only one followed the advice and two others were expelled on March 1864 due to their low scores in the intermediate report. Eight male students and half of the female students quit studies. Two of the women quit already at the beginning of the training after getting married with a college teacher. The other one of these women was Minna Canth who later on became a famous Finnish author. One of the female students married a male college student. Three women quit because of illnesses and one started to work as a teacher in a nearby municipality after one year of studying. By the end of the four-year-long training only seven women graduated. The reasons for male students’ quitting were mostly poor grades or bad behavior. However, the first teacher student who got punished at the college was a woman: she had used rouge (Nurmi, 1979; Räihä, 2010).

The criteria for student selection and the selection processes from the 1920s to the 1970s: physically healthy, reputable, and musical

As Finland got the law of compulsory education in 1921, primary schools came also to the countryside and the need for teachers increased. More teacher training colleges were established in Finland and simultaneously the level of student enrolments increased.

In 1921–1930, the entrance test had three phases. The first phase was based on the applications. Attached to their applications, applicant sent copies of their school certificates, a priest’s statement, and a doctor’s certificate. Teachers examined applicants’ nervous system, sense organs, respiratory organs, digestion, vestibular organs, and skin. Doctors could also write about their own notions such as: “Considering the person’s health, I assume that this person can, without any major problems, fulfill the college student’s and elementary school teacher’s duties” (Paksuniemi, 2009, p. 52).

The priest’s statement was to ensure that the applicant was baptized and a member of the Evangelical-Lutheran church, vaccinated, and graduated from a confirmation class, and draws civic confidence. Some statements also mentioned good reputation. In addition, applicants had to have musical talents. One applicant for the teacher training college of Tornio had attached her elementary school teacher’s note in her application on the 20th of July 1925: “The applicant has musical aptitude and strong and clear singing voice” (Paksuniemi, 2009, p. 52).

The student selection was two-phased which meant that some of the applicants were invited in the entrance test based on their applications. The entrance test lasted for 2–6 days, and they did not change much until the 1950s. The following parts composed the test: an interview by the college rector, medical examination, tests in school subjects, general test, singing test, and evaluation of musicianship (Rinne, 1986).

For example, the 1922 entrance test at the teacher training college of Tornio took two days. During the first day, the applicants had tests in school subjects, took a test in math, and demonstrated their drawing skills. The second day included tests in Finnish, religion, and regional education. At the end of the second day, the names of those who were selected for the trial period were announced (Paksuniemi, 2009).

The quality of applicants varied greatly because of which their knowledge of various school subjects was evaluated as a part of the entrance test. Along the rise in applicants’ basic education the tests in all school subjects were left out. What is interesting, as Rinne (1986) and Räihä (2010) point out is that singing, drawing, and writing tests still remained obligatory for a long time, partly until the 1970s. The knowledge of subjects in art education was regarded as important in student teachers’ selection. Singing and drawing skills were seen useful to a teacher both as a means

of illustrating themes in teaching and for culturally-oriented influencing outside the school.

The college rector could decide to accept an applicant who had insufficient singing, gymnastic, or handicraft skills. Instead, health and healthy build were considered unconditional criteria. At first, the function of the medical examination was merely to prevent epidemics and illnesses, and the doctor’s certificate could, for example, include a statement that “there was no reason to suspect tuberculosis” (Paksuniemi, 2009, p. 52). In the course of time, the importance of a healthy and strong physique was accentuated: a prospective teacher had to be a model citizen for his or her body and mind. The doctor’s certificate form was specified and renewed several times, and on the 30th of October 1935 a more specified form was introduced. The doctor had to examine applicants’ health with 15 items. Finally, the form included a question: “During the examination, did anything come up or do you know anything else that could be significant when evaluating the person’s suitability as a teacher? Considering the aforementioned items, do you consider the person you examined suitable for a teacher’s work or, if not, on which item do you lean in your unfavorable evaluation?” (Paksuniemi, 2009, pp. 57-58). Yet, even the doctor’s certificate could not guarantee applicants’ health but soon after the training started, student teachers took a new medical examination. And still, before the half-year-long trial period ended and making the final selection, the candidates’ health was checked once again. Because a teacher’s work necessitates a good posture and vigor, and bodily management, gymnastics formed a part of entrance tests. Likewise, applicants with a speech defect, mispronunciations, and voice control defects had to be screened out (Rinne, 1986; Räihä, 2010).

The college rector had wide discretion in student selection. However, he or she had to give reasons for acceptance or rejection. For example, the results from 1957 entrance tests along with grounds on acceptance and rejection had to be carefully reported to the ministry of education.

Another important character who had influence on student selection was the secondary school rector. He or she had to give a statement that the applicant was not allowed to see. It was a sort of certificate of reputation that was greatly based on knowing the person. The rector’s statement evaluated the applicant’s temperament, reliability, cultural orientation, and sense of duty. This was a means of getting information about applicants’ personal history, commitment to a teacher’s work, and balance in his or her emotional life. If an applicant had expressed irritability, anxiety, problems in school adjustment, negligence, or negative or careless attitude to children, the rector would have to state that (Kähkönen, 1979). The purpose was to carry on the school ethos: probably the obedient and adaptable had positive statements. Although the secondary school rector’s statements were not required in entrance tests any longer in 1974, the idea of obedience was hardly removed from the evaluations (Räihä, 2010).

The change in the criteria for student selection at the 1970s and 1980s: showmanship and previous success at school

Still in the 1970s and 1980s, the selection had two phases: those who had the best scores based on their applications were invited in the final entrance test. At the first phase, the grades in the obligatory subjects in the Finnish matriculation examination mattered to most along with the average of all subjects at the upper secondary education, and extra points that one could have for example from experience in teaching and youth work, and later from previous studies performed at a university. Men and women had separate selection for entrance tests. For example in 1978, the University of Lapland invited third times more applicants than could be selected in each quota (Määttä, 1978).

The student selection procedure was renewed in 1974 so that the rector of a teacher training department had to give up his or her discretion. Each teacher training department had a three-person selection board and a three-person selection committee. Thus, all teacher educators participated in student selection. All performed their evaluations independently and therefore three evaluations provided a manifold picture of each applicant. The reliability of the selection was tried to strengthen by offering trainings for student selection (Alikoski, 1974; Määttä, 1978).

What was new in the entrance test was a performance test where an applicant had to participate in an imaginary classroom situation. Later on the imaginary situation was turned into an authentic teaching moment with actual pupils. Applicants had three optional themes that they could teach during an 8–10-minute teaching session. The three-person board evaluated the teaching moment by paying attention to the selection of the theme, its contextual clarity, the manner of handling the content, and eloquence. Applicants also had to take a two-song singing test and a drawing test with a 15-minute time limit. The point was to evaluate applicants’ ability to illustrate teaching contents with blackboard drawings. In addition, applicants had to write an autobiography in 45 minutes to be used in the
In 1971, Eysenck’s Personality Inventory test was introduced in entrance tests, especially its dimension that measures extrovert-introvert personality trait. However, it was left out already in 1975 (Rinne, 1986). In 1977, the performance test was renewed and it stayed in that particular form until 1996. The supposition was that the performance test would predict applicants’ teaching skills well (see also Aloe and Becker 2009). The teaching moment and the interview that was held in pursuance of it were arranged as individual tests. Applicants had to execute a 10–15-minute small-scale teaching situation with 6–10 pupils from the 3rd and 4th grades. The members of the three-person board evaluated the organization of teaching content and coherence of teaching individually and independently by using the scale of 1 to 5. Furthermore, they had to pay attention to interaction and flexibility in controlling situations. The teaching situation was followed by an interview where the applicant could justify the solutions he or she had made and evaluate his or her performance. The interview also helped to evaluate applicants’ pedagogical educability and social eligibility to teacher training and a teacher’s work (see Day, Elliot and Kington, 2005). Each board member provided their independent evaluations also after the interviews (Määttä, 1978). The music test included one optional song, and the test was turned into optional part of the entrance test. Likewise, drawing test became optional. It was comprised of a memory-based and imaginary drawing of a given theme, and everyone took the test simultaneously. Both the music and drawing tests were evaluated by the three-person board.

The criteria for student selection from 1989 to the 2010s: making the pre-selection lighter and creating national selection system to evaluate motivation and suitability

In 1989, gender quotas were abandoned in the selection for teacher training. Until that, the quota had guaranteed 40 % of places in the aptitude test for men. The abandonment of the quota was based on the Equality Ombudsman’s report (no. 126/1987) that said that the law on equality prohibits quotas in student selection. Because only a fourth of applicants for teacher training were men, and when 40 % of the selected students were men due to the quota, it was clear that men could gain admission with lower scores than women. After the quota was abandoned, the proportion of men decreased into the level similar to the call which was just over 20 %. After the law of equality, a salient question was how to get more men in class teacher training (Liimatainen, 2002).

The student selection was renewed when it came to grading and the impression is that men were favored in many ways (Räihä, 2010). Among others, military service accounted for one point in the pre-selection stage in 1994, while experience in guiding leisure activities was not graded any longer—it had proven to clearly favor women (Liimatainen, 2002; Räihä, 2010). Any solutions in pre-selective grading did not result in the desired outcome, and the proportion of men in applicants and selected students has remained in 20 %.

In 1997, the second phase of selection, the entrance test, was arranged earlier: instead of August, it took place in June. This meant a huge change because annual summer holiday at schools is from June to August and therefore there could not be pupils in the teaching moments. Thus, the authentic teaching sessions were abandoned. However, various teaching training departments created personal solutions, nor was it easy to give up the earlier selection procedures. Consequently, a so-called organization task was introduced as the new aptitude test. The task resembled the imaginary teaching situation used in the 1960s. Applicants were given three optional themes of which they could select one. They had about 30 minutes to prepare for the lesson and write their plan in one sheet of paper. Applicants had to present verbally to the selection board how they would proceed in teaching the select theme for pupils. In some teacher training departments, applicants had to analyze a video-taped teaching situation. These were, however, abandoned in most teacher training departments by the end of the 1990 – except for the University of Helsinki, which had the teaching situation test as a part of the entrance test still in 2001 and the adult education unit of the teacher training department of Kokkola which will not even give up this selection method (Räihä, 2010, p. 52).

Perhaps, the biggest and the most significant structural and contentual change in student selection took place in 2007 when all work- and education-based scores where replaced with the open literature examination, the so-called VAKAVA-examination (A national selection cooperation network in the field of education). The first pre-selection criterion was this open examination for all. The text book applicants have to study is published about a month before the pre-selection examination. Those who are the most successful in this examination become selected to the next phase. This examination is national and based on the national selection cooperation. It means that an applicant who wishes to become a teacher can apply with one application to several teacher training departments in Finland (three
department at the most) and the examination is simultaneously arranged at every teacher training department. The national selection cooperation was hoped to replace the extensive and heavy pre-selection procedure, and it was also expected to guarantee equal treatment of the large number of applicants (Räihä, 2010; VAKAVA, 2012).

The pre-examination test is composed by a national selection cooperation group which has representatives from each Finnish teacher training department. This group has to draw up the examination and the way it will be scored (Liimatainen, 2002).

The purpose of the VAKAVA-project was to (1) lighten the heavy pre-selection scoring system, (2) improve the fresh upper secondary education graduates’ position in the student selection, and (3) widen the selection cooperation in the educational field among different teacher training departments of Finland (Räihä, 2010). The reform of student selection was also based on the reports Yliopistojen opiskelijaavalintojen arviointiraportti [The Evaluation Report of Student Selection of Universities] (by The Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council, see Sajavaara et al., 2002) and Yhteishausta yhteisvalintaan – Yliopistojen opiskelijaavalintojen kehittämisraportti [From National Application to National Selection – The Development Report of the Student Selection of Universities] (by Ministry of Education, 2004; see Ahola, 2004).

Despite the reforms of national cooperation in student selection, the two-phased selection procedure remained. Teacher training departments arrange the second phase according to their own criteria which are mostly based on previous practices. Teaching moments are mostly replaced with group and individual interviews and a discussion moment to evaluate applicants’ cooperation skills. In addition, the certificate from upper secondary education in some form has become one of the selection instruments of the second phase.

Discussion

Although some changes have happened in the Finnish teacher training student selection during its one-hundred-year-long history, there are plenty of permanent and unaltered features, too. The criteria of who can be seen as a suitable teacher have not been conclusively justified scientifically or theoretically. It is more about ideal-based orientation to the student selection (Borkenau, 1990; Laes, 2005; Räihä, 2010). Consequently, the selection is based on comparisons and searching of certain features. The applicant is assessed as a suitable teacher when finding those features that are considered parts of an ideal teacher (Watt and Richardson, 2008). Thus, the suitability evaluated in the selection procedures can favor those who have adjusted well to school, have been successful pupils, enjoyed themselves at school, and want to do their life work as teachers at school (see Cochran-Smith et al., 2012). The doubt is that this procedure might prepare teachers who do not want to change school and are able to perceive learning only from the straight-A pupils’ point of view. According to some interpretations, prospective teachers—being adjusted to school—try to adjust their pupils to the mold they themselves have seen as good (e.g., Räihä 2010). However, this way of selecting student teachers has produced good teachers in the Finnish school system.

Nor can we think that those with positive attitude to school would not be able to reform it (see Silverman, 2010). Success at school cannot hinder one’s ability to develop school. This is also a challenge to teacher training (Collinson et al., 2009; Guskey, 2002). Lortie noted already in 1975 (Lortie, 1975) that teacher training has to be founded on the understanding that student teachers have already 10,000-hour experience of schooling. They share a strong understanding, preconception, and image of teaching. These conceptions might be narrow and at their worst, blind from seeing the needs for reform in education. Therefore, the role of teacher training is especially important (Ehmeier, 2003; Korthagen, Loughran and Lunenberg, 2005). Teacher training can also rectify erroneous conceptions, and make aware of previous experiences and attitudes, and necessitate reflecting on and renewing them, and create conditions for introducing new research-based operation in schooling and teaching (Flores and Day, 2006).

Teacher training makes only a short period in student teachers’ professional development. Eventually, teachers go through a three-phased socialization process. First, they socialize in the professional norms and values during their own pupilhood at school. The second phase takes place at teacher training and in the theoretical world of it. Finally, they enter the real teaching world as budding teachers. Finlayson and Cohen (1967) talk about two frames of reference: the college frame of reference and the school frame of reference between which the difference between the ideal and practical worlds exists. If teacher training does not provide with sufficient skills to renew teaching, the new teacher’s abilities to do that will remain weak. Several studies (e.g., Blomberg, 2008; Heikkinen, Jokinen, Tynjälä and Väljärvi, 2008; Hebert and Worthy, 2001; Kyriacou and Kunc, 2007) show that new teachers’ problems at the field are quite imminent and require imitating


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more experienced teachers, and growing and developing. If the reformative research-based teacher training is not balanced and convincing enough to avoiding old methods, education will be “ivory tower” education (Määttä, 1989). Then, student teachers end up doing the same teaching practices they have experienced as pupils. New teachers are especially vulnerable because they do not have the charisma or routines yet. They are “green” as Dreeben (1970) put it or face “sink or swim” situations as described by Lortie (1975). Thus, the beauty of the reformist teacher training does not reach the practice (Pajak, 2012; Zeichner, 2012). Teacher training must support student teachers’ self-confidence and personality development so that they trust in their abilities to cope with the teaching work (Mutton, Hagger and Burn, 2011; Riegle-Crumb et al., 2012). The careful student selection obliges this.

Those who become selected in teacher training have good cognitive and social starting points for teaching, and experience, view, commitment, and motivation to teacher training and teacher’s work. And yet we can ask whether the entrance test can evaluate the applicant’s ability to work and develop the changing and more and more multidimensional teaching work (Dierking and Fox, 2012; Theoharis and Causton-Theoharis, 2011). How to renew and maintain enthusiasm and joy of work in teaching conditions that cannot be foreseen (Weiss, 1999)? On the other hand, the pupil-teacher interaction and encounter contain plenty of stable, timeless, and classic regularities that are crucial conditions of learning (see e.g. Hamre et al., 2012). Caring teacherhood might be even more important in the future (Uusiautti and Määttä, 2012). The features of a good teacher as experienced by children have not changed much in the long run (Määttä and Uusiautti, 2012).

Previous success at school does not guarantee a student teacher’s success at his or her future school but provides with favorable premises to work at school. At least, they should not be punished for their grades—especially when applying to teacher training! One’s own success at school may direct motivation to help those who do not do that well at school (Chan et al., 2008). As learning new has seemed rewarding in the light of previous school experiences, it may turn into a life style, constant searching for new, and thus, into a way of encouraging pupils (Fraser, Kenny, Reid and McKinney, 2007).

Conclusion

The entrance tests for teacher training are interesting for many reasons in Finland and abroad. In Finland, teacher training is popular and attractive. Those who become selected have gone through a rigorous screening and many can only dream of a teacher’s profession because just school certificates are not enough if one wants to gain admission to teacher training. On the other hand, the demanding entrance tests also strengthen the appreciation of a teacher’s profession: a common conception in Finland is that if one gets in teacher training, one must be really skillful and competent.

The problem of Finnish student selection for teacher training has been to discover ways of selecting the best of the best applicants. Many other countries have to figure out how to attract suitable people to apply for teacher training (see Richardson and Watt, 2006; Schalock, 1979; Wise et al., 1987)—how to make teacher training attractive?

The entrance test system in Finnish teacher training has become more versatile during its history. However, clear criteria for a person’s educability are missing. Teacher training has to become more and more research-based (Jakkusihvonen and Niemi, 2006); it is not enough that teachers possess features of outer behavior and knowledge of school subjects required already decades ago. Today’s student teachers have passed the nation-wide literature examination as the pre-selection phase, followed by the second phase consisting of the individual and group interviews that are meant to assess their suitability, tasks that test their cooperation skills, and evaluation of their upper secondary education certificates.

Objectivity in today’s student selection for teacher training is fulfilled better than before (Metzger and Wu, 2008; Young, Rinehart and Place, 1989). Along with the literature examination, a group of people evaluates applicants’ suitability, and each member of the group does that independently. Every applicant has to be able to trust that regardless of the selection board, they have the same opportunities to become selected. Still, it is reasonable to ask whether teacher educators are the ones that can act as evaluators or could this task be assigned to teachers working in the field, school rectors, or psychologists? And eventually, why? The answer can be dissected from teacher educators’ point of view too: so far, they have succeeded in their job well. People who have been selected in teacher training have developed the Finnish school system and made Finnish pupils succeed. Or could teachers do even better—when it comes also to the emotional level as the form of thriving at school?

Certainly, the number of experts participating in student selection could be larger or the time each applicant has to prove his or her suitability could be longer or more varied (see Byrnes, Kiger and Shechtman, 2003; Malvern, 1991) to reach a more
profound impression of applicants. The education of the members of the selection group should not be belittled either. It is important that teacher educators who participate in student selection reflect on their own idea of a teacher (see Robinson and McMillan, 2006) and tacit knowledge (Grant, 2007), and are aware of incorrect estimates (such as halo effect, over positivity or over negativity, chemistry, etc.) and their own blind spots (Räihä, 2010).

One important functions of the student selection system is to be able to eliminate those not able to work responsibly in a teacher’s profession, not able to cope with the demands of the profession, or whose motives to become a teacher would not be best for children or the development of education. What is vexatious for applicants is that many suitable and the most likely successful applicants never become selected.

Whatever the selection method, student selection can never take into account all success factors in teachers’ work (see Rueda and Stillman, 2012). The current selection cannot, for example, predict who will stay in a teacher’s profession for all their lives (see Hong, 2012), participate in continuing education, appreciate their work, perceive its significance, and develop their professional identities, and want to do teaching in an ethically skillful and morally constructing manner within the pressure faced at the teacher’s profession (see Ministry of Education, 2007).

The selection process for teacher training is a part of teacher training and is, indeed, quite far-reaching. When successful, it guarantees every child with pedagogically and professionally quality teaching and equal and favorable learning opportunities.

References


