

Spatial perspectives: a missing link for comparative teacher education research

Authors:

Clare Brooks, UCL Institute of Education, UK. Email: c.brooks@ucl.ac.uk

(Corresponding author)

Gong Qian, Nanjing Normal University, China. Email: clairegong@126.com

Ana Angelita Rocha, State University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Email:
ana_angelita@ufrj.br

Victor Salinas-Silva, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Valparaíso, Chile. Email:
victor.salinas@pucv.cl

Abstract

Spatial theory can move comparative teacher education research into a new realm of analysis. A spatial triad of relative, representational, and lived space is applied to four illustrative cases of teacher education policy and practice to argue that such an approach offers a more nuanced, rich, and contextual understanding, which moves beyond descriptive accounts of the influence of context. The concept of relative space is used to show how global trends influence teacher standards and accountability systems in China, and England. The use of representational space shows how spaces of professional practice are defined in policymaking in Chile. An exploration of policies influencing university-based teacher

education in Brazil, shows how an individual's ability to access teacher education is affected by their lived space: where they live, their intersectional characteristics, and the risk of urban violence. The use of this spatial triad of theories, individually or collectively can enrich comparative teacher education research , as they enable researchers to move beyond description into a nuanced understanding of teacher education as a thoroughly spatial practice.

Key words: spatial theory, territoriality, context, socio-spatial

Introduction

Research in education has started to take notice of the valuable contribution that spatial perspectives can add. The concept of “third space” has been widely adopted in teacher education (Beck, 2018), and the work of key spatial theorists such as Doreen Massey, Henri Lefebvre and David Harvey have become more commonplace in research accounts (see Mayer et al., 2015). However spatial theories have a particular role for comparative research in teacher education. Adamson (2012) has argued that comparative studies need to be highly sensitive to the cultural context when implementing research findings. The spatial triad outlined in this chapter illustrates a structured and systematic way of ensuring a deeper understanding of that cultural context. The approach outlined highlights how such context is influenced by location, how that location is situated relative to others and the issues of power and representation inherent within it. David Harvey has explored how practices move

between these spaces, noting the distinction between actual space (as location), relative space (in how spaces relate to each other), and representational space (how ideas are represented spatially).

The analytical power of spatial theory is demonstrated through four illustrative accounts; each of which are related to one dimension of a spatial triad. Individually, each element of the triad can enrich accounts of comparative research into teacher education, but taken together they offer a powerful tool that enables comparative accounts to move beyond the descriptive, towards a systematic account of power, representation and the influence of relevant structures. These accounts are summarised in the Table One. The chapter begins with an explanation of the theoretical background to this spatial triad.

[Insert table one here]

Table One: How spatial theory can enhance comparative research in teacher education

Spatial triad elements	Case study/example	Relevance for comparative research in teacher education
Relative space (how spaces relate to each other such as global/local interactions mediated by the	The development of teacher professional standards in China shows the global influence of	When seeking to compare international education systems or phenomena, scale matters.

<p>scale of space in question and its history, culture, and politics)</p>	<p>policy trends affecting a previously fairly independent system.</p> <p>How standards are expressed in the English accountability system shows that even though they are a global trend, they are expressed differently in different locations, and at different scales. Hence a relative scalar perspective can reveal different roles and functions.</p>	<p>The scale of the area under study will also reflect a particular historical, political and cultural make-up.</p>
<p>Representational space (how ideas are represented spatially as mediated by power dynamics)</p>	<p>Policy made in capital cities can diminish the different needs and experiences in rural areas.</p> <p>The Chilean example illustrates how teachers can be agentic within their</p>	<p>Spatial theory is useful because it reveals issues of power. Here we have examples of two different types of power – the power of policy makers which can conceal local variation, and</p>

	<p>territory. However, national policies do not recognise local variations. But through creating spatial networks and communities with strong links to their territory, teachers can exercise their agency.</p>	<p>the power of individuals to be agentic in their own context. For comparative research in teacher education it is important to consider how power, actors and contexts are represented in the system being explored.</p>
<p>Location within space (how the site and situation of a place can influence the lived space of those located there)</p>	<p>Research, for example into the changing nature of teacher education in Brazil, often focusses on systemic issues – such as how teacher education programmes are changing or have changed. This is important, but needs to be balanced by accounts of the lived experience of the individuals involved. In the case of Brazil, barriers to teacher education can</p>	<p>To fully understand issues that affect teacher education it is important to move beyond the policy analysis, but to look at the lived experience and how that privileges and silences certain bodies.</p>

	<p>include financial constraints and colonial practices that fail to recognise the experiences of black bodies within Brazil. These perform equally important barriers to high quality, accessible teacher education.</p>	
--	---	--

Why Spatial Theory?

Spatial theories have already established a particular role in some education research. For example, there is a growing interest in the geographies of education (West, Hill et al. 2020). Already this movement has revealed the significance of the spatial in decision making about school choice: where you live can influence the schools you have access to, and the decisions you make (Cohen 2020, Henry 2020, Redford 2021). These observations are important because they illustrate how inequalities (in this case in relation to access to schools) are produced and reproduced through space.

The spatial turn in social theory has led to the practice turn in teacher education which draws upon spatial perspectives. Schatzki (2005) notes how the practice turn is reflective of a site ontology, specifically recognising that practice occurs in space, as well as being

influenced by space-time or the temporal dimension. For teacher education, the recognition of this spatial dimension has resulted in valuable analytical work recognising the “third space” of teacher education where the site of classroom practice, and theoretical discussion and practitioner reflection need to come together.

Comparative research has long recognised the importance of context to understand educational phenomena. However, context itself is an under-theorised and weak concept, often used in research as a broad category akin to an empty container and rarely examined conceptually. Dourish (2004) argues that research often sees context as an interactional or representational problem. According to Brock (2016, p. 14), this is because comparative studies are ‘fixated with only one spatial scale of reference, the national’. But spatial variation in education happens not only from country to country but also within countries.

Spatial theories can be of specific value, as they can reveal the complexities of context by placing emphasis on understanding how it is situated in social, locational, and cultural integrated influences: in other words, it does more than acknowledge that context is important, but explores the various ways in which context shapes and influences practices. In particular, spatial theories offer alternative ways of viewing context that brings to the fore issues of power, how it is situated and how it is experienced. These theories recognise that power is central to the construction and reconstruction of space and the experiences of those situated within it, and so offers intellectual tools that can deepen our understanding of practice in a variety of ways.

A spatial triad

The spatial framework adopted in this chapter is a combination of the work of Lefebvre (1991) and Harvey (2004), who both independently identified a triad of approaches of examining space.

Lefebvre identified three fundamental pillars to analyse space:

Spatial practice - which embraces production and reproduction and the particular locations and spatial sets characteristics of each social formation. Spatial practice ensures continuity and to some degree cohesion. In terms of social space, and each member of a given society's relationship to space, this cohesion implies a guaranteed level of competence and specific level of performance;

Representations of space - which are tied to the relations of the production and to the 'order' which those relations impose, and hence to knowledge, to signs, to codes, and to 'frontal' relations;

Representational spaces - embodying complex symbolisms, sometimes coded, sometimes not, linked to the clandestine or underground of social life, as also to art (which may come eventually to be defined less as a code of space than a code of representational spaces). (Lefebvre, 1991, p. 33).

David Harvey has taken this further by exploring how practices move between these spaces, noting the distinction between actual space (as location), relative space (in how spaces relate to each other) and representational space (how ideas are represented spatially). Through critically exploring, and seeking to understand the complexities of these spatial practices, Harvey argues we will be in a position to transform them.

It was Harvey himself who drew parallels between his thinking about space with Lefebvre's spatial triad, recognising that their conceptualisations are complementary. Whilst both theorists are interested in space and scale, and situate their work within a Marxist analysis of production and the importance of the flow of capital, their attention is focussed in different directions. Harvey is concerned with how the flow of capital as generative of inequalities that occur in (global) space, but that can be seen in how national systems are configured and understood through the spread of neoliberalism and globalisation. Lefebvre's concepts however, whilst attuned to these macro influences, looks more at the impact on the everyday, and on the experiences of individuals.

Bringing the two similar approaches together then, comparative research can draw upon the following three pillars to come to a deeper understanding of spatial phenomena, such as teacher education and how it sits within wider structures and power dynamics. These three pillars are:

- **relative space:** teacher education is defined in relation to its vicinity. All providers will have distinctive relations to a range of spatial scales: the individual (teacher educators and pre-service teachers), the local (the school and university partners involved), the national (for example, policies about teacher education), the regional (nestled within traditions and their educational (and social) histories such as colonialism) and the global (reflecting how trends and policy borrowing now occur on a global scale). Scale in this sense represents relative power and influence.
- **representational space:** teacher education is dominated by images or conceptions of how both education and teacher education should be. All educators live within this

representational space, which includes discourses around quality, standards and quality conundrums, and how these are represented in policy and practice frameworks.

- **lived space:** teacher education happens in places but involves individuals who live in those spaces. Locations have features in themselves (such as large diverse populations), and the combination of those places and those people affect the nature of the teacher education provision.

Whilst each of these pillars is a valuable analytical tool in themselves, combined they offer a holistic and rounded account of the spatial influences on phenomena. Scholars who have used the spatial triad as an analytical tool see the relationship between as connected in complex and various ways reflecting how the themes of experience, power and agency are co-dependent and mutually generative. The remainder of this chapter will focus on each pillar of the triad illustrated by case studies to reveal their explanatory power.

Relative space: Influences on teacher standards policies in China and England

The introduction of standards into the teaching profession has been a global movement (Caena, 2014; Page, 2015; Santoro, Reid, Mayer, & Singh, 2012). As Darling-Hammond (2008, p. 39) argues, ‘professional standards for teaching hold promise for mobilizing reforms of the teaching career and helping to structure opportunities that reflect the complex, reciprocal nature of teaching work’. Professional standards for teachers have significant potential to provide the necessary provocation for teachers to think about their work, classroom activities and professional identity in quite fundamental different and generative ways (Sachs, 2003). However, there are also claims that teacher standards can narrow

teaching practice, reduce teacher autonomy, and de-professionalize teachers (Bourke, Ryan, & Lidstone, 2013; Connell, 2009). It is common, particularly in research that focusses on policy, to directly compare policy initiatives across and between states. Whilst this performs a valuable function, for a more detailed comparative understanding it is important to identify the relative space of the place under analysis. To this end, we offer two examples: in the first, China, a previously independent state with a unique education system, which has recently been influenced by global trends in teacher education, in particular standards for the teaching profession; and in the second, England, where teacher education policy is used as a ‘technology’ (in the Foucauldian sense) to affect practices (Ball, 2015), in this case to enact professional standards. Both examples show how the scale of analysis can reveal significant and otherwise hidden trends.

Professional standards in China: global influence

The recent introduction of standards for the teaching profession in China reflects not just the influence of global trends, but also a significant shift from being a previously inward facing policy space to something more outward facing. This illustrates how viewing this as relative space helps to reveal trends in research which are both spatially and temporally significant.

Education policy in China from 1949 to 1965 was heavily influenced by approaches from the Soviet Union. During this period, the professional standards for teachers were politically oriented, aligned with the politics and ideology of the communist state. Since the reform and opening up of China in 1978, there has been a reversal in the professional development of Chinese teachers orientated away from a purely communist perspective. It was not until 2012

that professional standards for teachers in China were officially published, and these revealed a shift away from an inward-national approach to something more reflective of global trends and educational approaches that orientated outside of China. Over the past 10 years, there has been a considerable change in the space that teacher standards have occupied in the teaching landscape in China.

The changes in this policy landscape are reflective of patterns elsewhere. Since the mid-1980s, professionalization in teaching and teacher education has taken place in the United States (Darling-Hammond, 2009), Europe (Garm & Karlsen, 2004), Australia (Louden, 2000), and New Zealand (Locke, 2001). The emergence of teacher professionalization arose as a response to the shortcomings of traditional teacher education courses (Page, 2015). Moving to 'full' professional status was seen as part of an aspiring occupation's 'professional project' and this has been applied to the strategy of teachers in many countries (Whitty, 2000). A set of standards for professional practice is one of the main components in a teacher education model which seeks to promote education as a real career and to assure the preparation of future academic leaders. This global trend of how to professionalize teacher education has influenced the Chinese proposal to also develop professional standards for teachers (You, Conrad, & Hu, 2020).

A national professional standard for teachers had been absent until the Chinese *National Professional Standards for Teachers (trial implementation)* (NPST) were endorsed in 2012. The standards define the professional requirements for teachers at three levels: kindergarten, primary and secondary school (Carrington et al., 2015). The standards were built on four conceptual bases: student-orientation, teachers' ethics first, abilities as the most important,

and life-long learning and are grouped across three dimensions of teaching: professional code of ethics, professional knowledge, and professional skills (Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China, 2012). The shape and formation of these professional standards in China, and their similarity to those in other systems reveal the profound influence of international teacher education trends.

To a certain extent, the Chinese National Professional Standards for Teachers (trial implementation) reflect similar standards such as the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST) and the Teachers' Standards in England. The APST is made up of seven interconnecting standards which outline what a teacher should know and be able to do at four different career progressions of graduate, proficient, highly accomplished and lead (Carrington et al., 2015). These Australian standards are grouped across three domains of teaching: professional knowledge, professional practice and professional engagement (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership, 2011). The NPST are also grouped across three dimensions of teaching: professional code of ethics, professional knowledge, and professional skills, and the seven standards in APST, namely: know students and how they learn; know the content and how to teach it; plan for and implement effective teaching and learning; create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments; assess, provide feedback and report on student learning; engage in professional learning; engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community, are all covered under the dimension of professional knowledge and professional skills. Unlike APST, the dimension of 'personal and professional conduct' is highlighted in the English Teachers' Standards: 'teachers uphold public trust in the profession and maintain high standards of ethics and behaviour, within and outside school; teachers must have proper and professional regard for

the ethos, policies and practices of the school in which they teach, and maintain high standards in their attendance and punctuality; teachers must have an understanding of, and always act within, the statutory frameworks which set out their professional duties and responsibilities (Department for Education, 2011). The ‘professional code of ethics’ dimension in the NPST echoes the ‘personal and professional conduct’ dimension in the English Teachers’ Standards from four aspects: professional understanding and knowledge, attitudes and behaviours towards students, attitudes and behaviours towards education and teaching, and personal accomplishment and behaviour (Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China, 2012). NPST is no longer just a policy and direction guidance, but a significant shift in articulating a nationwide set of professional standards for all teachers in China. The similarity between the definitions of these standards with counterparts in Australia and England shows the pervasiveness of the global discourses around defining a good teacher and the mechanisms for accounting for such a judgement.

Recognising the influence of global, and in particular Western approaches to teacher education policy reveals a distinctive and significant shift in China’s teacher education policy discourses. The scaled nature of this shift is of particular interest. As an extremely large nation state, China has previously, and could continue to be, autonomous in its education system and how it prepares and rewards teachers. However, the pervasive influence of education as a global market place, with many Chinese students now looking internationally to continue their education, could be seen as having a profound impact on domestic policy. The significance of this trend is relative: in both time and space. For comparative research, understanding the shift this represents for China is key to understanding the trajectory of teacher education policy and trends and also how China’s “place” in the world is shifting.

Both factors are key in any attempt to compare Chinese teacher education with any other jurisdictions.

Professional standards in England – why relative space matters

Whilst the above example shows China within its relative space on the global stage, this further example taken from England illustrates how relative space can be seen across and between a single national state, in this case through looking at the different ways in which research is positioned in key documents that define Teacher Standards in England. England has an autonomous (national) education system from the other three devolved nations (Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales). The current version of the Teacher Standards was introduced in July 2011 by the Department for Education, replacing the previous 33 standards devised by a former government agency. New teachers need to show evidence they have met each of these standards in order to gain Qualified Teacher Status. This can be demonstrated through a variety of routes into teaching (post-graduate and undergraduate), and through employment-based or assessment only routes.

The establishment of Teacher Standards, a key policy technology (Ball, 2015) in the governance of teacher education, is just one way in which spatial patterns can be observed. Teacher education is beset with a variety of measures around accountability, accreditation and validation. The extent of these is such that Ling, concerning the Australian context, described it as a situation of “supercomplexity” (2017). Teacher educators have to navigate these various requirements, which may stem from different sources. For example, in Australia, there are national standards and state-based interpretations which operate alongside the university system of award assessment. In England, the Department for Education has

mandated content for teacher education (the Core Content Framework), as well as a list of statutory requirements around recruitment and programme parameters. The Teacher Standards, which have to be met for the award of Qualified Teacher Status, sit alongside a rigid and prescriptive inspection regime (though a government inspection agency, Ofsted). However, for university programmes, the programme award (e.g., the Post Graduate Certification of Education) belongs to the university and has to sit within their additional accountability structures. This dual accountability presents significant challenges, in particular around the ability of universities to control and oversee the assessment of their academic awards. The accountability is therefore site-specific and sets up the teacher education provider (in many cases a university) in tension between the competing emphasis in different frameworks.

Policies, and what they emphasise are valuable tools particularly in understanding relative space. For example, within the English education system, evidence-based approaches are highly valued. The initial teacher education market review cited its aim to be “to make well informed, evidence-based recommendations” which would support the policy priority of “evidence-based professional development and support” (DfE, 2021). The focus on evidence (and not research) is deliberate, as the policy intention is to focus teachers to what has been called a narrow and partial set of research findings orientated to knowledge-rich and direct instructional approaches (Claxton, 2021). As an illustrative example, the third section of the English Teacher Standards, which focuses on subject and curriculum knowledge, makes no explicit reference to research (see Table 2).

[insert Table 2 here]

Table 2 Extracts from the English Teacher Standards. Source: DfE, 2011

<p>3. Demonstrate good subject and curriculum knowledge</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• have a secure knowledge of the relevant subject(s) and curriculum areas, foster and maintain pupils' interest in the subject, and address misunderstandings• demonstrate a critical understanding of developments in the subject and curriculum areas, and promote the value of scholarship <p>5. Adapt teaching to respond to the strengths and needs of all pupils</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• have a secure understanding of how a range of factors can inhibit pupils' ability to learn, and how best to overcome these <p>8. Fulfil wider professional responsibilities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• develop effective professional relationships with colleagues, knowing how and when to draw on advice and specialist support

This contrasts with the university awarding oversight agency, the QAA's requirements for a Level 7 (postgraduate) award of which many university-based teacher education programmes (the Post Graduate Certificate of Education) are required to adhere to, which places a much stronger emphasis on research (see Table 3).

[insert Table 3 here]

Table 3 Extract from QAA Level 7 Qualifications (Source QAA, 2014, p. 31)

Master's degrees are awarded to students who have demonstrated:

- a systematic understanding of knowledge, and a critical awareness of current problems and/or new insights, much of which is at, or informed by, the forefront of their academic discipline, field of study or area of professional practice
- a comprehensive understanding of techniques applicable to their own research or advanced scholarship
- originality in the application of knowledge, together with a practical understanding of how established techniques of research and enquiry are used to create and interpret knowledge in the discipline
- conceptual understanding that enables the student: - to evaluate critically current research and advanced scholarship in the discipline - to evaluate methodologies and develop critiques of them and, where appropriate, to propose new hypotheses.

4.17.1 Much of the study undertaken for master's degrees is at, or informed by, the forefront of an academic or professional discipline. Successful students show originality in the application of knowledge, and they understand how the boundaries of knowledge are advanced through research. They are able to deal with complex issues both systematically and creatively, and they show originality in tackling and solving problems. They have the

qualities needed for employment in circumstances requiring sound judgement, personal responsibility and initiative in complex and unpredictable professional environments

Additionally, in England, teacher education is also influenced by the Ofsted inspection framework which sets out the criteria for inspection for initial teacher education providers. Here, research is positioned differently again. According to the Ofsted framework for inspection for Initial Teacher Education (ITE), for a provider to be graded as Good, they must demonstrate the features outlined in Table 4.

[insert Table 4 here]

Table 4 Extract from the Ofsted ITE Inspection Framework (Source: Ofsted, 2021, p.39)

Informed by up-to-date or pertinent research

- The ITE curriculum is designed to ensure that trainees engage with up-to-date or pertinent research findings, for example the research informing the ITT core content framework (for primary and secondary phase trainees).
- The curriculum ensures that trainees are taught how to apply principles from scholarship relevant to their subject and phase when making professional decisions. Trainees learn how to assess the appropriateness and value of new approaches that they might encounter in future by: considering the validity and

reliability of any research on which the approach depends; considering its context in existing community debates (for example, subject, phase, SEND, psychology); and relating it to their professional experience.

- Trainees know about up-to-date research for promoting inclusion and teaching pupils with SEND, and those who speak EAL. They are able to apply this knowledge in their subject and phase.

Classroom practice

- The ITE curriculum introduces trainees to up-to-date research on effective classroom practice. This includes research on how to present subject matter clearly and explicitly, promoting appropriate discussion, reflection and questioning, and on how to use relevant pedagogy to enable effective teaching of the subject/specialist area. Trainees are taught how to plan and resource lesson sequences within their specialist subject(s) in their phase, and to understand how sequences fit into and serve wider goals for that subject.

The positioning of the new teacher (or trainee) concerning research is key here: according to the English Teacher Standards the new teacher is not required to understand research, or to be able to discern quality in research reports, but is positioned as a recipient or consumer of research that has been curated by others and presented to them by their teacher education

provider. This lies in contrast with the more “researcher” orientation outlined in the qualifications criteria. One reason for this difference may be that it is not compulsory to undertake a Level 7 course to qualify as a teacher (a graduate or Level 6 qualification is sufficient). However, a provider of a Level 6 course still needs to ensure that they meet the research criteria laid down by Ofsted, which promotes a “research as content” approach to teacher education pedagogy.

A spatial analysis, particularly emphasising relative space indicates how the relative positioning of these document reveals their “power” within the education system as policy technologies design to elicit change in practices. The policies situate expertise within teacher education as “outside” of the practice of the new teacher or the teacher educator, and are located elsewhere in the education system (under the direct control of central government). For example, the evidence to which teachers should be inducted is located outside of the teacher’s remit or personal interest but clearly stated through officially sanctioned sources curated for the teacher (and approved by the Education Endowment Foundation, a government-funded body), and articulated in the government’s document the Core Content Framework (CCF). In the CCF “expertise” is expressed as located with school-based colleagues and mentors, situated firmly in the classroom with more experienced practitioners, than with “outside” sources such as those from the university or research community. This construction: evidence from a curated source and expertise orientated to the classroom marginalises university-based teacher educators, and with it access to the rich research base excluded from the curated sources. This selection of “included” evidence and “excluded” research is not an unintended consequence. A previous Secretary of State for Education described university-based educators as the “enemies of promise” and saw them as

deliberately sabotaging government efforts to change teacher education (for a full debate see Claxton 2021). Spatial analysis, and the identification of relative space reveals the Janus-faced nature of this policy initiative – looking out to evidence curated elsewhere, and inwards to the classroom-based expertise. In relative terms, this positioning is part of a practice-turn in teacher education internationally, where the focus on research is underplayed against a focus on research as knowledge rather than as a form of teacher education pedagogy. The verb constructions of these accounts situate the relationship between the teacher and the research as a passive one; where the teacher “draws on”, is “informed by” and can “demonstrate” their knowledge of research. The idea of a teacher as a researcher or as a critical consumer of research is absent.

As this brief analysis shows adopting a spatial perspective, which draws upon relative space can reveal the scaled nature of influences on key policy technologies: both in the adoption and definition of standards but also their representational nature: where they locate power and influence. Within these constructions, there are complex influences related to the location of the activity (and how policies define and “solve” problems related to that location), and how they represent notions of the good teacher within those locations. These expressions are shot through with expressions of power and influence, a theme which is taken up in the next section. They also illustrate how recognising relative space is central for comparative research in teacher education, as it enables the researcher to understand the phenomena in relation to its context, and in particular how it is situated within time, space and the influence it is afforded.

Representational Space: the visibility of rural teachers in Chilean education policy

As outlined in the introduction, teacher education is fundamentally a spatial practice, operating in different physical locations under the supervision of various organisations who are working in partnership. To understand initial teacher education in a specific location requires examining the complexity of those specific locations, the way they interact with each other and the implied and actual hierarchies involved, and the different degrees of importance and meaning they attach to the practice-based activity of initial teacher education. Integral to this analysis is the issue of representation: who is being represented and how? Spatial theory recognises that this representation can be spatially defined, and in doing so, holds power. This phenomenon can be seen in the way in which teacher education policy has been formulated in Chile, in particular in relation to rural and urban contexts.

In South America, the idea of power relations and space, outlined here as representational space, is often explored through the concept of territory (Haesbaert, 2020; Haesbaert, 2021; Santos, 2000). Territory, as a spatial category, encompasses how spatial relations are mediated by power relations and how spaces are produced as part of situated social relations. This is evident in Chile through the ways in which policies towards teacher education are constructed, implemented and experienced.

Table 5 shows the criteria for teacher education programmes assessment in Chile. It involves an extensive process by which programmes are examined regularly. These are requirements that programmes have to comply with to be accredited as a provider in the

country, ranging from graduation profiles to issues of internal governance and self-conduct. In an effort to improve quality in a rather deregulated teacher education market across the country, government bodies have created measures to raise the standards to the expense of tailored experiences specific to particular territories.

[Insert Table 5]

Criteria and standards for teacher education programmes in Chile. Adapted and translated from Centro de Perfeccionamiento, Experimentación e Investigaciones Pedagógicas (2021)

Domain A. Teaching and learning preparation

Standard 1: Pupils' learning and development

Standard 2: Disciplinary, didactic and school curriculum knowledge

Standard 3: Lesson planning

Standard 4: Assessment planning

Domain B. Learning environment

Standard 5: Organised and respectful environment

Standard 6: Personal and social development

Domain C. Teaching for all

Standard 7: Teaching strategies for deep learning

Standard 8: Teaching strategies for thinking skills

Standard 9: Assessment and feedback

Domain D. Professional responsibilities

Standard 10: Professional ethics

Standard 11: Professional development

Standard 12: Commitment with the school community's improvement

Initial teacher education for primary and secondary teachers in Chile is diverse. Even though it follows a similar 5-year training structure provided by universities across the country, there are differences concerning the emphasis that a specific programme might have on subject knowledge or teaching methods. According to Dentice and Garrido (2013), standardisation in Chile involves centralisation policies developed in the capital city, but that neglect the reality of regions outside the capital. As the policy seeks to standardise teacher education it reveals underlying power hierarchies in the education system.

Teaching standards in Chile homogenises practice of primary and secondary teachers in one single framework for the entire country. These standards inform and influence both

teacher education programmes and teachers' curriculum making practices in Chile as a framework for practice, and defining them as a set of propositions around knowledge and skills. However, this definition fails to recognise the extent to which teachers are influenced by individual school contexts, or through teaching in predominantly rural regions. For example, if it is recognised that schools are made up by multiple teachers' school-based practices, then individual teachers' practices can be seen as territories that are created in interactions with other people and are part of teachers' processes of professional learning. This is particularly the case for teachers who work in rural communities who are often deeply embedded in those communities.

In the case of Chile, the centralised location of power is characterised as urbanised and in great contrast with the experience of teachers in rural areas (which make up the majority of the country). Recent research on rural teachers in Chile (Salinas Silva, and Brooks, 2018; Arenas-Martija, and Ramirez, 2017) indicates that the relationship between space and teachers is much more prominent and entangled with their lived experiences, particularly for teachers in rural contexts. For these teachers, their understanding of their local spaces appears to be actively influencing the way they learn about their professional practice both within and beyond the classroom. In this context, the territory of teachers (or how they represent power within space) can be seen as an agentic process which is manifest in how they actively build a learning environment, connect with people in different places and make the school a space with a particular meaning for pupils. In doing so, teachers' territories appear to be informed by a combination of subject and practical knowledge specifically tailored to the school context in which teachers are situated. This lies in contrast to how the education policy is expressed which is focussed on standardisation rather than supporting regional variation.

These variances in the representational space highlights three specific spatial problems found in the relevant education policies in Chile:

Schools are understood as standard all across the country. There is little consensus on the influence of the school context besides the notions that it is locally specific and driven by teachers' individual practical knowledge (Edwards, 2010). Cognitive studies of teacher expertise (Wilson, Shulman, and Richert, 1987) have framed the understanding of context as the final stage in the process of professional growth. However, the professional problem for teacher education here is how the application of this knowledge can be adapted to their specific school context. Whilst research recognises the importance of teachers' subject expertise (Mitchell & Lambert, 2015), there is a need to reflect on the role of teachers' expertise in society (Young & Lambert, 2015). International changes in school systems have framed this discussion, prompting further inquiry into the infrastructure that supports and influences the work of teachers in various contexts (Arenas-Martija, Fernández & Pérez, 2016; Brooks, 2016).

Teacher knowledge is conceived as “space-less”. Spatial practices can be subject to its own forms of knowledge specialisation. According to Pumain and Saint-Julien (2014, p. 70) spatial specialisation defines ‘a state and a process of geographical differentiation’. This has been commonly studied by regional and economic geography to establish the optimal location of activities and the aptitude of a region to host specialised functions (Faulconbridge, 2006). Urban geography developed a similar interest in this issue during the twentieth century to characterise the relationship across different city districts from peripheral areas to the

centre considering transportation issues and the function of different neighbourhoods. These studies contributed to the understanding that specialisation can develop “naturally” but can also be induced by planning or other influences (Pumain & Saint-Julien, 2014, p. 72). The processes of spatial specialisation are not homogeneous and can have different routes which suggests that teachers’ practices that digress from its standard form are not outliers but rather expected derivations from a wider school system with different degrees of power and control along its networks. This representation is absent from the national policy context.

Neglecting the significance of spatial networks for teachers. Teachers’ school-based territories are networked spaces. Seeing these spaces as involving inter-relationships (as is the case with networks) means they can be seen as a form what Massey (1991) calls a ‘power geometry’. In this understanding, power relations can shift towards teachers within an education or school system. In other words, teachers’ work can occupy space in a way which is fluent and can transcend the notions of authority that are normally reflected in educational structures. This can be observed when one sees their work as networked and connected to particular places. Massey’s approach conceives local interactions as ‘constructed on a far wider scale than what we happen to define for that moment as the place itself... [Places] can thus be imagined as articulated moments in networks of social relations and understandings’ (Massey, 1991, p. 28). This means that even the most local practices of teachers are interconnected. Therefore, the territoriality of teachers’ expertise is not defined by proximity but by the similarity of experiences: in other words, remote schools may share more experiences with each other than they do with their closest (urban) neighbours.

The key argument here is that the centralisation of education policy to a homogenised view of education provision neglects these important networks which are a key feature of education in rural parts of Chile. In particular, the provision of networks that link these rural communities are key sites where teachers feel represented and where their presence (and power) is acknowledged. These networks are then central to how they feel and are represented through their work.

Networks are specific spatial relations that have been understood as ‘a set of geographic locations interconnected in a system by a number of routes’ (Haggett and Chorley, 1969, p. 5), but they also have strong representational (and therefore power-related) expressions. In education, they can be understood as formal arrangements of public and private organisations and agencies, that according to Ehren et al (2017) have been constituted to facilitate collective action. Teacher practice in Chile also includes informal networks. Even though teacher education plays a part in disseminating conventional practices, part of the knowledge informing teachers’ expertise circulates among these networks as a commodity and within each ‘knowledge transfer’ changes or adapts to a local context (Faulconbridge, 2006). Adopting a spatial perspective that emphasises this representational dimension enables these otherwise hidden complexities of the system to come to the fore, ripe then for comparative analysis.

In addition, these elements can also be seen as relative and scaled. Literature on leadership has emphasised the role of networks and support (Hargreaves and Ainscow, 2015), but as its focus is on the role of headteachers and the understanding of schools as organisations it tends to neglect the negotiations that teachers do as part of their everyday routines and the ways in

which this becomes a constitutive part of teacher education and development. Recognising this spatial component of these networks raises the possibility of overlapping territorialities. Teachers with similar processes of specialisation, may share a common understanding of what constitutes teachers' practice, particularly if they are spatially situated. This is important not only for the education and development of those teachers but also in the opportunities it affords for rural communities to take control of the education they offer their communities, and is central to understanding teacher education in these regions.

Lived space: recognising the lived experiences of Brazilian (pre-service) teachers

Lefebvre's asserted that "every living body is a living space and has its space". A key benefit of adopting a spatial approach is the recognition that the body is itself an important space (Schatzki et al., 2005). For teaching and teacher education this is an important observation, as teachers literally embody the act of teaching. Comparative research in teacher education then needs to understand how bodies (de)colonize the knowledge space that impacts the future teacher. As our example of how efforts to decolonize teacher education and to encourage more black and indigenous students to become teachers from Brazil reveals, it is too easy for the lived experience to be hidden from view and this can create significant barriers to their success.

The history of teacher professionalization in Brazil is intertwined with the history of its urbanization. Educational institutes were built in large and medium-sized cities in the 20th century. The training of teachers was based on normal schools, strongly related to science or universities, which aligned with the change in culture and customs of the young Republic.

In 1988, after more than two decades of military dictatorship, the Federal Constitution granted that education was a citizen's right and a duty of the State (Saviani, 2013). The Law of Directives and Bases 9.394/96, arising from the chapters of the Constitution, regulated for teacher education to be based on higher education. However, even since the enactment of this law in 1996, the debate on the teacher professionalization model continues to be politically divisive (Reis et.al., 2020).

Currently, teacher education takes place in two models: 1) in a 4-year technical high school (called educational institutes or Normal Schools) students are trained to be teachers in the early years who can work with children from 0 to 10 years old, 2) at the university, there are undergraduate courses that train teachers who work in the early years and in specific subjects, such as Geography, who work with teenagers, aged 11 to 14, with secondary education and with Adult Education. Every teacher graduated from higher education is qualified to act in the management of the school.

Since 2019, with the approval of the Resolution of the National Council of Education, undergraduate courses have been undergoing curricular reform. According to the last of this decree, the courses for both primary and secondary school teachers will have a minimum workload of 3,200 hours and will be organized in 3 axes:

1. 800 hours dedicated to the science of education;
2. 1,600 hours dedicated to studying the specific contents of the course and complying with the national curriculum policy called the Common National Curriculum Base approved in 2018 and

3. 800 hours of pedagogical practice divided into 2 groups, a) 400 hours dedicated to supervised internship, in a real work situation at school and b) practices applied to the curricular components of the first axis.

In recent years, critics of these educational reforms have announced at least two possible impacts on teachers: i) the lack of teacher motivation for advancement and ii) the intensification of teacher evaluation. The current reform runs counter to the freedom that institutions have enjoyed building curricula for initial and continuing teacher education. Oliveira (2020) has noted that the flexibility of teacher education models deepens the precarious conditions of education workers. Whilst these are valuable critiques, they focus on the systematic impact of these policies and neglect to consider how these reforms will impact on the very people, or bodies, that are the subject of these policies, those learning to teach. Adopting a spatial perspective, which acknowledges the lived space, brings this to the fore.

The regulation of the teacher education curriculum does not deal with the significant issue of the social conditions of those that want to become teachers. Most students enrolled in these courses experience socioeconomic vulnerability: even though federal universities and institutes are exclusively maintained by the government and offer free degree courses, there is still a significant issue about the interdependence of student food security, which can influence, for example, higher education dropout rates. In Brazil, there is a strong need to secure a student assistance policy particularly for working class students to ensure a strong supply of future teachers from these communities. Understanding the impact of food security of future teachers is however, just one element of understanding their lived space and experiences.

Living in what can be referred to as “the periphery” (outlying urban areas adjacent to the city) is a continuous process of resistance and one that recognises the need to signify education as a process for surviving, drawing on the idea of a survival curriculum into the debate on teacher education (Lambert, 2013). Lambert warned that education needs to respond to the demand of the times of economic and environmental crisis. This has become even more prominent by the tragedies resulting from the coronavirus pandemic. David Lambert’s metaphor of the “survival curriculum” highlights the significance of the body, and the territory within teacher education, and is echoed in discussions stemming from the Black Lives Matter movement, and the need to decolonize education.

The concept of survival is reflected in Brazilian Indigenous ideas as illustrated here by Ailton Krenak (2020) a Brazilian Indigenous Activist:

If we survive, we will fight over the pieces of a planet that we did not eat, and our grandchildren or great-grandchildren - or the grandchildren of our great-great-grandchildren - will be able to walk around to see what Earth was like in the past.

This theme is also evident in the movements of Latin American indigenous women who have in particular drawn attention to the material and immaterial dimension of space-time when exploring strategies of survival for children and young people in urban peripheries of Rio de Janeiro, for instance. There are recent studies about the territorial growth of the militia in the city of Rio de Janeiro, for example, almost 57% of the city is now under the control of violent and military groups.

Recognizing the importance of the body as a site of practice, and part of the lived space is a key feature of spatial thinking. Haesbaert (2021) highlights how the body has been an object of study through different schools of geographic thought, particularly in the 1990s, with the growth of gender studies. More recently, the relationship between body and territory has been widely defended in Latin American Activisms especially, ecofeminism and indigenous women's activism, which seek to draw relationships between bodies (as individuals and collectives) with the territories in which policies are enacted. These have become dominant themes in spatial analysis of the Global South in the last decade. Moreover, in different indigenous cultures, the body is an important aspect in shaping cosmologies (Krenak, 2020).

The body-territory and lived space then becomes an important site of decolonized and activist knowledge generation, which offers invaluable perspectives on attempts to decolonize teacher education and to make it attractive for diverse and under-represented groups. Adopting this approach means moving the body as central to our analysis of teacher education and seeing it as the lived space that is situated within, in this case, the peripheral area of large Latin American metropolises, such as Rio de Janeiro, and the bio/necropolitics which governs that area.

The use of necropolitics here is deliberate. At the time of writing, it would be remiss not to acknowledge the serious impact of deaths in this region, particularly during the Covid-19 pandemic. Teachers who work in this area are highly sensitized to the seriousness of these deaths, and the suffering communities which are also often silenced by a complex of related militia and drug trafficking activities. If school life returns at some point in the future, then

schools will need to address the sacrifices of many workers during this period and put at the center that all violence is heir to this colonial wound. A key question is how do we prepare new teachers to work in such a complex and traumatized community?

One approach has been to explore and strengthen possible resistances to death policies (necropolitics, in the terms of Mbembe, 2006). It is significant that the key professions such as teachers and caregivers are mainly occupied by women. Valverde argues that the emergence of neoliberal policies of accountability violates these bodies due to precariousness (2015, p.22). In effect, these bodies are perceived as the least able to resist. All of these dimensions make up key aspects of the lived space.

Recognizing body-territory can then be a useful analytical tool for teacher education, as it recognises the experience of the individuals within their spatial context. According to Massey: 'If space is indeed the product of interrelations, then it must be predicated upon the existence of plurality. Multiplicity and space are co-constitutive' (1999, p. 28). Space is a condition to think about the multiplicity of the world through the combination of multiple trajectories. The violence in Brazil raises questions about how we live in space (with few who are privileged to have home conditions where they can take refuge, a condition exacerbated and even more evident in the pandemic), and how the conditions around us, such as accountability policies, and atomized curricular plans can incarcerate individuals instead of providing the promised emancipation. The implications for teachers are huge, as can be seen in the following analysis of the Student Assistant Policy.

In 2010, a Decree (PNAES, DECREE NO. 7.234/2010) created by President Luís Inácio Lula da Silva defines that one of the targets of the newly introduced Student Assistance

Policy is: “i – to minimize the effects of social and regional inequalities in the permanence and conclusion of higher education”. In this sense, in Brazil, The National Student Assistance Plan (PNAES) may be identified as a policy which supports the enrolment of low-income students into face-to-face undergraduate courses at public higher education institutions, and has particular relevance for teacher education.

The aim of PNAES is to enable equal opportunities among all students and contribute to the improvement of academic performance, based on measures that seek to combat situations of students failing and dropout. PNAES aids student housing, food, transportation, health, digital inclusion, culture, sports, day care and educational support. The actions of the plan are carried out by the educational institution itself, which must monitor and evaluate the development of the program.

The selection criteria for students who are eligible for this support is based on their socioeconomic profile but can also include criteria established relative to each institution. The students who are eligible for support under this policy are often the ones that have their bodies most at risk, such as trans-sexual students, or those that live in areas of conflict or have been victims of extreme violence. These students also often live in key areas or territories, for example. The urban segregation and regional inequality are key spatial issues which can affect access to university.

A significant factor here is that teacher education undergraduate courses are especially attractive to students from vulnerable socio-economic backgrounds, and so programmes need to understand the basic needs of these students. This must be seen as part of a body of work

which recognizes and has contributed to the democratization process of Higher Education in Brazil and affirmative actions of the last 20 years.

Despite these policies aimed at supporting vulnerable students, who will become future teachers, the policy does not fully address the realities of their lived space.

Living on the edge means, first of all, being endowed with mobility, because the frontier limit, in this case, is not only established to control, contain, detain, but also (and sometimes above all) to be transposed, circumvented, transgressed, finally “enjoyed”, since, in some way, it can often become the very central locus of our life and, by proposing differences, more directly incites us to face and/or share them. (Haesbaert, 2020, p. xx)

This would seem to suggest then that to be successful in mobilizing oneself beyond the periphery, requires new teachers to fully engage with what the periphery means for them and for the territory, or their community. They need to become self-reflective about their own bodies and territories, and the social impact of those.

Inspired by Mbembe (2014), it is possible to imagine that a resistant educational establishment would be one that insists on a decolonization purpose, that circumvents normalizing territorialities, and refuses to impose a disciplining curriculum for the control of bodies. However, the reality of the necropolitics is that schools and universities have found that they need to adopt a “survival” curriculum that is determined in relation to the future. The experience of Brazil highlights that decolonization is not enough: self-decolonization would still be necessary. A survival curriculum based on lived space requires inventing teacher education as a meeting place for several vulnerable individuals and teachers of self-

decolonization, and to provide opportunities to question the colonizing processes of knowledge.

This approach challenges us to decolonize our view of education, as well as teacher education, and highlights the importance of encouraging black and indigenous people into the university to become teachers. It also implies that the new teacher must make themselves a sensitive, biological, symbolic body who is able to both be both determined by and able to determine the territory (or territories) of where they live and work.

Although this example is set in Brazil, the lived space of many candidates for teacher education will have a huge impact on their experiences. Recognising this as a spatial phenomenon (and not just a social one) allows us to recognise that these experiences occur in space: where these students live, work and connect with their communities. As spaces they are also situated in wider networks and communities and regional and national spaces. Feeling part of the mainstream, or periphery has a real effect on this lived experience. Understanding this complexity is an important dimension for any comparative research.

Summary

This chapter has offered four examples of how adopting perspectives derived from spatial theories can offer rich and textured ways of understanding teacher education policies and practices, by drawing on four different cases, which operate at different scales, but also that focus on teacher education through a range of lenses. The aim has been to show the versatility of spatial theories, and their applicability for teacher education, but also to

demonstrate how adopting these approaches can significantly help to move beyond the flat notion of context, into the more textured and complex understanding of space.

- Examination of the definition of teacher professional standards in China, reveals how they have been influenced by global trends, or their position in relative space. Similarly, examining how those professional standards are reflected in different documentation in England, shows how the scale of analysis can illustrate which voices are silenced and which are privileged. Comparative research into teacher education needs to play close attention to the scale of study, what that reveals and how it relates to other scales.
- The case study of Chile reveals how policy formulated in the urban area can be interpreted and adapted in rural communities. Combined with the geographical concept of territory, this illustrates how teacher agency can be expressed relative to the local context and how it is represented in space. This case reveals how comparative teacher education research needs to consider how power, actors and places are represented in the system under study.
- Finally, looking at the experience of teacher education students in Brazil illustrates the disconnect between policy and the lived experience of those affected by that policy. Location within space and how it impacts on individuals is central here and a key message for comparative teacher education research that studies need to move beyond policy analysis and should consider the lived experience and how it privileges and silences certain bodies.

Teacher education occurs in space. Our argument has been that comparative research therefore needs to see that space as a key aspect of its analysis: revealing not just how phenomena works, but the (spatial) factors that affect how it works. The spatial triad explored in this chapter illustrates three ways that this can add conceptual depth. Individually they are powerful tools. Taken together, they illustrate the intriguing paradox of both the universal and the unique, moving beyond simplistic notions of context in their analysis.

References

- Adamson, B. (2012). International comparative studies in teaching and teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(5), 641-648. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2012.02.003
- Arenas Martija, A., Fernández, H., and Pérez, P. (Eds.). (2016). *Una Educación Geográfica para Chile*. Santiago: Sociedad Chilena de Ciencias Geográficas.
- Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership. (2011). Australian Professional Standards for Teachers. Retrieved from <https://www.aitsl.edu.au/docs/default-source/national-policy-framework/australian-professional-standards-for-teachers.pdf>
- Ball, S. J. (2015). What is policy? 21 years later: Reflections on the possibilities of policy research. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, 36(3), 306–313. doi: 10.1080/01596306.2015.1015279
- Beck, J. S. (2018). Investigating the Third Space: A New Agenda for Teacher Education Research. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 71(4), 379-391. doi:10.1177/0022487118787497
- Bourke, T., Ryan, M. E., & Lidstone, J. (2013). Reflexive professionalism: reclaiming the voice of authority in shaping the discourses of education policy. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(4), 398-413. doi:10.1080/1359866x.2013.838619
- Brasil (1996). Lei no. 9.394, de 20 de dezembro de 1996.
http://www.planalto.gov.br/ccivil_03/leis/l9394.htm

Brasil (2010). Programa Nacional de Assistência Estudantil – PNAES. Decreto Nº 7.234 De 19 De Julho De 2010. http://www.planalto.gov.br/ccivil_03/_ato2007-2010/2010/decreto/d7234.htm

Brock, C. (2016). *Geography of Education. Scale, Space and Location in the Study of Education*. London: Bloomsbury Academic.

Brooks, C. (2016). *Teacher Subject Identity in Professional Practice*. London: Routledge.

Caena, F. (2014). Teacher Competence Frameworks in Europe: policy-as-discourse and policy-as-practice. *European Journal of Education*, 49(3), 311-331. doi:10.1111/ejed.12088

Carrington, S., Sagers, B., Adie, L., Zhu, N., Gu, D., Hu, X., . . . Mu, G. M. (2015). International Representations of Inclusive Education: How is Inclusive Practice Reflected in the Professional Teaching Standards of China and Australia? *International Journal of Disability Development and Education*, 62(6), 556-570. doi:10.1080/1034912x.2015.1077933

Centro de Perfeccionamiento, Experimentación e Investigaciones Pedagógicas, (2021). Retrieved from: <https://estandaresdocentes.mineduc.cl/wp-content/uploads/2021/08/MBE-2.pdf>

Claxton, G. (2021). *The Future of Teaching and the myths that hold it back*. London: Routledge.

Cohen, D. (2020). A marketplace of schools: race, power, and education reform in the Detroit region. *Urban Geography*: 1-25.

Connell, R. (2009). Good teachers on dangerous ground: Towards a new view of teacher quality and professionalism. *Critical Studies in Education*, 50(3), 213-229.

doi:10.1080/17508480902998421

Darling-Hammond, L. (2008). Reshaping teaching policy, preparation, and practice: Influences of the national board for professional teaching standards. In (Vol. 11, pp. 25-53): Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2009). Teacher Education and the American Future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(1-2), 35-47. doi:10.1177/0022487109348024

Dentice, A., and Garrido, M. (2013). Espacios educativos: Medios de vinculación y dominio. *Revista Geográfica de Valparaíso*, (47), 53–66.

Department for Education. (2011). Teachers' Standards. Retrieved from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/665520/Teachers_Standards.pdf

Department for Education. (2021). Initial teacher training market review: overview. Retrieved from (<https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/initial-teacher-training-itt-market-review/initial-teacher-training-itt-market-review-overview>).

Dourish, P. (2004). What we talk about when we talk about context. *Personal and Ubiquitous Computing* 8(1): 19-30.

Edwards, A. (2010). *Being an Expert Professional Practitioner*. The Relational Turn in Expertise. London: Springer.

- Ehren, M., Janssens, F., Brown, M., McNamara, G., Hara, J., and Shevlin, P. (2017). Evaluation and decentralised governance: Examples of inspections in polycentric education systems. *J Educ Change*, (18), 365–383.
- Faulconbridge, J. R. (2006). Stretching tacit knowledge beyond a local fix? Global spaces of learning in advertising professional service firms. *Journal of Economic Geography*, 6(4), 517–540. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jeg/lbi023>
- Garm, N., & Karlsen, G. E. (2004). Teacher education reform in Europe: the case of Norway; trends and tensions in a global perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(7), 731-744. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2004.07.004>
- Haesbaert, R. (2020). Vivir en el límite: Territorio y multi/transterritorialidad en tiempos de in-seguridad y contención. Siglo XXI Editores México.
- Haesbaert, R. (2021). Território e descolonialidade: Sobre o giro (multi) territorial/de(s)colonial na América Latina. Buenos Aires: CLACSO.
- Hargreaves, A., and Ainscow, M. (2015). The top and bottom of leadership and change. *Phi Delta Kappa*, 97(3), 42–48.
- Harvey, D. (2004). *Space as a key word. Marx and Philosophy Conference*. Institute of Education, London.
- Henry, J. (2020). Beyond the school, beyond North America: New maps for the critical geographies of education. *Geoforum* 110: 183-185.

- Krenak, A. (2020). *A vida não é útil*. Cia das Letras, São Paulo.
- Lambert, D. (2013). Geography in school and a curriculum of survival. *Theory and Research in Education*, 11(1) 85–98. DOI: 10.1177/1477878512468385
- Lefebvre, H. (1991). *The production of space*. Oxford Blackwell.
- Ling, L. M. (2017). Australian teacher education: inside-out, outside-in, backwards and forwards? *European Journal of Teacher Education* 40(5): 561-571.
- Locke, T. (2001). Curriculum, assessment and the erosion of professionalism. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 36(1), 5-23.
- Louden, W. (2000). Standards for Standards: The Development of Australian Professional Standards for Teaching. *Australian Journal of Education*, 44(2), 118-134.
doi:10.1177/000494410004400203
- Massey, D. (1991). A global sense of place. In: *Marxism Today*, (38), 24–29.
- Massey, D. (1999). Philosophy and politics of spatiality: Some considerations. In: *D. Massey Power–Geometries and the Politics of Space–Time*. University of Heidelberg. 22-42.
- Mayer, D., Allard, A., Bates, R., Dixon, M., Doecke, B., Kline, J., . . . White, S. (2015). *Studying the effectiveness of teacher education*. Dordrecht: Springer
- Mbembe, Achille. (2006). *Necropolitique*. *Raisons politiques* n. 21.

Mbembe, Achille. (2014). *Sair da Grande Noite. Ensaio sobre a África descolonizada*. Edições Pedagogo.

Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. (2012). The national professional standards for teachers (trial implement). Retrieved from

http://www.moe.gov.cn/srcsite/A10/s6991/201209/t20120913_145603.html

Mitchell, D., and Lambert, D. (2015). Subject knowledge and teacher preparation in English secondary schools: The case of geography. *Teacher Development*, 19(3), 365–380.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/13664530.2015.1042024>

Ofsted, (2021). Initial teacher education inspection framework and handbook.

Retrieved from:

https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/895321/Initial_teacher_education_framework_and_handbook.pdf

Oliveira, Dalila Andrade (2020). Políticas itinerantes de educação e a reestruturação da profissão docente: o papel das cúpulas da OCDE e sua recepção no contexto brasileiro. In: *Currículo sem fronteiras*, 20(1), 85-107. <http://dx.doi.org/10.35786/1645-1384.v20.n1.6>

Page, T. M. (2015). Common pressures, same results? Recent reforms in professional standards and competences in teacher education for secondary teachers in England, France and Germany. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 41(2), 180-202.

doi:10.1080/02607476.2015.1011900

QAA (Quality Assurance Agency), 2014. UK Quality Code for Higher Education.

Retrieved from: <https://www.qaa.ac.uk/docs/qaa/quality-code/qualifications-frameworks.pdf>

Redford, M. (2021). "Educational research and schooling in rural Europe: an engagement with changing patterns of education, space and place." *Journal of Education for Teaching*: 1-2.

Reis, A.; André, M., L. Passos. (2020). Teachers training Policies in Brazil, after LDB 9.394/96. *Revista Formação Docente – Revista Brasileira de Pesquisa sobre Formação de Professores*, 12 (23): 33-52. <https://doi.org/10.31639/rbpf.v12i23.289> .

Sachs, J. (2003). Teacher Professional Standards: Controlling or developing teaching? *Teachers and teaching, theory and practice*, 9(2), 175-186. doi:10.1080/13540600309373

Santoro, N., Reid, J. A., Mayer, D., & Singh, M. (2012). Producing 'quality' teachers: the role of teacher professional standards. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(1), 1-3. doi:10.1080/1359866x.2012.644508

Salinas Silva, V., and Brooks, C. (2018). Expandiendo la noción de profesionalidad docente desde la educación geográfica. *Revista de Geografía Norte Grande*, (70), 85–108. <https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-34022018000200085>

Salinas-Silva, V., Arenas-Martija, A., and Ramirez, L. (2017). Getting Back to Basics: Is the Knowledge of School Geography Powerful in Chile? In C. Brooks, G. Butt, and M. Fargher (Eds.), *The power of geographical thinking* (pp. 181–198). London: Springer.

Santos, M. (2000). *Naturaleza del espacio. Técnica y tiempo, razón y emoción*. Barcelona: Ariel.

Saviani, D. (2013) Education in the 1988 Federal Constitution: advancements in the text and their neutralization in the context of the 25 years of effectiveness. *RBPAE*, 29(2):207-221.

Schatzki, T. R., et al. (2005). *The practice turn in contemporary theory*. Abingdon, Routledge.

Valverde, C. (2015). *De la necropolítica neoliberal a la empatía radical – violència discreta, cuerpos excluidos y repolitización*. Barcelona: Icaria.

West, H., et al. (2020). GeogEd: A new research group founded on the reciprocal relationship between geography education and the geographies of education. *Area*.

Whitty, G. (2000). Teacher professionalism in new times. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 26(2), 281-295. doi:10.1080/13674580000200121

Wilson, S. M., Shulman, L. S., and Richert, A. E. (1987). “150 different ways” of knowing: Representations of knowledge in teaching. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), *Exploring teachers' thinking* (pp. 104–124). London: Cassell.

You, Z., Conrad, C. F., & Hu, Y. (2020). The professionalisation of teaching and teacher education in China: a policy analysis of a nation-wide reform. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 1-18. doi:10.1080/03057925.2020.1850235

Young, M., and Lambert, D. (2015). *Knowledge and the Future School*. Curriculum and Social Justice. London: Bloomsbury.