Quality Educators: An International Study of Teacher Competences and Standards

Education International is the global union federation representing more than 30 million teachers, professors and education workers from pre-school to university in more than 170 countries and territories around the globe.

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FOREWORD

Education International is the largest federation of unions of education workers, representing 330 unions and more than 30 million teachers. Oxfam Novib is part of Oxfam International, one of the larger global development INGOs. Both are founding members of the Global Campaign for Education and the Global March against Child Labor and have supported many national-level civil society partners as well as global social movements.

Education International and Oxfam Novib have combined forces in the area of education, capitalizing on their experience in both formal and non-formal education to address urgent challenges. Together they provided emergency support to rebuild schools during the Balkan war in Kosovo and after the Tsunami in Sri Lanka and Atjeh. Now they are joining forces to address the urgent shortage of quality primary educators in Mali and Uganda through teacher education and professional development.

The ‘Quality Educators for All’ project was developed on three key principles:

- **The right to Quality Education for All children**
  A child without quality education is a child without a future. Governments need to invest in quality education for their own democratic and economic development. Every child in whatever educational setting has the fundamental right to quality education provided by quality teachers.

- **Quality Educators are key**
  Quality education requires investment in initial and in-service teacher education and professional development. No school is better than its teachers, but there is a huge shortage of qualified teachers available, especially in developing countries, while numbers of children and school enrolment are still increasing. Many quality teachers leave the profession due to low salaries, difficult working conditions and insufficient professional support. Both formal and non-formal teachers need to be trained with reference to nationally-agreed levels of competences.

- **Public responsibility**
  In part due to advocacy from civil society and trade unions, many governments accept responsibility for providing inclusive quality public services for all, especially education. The problems for developing countries in fulfilling this role are in part financial, but technical, policy-making and financial expertise are also crucial. Ministries of Education need to work with Ministries of Finance and Planning to align education sector plans with macro-policies and resource allocation. A strong advocacy role is needed to increase transparency in the use of resources and encourage governments (both North and South) to meet their financial commitments alongside multilateral institutions such as the UN system and the EU, the Fast Track Initiative, and international financial institutions such as World Bank and IMF.
Applying these three principles in practice, the “Quality Educators for All” project aims to increase the number of quality teachers by collaborating with a broad spectrum of stakeholders in each country – Ministries of Education, teacher unions, coalitions of education NGOs, training and quality assurance institutions, parent/school/community associations, the media, education donors, and private sector entities – who share the aim of assisting public authorities to meet their commitments of providing a quality education for every child.

This research paper was originally commissioned to provide a theoretical and practice-oriented framework about how competence profiles can guide quality in teacher education. It was also intended to inform us about international trends with respect to using competence profiles in the profession. The final result has done more than that: it has provided a rich harvest of evidence-based data and analysis, which can enrich the global dialogue about teachers and their competences by bringing more voices into the discussion.

This paper shows that, if used well, competence profiles can be a valuable instrument for teachers, their unions, various institutions and policymakers who seek to strengthen teacher education with respect to contemporary challenges and opportunities.

Finally, this study confirms our commitment to the goal of quality educators for all. To achieve the goal of all teachers – in formal and non-formal settings – teaching well requires aligning the competence profile, a training curriculum that addresses life-skills, pre- and in-service teacher training programmes, and professional development opportunities. Special attention needs to be paid to increasing women’s participation in the teaching profession and taking parents’ perspectives into account. These are indispensable to gender-transformative quality education for boys and girls, which is the basis of inclusive democracies.

Teacher education and professional development are the cornerstones of quality education. Whatever the education system, quality can only be achieved if teacher education and professional development are coherently organized across the life-course or career trajectory of teachers, and if they respond to evolving social values such as human rights, gender equity, economic justice, sustainable livelihoods and healthy lives.

As global actors, we must capitalize on the recent global successes in increasing enrolment – especially of girls – by ensuring that every child receives a quality education. Oxfam Novib and Education International are committed to and continue to invest in quality teachers to realize this goal.

Fred van Leeuwen, Secretary General Education International
Theo Bouma, Director International Department, Oxfam Novib
Sylvia Borren, Independent Chair of ‘Quality Educators for All’
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In 2010, Education International and Oxfam Novib set up the Quality Educators for All project (Quality-ED), a partnership together with national stakeholders to address the worldwide shortage and declining status of teachers and the poor quality of education. Beginning with pilot projects in Mali and Uganda, the partnership included Ministries of Education, trade unions, civil society organisations, and others.

Quality-ED’s starting point was to develop a competence profile (CP) for primary teachers defining the skills, knowledge and attitudes of ‘quality educators’. Although the concept of competence has a long history in education and training, there is no universal consensus on definitions. In general, the understanding of “competence” is, shifting however from a narrow focus on what a person can do towards a more holistic focus on the possession and development of a complex combination of integrated skills, knowledge, attitudes and values displayed in the context of job performance.

In line with governments worldwide, the Quality-ED project interprets “competence” not as trained behaviour but as critical thinking skills, reflective capabilities and a developmental process. International actors such as the OECD, UNESCO, the European Union and the Council of Europe have worked hard to define competences for citizens and learners that are considered necessary for living in the 21st century.

Our belief is that a comprehensive competence profile is the cornerstone for putting in place a comprehensive teacher education policy, provided – crucially – that the profile has a social consensus behind it, especially among teachers. This research investigates 1) whether there is convergence or divergence across countries about the competences of quality educators, 2) whether there is enough common ground to justify a generic CP as a starting point for developing CPs nationally, or 3) whether the evidence points to a good process for doing so in the absence of an international consensus.

Methods

The research presented in this paper consists of two parts: 1) desk research/literature review, and 2) eight in-depth case studies, two of which are Quality-ED’s pilot projects. The desk research presents a range of examples drawn from South Africa, New Zealand, Canada and the Council of Europe’s Pestalozzi Programme. These examples illustrate various endeavours to develop competence profiles for primary teachers and their implementation.

Given the limits of time and resources, the case study research is confined to eight countries who responded positively when asked about the existence and implementation of a
primary teacher competence profile at a national level. Although CSOs were approached as well as trade unions in collecting data, the input comes primarily from union members. To assure geographical balance, two countries were selected in each of four regions: Chile and Brazil in Latin America, India and Malaysia in Asia, and the Netherlands and Slovenia in Europe, in addition to the project pilot countries of Mali and Uganda in Africa.

Results

In all the countries, behaviourist ‘checklist’ approaches to competence standards are rejected in theory. The national examples suggest that the formulation of a common vision of desired competences should be an inclusive process with all stakeholders. Developing a framework of quality competences requires an analysis of the social, economic, and political context. It is also suggested that competence models work best when the competences are gradated to match different stages in a teacher’s career.

All case studies emphasize the importance of evaluation and implementation of competences, arguing that the competence standards on which evaluation is based should be in line with the standards used for teacher education and qualification. Virtually all of the respondents feel it is desirable to strive for the establishment of a generic CP, reflecting a widespread belief that quality educators share some core qualities no matter where they work.

This report shows that a CP ideally includes domain-specific knowledge, broader life-skills competences and cultural and socio-emotional competences, and should take into account both personal factors that affect teachers’ performance and the educational context. The majority view is that competences should be understood as a collective, system-wide effort. On this basis, a CP can be helpful as a framework for discussion about the quality of teachers and serve as parameters for the evaluation, empowerment and professional growth of primary teachers.

Although gender was not generally prioritized as a problem issue, it was recognized that teachers should be sensitive to power relations in the classroom and be able to embrace diversity in a positive way, ensuring a safe, protective and gender responsive school environment. The identification and implementation of competences is not a gender-neutral process but would need further research in order to draw any lessons.

The fundamental question in all the countries regarding in the development of CPs was who decides on what the CP should look like and what competences it should include. In general, it was felt that the CP should be fundamentally linked to the policy goals established for education and the public as well as professional perceptions of what constitutes good quality education.
Recommendations on developing a national CP

- CPs should be developed in cooperation with all involved stakeholders.
- Definitions of competences should be linked to a common understanding of what constitutes quality teaching, and firmly linked to teachers’ daily classroom practice.
- A CP can be helpful as a framework for discussion about the quality of teaching, and serve as a guideline for teachers’ evaluation, empowerment and professional growth, but only when:
  - Competence is defined holistically;
  - The CP includes domain-specific knowledge and broader life-skills as well as cultural and socio-emotional competence;
  - Teacher competence is approached as a collective, system-wide effort;
  - The CP is applied along the entire spectrum of teacher education.
- Implementation should be school-wide. Introduction of CPs should be part of the planning (time-frame, preparation, resourcing, workshops), making sure everybody understands the reform.
- Evaluation should be an essential part of the implementation of CPs, especially emphasizing follow-up in response to the findings.
- More research is urgently needed on the gender implications of selecting and implementing competences alongside the capacity of teachers to recognize and respond to power relations and diversity in the classroom.
- The role of CPs in quality assurance in NFE and enabling the transition of NFE teachers to the formal sector is also a gap in the evidence base.

Recommendations on developing an international CP

Almost all the stakeholders interviewed are in favour of an international CP for primary teachers, including generic competences that are shared across the profession. Indicators, however, are considered to be context-specific and thus should never be included in an international CP. Stakeholder responses in the six case study countries provide some initial suggestions on what a list of such common competences could include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject knowledge</td>
<td>in 5 out of 6 countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological/pedagogical/didactical tools</td>
<td>in 5 out of 6 countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cares about/loves/likes children</td>
<td>in 4 out of 6 countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention to different needs/background of students</td>
<td>in 5 out of 6 countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic/flexible/open-minded</td>
<td>in 5 out of 6 countries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stakeholders believe that such an international CP should be developed by all stakeholders. However, this raises organizational and logistical challenges at the international level. Therefore it is instead recommended to develop international guidelines for the development of national CPs, rather than to develop an international CP with fixed competences.
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Good teaching is probably the most critical part of a solid education. The critical importance of teaching in the delivery of quality education is acknowledged by educators, practitioners, ministers of education, teacher unions, and society at large. The ways teachers are recruited, trained and deployed across schools play a key role in learning outcomes and in reducing inequalities. A high quality teacher education is of critical importance for the quality and relevance of education at all levels, and to the high status of the teaching profession itself.

However, one of the main challenges affecting access to and quality of education is the quality and shortage of teachers worldwide. Although the number of children out of school has dropped by 33 million worldwide since 1999, in 2007 there are still at least 72 million children who are missing out on their right to education, and around 57% of them are girls. This means that in the next five years much investment in education in developing countries is needed to train the 1.9 million new teachers that are required to reach the millennium goal of Universal Primary Education (UPE).

A total of 10.3 million additional teachers will be needed worldwide by 2015, if the 1.9 million new teachers required to achieve universal primary education are added to the 8.4 million needed to replace the departing teachers. Sub-Saharan Africa alone will need another 1.2 million teachers in the classroom by 2015 to reach the EFA objective.

The problem is not just low teacher numbers, but also poor teacher morale and insufficient training. All over the world, enrolment expansion at primary and secondary levels has taken place or is taking place by recruiting large numbers of partially trained or even untrained teachers. Many teachers are forced to take on extra jobs to supplement their salaries. Many trained teachers leave the profession because of low salaries and unfavourable conditions, such as large class size, lack of housing and even food security, and lack of safety in schools, especially for women teachers. Developed countries are facing a similar problem of having to recruit, train and retrain large numbers of teachers after the existing ones retire. The worldwide declining status of teachers (partly because of cut-backs in salary) is also putting increased pressure on the profession, making it even more difficult to attract new teachers.

As a response to these challenges, Education International and Oxfam Novib set up a partnership with local stakeholders in the selected countries, such as Ministries of Education, trade unions and civil society organisations, to develop the Quality Educators for All project (Quality-ED). The relationships at country level are designed to address the demand for more quality educators in primary schools.
Quality-ED began through feasibility studies and bringing different stakeholders together. In 2010, two pilots began in Mali and Uganda. The first step has been to define the knowledge, skills and attitudes of a ‘quality educator’ by developing the competence profile of primary teachers. This was used as an opportunity to integrate life skills education and pedagogical innovations into teacher education, which are often, though not always, more developed in the non-formal education sector. Competence profiles can inform future modalities of initial and in-service training, guide the revision of the teacher training curriculum, align the monitoring of teacher performance with competences and enable the ongoing professional development and motivation of all teachers. A competence profile could also pave the way for the unification of different classifications of teachers with respect to one, agreed-upon standard of qualification. Quality-ED focuses on primary education.

Founded on the right of every child to quality education, the Quality-ED project addresses teachers and students in both formal and non-formal education. Research confirms the relationship between teacher qualification and learning outcomes. Ultimately, the project aims to assist public authorities in meeting their responsibility of providing good quality public education for all. The bridges constructed between formal and non-formal education will contribute to greater equity amongst different educational systems and a process of cross-fertilization amongst them.

The project applies a comprehensive approach towards supporting teachers to deliver quality education but it also responds to specificities in each context. In Uganda, the emphasis is on a better distribution of existing teachers towards hard-to-reach areas and retention of teachers, especially female teachers – particularly in northern Uganda, a post-conflict area. In rural Mali, the main priority is to increase the number of teachers nationally, starting with an expansion of trainers of trainers. There is also a great need in Mali to align the professional status of teachers with respect to one common quality framework. In chapter 6 of this report, the pilot studies in Uganda and Mali are presented in greater detail.

EI and ON believe that a competence profile for primary teachers is fundamental to putting in place a comprehensive teacher education policy, but only if the profile has a social consensus behind it – especially amongst teachers themselves. The rapid recruitment of non-formal teachers receiving partial training has created an urgent need to identify pathways for different kinds of teachers to achieve formal qualification and certification. Preliminary stocktaking amongst trade unions indicates that there are relatively few competence profiles in use amongst developing countries that guide efforts at teacher education. For this reason, international actors have added their voice to the multitude of stakeholders who believe that an explicit profile of a quality educator should serve as a common frame of reference. Such a profile highlights teaching practices and learning
results as a measurement of quality in the profession while also taking into account inputs such as academic level education.

With competence profiles serving as the cornerstone of the pilots in Mali and Uganda, the Quality-ED project group decided to learn more about these profiles to create a frame of reference for the project, conceptually and in terms of practice. This report reviews the development and implementation of competence profiles in a number of countries in order to identify their main features and common elements. It assesses the process by which competence profiles were formulated and the impact they have had on daily teaching practice. This is set against a background of a thorough literature review of the concept of teachers’ competences and competence-based teacher education, how it evolved, and related current policies. The aim is to arrive at a set of recommendations for national policy makers and international Civil Society Organisations including Trade Unions when developing competence profiles, or reviewing existing ones, with the objective of delivering quality education for every child.

Goals

The goals of the research can be described as follows:

1. To provide an overview of the available literature on teachers’ competence profiles in education worldwide, focusing on primary education;
2. To consult teachers’ unions worldwide on the availability of teachers’ competence profiles, and to assess and evaluate the implementation of the existing teachers’ competence profiles in the current policies, and the role of the unions and CSOs in this;
3. To collect from a sample of countries per region the existing examples of competence profiles of primary teachers worldwide and to assess their relative strengths and weaknesses;
4. To analyze the evidence gathered from these various sources and propose recommendations, including technical advice, on whether there is a need to develop a generic competence profile or guidelines on the development of competence profiles.

Main research questions

From the above context and goals, four main questions follow:

1. What can we learn from the literature about the theory, history and policy around competence thinking in teacher education and practice?
2. What competences for primary teachers have been developed in the country case studies? And how were these developed?
3. How are competence profiles being implemented in a selected number of countries?
4. Is it desirable to develop an international competence framework for teachers?
**Methodology**

In order to reflect various contexts and approaches worldwide towards competence profiles, an international comparative design was chosen for the research. The research consists of two parts: 1) desk research, and 2) several national in-depth case studies and pilot studies. These studies inform different sections of the report: chapters 1 and 2 are based on the desk research, and chapters 3 until 6 are the result of the field research. The desk research in chapter 2 presents a range of relevant examples drawn from South Africa, New Zealand, Canada as well as the Pestalozzi Programme of the Council of Europe. These examples were chosen to illustrate various endeavours to develop competence profiles for primary teachers and their implementation.

The research combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative aspect entailed systematically collecting and analyzing the available published secondary data at global level. The consultations with teachers’ unions gathered maximum responses to a limited number of questions. However, the study is also qualitative through the collection of in-depth feedback from a selection of countries in different regions in which unions are the main source.

Although there was a division of work between the two researchers, one focusing on the desk study and the other on case/pilot studies, they have coordinated their work throughout the research and exchanged their thoughts and findings on an ongoing basis. The conclusions of the research are the result of their joint work and reflection.

**The sampling of the case study and pilot countries**

Given the limits of time and resources, the case study research is confined to eight countries from four regions of the world: Europe, the Americas, Africa and Asia. On the basis of a consultation among all member organisations of Education International, a number of countries were selected for an in-depth study. The selection represents countries who responded positively when asked about the existence and implementation of a primary teacher competence profile at a national level. These case studies concretely illustrate competence profiles of primary teachers worldwide. In order to assure a balanced geographical participation, two countries were selected in each region, i.e. Chile and Brazil in Latin America, India and Malaysia in Asia, and the Netherlands and Slovenia in Europe.

In Africa, the study is based on research taking place in the context of the Quality Educators for All pilot projects in Mali and Uganda. In these pilot countries, the formulation of a competence profile has taken place in a broad-based, participatory, bottom-up process. They represent a consensus among key actors involved in education, including but not confined to Ministry of Education, Teacher unions and civil society organisations. These
actors all share the view that competence-based teacher education within initial and in–service training is one of the most critical levers of change to increase the number of qualified teachers and, indirectly, the quality of education.

Data collection
The desk research consists of a literature review of secondary data on competence thinking and practice in teacher education. Secondary sources include academic and non-academic literature, such as research reports and policy documents. E-mail and semi-structured phone interviews were also held with international stakeholders and experts in the field of quality education and teachers’ competence profiles.

In addition, a number of regionally representative in-depth case studies about the features of national competence profiles for quality primary teachers and implementation practices were conducted. Information for the case studies was gathered by means of a questionnaire (see Annex 1), phone and e-mail interviews and semi-structured face-to-face (group) interviews with representatives of teachers’ unions of the six country case studies selected, as well as NGOs/CSOs, academics, teachers, teacher trainers and policymakers (MoEs). See Annex 2 for a list of the institutions interviewed. These stakeholders all work within formal education settings.

In Mali and Uganda, the Quality-ED project has entailed the development of a competence profile for primary teachers during the first half of 2010. These profiles and the process behind them are the main direct source of information in these countries. Secondary sources for Mali and Uganda include earlier policy documents or studies in the context of the Quality-ED project or other international agencies.

Outline of chapters
• Chapter 1 looks into the theory around teacher competence, the history of competence-based teacher education, and its current policy context.
• Chapter 2 looks into what we can learn from the literature about the experiences in a random selection of countries that have implemented CBTE or work with competence profiles.
• Chapter 3 to 5 are case studies and look into the experiences of the six countries mentioned above with the development and implementation of competence profiles in teacher education. These studies are grouped per continent: Chapter 3 discusses experiences from Chile and Brazil, Chapter 4 looks into what happened in India and Malaysia, and Chapter 5 presents findings from the Netherlands and Slovenia.
• Chapter 6 introduces the results of the pilot studies in Mali and Uganda.
• Chapter 7 provides overall conclusions and recommendations.
Limitations of the research

Three main limitations to this research should be taken into account. First of all, only little attention is paid to describing the historical and socio-economic background of the country case studies. However, the authors have tried to convey the contextual information that is necessary to understand the particular characteristics of the development and implementation of competence profiles.

Secondly, the conceptual confusion regarding the topic matter, i.e. competence profiles, extensively highlighted in chapter 1, has had its effect on the data collection for this research itself. It was found that in various circumstances, the interviewees were either not familiar with the term or with its meaning.

Lastly, the stakeholders interviewed in this study did not include the non-formal education (NFE) sector. Various large-scale educational programmes run by CSOs were approached afterwards for input via email, as were resource people with a specialised knowledge of NFE, but few could confirm the use of competence profiles or a similar instrument. It is possible that some quality standards are used in NFE but the input is inconclusive. This is likely to have affected the conclusions on the applicability of CPs for quality assurance and/or as a tool towards linking the non-formal and the formal sector in order to facilitate the transition of teachers from the former to the latter.
Desk Study
Concept and competence based teacher education
CHAPTER 1
Competence Based Teacher Education (CBTE):
International Theoretical, Historical and Policy context

The right of every child to quality education that enables him or her to fulfil his or her potential, realize opportunities for employment and develop life skills is enshrined in the Education for All policy framework for international commitment to education. First set out in Jomtien in 1990, this commitment was renewed ten years later in Dakar (April 2000), with the pledge to achieve six EFA goals in 2015.

Amongst the many factors influencing education quality, it is widely recognized that teachers play a crucial role, and some even argue that teacher quality is the most influential school-based factor affecting student achievement. Researchers, policy makers, programme designers and evaluators, therefore, are looking for ways of understanding teacher quality and learning and promising teacher improvement programmes.

Much has been written about what constitutes a ‘quality teacher’. Some say that student learning is the most important determinant, and thus quality teachers are those most capable of helping their students learn. However, research shows that what is a quality teacher is different depending on the context, and that it is perhaps too ambitious or even impossible or pedagogically undesirable to formulate a definitive description of “the good teacher”.

Research found that in the countries of the OECD, for example, the key characteristics of a high quality teacher are regarded to be: commitment; love of children; mastery of subject didactics and multiple models of teaching; the ability to collaborate with other teachers; and a capacity for reflection. The study also emphasizes the many sources of teacher quality: the individual teacher; the school; and the external policy environment.

Teacher competence is one way of looking at teacher quality, as it can provide a framework for talking about essential qualities that are expected of teachers. At present, around the world, many reforms in teacher education are oriented towards making teacher education more functional for the development of competences teachers need in practice. Competence standards for teachers, both in teacher education and daily classroom practice, are increasingly being designed. In this chapter, firstly the theory around teacher competence is explored. Then the origin and development of competence thinking in teacher education is discussed, and lastly current international and regional policy frameworks and initiatives are set out.

In the literature and in practice, many terms are employed to describe the same concept, such as ‘good teacher’, ‘good quality teacher’, ‘high quality teacher’, ‘competent teacher’ etc. In addition, subject to much debate has been the question whether a qualified or certified teacher is necessarily always a quality teacher.
1.1 Theoretical context

On the concept of competence

The concept of competence has a long history in education and training research and practice. However, there is no consensus on definitions of concepts or what constitutes a competence-based teacher education programme. As one scholar puts it quite clearly: “The lack of a generally accepted operational definition of competence is generally acknowledged”. Competence refers to different and sometimes even contrasting concepts. Its conceptual meaning also varies throughout different countries and cultures. Some state that whereas in the USA the term competency is used, in the UK the term competence is employed. Also, sometimes the term competence is employed in a generic sense, meaning the quality or state of being competent. The quality of being competent is explained by the possession of a set of ‘competencies’ (singular: competency) that together are causally related to competent performance. Often, competence has been described as being a broad capacity, and competency as a more narrow atomistic concept used to label particular abilities. However, in general, in both the literature and in practice, the terms competence and competency are used interchangeably. In this report, the term competence is employed.

In general, education based on competence standards (or competence-based education) is proposed for vocational education and training, although it has been used in many other contexts, e.g. for managers and for health care practitioners. Recently, research has been done on the applicability and desirability of competence standards for academic education. Competence standards have been employed for different uses, e.g. as a basis for teacher education curriculum and for programme approval; for teacher assessment, appraisal and certification; for professional teaching standard setting; and implementing differential pay scales for teachers. As such they have been said to either work as a control mechanism, or as an empowerment tool.

Also striking are the many aims of competence-based education. In the literature, we find competence-based education for sustainable development, for democratic development, for ICT, for gender justice, for sexual education and for special education. Accordingly, from the literature, a long list of different competences can be assembled, e.g. knowledge competence, civic competence, emotional competence, cultural competence, gender competence.

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To add to the conceptual confusion, not only are the terms competence and competency interchanged, a variety of other terms is used to refer to related and similar concepts, such as capability, ability, capacity, attribute, quality. It falls beyond the scope of this report to discuss the different definitions and applications of these terms and their relationship to the competence concept, but for an excellent overview of conceptual issues see: Kouwenhoven, W. (2003) Designing for competence: towards a competence-based curriculum for the Faculty of Education of the Eduardo Mondlane University. (Doctoral thesis). Enschede: University of Twente.

Although it falls beyond the scope of this report to discuss all the different competences, some of the more recent developments in thinking about competences that are deemed essential for a good quality primary teacher will be highlighted.
Also, research indicates that competence can be present both in the individual and in groups or organisations. When embarking in discussions about competence, one should be aware of all these issues.

The basic traditional meaning of the term competence has been that of capacity: what a person can do. This does not, of course, mean that competence is about “uninformed action”. In the literature, definitions of competence vary from focusing on narrow skills to more holistic (or integrated/relation) conceptions. Defined holistically, competence is regarded as the possession and development of a complex combination of integrated skills, knowledge, attitudes and values displayed in the context of task performance.

A holistic approach is normatively put forward in the more recent competence-based (teacher education) movement. However, it is very important to keep in mind that although attempts are being made to explore and apply more holistic conceptions of competence, research suggests that, in many cases, competences are still being specified and assessed too narrowly, and as such, they can work to hinder education and training, especially if used as a curriculum document to teach discrete tasks or used to assess superficial aspects (the “checklist approach”). When engaging in designing competence-based teacher education, one should thus be very aware of the epistemological foundation of their definitions.

In teacher education and schools alike, competence profiling is increasingly promoted. A teacher professional competence profile is a document that describes the professional ethics, the key knowledge and skills, the tasks and the levels of competence of the teacher in performing the roles that are expected of the teacher. What competences are deemed important for primary teachers in a certain context should arise from the discussions about what constitutes quality teaching, and should be designed in cooperation with all education stakeholders involved, and in particular with the practitioners themselves: “The profile should be evidence-based and built on active involvement by the teaching profession in identifying teacher competences. A clear, well structured and widely supported teacher profile can be a powerful mechanism for aligning the various elements involved in developing teachers “knowledge and skills.”

The literature also shows that both the requirements of the teaching profession and the purpose of the national education system, as well as teacher educators, are important sources for validating the competence profile (CP) as a frame of reference for teacher education and practice. The literature shows that in practice CPs from other countries and contexts are used as a guideline too.

\textsuperscript{14} In the section on current interest in competence in this chapter the holistic definition will be discussed in detail.
\textsuperscript{15} In the following chapters the practical implications for designing competence based teacher education will be discussed extensively.
Often indicators are part of a CP. Indicators describe examples of ways in which educators can demonstrate evidence of the specified competences. They are intended to provide an idea of what is expected of the educator and to guide his/her development towards that goal. They are also used for monitoring and assessing teacher competences. Research shows that indicators are context specific; i.e. any description of indicators needs to be firmly based on the context in which the educator is working.

Domain-specific competences and generic competences

In the literature, competence is said to consist of domain-specific competences within a discipline and generic competences. Generic competences are needed in all content domains and can be utilised in new professional situations. They identify shared attributes, which could be general to any degree, such as the capacity to learn, decision making, communication abilities, teamwork and management. The term “life skills” is sometimes used indicating that these competences are, because of their transferability, the basic set of capabilities for the life of today, within and outside the teaching profession.

The question whether there are competences specifically for primary school teachers that are potentially valid across different contexts – in other words, a common conceptual framework (a generic profile) that could be adopted internationally and worked out nationally/locally – is another matter, and one that until now has received relatively little attention. Competences for teachers are generally specified for both primary and secondary levels. The case studies in this report regarding the characteristics of CPs for primary teachers aim to serve the purpose of verifying whether there is any shared ground in the thinking about competences that are deemed essential for primary teachers across the globe.

1.2 The origin and international development of competence-based teacher education

Early thinking on competence-based teacher education

The need for good quality teachers has long existed and many strands of thought on how to best prepare them have been developed over the years. Of all these efforts, competence-based teacher education has received so much attention in the literature that it has been described as the single most influential and at the same time controversial trend in teacher education.

VI Also see the section on current interest in teacher education about social-constructivist underpinnings of the competence concept and situated learning.
CBTE initially emerged in the 1960s in the U.S. as part of the wider “competence movement” in education. Later, in the 1980s-90s, competence-based education appeared in the UK, Australia, New Zealand, Asia and Latin America, mostly in vocational education. Developments that have something to do with competence-based teacher education started to diffuse across the African continent towards the end of the 20th century.

In the early discussions, teaching competence was understood as “the ability to do a particular activity to a prescribed standard”. Teacher competences were interpreted as a set of discrete, theory-free practical skills. Strongly influenced by behavioural psychology, the idea was that observable events in teachers’ performance could form the basis for qualifying them as good or competent. Studies were carried out, in an effort to identify the teaching behaviours that displayed the highest correlation with the learning results of the pupil. This was then translated into concrete skills that should be acquired by teachers.

Central to CBTE is thus the advance specification of the knowledge and skills that are assumed to be related to student learning and that are to be mastered by teacher trainees. Performance of the teacher trainee, rather than the completion of course work and the maintenance of a specified grade point average, is considered to be the most valid measure of teaching competence. Another important element in the CBTE approach is the development of instructional management and evaluation systems to monitor the mastery of competences. Thus, CBTE describes a teacher training programme in which there are specific competences to be acquired, with corresponding explicit criteria for assessing these competences. In theory, it overcomes the divide between ‘hands and mind’, theory and practice, general and vocational education.

The popularity of CBTE in the 1960s and 1970s should be seen in the context of a perceived increasing demand for teacher quality, and more specifically for effectiveness, efficiency, and accountability. CBTE responded to this demand because it could provide clearly discernable results. The change from measures of student behaviour as represented by a letter grade was assumed to result in more precision in the measurement of behaviour. This focus on outcome, rather than entry-level requirements was generally believed to permit a more individualised focus than traditional teacher education programmes. Also, CBTE was considered to be an impetus for educators to reflect on what their teaching is designed to accomplish and to review the way they go about accomplishing it and if necessary improve their teaching practice, thus contributing to improved teacher performance.

CBTE is not to be confused with CBET, which stands for competence-based education and training.
Towards the end of the 1970s and in the 1980s, the popularity of the traditional CBTE paradigm started to decrease. Critics pointed to the overly technical view of the teacher. Aiming to ensure sufficient validity and reliability in the assessment of teachers, long, detailed and unworkable lists of skills were formulated, which gradually resulted in the fragmentation of the teacher’s role, and the ‘de-skilling’ of the educators’ role. According to this line of critique, a good teacher cannot simply be described in terms of certain isolated competences, acquired in a number of training sessions. The long lists of skills were said to lead to a focus on the parts rather that the whole, and on the trivial rather than the significant. Various authors criticised the mechanistic performances students were expected to achieve without having developed an overall normative view of humans and education. Others pointed to the traditional CBTE approach’s lack of attention to complex understanding of the social and political system in which teaching takes place. Some argued that there was little or no research evidence to show superiority over other forms of teacher preparation. Lastly, the behaviouristic interpretation of CBTE was criticized because it was seen by some as an instrument purely to control teachers.

For the present research it is worth noting that the CBTE experience of those early years are found in developed countries only, and that there is little evidence that the model addressed important issues such as teaching conditions, essential competences such as emotional and social competence, or life-skills.

**Current interest in teacher competence**

As stated, governments worldwide are now increasingly moving from an emphasis on so called ‘input criteria’ (i.e. the number of years spent in teacher education) to “process” and “output/outcomes” approaches. As part of this development, teacher competences are more and more being examined and measured. Taking into account much of the criticism from the 1970s, many attempts have been made over the last twenty years to explore more holistic conceptions of competence. A significant body of research around the brain, human development and how people learn has influenced the thinking around CBTE. In a holistic (or integrated/relational) approach, competence is seen as a complex combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes...

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\*It is, however, very important to point out that the behaviourist approach to competence has by no means ceased to function as an underpinning for policy and teacher training curricula. See for example the regular criticisms levelled at the harmonization, or Bologna, process in European higher education that is said to be based upon a behaviouristic competence model (e.g. Hyland, T. (2006). Swimming Against the Tide: Reductionist Behaviourism. The Harmonisation of European Higher Education Systems. In Mulder, M., T. Weigel & K. Collins, The concept of competence in the development of vocational education and training in selected EU member states. A critical analysis. Journal of Vocational Education and Training, 59, 1, 65-85). It is therefore of the utmost importance that the epistemological roots underpinning the competence concept used in teacher training curricula is firmly grounded upon the holistic and integrated definition.

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and values displayed in the context of task performance. Rather than a single acceptable outcome, performance may be demonstrable in variable contexts.

Interpreted broadly, competence is not trained behaviour but thoughtful capabilities and a developmental process. This approach leaves room for different levels of competence, e.g. entry/novice, experienced, specialist. The conception of competence as a developmental process links up with the idea of lifelong education that conceives of individuals as active subjects of a permanent teaching/learning process and focuses on the learning and competences acquired in different contexts. For example, in the EU’s Tuning Project, an inter-governmental body, competences are interpreted as a dynamic combination of knowledge, understanding and skills that a person builds on and develops, and that can be demonstrated to a certain level of achievement along a continuum. More holistic definitions are said to stress the broad development and empowerment of teacher students.

The holistic approach to CBTE is influenced by certain social constructivist perspectives, i.e. the idea that people construct their reality in interaction with others. The cultural context and social practices involved in competent performance is acknowledged, reflecting how personal attributes are used to achieve outcomes in jobs located within organisational and societal relationships. Attention for teaching conditions (such as classroom size or commonly held beliefs in the wider community about teacher roles) is thus essential when thinking about teachers’ competence development, and a description of teacher competence should take into account the context and personal characteristics of the teacher when outlining how competence and performance are related. Unfortunately, as research has shown, the ‘human agent’ with his/her personal characteristics is still missing in most competence descriptions.

This point links up with ideas about collective competence. There are many sources of teacher quality (and there are even more variables that affect students learning, e.g. family, social position, motivation etc.). Research shows that whether a teacher can in fact be competent depends not only on him/herself. For example, it would be much harder for a teacher thrust in front of 100 unmotivated pupils, without learning materials, to achieve the same level of competence as teachers in more favourable situations. Individual teachers’ competence development should thus be firmly set in the framework of whole school development, and the individual teacher should never be solely held accountable for his/her development and that of his/her students. Problems of education quality occur across the system, and competence should thus be an instrument across the spectrum of the education system towards increased quality. This also means applying the same competence standards both in initial teacher education as well as in daily teaching practice.

See also the section on competence.
Research has suggested that culture mediates school processes and outcomes, and thus cultural factors play an important role in developing meaningful and effective pedagogy. Cultural competence has been recommended as a mechanism for bridging the cultural disconnect between teachers, schools, students and the wider community, and for reducing service disparities. It is important, however, that (multi-/inter-)cultural competence training and skills not break down into application of stereotypes about groups of individuals.

The competence approach to the concept of education is concerned with meaningful objectives and content of learning that will engender the personal development of students and position them within the domain of knowledge that can best prepare them to function effectively in society. This also links up with the Freire’s ideas on “learning by doing”.

Developing countries need to decolonize the traditional educational systems that often do not serve the different economic, political and social realities of their countries and the increased interest worldwide in indigenous knowledge. The introduction of local languages in education, mixed-age classrooms and satellite schools (designed for the youngest students close to home with fewer numbers), and the introduction of indigenous or local knowledge in the curriculum are all driven by the concern to make curricula more contextually and culturally relevant.

Competence thinking in teacher education has also been expanded to encompass “social” or “emotional” competence. Research shows that (training in) emotional competence is necessary for teachers’ well-being and success in teaching, for example to be able to build resilience to adversity in the field or to self-monitor performance. Findings also showed that a teacher’s emotional competence predicts the level of burnout, stress levels and work satisfaction.

Teachers also need social-emotional competences to be able to effectively manage and develop students’ emotional development. Although the exact relationship between socio-emotional competence and learning has not yet been established, a recent study has shown that socio-emotional education not only increases learning but that it facilitates longer retention in the educational system and academic performance.

Socio-emotional competence is considered by many to be a basic aspect of living in the world today, where the ability to collaborate, communicate, create, understand cultural-, religious-, class and sexual diversity and live in a community are no longer

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X However, some scholars have heavily critiqued the competence concept itself for being inherently Western (Raina, V.K. (1999) Indigenizing teacher education in developing countries: The Indian context. Prospects, vol. XXIX, no. 1). Thus again, the need to explicitly clarify the epistemological bases of propositions for curriculum development, and to construct visions in interaction with all stakeholders, becomes apparent.
regarded as being a "nice to have" competence, but as an essential one connected to the larger questions of world peace, justice and ecological survival. Scholars are calling for the inclusion of training in socio-emotional competences within objectives for education and teacher training programmes.96

In the literature, many reasons for the renewed interest in rethinking teacher quality in terms of competence and competence-based education are mentioned. Some highlight the importance of developments in science, society and economy that are sometimes described as the transition to the "knowledge society".96 The acquisition of knowledge in itself is not any more the major aim of education and training, but the application of the acquired knowledge.97 Developments in ICT and other challenges that arise from increased globalization heavily influence our thinking about teacher quality, i.e. what we as society expect from teachers.98 Accountability is still amongst the most often mentioned factors for implementing competence based reforms.99

A growing concern with citizenship and human rights issues has emphasized the role of teachers in promoting democratic values through active, participatory teaching.100 These developments link up with the idea of an integrated concept of the "safe school" which nurtures constructive gender relationships as well as communal respect for diverse peoples and lifestyles, of teachers as well as pupils. Issues such as inequality and violence in and around schools also spur discussion about quality teaching and what promotes this. Research shows that the greatest educational disparities are not between countries, but within countries and schools – especially between urban and rural areas, between girls and boys, and between minority and majority populations. In addition, the concern about very low learning results amongst pupils (i.e. in South Africa, India) can motivate developing countries to re-think their teacher education in terms of competences.101

Also, discussions about quality education have been revived because in many countries recent efforts to increase teacher numbers have to a large extent been at the expense of quality.102 The urgent need for more teachers has led to pragmatic practices to quickly introduce young people to the primary teaching profession, for instance by "crash courses": short inductions to teaching. Especially in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, these practices have led to a situation in which a high proportion of primary teachers are under-/unqualified for their work as a teacher.103

Summarizing, two contrasting approaches about competences and standards in teacher education are evident in the literature. One is a narrow, technical or behaviourist approach with the main emphasis on measuring and regulating teachers' behaviour and which has been declared "largely unsuitable for the teaching and learning which goes on in higher education institutions".104 The more complex facets that defy numeric or simple description and evaluation tend to be marginalised in this approach.
The other is developmental, involving the use of loosely formulated teaching competences as illustrative and indicative of performance.

But although attempts have been made to expand the behaviouristic approach to competence, much research shows these are not always applied.\(^{106}\) Competences are still being specified and assessed too narrowly.\(^{105}\) When considering vocational education in the Netherlands, for example, it is argued that the holistic approach is used as window dressing for behaviourist instruction, and that assessment is the drawback to a holistic approach.\(^{107}\) Much criticism has been voiced about such reforms jeopardising the fundamental humanist traditions in teaching, based on beliefs about non-instrumental values of education.\(^{108}\) The lines of critique related to conceptual, epistemological, and operational issues of the competence approach to education (as pointed out above) still exist, although it is often not clear whether this criticism applies only to behaviourist approaches or also to more holistic conceptions.\(^{109,110}\) Researchers also perceive resistance to the use of the term due to its “Western” or “neoliberal” origin.\(^{110}\) A tendency to “demonize” the use of competence statements in teacher education is noted.\(^{111}\)

When embarking on the design or revision of competence-based teacher education, these lines of critique should be taken into account. The conclusions and recommendations in this report all aim to contribute to ensure that competence-related efforts are essentially about providing a framework for the discussion and a tool towards quality education, and to ensure that these efforts are holistic, inclusive and owned by all stakeholders.

1.3 International policy context

Internationally, there has been much effort to define competences for citizens and learners that are deemed necessary for living in the 21st century. As early as 1996 UNESCO contributed to the EFA goals by setting up the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century. This led to the report Learning: the Treasure Within that defines four pillars of education: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, and learning to be.\(^{112}\) These guidelines have been referenced repeatedly in subsequent efforts to identify and integrate 21st century competences.

Many other examples of attempts to define competences for living in the 21st century can be mentioned.\(^{112}\) It is recognized that if the current generation is to develop these

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\(^{105}\) Research indicates that for its opponents, competence-based (teacher) education is excessively reductionist, narrow, rigid, atomized, and theoretically, empirically and pedagogically unsound. There seems to be an agreement, however, that these criticisms are valid when competence is conceptualized in behavioural terms (Kerka, S. (1998). Competency-Based Education and Training: Myths and Realities. Centre on Education and Training for Employment, The Ohio State University College of Education).

\(^{106}\) For example, the OECD’s recent project to define and select key competences: the DeSeCo project. See: OECD (2005) The Definition and Selection of Key Competencies, DeSeCo publications, 2005. Available at: www.oecd.org/dataoecd/47/61/35070367.pdf
competences, teacher preparation and professional development should be reworked to incorporate training in teaching them. 113

Although there are various international and regional efforts to specify teachers’ competences, the picture is less clear for competences specifically for primary teachers. Amongst other efforts, the OECD has developed a set of policy pointers for the development of teachers’ knowledge and skills, such as, for example, the development of a clear and concise statement or profile of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do. These teacher profiles are intended to serve as a framework to guide initial teacher education, teacher certification, teachers’ on-going professional development and career advancement. 114 The 2009 OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) on the conditions of teaching and learning aiming to identify barriers to effective instruction should also be mentioned as an effort towards improving our understanding of quality teaching. 115

UNESCO’s efforts that are relevant to CBTE should be seen in the framework of the EFA goals and challenges of teachers in 21st century. A special interest in working on the curricular and pedagogical links between basic education and competence-based teacher education reforms becomes evident. 116 Examples of initiatives relate to teachers’ ICT competences, and competence for inclusive education. 116 Again, competences are not specified specifically for primary school teachers.

In 2005 and 2006, UNESCO’s Community of Practice (COP) in Curriculum Development Platform organized two multilingual online Forums for members, which aimed to provide a plural, open and constructive space for the inter-regional sharing of visions and experiences of competence-based curriculum development. 117 Issues similar to those raised in the present report around epistemological, theoretical and technical aspects came to the fore. 117 In general, it can be said that in UNESCO publications a preference becomes evident for a comprehensive and socio-constructivist approach to competence, one that crosscuts dimensions of the educational system, and is strongly grounded in real-life learning situations, away from an objectives-based approach that is a direct derivative of behaviourism. 118


XIV See: http://www.unesco.org/ibe/forum/

XV Such as: confusion with other terms such as ability, skill, capability etc.; problems with operationalization or measure of the concept; the tendency to fall back on reductionist model of competence; the negative connotation of the term competence; level of specificity problem; too much trust in the concept/panacea; problems of putting a competence based curriculum in practice; operationability; the dependence of the model with respect to the hegemony proposed by developed countries; the costs related to its implementation; difficulties from the didactic and evaluative point of view; lack of training in the area of university teachers; the risk of ending up in a rhetorical exercise without programmatic application or real effect on the classroom practice; problem of evaluation etc
On a European level, various initiatives refer to or use the term key competences. Besides the set of eight key competences in the European Reference Framework of Key Competences, there are: categories of knowledge, skills and competences in the European Qualification Framework for lifelong learning; the learning outcomes approach developed in higher education through the Bologna Process; and the aforementioned TUNING project. The latter has provided the context for comparing the knowledge, skills and dispositions expected of teachers in Initial Teacher Education across Europe. It has also fostered the debate about the origins, meaning and impact of the competences movement in education and teacher education.\textsuperscript{119}

Also, a set of Common Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications was decided upon by the European Commission. The common principles are presented as a response to the challenges of living in the knowledge society and the European Community and they are intended to support the development of new policies at the national or regional level. According to the principles, teachers should be able to:

- Work with information, technology and knowledge;
- Work with fellow human beings – learners, colleagues and other partners in education; and
- Work with and in society – at local, regional, national, European and broader global levels.

The development of professional competences should be viewed over the continuum of professional life.\textsuperscript{120}

Other efforts relate to competences for citizenship and human rights education (EDC/HRE), for intercultural communication, and for sustainable democratic development. The Council of Europe (CoE) has defined core teacher competences for EDC/HRE. Competence is defined as involving aspects such as knowledge, attitudes and behaviours, disposition, procedural skills\textsuperscript{XVI}, cognitive skills and experiential skills.\textsuperscript{XVII} The competences are intended for all phases (primary and secondary) of education.\textsuperscript{XVIII} The CoE has also worked extensively on intercultural communicative competence (ICC).\textsuperscript{122}

In the African context, through the Basic Education for Africa Programme (BEAP) initiated by UNESCO and launched since 2007, a group of countries have embarked on improving their curriculum, and are promoting competence-based approaches. Common curriculum issues that are identified include: fragmented forms, cycles and

\textsuperscript{XVI} Knowing how to do.

\textsuperscript{XVII} To know how to react and adapt on the basis of previous knowledge; social skills.

\textsuperscript{XVIII} Consultation for the process was sought with different stakeholders, amongst other the Council of Europe Pestalozzi teacher trainer network in fields of common interest, such as education for democratic citizenship (EDC), human rights education (HRE), intercultural and inclusive education, history teaching, pluri-linguism and education for Europe.
content of education; dominant traditional teacher-centred pedagogical practices; lack of professional capacity to develop and implement curricula; insufficient teacher training; mismatch between curriculum implementation requirements and teacher training.123

The Teacher Education in Sub-Saharan Africa (TESSA) initiative aims to contribute to improving access to and quality of teacher education and training by developing creative responses to the aforementioned challenges. The core TESSA content consists of online, text-based study units for developing key teacher competences delivered through the context of pupils’ school curricula. The component parts are designed to be general or with contextual references. Localisation focuses on the latter components – the case studies and supporting resources. The tool can be used to train untrained teachers in-school without removing them from classrooms.124

On the Latin American continent efforts that are related to competence-based teacher education can increasingly be discerned. In Uruguay from 2010 an accredited course in curriculum design and development is being organized through the Catholic University of Uruguay (UCU) together with UNESCO’s International Bureau for Education (IBE). This course hopes to promote training and capacity development in curricular issues as a way of contributing to the achievement of an equitable quality education in Latin America. The course works with a graduate CP that aims to develop four competences, subdivided into a number of (types of) knowledge, skills, and attitudes, which students should have developed towards the end of the course.125

Competences and non-formal education

With the Universal Declaration on Human Rights and the International Convent on the Right of Children as a reference, the rights-based approach to education is that each child has the right to quality education and quality teachers, whether in formal or in non-formal education.109 Quality of teachers in non-formal education (NFE) is an issue currently featuring high on policy agendas.126 In order to enable the recognition of non-formal teachers (or under-/unqualified teachers) with practical experience in the classroom, an agreed teachers’ CP could function as a reference framework and

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123 The difference between non-formal and formal education is that, while formal education is rigid and is characterized by uniformity, non-formal education is flexible in terms of the timing, and duration of learning, the age groups of learners, and the content and methodology of instruction. NFE is not confined to those persons who are dropouts from the schooling system or women who are illiterate, but to any sub-groups in the community who may have specific needs. It is especially important in adult education. By UNESCO’s definition, “Non-formal education may take place both within and outside educational institutions, and may cater to persons of all ages. Depending on country contexts, it may cover educational programmes to impart adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children, life-skills, work-skills, and general culture.” (http://www.unescodhaka.org/education/non-formal-education/) Some distinguish between formal, non-formal and informal learning, the latter one being the learning that is not organized but takes place through daily life. Typically, it does not lead to certification.
tool for bridging the sectors. At present, although attempts are being made to establish competences standards for learners in the non-formal education system, there are few examples of competence standards for primary school teachers in NFE.

The complementarity of formal and non-formal learning also features high on policy agendas worldwide in relation to lifelong learning. Validation of non-formal learning or recognition of prior learning (RPL) is very much related to this. The purpose is to make visible the entire scope of knowledge and experience held by an individual, irrespective of the context where the learning originally took place. It is asserted that as long as learning, skills and competences acquired outside formal education and training remain invisible and poorly valued the ambition of lifelong learning cannot be achieved.

RPL plays an essential role in improving equity, because it makes it easier for dropouts from the formal education system to return to formal learning, and thus ensuring lifelong or continuing education. NFE is especially important in adult education. Around 750 million adults are illiterate worldwide, two thirds of whom are women, who are therefore less employable in occupations such as teaching.

CBTE and gender issues

A discussion about quality teaching cannot be complete without a thorough look at how it relates to gender relations. Evidence shows that gender concerns form a key barrier to achieving quality education for all. In many places, girls and women are amongst the most underserved groups. Although many countries have achieved relatively high initial enrolment figures, they are still struggling with poor primary school completion rates and high drop-out rates, especially for girls, children with special needs, and those from indigenous and ethnic minorities. It is suggested that many of the problems are related to the lack of education quality, relevance and exclusion from learning. If gender equity is to accompany quality, attention should be paid to teacher quality, teacher learning and teacher improvement.

Although the primary school enrolment of girls in relation to boys has improved nearly everywhere, of the 72 million children in the world today that never see the inside of a school 41 million are girls. Many factors external to school affect the unequal enrolment of boys and girls such as son preference, female child labour, girls’ domestic work, early marriage, customs around puberty, etc. However, there is much research to sustain the argument that access to education does not stop at the school’s entrance, and girls’ rights within and through education is increasingly emphasized. Many in-school factors (from lack of toilets to sexual harassment as well as neglect and disrespect) can be pointed to that sustain gender inequality and higher dropout.
rates amongst girls. Often national school curricula (classroom textbooks, process and practice) reproduce gender inequalities in the public and private sphere and sustain hegemonic male or patriarchal regimes on a local, national and global scale.\(^{136}\)

In addition, research has shown that values are not transmitted only through overt curricular knowledge. Gender, class, sexual and ethnic identities are also reproduced through what came to be known as the “hidden curriculum”, i.e. teachers’ values and school rituals.\(^{137}\) In overcrowded and under-resourced classrooms, with teachers who are poorly prepared or simply overwhelmed by circumstances, boys’ traditionally assertive coping skills have been found to enable them to gain and keep teachers’ attention, while girls, who are taught to be demure and often lack confidence, are silenced.\(^{138}\)

For example, in Uganda, gender differentiation is reinforced when girls are expected to do the same tasks in school that they do at home such as fetching water, sweeping the floor, cleaning dishes. A study from nine countries in sub-Saharan Africa showed that girls were in general more involved in such chores than boys.\(^{139}\) Also, language of instruction tends to aggravate this distinction where boys may be more exposed to dominant languages (English, French) than girls who are more confined to the house. In Mali, it was found that amongst the various gender barriers to quality education is the fact that women disproportionately drop out of teacher training, even when they qualify for entry.\(^{140}\) In Uganda, when science and maths requirements were raised for entrance in the teaching profession, it posed an obstacle for females candidates because there is little stimulation of these subjects among girls and few women teachers in secondary schools to coach girls.

Research has shown that not only are attitudes and values reproduced through the curriculum, it equally creates opportunities for contesting and reworking them.\(^{141}\) Through the formal and hidden curriculum, schools can build cooperative and democratic communities where diversity is appreciated and conflicts are faced and solved. A gender-sensitive organization of the class – i.e. a just distribution of attention and power in and around the classroom, as well as the fostering of emotional intelligence and empathy, instead of an over-emphasis on only rational intellect and competition – can help in achieving this.\(^{142}\)

In the main, discussions about teacher quality now encompass the competence to recognize these gender processes in the classrooms, and the ability to actively embrace diversity, ensuring safe, protective and gender responsive school environments. Systematic research into the specific relation between gender and CBTE, e.g. on the gender sensitivity of CPs or whether working with CPs is different for male/female teachers, is lacking. As interest in and practice of teacher competence profiling is increasing, research is very much needed that can provide us with answers about overcoming the various manifestations of inequity, poverty and social exclusion and moving towards processes of expanding opportunities for all teachers and children.
1.4 Conclusions and recommendations

From the above literature review on the concept of competence in teacher education, its development, and the international and regional policy context of efforts that have something to do with competence-based teacher education, some important conclusions and recommendations can be drawn for those embarking on designing or revising CPs for primary teachers.

• Teacher competence can be pointed to as one way of looking at teacher quality that seems to be applied more and more globally. Factors such as the rise of the knowledge society and consequent changing expectations of teachers; concerns about quality and accountability; inequality; violence, low learning results; and the need to decolonize curricula, have all been mentioned to have spurred discussion about quality and the rethinking of teacher education on the basis of competences;

• Conceptual, methodological and ethical issues surrounding the term competence, both in theory and in practice, are evident. Research suggests that a holistic approach to competence emphasizes complex integrated skills, knowledge, attitudes and values. This definition allows different levels of competence. The CP should include both domain-specific and broader life-skills (generic competence), as well as cultural and socio-emotional competence. It should pay attention to how personal and contextual factors are related to teachers’ performance. As such a CP can be helpful as a framework for discussion about teaching quality, and guideline for teachers’ evaluation, empowerment and professional growth;

• However, research suggests that in general, competences are specified and assessed too narrowly. When engaging in designing CPs, one should be very aware of the issues raised in this report order to prevent behavioural 'checklist' approaches (long lists of ‘do's and don’ts’) of early competence thinking as it emerged in the USA;

• The formulation of competences for (primary) teachers should stem from a discussion of what is considered a good quality teacher and the profile should be designed in cooperation with all stakeholders involved, most notably with the teachers;

• Teacher competence depends on many factors and teachers should never be held solely accountable for their teaching quality;

• On an international scale, much effort has been put into defining competences for citizens and learners. Although some international efforts are being made, the picture is less clear about internationally desired competences for primary teachers;

• A CP could be a tool in NFE for both quality assurance and as a tool towards facilitating the transition of non-formal or under-/unqualified teachers to formal education;

• Teaching quality should encompass the competence to recognize gendered power processes in the classrooms, and being able to actively embrace diversity, ensuring a safe, protective and gender responsive/gender just school environment.
CHAPTER 2
Some approaches to CBTE: Experiences from South Africa, New Zealand, and Canada

This chapter looks into what we can learn from the experiences of a number of selected countries and one project that have implemented competence-based approaches to teacher education, i.e. South Africa, New Zealand, the province of Alberta in Canada, and the Council of Europe’s Pestalozzi module “Core knowledge, skills and attitudes for all teachers”. The different experiences will be presented, after which some overall conclusions and recommendations will be drawn.

2.1 South Africa
Process of development of the NSE: complex interplay of international and local needs and influences

In South Africa, a very clear standard for teaching exists that can be said to be competence-based: the Department of Education’s (DoE) Norms and Standards for Educators (NSE). It should be pointed out that according to the teachers’ union SADTU, teacher education in South Africa is not overly familiar with the term ‘competence profile’. One representative of the union even states that it is a new term, one that has been included in the processes following the Teacher Development Summit from 29 June to 2 July 2009, during which the need to better understand teacher competence profile was elucidated. Various processes related to the development of a CP are underway, but as these processes are still very much in its infancy and no concrete data are available, in this chapter the focus will be on experiences with the NSE.xx

In 2000 the DoE adopted the NSE as national policy.xxi The NSE describe the roles, their associated set of applied competences (norms) and qualifications (standards) for the development of educators. Also, qualifications and standards for educators and teacher education programmes need to be designed in accordance with the regulations promulgated in this policy.143 The NSE does not explicitly require teacher training to be competence-based. They favour an outcomes-based approach instead.144

xx At the moment, a working group is busy with work related to teacher appraisal. In their work they are developing teaching standards and teacher self-diagnostic assessments. The CP will be subject to Education Labour Relations Council negotiations (SADTU’s response to EI questionnaire).

The development of the NSE has to be seen against the background of the fundamental changes in the post-apartheid era. Prior to 1994, the system of teacher education was driven by the political logic of the apartheid system, which sought to provide separate forms of education for different racial and ethnic groups. The consequent duplication and fragmentation of teacher education institutions led to a lack of overall coherence in the system and a multiplicity of curricula and qualifications. Until 1998, there was no national system of registration for teacher education programmes in South Africa and, therefore, no quality assurance of programmes.\textsuperscript{145}

One of the most significant changes in the post-apartheid era was to move teacher education into the higher education sector, with curriculum decisions decentralised to universities but strongly subject to centralised state regulation.\textsuperscript{146,150} Historically, many mainly “black” teacher colleges had been located in a kind of limbo between secondary schools and higher education.\textsuperscript{147} Another significant change was the development of the NSE.

In 1997, the DoE appointed a Technical Committee to revise the 1996 Norms and Standards for Teacher Education. The process was overseen by a sub-committee of COTEP and entailed a literature review; development of a generative model for norms and standards for teacher education; development of an implementation framework; and consultations with stakeholders.\textsuperscript{148}

The Technical Committee engaged in a variety of activities over a period of nine months culminating in 1997 in the publication of the Discussion Document: \textit{Technical Committee on the Revision of the Norms and Standards for Educators for Teacher Education}. In addition to literature and policy review, the committee consulted with stakeholders and drew heavily on the work of other people, including the final draft report of the Education, Training and Development Practices Project, Adult Basic Education and Training Standards Generating Task team, and the Early Childhood Development Interim Accreditation Committee. The document was disseminated and people were invited to comment. Also, the DoE conducted provincial consultative workshops in 1998 with the aim of engaging with teacher educators and other stakeholders, such as the teachers’ unions.\textsuperscript{149} In 2000, the final NSE became official policy.\textsuperscript{150}

According to the Government, the NSE have emerged from a two year process of consultation, which involved intensive discussions with teacher unions, the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), the Council on Higher Education, the Department of Labour, universities, technikons, and colleges of education.\textsuperscript{151} The Professional Teacher organization NAPTOSA confirms the inclusiveness, stating that both the employer and

\textsuperscript{150}Unfortunately, the incorporation of teacher training colleges into the university meant many colleges were closed down and universities have not been able to produce sufficient new teachers to replace those that are exiting the system annually. This has resulted in serious teacher shortages (NAPTOSA 25 November 2010 – personal communication).
all the teacher unions have been involved in the development of the NSE which were negotiated and agreed to by all parties in the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC). However, some question the participatory nature of the process of development of the NSE, stating that the NSE were the result of various top-down approaches by the national DoE to change education practices.

Universities are said not to have been closely involved in the designing of the NSE. But on the other hand it has also been mentioned that the process of policy formulation was dominated by a group of academics from two English-speaking, well-established universities with a shared epistemological and conceptual framework – the University of the Witwatersrand and the University of Natal. It is suggested the effect of this was that the philosophical approach to outcomes-based education (OBE) that underpins the NSE was rooted in the experience of those same institutions, requiring little identity change for their academics, whereas the policies did require enormous changes from other teacher education providers.

Policy has also been said to be influenced by international educational perspectives (from countries like Australia, England, New Zealand and the USA) and by global economic trends. However, it is important to point out that there has been an interesting interplay between global imperatives and local resources, risks and opportunities, and although South African policy draws on developments in other countries, it has features that are very different from those of the countries of origin.

As highlighted before, the NSE use an outcomes-based approach to teacher education and provide detailed descriptions of what a competent educator can do. Rather than accept the rather narrow, technical, understanding of competence as little more than skill, and the idea that qualifications could be built, menu-wise, from a random selection of unit standards, the NSE propose the notion of holistic competence. A ‘generic’ picture of an educator able to teach in a number of different contexts is painted.

The policy defines seven roles that an educator must be able to perform and describes in detail the knowledge, skills and values that are necessary to perform the roles successfully:

- Learning mediator;
- Interpreter and designer of learning programmes;
- Leader, administrator and manager;
- Scholar, researcher and lifelong learner;
- Assessor;
- A community, citizenship and pastoral role;
- A learning area/subject/discipline/phase specialist role.
The seven roles are broken down into three competences that are aimed at removing the dichotomy between theory and practice:

- **Practical competence** is defined as the ability, in an authentic context, to consider a range of possibilities for action, make considered decisions about which possibility to follow, and to perform the chosen action.
- **Foundational competence** is where the learner demonstrates an understanding of the knowledge and thinking which underpins the action taken.
- **Reflexive competence** refers to the ability to integrate or connect performance and decision making with understanding and with the ability to adapt to change and unforeseen circumstances and explain the reasons behind these actions.

This results in a total of 132 separate roles. Together these roles are seen as constituting a picture of the knowledge, skills and values that are the hallmark of a competent and professional educator.

**Working with the ambitious NSE in practice**

In the post-apartheid era, the government's aim was to restructure the entire education system and overcome its racial, gender and anti-poor bias. Driven by hope and idealism, the early formulation of education policy was expected to give South Africa a modern, high quality and efficient education system. However, less attention was paid to the dynamics and time scale involved in the achievement of major/deep educational change and to the on-the-ground circumstances in which the reforms had to take root.  

As stated, the NSE specify the parameters within which teacher education courses must be designed (i.e. all competences must be developed in all initial educator qualifications), but the content of the curriculum, and the methods, are entirely the decision of the teacher education institutions. The list of roles and their associated competences is meant to serve as a description of what it implies to be a competent educator, it is not meant to be a checklist against which to assess a teacher' competence.

In addition, the norms do not specify whether the level of expected competence is the same for experienced and for beginning teachers. While these facts do allow for a significant degree of institutional autonomy over the curriculum, it presupposes that teacher educators and teachers can read the criteria in a way that is meaningful and aligned with the intended meaning of the NSE.

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XXIII The OECD 2008 review of South African Education Policy suggests that during the development of the NSE long established insights about the achieving of educational reform and change in developing countries were ignored. The report finds that policy makers had a great appetite and urgency to use the education system to build quickly the new society to which they aspired. And although their motivation was for the greater good of society, the report concludes that an unjustified reliance was placed on the impact that policy statements and regulations could make on genuine implementation of educational change (OECD (2008) Reviews of National Policies for Education: South Africa 2008, OECD Publishing).
Much research has shown that the process by which teacher educators made sense of this task has not been adequately considered, either at a conceptual level or at the level of policy implementation. The elaborate competence framework was new to South Africa involving concepts and terminology (such as practical, foundational and reflexive competence) with which the vast majority of teacher educators and teachers had no experience, as much teaching had for years been characterized by transmission methods of teaching and rote learning styles. The competences needed to be taught in integrated and applied ways, crossing conceptual boundaries, being rooted in context, and mixed in a way that is appropriate to the particular qualification, and varied and appropriate forms of assessment needed to be developed. But the staff of teacher education colleges had no experience with implementing the new policies, nor did they feel ownership of them.  

It is suggested that some teacher education programmes fail actually to prepare teachers adequately for their teaching task. Teacher union SADTU has expressed concern that in-service training is often not up to scratch, with the situation having arisen where teachers were being trained by teachers less competent than themselves. In 2005, a concern was raised by the Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education (MCTE) about the way beginner teachers are being prepared for the realities of the classroom. A representative of NAPTOSA states that the seven roles have been emphasized at the expense of developing both academic subject competences as well as teaching methodologies. The main problem, others argue, is the content of teacher education programmes; this is largely theoretical and says little about the practicalities of everyday classroom life.

In line with this, the transition from university teacher trainee to practising teacher has been said to be fraught with difficulties. A number of studies observe that most beginner teachers are thrust into classrooms without the necessary support and mentoring. Some authors find that new teachers are expected to sink or swim without the required support. It was observed that, through trial and error, new teachers develop a repertoire of teaching strategies. This haphazard process of strategy development may take several years, by which time many struggling, unprepared beginner teachers have already left the classroom. According to the 2005 MCTE report, “the practice of launching novice teachers into employment without explicit on-site induction is unsatisfactory”. The report makes the point that newly qualified teachers are not supported through a critical induction into the world of schooling, and may become easily disillusioned and/or develop practices that replicate poor-quality teaching and learning. It is argued that the DoE should come up with systems and programmes to support beginner teachers as novice teachers cannot be expected to fulfil all their teaching responsibilities without some support and assistance. It is thus encouraging that in the 2006 policy document National Policy Framework for Teacher Education it is stated that the MoE will ensure that “systems are developed for the induction and mentoring of new teachers”.

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What has to be pointed out is that teachers’ roles in the classrooms changed dramatically. Having to work with the new national curriculum (C2005) teachers had to become facilitators, develop learning programmes and focus on formative assessment. Shortly after C2005 was developed, it became clear that it was placing a much too heavy burden on teachers and that the national system was not able to provide adequate in-service education to alleviate this pressure due to insufficient capacity of the provincial education departments. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS, revised in 2002) also envisions teachers who are qualified, competent, dedicated and caring and able to fulfil the various roles outlined in the NSE. Teachers have to teach technological and analytical skills to learners from a broad range of backgrounds, to prepare them to read and write at sophisticated levels, to think critically, and to apply their knowledge to solving real-world problems. However, findings show that teacher education programmes as they are currently designed do not adequately prepare new teachers for these expanded roles.

The Teacher Development Branch (in the Department of Higher Education and Training) has concluded that the seven roles of teachers are idealistic and it is extremely unlikely to find all of these attributes in a single teacher. An individual teacher is unlikely to be able to fulfil all seven roles alone. Instead, the Branch adds, all seven roles are part of what a school, and teachers collectively in a school, must be able to do.

Teacher professional development has been problematic. A NAPTOSA representative states that although many resources were spent on attempting to transform teacher development through the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) – intended to ‘measure’ teacher competence for the purpose of indentifying areas in need of development, as well as for salary progression – because the IQMS was largely informed by the Norms and Standards (and the many roles that teachers should fulfil), it became difficult to implement. One of the problems with IQMS has been the lack of follow-up for teacher development. This lack of capacity, or lack of political will, is said to lie at the heart of the problem.

In general, much research has called the South African NSE description of what it means to be a competent educator context-blind, which amongst other factors has led to the overload of teachers. Findings demonstrate that the seven roles outlined in the NSE ignore the reality of the conditions in which the majority of teachers in South Africa work. The untruthful characterisation of their work has been said to be a source of acute professional guilt for teachers as they struggle to cope on a daily basis.

A range of other reasons why IQMS was difficult to implement are named by the NAPTOSA representative: The lack of understanding about what IQMS was setting out to achieve (both by teachers and by departmental officials); the excessively bureaucratic approach, rather than a developmental one, by the departmental officials; the lack of opportunities to develop teachers who had identified their needs and the lack of commitment, particularly by district and provincial officials, to prioritise teacher development; the lack of capacity (human resources) in the provincial departments to provide academic subject support for teachers and to develop teachers; the absence of coordinated planning for teacher development (NAPTOSA 25 November 2010 – personal communication).
The NSE ignore the enormous variety in institutional contexts and on-the-ground conditions of schools and working conditions of teachers. The work of a teacher in an efficiently organised and functioning school is very different from the work of a teacher in a dysfunctional or barely functioning school. School contexts vary enormously throughout South Africa, from elite, well-equipped schools to mud cabins without heat, water, electricity, or proper blackboards.\footnote{178}

Because of widespread poverty, the disruption of family life and community safety nets, not to mention the HIV/AIDS pandemic, the care giving functions of schools need to be expanded. But to expect schoolteachers to undertake this responsibility is unrealistic. The NSE are impressive to read in the abstract, but they do not sufficiently relate to the traditions and circumstances that exist: “To the quiet, reticent teachers who tried their best in such a situation, the high powered discourse of the Norms and Standards for Educators could have little or no meaning.”\footnote{179} For many schools it was “mission impossible” in relation to the training and capacities of their staffs, to the conditions of work that prevailed and to the lack of equipment and teaching resources. The chances of pupils learning in these circumstances are minimal.\footnote{180}

An issue that cannot be overlooked is that for many black teachers, neither their school education nor their teacher training obliged them to study mathematics or science. They were suddenly required to teach an altogether new curriculum and to exhibit a set of competences that the most highly skilled professionals anywhere in the world would find difficult to demonstrate.\footnote{181}

This situation led the 2008 OECD review of South African education policy to conclude that more reflection on the South African context – rather than fascination with some international models of curriculum and teacher competences – might have better served the situation, as the achievement of “deep change” in educators’ practice takes time and many supportive elements.\footnote{182} Currently, interesting improvements to teacher education are being suggested, amongst others in the NPFTE, such as better induction for teachers into the schooling system.\footnote{183} The discussion of these suggestions falls beyond the scope of this report.

**The NPDE and upgrading of teachers on the basis of competences**

Another conclusion of the Government’s 1995 National Teacher Education Audit, the same one that had also led to the development of the NSE, was the finding that a one third of the teaching work force was either un- or under-qualified. Consequently, the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE) was introduced in 2002. The qualification is used as a means of upgrading all un- and under-qualified teachers that have been teaching for 5 years or longer.
The NPDE is an interim qualification, originally aimed at providing under-qualified educators with the opportunity of becoming fully qualified professionals (REQV 13). The NPDE is a school-based educator skills training programme and it is assumed that it will equip educators with the foundational, practical and reflective competences required for further study at NQF. Around 2005, the three-year NPDE was implemented to accommodate unqualified teachers, i.e. teachers who had been teaching for 5 years or longer but who had not received any teacher training. The qualification recognizes experiential knowledge and skills through a process of recognition of prior learning (RPL).

There have been few studies on the outcome of the programme in terms of teachers’ personal and professional gains. One exploratory evaluation of the effectiveness the NPDE programme in helping teachers to achieve the expected competences showed that a higher percentage of educators (70%) reported a high level of effectiveness compared to those who reported a moderate level (30%). The findings also show that educators’ biographical variables, namely gender, teaching phase and qualification, have no influence on their evaluation of the effectiveness of the NPDE programme. Another study also concludes that the NPDE has a positive impact in the lives of educators, both personally and professionally. Educators have been upgraded in their qualification to REQV 13. This had many implications as their salaries were increased. Increments in their salaries implied better lifestyles, buying cars, building new houses and many more financial benefits. The study also found the teachers had obtained status, respect, and recognition.

2.2 New Zealand

The 1990s: Who controls standards setting?

In New Zealand, several standards frameworks for teachers exist that can be said to be competence-based. Roughly two periods of competence standards setting can be discerned: the 1990s, and from mid 2010 onwards.

An interest in competence standards for teachers emerged in the 1990s when a controversial report by the Education Review Office (ERO) stated that there were significant numbers of incompetent teachers in New Zealand. This sparked much criticism from other education stakeholders, who stated that the ERO was not able to substantiate the claims, but in particular it led the Minister of Education (MoE) to conclude that the number of incompetent teachers could not be quantified because, “there is no clear national definition of a competent teacher”.
A connected issue that characterized this period was the question of who was responsible for setting standards of teacher education. Various bodies had either developed standards or declared an interest in them: the MoE had Professional Standards, the Teacher Registration Board (TRB) had Satisfactory Teaching Dimensions (STD), the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA) had Qualifications Standards for Education in Teaching QUALSET, etc.\textsuperscript{185}

There were tensions between the requirements of various institutions, for example between the managerial systems of the NZQA and the professional approach of the TRB. The QUALSET were an attempt to establish competence standards for teaching but scholars argued that for the NZQA, knowledge, concepts and understanding were separated into a multitude of separate elements.\textsuperscript{xxvi} The TRB in comparison argued that their STD were not to be seen as a checklist but as an indicator of some of the factors that should be considered in teacher assessment.\textsuperscript{186}

Most notable was the confusion over the parallel existence of the MoE’s Professional Standards, and Teacher Registration Board’s Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions (STD). However, these frameworks were used for different purposes.

The MoE Professional Standards were and are the requirement for teachers to be attested to move up the salary scale. They exist for early childhood, primary and secondary levels and they describe the important knowledge, skills and attitudes that all teachers are expected to demonstrate. They form part of performance management systems (PMS) in schools.

Primary and secondary sectors distinguish three levels – “beginning”, “classroom” and “experienced”. Each of these levels are divided in nine dimensions of teaching: Professional Knowledge; Professional Development; Teaching Techniques; Student Management; Motivation of Students; Te Reo me ona Tikanga; Effective Communication; Support for and Cooperation with colleagues; Contribution to Wider School Activities. Examples of the Professional Knowledge dimension of Classroom Teachers are “are competent in relevant curricula” and “demonstrate a sound knowledge of current issues and initiative in education, including Maori education”. An example of the Contribution to Wider School Activities dimension of Experienced Classroom Teachers is ‘demonstrate a high level of commitment to: encouraging and fostering effective working relationships with and between others’. The standards describe the key elements of performance rather than provide an exhaustive list of responsibilities.\textsuperscript{187} These are the standards teachers are most familiar with through their school attestation and appraisal processes.\textsuperscript{188}

\textsuperscript{xxv} The TRB became the New Zealand Teacher Council (NZTC) in 2002.

\textsuperscript{xxvi} However, others argued that NZQA was not in favour of narrow behavioural definitions of competence (Tuck 1995 p. 59 in Fitzsimons, P. The governance of teacher competency standards in New Zealand. Australian Journal of Teacher Education Vol. 22, No.2).
The Professional Standards were agreed as part of contract negotiations between the MoE and the two teacher unions, the Post Primary Teachers’ Association (PPTA) and the New Zealand Education Institute (NZEI Te Riu Roa). According to the NZTC, in the period of neo-liberal ascendancy after 1984, the unions felt bound to support the competing discourse from the MoE (i.e. control of teaching quality through criteria and procedures for assessment – a discourse of accountability) as a means of resisting the unrestrained hiring and firing of teachers by principals. The PPTA went on strike in 1989 in defence of preserving the old classification criteria and gained agreement that the Secretary of Education could set the Standards.

The Teacher Registration Board (TRB), on the other hand, developed in 1995-96 the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions that were said to reflect the professional consensus of that time “of what a good teacher should know and understand, and have the skills and professional beliefs of values in order to apply that knowledge in their practice as a teacher”. They were used for teacher registration and also provide the main criteria by which initial teacher education programmes are approved.

As stated before, the STDs were ‘dimensions’ of teaching rather than “standards” and the individual teacher education programmes will establish their own specific standards to determine whether a teacher meets the dimensions. The STDs are also intended to guide the professional learning of provisionally registered teachers.

The TRB promoted the position that standard-setting belonged to the profession. The STDs were developed and agreed to in close collaboration with the teaching sector, and notably the two unions PPTA and NZEI.

Developing the Graduating Teacher Standards and the Registered Teacher Criteria

In what can be seen as a second phase in the development of New Zealand teacher competence standards, the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions were revised and they will be replaced by the Registered Teacher Criteria (RTC). Also, the Graduating Teacher Standards were developed.

In a response to the confusion about the different existing standards for teachers, why they are used, where they come from and how useful they are, the New Zealand Teachers Council NZTC (formerly the TRB) began a review of the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions in October 2006. They worked with a reference group of union, employer, principal and sector groups and a writing group of academic and professional consultants and at times Council and staff members, who did the drafting and reviewing of drafts of the newly designed Registered Teacher Criteria (RTC). Consultation on the RTC was

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**Notes:**

XXVII The Teachers Council is a professional organization established in 2001. Its function is to lead and develop the profession of teaching. It is not involved in industrial relations between teachers and their employers, as is the function of the unions NZEI Te Riu Roa and PPTA (www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz)

XXVIII See Kleinhenz & Ingvarson
conducted in 2007 and 2008 and the criteria were trialled in a pilot programme in 2009 in the Canterbury region. Feedback from the consultations and the pilot has been used to finalise the criteria, and the NZTC has been running workshops with professional leaders on the RTC, their nature and purposes. ¹⁹⁵

The RTC describe the criteria for quality teaching that are to be met by all fully registered teachers in New Zealand. They are divided into “professional relationships and professional values”, and “professional knowledge in practice”. An example: The (only) indicator of criteria 1, “establish and maintain effective professional relationships focused on the learning and wellbeing of akonga/learners”, is “engage in respectful, positive and collaborative professional relationships with: akonga/learners; teaching colleagues, support staff and other professionals; whanau/family and other carers of akonga/learners; agencies, groups and individuals in the community”. Another example: An indicator of criteria 12, “demonstrate commitment to critical inquiry and problem-solving in their professional practice”, is “critically examine their own beliefs (including cultural beliefs) and how they impact on their professional practice and the achievement of akonga/learners”.

After graduation and provisional registration, in order to become fully registered a teacher needs to work with the NZTC’s RTC for two years. The criteria recognise that teaching is a highly complex activity, drawing on repertoires of knowledge, practices, professional attributes and values to facilitate academic, social and cultural learning for diverse education settings. The criteria and indicators should be viewed as interdependent and overlapping. ¹⁹⁶ According to the NZTC, the RTC articulate the essential professional knowledge, practices, relationships and values that current educational literature and experience tell us are most likely to lead to successful outcomes for learners. ¹⁹⁷ One set of criteria and indicators is written for all sectors and all levels of experience. The sector/experience/setting differences come in the exemplification of the Criteria. ¹⁹⁸

The RTC will replace the Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions that have been the benchmark for “satisfactory teaching” since 1998. From 2010, the focus will be on training and resource development and a voluntary uptake of the Registered Teacher Criteria is possible. Mandatory implementation is scheduled in 2011. ¹⁹⁹

According to the NZTC, the Professional Standards have until now tended to be the ‘default’ standards used in schools but the NZTC has provided matrices to show how the professional standards align with the RTC. xx⁹ If professional leaders wish to foreground the RTC in their appraisal systems they can, and still show they are meeting the requirements of attestation as per the industrial agreements as well.

xx⁹ See www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/rtc/w5b-matrix rtc-std-prim.doc
In 2007 the NZTC’s Graduating Teacher Standards (GTS) were developed in response to a call from the teaching profession for more certainty about the quality of all graduates from all teacher education programmes. The standards describe what a teacher at the point of graduation from initial teacher education will know, will understand, will be able to do, and the dispositions they will have that are likely to make them effective teachers.

The seven GTS describe the Professional Knowledge, Practice and Values & Relationships teachers at the point of graduation from an initial teacher education programme will have that are likely to make them effective teachers. Some examples: Standard One is “Graduating Teachers know what to teach”, and an indicator is: “have content knowledge appropriate to the learners and learning areas of their programme.” Standard Seven is “Graduating Teachers are committed members of the profession”, and an indicator is: “are able to articulate and justify an emerging personal, professional philosophy of teaching and learning”.

Since January 2008, initial teacher education providers have to show that new teaching programmes align with the GTS. Teaching students are assessed during practicum on competences that are aligned with the GTS. The intention is that all programmes must align with the GTS by the beginning of 2013.

The GTS were developed by the NZTC in cooperation with, and with the support of, a wide range of representatives from the education community, especially with the Council’s Maori Medium Advisory Group and the Early Childhood Advisory Group. Research and educational literature have also been important. The New Zealand Educational Institute (NZEI) had extensive involvement in the development of the standards, and in the consultation process leading to the final version.

Although it is too early to draw conclusions on the impact of the GTSs on teachers’ daily teaching practice, some research does provide us with interesting insights. Teachers’ expected roles now include designing and implementing teaching and learning activities in response to what their students already know and can do. This requires teachers to evaluate prior knowledge and skills. It can thus be said that teachers’ roles are shifting from giving knowledge to being promoters of learning where they act as mediators or people who guide the learning process through content.

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xxx Although accreditation is linked to the GTS, all initial teacher qualifications must meet both the criteria for accreditation of the New Zealand Qualifications Authority and the Standards for Qualifications that Lead to Teacher Registration of the NZTC. These standards were developed in consultation with the wider education community, including teacher educators, teaching unions and government agencies (2009 Learning to teach).

xxxx Significant sources from the literature used in the development are acknowledged on the Council website at http://www.teacherscouncil.govt.nz/education/gts/.
Level of specificity problem

An important point of disagreement during the discussion of New Zealand’s standards setting has been the issue of “level of specificity” of the standards. Generic standards have in practice been favoured. The NZTC Satisfactory Teacher Dimensions were said to be generic, as are the MoE Professional Standards. In 2006, research commissioned by the unions PPTA and NZEI took a stance against specified standards. It shows the tension between those who favour “generic” standards, i.e. broad descriptors of teachers’ skills and knowledge that are most appropriate for providing broad guidance only, and those who favour “specified” standards, i.e. standards that are explicitly intended to judge teacher performance. They go beyond a general definition of good teaching to attempt to define precisely what is to be taught, what counts as evidence of that teaching, and what counts as meeting the standard. This requires the development of operationalized definitions, concrete examples and scoring rubrics.

The data show that there are both technical and political reasons why in New Zealand general standards have been preferred over more detailed specified standards. It is considered to be easier and less expensive to develop broad standards because their level of generality requires less detailed work and allows consensus. On the other hand, New Zealand teachers have been long concerned about the potential of too-detailed standards for controlling the teaching workforce and sceptical of them on pedagogical grounds. Teacher educators have also resisted the imposition of too detailed standards, especially because of the doubt whether standards will lead to improvements in teacher quality, and whether they can reflect the complexities of teaching.

2.3 The development of Alberta’s (Canada) Teaching Quality Standards

“Quality teaching is built on a solid foundation of knowledge, skills and attributes that teachers demonstrate throughout their careers.”

In Alberta, Canada, a competence-based teaching standard, the Teaching Quality Standard (TQS), is employed. In 1997, the then Minister of Education (MoE) signed a Ministerial Order which set out the TQS and related competences for teaching in Alberta and, in so doing, clarified the expectations for teaching performance. The TQS applies to teacher certification, professional development, supervision and evaluation, and includes descriptors of knowledge, skills and attributes (KSAs) that are
required by teachers. Institutes offering teacher education programmes are required to use the competence standards in programme planning. Deans of Education attest to the achievement of the competences before a new graduate can be recommended for an interim teacher certificate. A beginning teacher is expected to meet the requirements of the interim TQS to achieve permanent certification status.

The development of Alberta’s TQS is interesting because it was characterized by close involvement of and collaboration between many stakeholders, especially the Alberta Teacher Association (ATA). A representative of the ATA says: “Although the process was political enough, it was successful, from our perspective.”

The development of the standards has to be seen against the need to restructure education as a consequence of reduced funding in the 1990s. With these cuts, one of the goals put forward was to “improve education”. To ensure broad consultation and opportunity for input from all concerned with enhancing education, in 1994, Alberta Education decided that a discussion paper would be prepared outlining possible key directions of education. The Council on Alberta Teaching Standards (COATS) was enlisted to work out a process to improve teaching. The Council included five field-based teachers, one teacher-representative of ATA, a representative of Alberta’s teacher preparation institutions, school superintendents, trustees, Alberta Education, and one member of the public at large. The Council reviewed other Canadian and foreign policy approaches to teacher preparation, certification and career-long professional development. However, an ATA representative states that the role of the Government Registrar in charge of the Teacher Certification and Development Branch at the time was central in the development of the principles.

The principles to improve teaching were presented in the discussion paper Quality Teaching: Quality education for Alberta students (1995):

• Teachers are key and critical to the provision of quality education to students;
• Teachers are lifelong learners and becoming a teacher is based on a continuum of learning experiences throughout the teacher’s career;
• Quality teaching is built on a strong foundation of knowledge, skills and attributes that teachers use to help students learn;
• Competence extends beyond credentials and means the “ability to do the job by applying professional preparation and professional development in the service of student learning”;

ATA has both union and professional functions. It is important to stress that ATA is currently in discussions with the government to take over certification, i.e. to take responsibility for determining the standard itself. ATA seeks full self-governance for the teaching profession (Gordon Thomas – personal communication).

Established by the Education Minister in 1985 with a mandate to provide advice to the Minister on all matters related to teachers and teaching (COATS website).
• Competence should be the primary criterion used to determine whether an individual acquires and maintains the authority to teach; and,
• Individual teachers are ultimately responsible for the quality of their teaching, particularly where they have the opportunities to make key decisions that affect that quality.  

The discussion paper proposed a standard for teaching and a new process for evaluation. Copies were distributed to key education stakeholders after which responses were returned. Advisory committees were formed to deal with the development of a standard and evaluation.

The goal of developing a standard to describe teaching quality was initially objected to by ATA as they wanted to prevent the process from being about “ticking boxes”. In ATA’s view: “The goal, at our end, was to keep away from quantitative measures.” These concerns were raised and it was suggested that a qualitative process would work. The ATA was able to convince the Department of Education to develop a teaching standard on the basis of a set of KSAs for initial teacher preparation and a set for permanent certification. Others involved included representatives of the Alberta School Boards Association, College of Alberta School Superintendents and teacher preparation institutions. In 1996 the Integrated Framework to Enhance the Quality of Teaching in Alberta presented the Quality Teaching Standard, descriptors of quality teaching and key competences. These were then authorized under Ministerial Order following discussions with educational partners in 1997.

According to ATA, in general it can be said that the development of the TQS was worked out in an open, collegial environment and broad agreement was found on a standard and on a required approach to teacher evaluation using the standard. There were no major obstacles in the development of the standard and the model that emerged was agreeable to teachers, faculties of education, school boards and government.

2.4 Development of Pestalozzi module ‘Core knowledge, skills and attitudes for all teachers’

The Pestalozzi Programme is the Council of Europe programme for the professional development of teachers and education actors. It comprises three main areas of activity: European Workshops organised in the Member States; European Seminars organised at the Academy of Bad Wildbad; and European Modules for trainer training. The general aim of the modules for teacher trainers is to train education professionals to become multipliers for Council of Europe standards and values in education, such as education for democratic citizenship (EDC), human rights education (HRE), and intercultural and inclusive education.

XXXVI  At the moment, there is talk about updating the KSAs to include more expectations around technology (Gordon Thomas-personal communication).
The recently developed module ‘Core knowledge, skills and attitudes for all teachers’ is one of the European training modules for teacher trainers offered by the Council of Europe’s Pestalozzi Programme for the professional development of teachers and education actors. The module ‘Core knowledge, skills and attitudes for all teachers’ aims to create a better understanding and to develop the competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes) teachers need to reinforce the contribution of education to sustainable democratic societies of the future. The course is targeted to teacher trainers from both the pre-service or in-service training context of formal and non-formal education in all subject matters, and will last for 12-18 months.

A provisional list of competences is the outcome of an analysis of the material that was developed within other Pestalozzi modules between 2006 and 2008, and of descriptions of competences developed in other Council of Europe education projects in areas such democratic citizenship, intercultural education and socio-cultural diversity as well as history teaching. It was concluded that there is a body of components that are common to all themes or areas of interest. During 2009 and 2010 the 30 trainers of the Pestalozzi Network of Trainers have attempted to identify these overlapping components and classify them in the three categories knowledge, skills and attitudes. The competences will be refined and finalised in the module ‘Core knowledge, skills and attitudes for all teachers’

2.5 Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter has looked into the practical experiences with CBTE in a selection of countries and the CoE Pestalozzi Programme. Although these experiences are very different due to their context and nature, some interesting and important lessons can be drawn from this review:

- In all four examples, teacher competence is understood as knowledge, skills and attitudes. In South Africa, “professional values” are part of teacher competence, as in New Zealand. In the latter country, “professional relationships” are part of competence. In all the countries, at least on paper, behaviourist “checklist” approaches to competence standards are rejected;

- All the national examples suggest that the development of a common vision of the desired competences of primary school teachers should be in interaction with all stakeholders. Change cannot be successful without stakeholders feeling ownership towards it. Although disagreement exists on the level/intensity of participation, in most of the case studies the MoE, unions, the profession, academics and other sector organizations have at some point been involved. Interestingly, parent and student organizations are not necessarily part of the process of development of the CPs;
The importance of a clear understanding of the social, economical, political context when engaging in the development of competence standards becomes evident. Reforms should be designed in context, as a divergence between policy and practice seems to stem from a focus on what is desirable rather than feasible. Attention to conditions of reform implementation (e.g. dynamics, time-scale, preparation, resourcing) is essential;

- It is suggested that competence models work best when the competences are gradated to match different stages in the teacher’s career;

- The South African case emphasizes the importance of viewing competence as a collective enterprise: It is clear that implementation of competence-based initiatives cannot depend on individual teachers alone; successful implementations should be school-wide. In a similar vein, sufficient attention to the whole sector should be part of the policy, assisting teachers during the transition from training to practice, especially in dealing with the expected role change, and working out clear strategies to enable teachers and schools to meet the competence standards;

- Teacher evaluation should be an essential part of policy, especially emphasizing the post evaluation follow-up (feedback or support/professional development courses). The competence standards on which evaluation is based should be in line with the standards used for education and qualification.
National in-depth case studies and pilot studies
CHAPTER 3

Chile and Brazil

Chapters 3 until 6 are concerned with case studies from Latin America, Asia, Europe and Africa. This chapter addresses the issue of competence profiles and their implementation in Chile and Brazil.

CHILE

In 2003 the Ministry of Education of Chile, together with the teachers’ union Colegio de Profesores and the municipalities, laid down a Framework for Good Teaching: El Marco para la Buena Enseñanza. A few years earlier, a set of standards for primary school teachers had already been developed by a group of experts in the educational field as a result of a wide national agreement that initial teacher training was not delivering well-equipped teachers.

The first section of this chapter outlines teacher standards in Chile. First a brief overview is provided of the historical context of efforts to strengthen teacher training since the military coup in 1973.

Interviewed stakeholders in Chile include representatives of the teachers’ union Colegio de Profesores, two primary schools, the Ministry of Education, the Academia de Humanismo Cristiano (University) and the Advanced Educational Research Centre (CIAE).

3.1 Dictatorship and its impact on teacher education

The military coup of 1973 and the dictatorial regime that followed had immense effects on teacher education, in particular on the programmes of the University of Chile at the Instituto Pedagógico (Pedagogical Institution) and its regional branches. All of the existing eight universities were placed under military authorities. A process of “ideological cleansing” resulted in the disappearance of many academics, in particular of those working in the social sciences and teacher education.215

In 1981 the military government declared that teacher education should be downgraded from university status to tertiary level and that existing programmes had to be relocated at newly established Higher Academies or Professional Institutes. The academic staff at the Instituto Pedagógico never fully recovered from the traumatic effect of being separated from the University of Chile and inserted into a Higher Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. This development brought to the fore an authoritarian
concept of teacher education; one that stood in open contradiction with the modern professional concepts of the time. The incongruence of this measure and the protests of those concerned made the military authorities retract and in 1987 they reconverted two of the Higher Academies that had belonged to the University of Chile into pedagogical universities. Some years later, with the enactment of the Organic Law of Education (1990), teacher education regained its status as a university career. Currently, universities offer programmes leading to a Licentiate degree as well as a teaching qualification. A small number of professional institutes are allowed to prepare teachers and grant a professional qualification, but not a degree.

Needless to say, all this to and fro had a huge impact on the delivery of teacher education. The Instituto Pedagógico, re-converted into a pedagogical university and the biggest provider of teachers in all specializations, is trying to recover the quality and leadership in teacher education it once had. This also is true for all the other public university teacher education programmes throughout Chile that originally derived from the University of Chile. The easing of conditions for the establishment of private universities and institutes that took place from the eighties onwards has increased the offer of teacher education (though predominantly for pre-school and primary levels). According to all the stakeholders interviewed in Chile – teachers, teacher trainers, academics, policy-makers and the teachers’ union – the quality of the different teacher training programmes varies greatly.
3.2 FFID Programme: standards for teachers

By the mid-nineties the Chilean Ministry of Education authorities became aware that the educational reforms that had been in place since the beginning of the decade would be held back if teacher education did not improve its quality. There was, however, no authority within the structure inherited by the Ministry of Education from the military regime to directly generate changes in teacher education, especially as most of the programmes were administered by autonomous universities. In order to influence change, the Government set up a fund to reward successful projects presented by institutions that wanted to improve their teacher education programmes during a four-year period. A sum of approximately US$ 25,000 was allocated for this purpose together with a scholarship fund to motivate talented secondary school leavers to apply for teacher education studies.\(^{219}\)

In the course of 1997 a complex selection process took place and beginning in 1998, seventeen university teacher education programmes (covering 80% of student teachers) across the country began change processes within the framework of a programme to strengthen initial teacher education. This programme is known as FFID (Fortalecimiento de la Formación Inicial Docente): the result of a broad national consensus that initial teacher training was not delivering the teachers needed for the national educational reform programme and the new imperatives for national development.\(^{220}\)

By the year 2000, as part of the FFID Programme, a set of standards was established, called Estándares de desempeño para la formación inicial de docentes (standards for teaching performance for initial teacher training). These standards were developed by a group of experts consisting of academics and representatives of teacher training institutions.

It is important to note that universities and teacher training institutions have by no means ever been obliged to incorporate the estandares in their curriculum. The FFID Programme Standards instead should be regarded as an informal invitation for teacher training colleges and schools to follow. The FFID standards consist of four facets with associated criteria and indicators, some examples of which are included here:\(^{221}\)

### FACET A

**Preparation for teaching: content’s organization according to students’ learning.**

- Is familiar with his/her students’ knowledge and previous experiences. Example indicators:
  - Is familiar with the typical features of the students’ age group.
  - Is familiar with the students’ family and cultural backgrounds.
  - Takes students’ different ways of learning into account.
- Clearly formulates the teaching goals, appropriate to each student and coherent with the national curriculum framework.
- Masters the teaching content. Points out links between the contents already studied, the current and the future contents.
• Creates and selects teaching materials, methods and activities appropriate to each student and coherent with the class goals.
• Creates and selects strategies of evaluation appropriate for each student and congruent with the teaching goals.

FACET B
Establish a propitious environment for students’ learning.
• Facilitates an atmosphere of equity, trust, freedom and respect in terms of his/her interaction with the students and amongst each other. Example indicators:
  ❑ Creates conditions in which all students feel valued.
  ❑ Respects gender, cultural, ethnical and socio-economic differences.
  ❑ Provides learning opportunities for all students.
• Establishes empathic relationships with the students.
• Proposes learning expectations that are challenging for the student.
• Establishes and maintains consistent standards of discipline and consensus in the classroom.
  Ensures that the physical environment is safe and conducive to an effective learning experience.

FACET C
Teaching for student learning.
• Ensures that the goals and procedures involved in student learning are clear. Example indicators:
  ❑ Clearly indicates the purpose of the lesson.
  ❑ Clearly indicates the procedures that will be followed and gives precise instructions.
  ❑ Correct oral and written language use.
• Ensures that the content of the lesson is comprehensible to the students.
• Beyond the knowledge of mere facts or data, the teacher encourages students to broaden their thinking.
• Verifies that the lesson content is understood through student feedback procedures or through information that facilitates the learning process.
• Uses the time available for teaching effectively.

FACET D
Teacher Professionalism
• Assesses the extent to which the learning goals were achieved. Example indicators:
  ❑ Can properly and based on sound argumentation explain the mark he/she has given to the student.
  ❑ Indicates desirable changes to improve learning and ensure an adequate learning environment in the future.
  ❑ Proposes new strategies to improve results.
• Self-assesses his/her effectiveness in achieving results.
• Shows interest in building professional relationships with colleagues and participates in joint actions of the establishment.
• Assumes his/her responsibilities when guiding students.
• Communicates with parents or guardians.
• Shows an understanding of national education policies and how the school contributes to these policies.

Are the Estándares de Desempeño para la Formación Inicial de Docentes a CP? Opinions vary on this matter. One of the academics involved in the development and formulation of the Estándares de Desempeño framework feels the standards do indeed need to be regarded as competences.

“It’s only a matter of words. According to me, standards are exactly the same as competences. I don’t understand people who feel competences are something different. They make a big deal out of it and I don’t see why. The Estándares de Desempeño are competences within a competence profile. It’s as simple as that.”

A number of interviewed stakeholders believe, however, that the standards for teacher performance are not interchangeable with competences within a CP. A representative of the Ministry of Education states:

“Standards and competences are definitely not the same. The concept of standard is much broader than that of competence. Competences are strict. Competence profiles imply that everything can be measured. However, I believe not everything is measurable. Education definitely isn’t. That’s for sure.”

Since, as said previously, the Estándares de desempeño para la formación inicial de docentes are not mandatory to follow up for teacher training institutions nor schools, the question is to what extent they play a role in teacher and learning contexts. A few of the interviewed actors state that there are several teacher training institutions and schools throughout the country that have incorporated the standards in their curriculum. Notwithstanding, it is also mentioned that there is no monitoring taking place to assess whether future and current teachers make use of the standards. There are also stakeholders, amongst them primary school teachers Patricia and Maria Teresa, who have no idea about the existence of the standards framework.

Patricia has been teaching at a primary school in Santiago for 37 years; Maria Teresa has been active in the teaching profession for 21 years. When asked about their opinions with respect to Estándares de desempeño para la formación inicial de docentes and the FFID Programme, they both respond:

“FFID and its standards for teacher performance? Never heard of it. What is it?”
They do, however, have a lot to say about the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*. In contrast with the *Estándares de desempeño para la formación inicial de docentes* that have no obligatory character whatsoever, the standards for teacher evaluation based on the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* Framework are established by educational law.

### 3.3 Marco para la Buena Enseñanza &

**National Teacher Evaluation System**

The initiative for the instalment of a teacher evaluation system came from the teachers’ union. In 1997 the National Education Congress, organized by the teachers’ union Colegio de Profesores, took place in Santiago de Chile. They concluded that “the state has to develop an evaluation system which, based on the criteria of pedagogy, human development, society and ethics, recognizes the different socio-economic realities existing in our country.”

In the wake of the National Education Congress, the Colegio de Profesores – in cooperation with the Ministry of Education and the Chilean Association of Municipalities (representatives of the public school administrations) – aimed to create a teacher evaluation system. This turned out to be difficult and challenging for all parties. The proposal of the teachers’ union involved setting up technical study commissions to defend a comprehensive evaluation, taking into account the different realities of teachers in Chile and seeking professional development. This approach was opposed by the technocratic sector, which instead proposed control mechanisms connected to results of standardized testing of students. The Colegio de Profesores explains:

> Negotiating with the Ministry of Education and the municipalities was not always that easy… For example, we as a union wanted teacher performance evaluations every four years; the Municipalities were in favour of evaluations every year and the Ministry wanted them to take place every two years. Another example of something we had to negotiate about: we wanted support courses to be organized for teachers who got bad results in their evaluation. The municipalities however, wanted those teachers to be fired. Added to this there were also conflicts within our union. Some of our colleagues had other priorities at that time.”

In 2003 the Ministry of Education, together with the Colegio de Profesores and the municipalities, laid down *El Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* (Framework for Good Teaching), which seeks to represent all the responsibilities that a teacher faces during his or her daily work and that have the potential to significantly impact their student’s learning. All primary teachers from all over the country were given the opportunity to express their opinion regarding the *Marco*. Teachers, however, state that although this seems a participatory process, in reality they didn’t feel they were that much involved.
One primary school teacher says:

‘Yes, every school was involved when the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza was developed. Sounds wonderful, doesn’t it? However, the reality was as follows: one morning we received the whole framework on our desks and we were asked to read it within a few hours. If we had comments, we could tell. But, I ask you, how can you do this within that limited period of time? If you want to reflect on the framework, if you want to analyse it, you need more time. Besides, it would also have been good if someone would have explained to us the context of the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza. We were just handed a piece of paper.’

The Marco para la Buena Enseñanza is – like the Estándares de desempeño para la formación inicial de docentes – organized into four domains, each divided into several criteria and represented by indicators, of which examples are given:

### DIMENSION A

**Preparation of classes**

- Knowledge of the curriculum and content of subject matter. Example indicators:
  - knows and understands the main principles and concepts of the subject matter he/she teaches
  - is familiar with different perspectives and new developments with respect to his/her subject matter
  - understands the relation between the subject matter(s) he/she teaches and the other subject matters
- Knowledge of the students’ capabilities and experiences
- Didactic understanding
- Coherent organization of objectives and contents
- Coherent assessment strategies that are connected to the objectives

### DIMENSION B

**Creating a favourable learning environment**

- Promote an atmosphere of acceptance, equity, confidence, solidarity and respect. Example indicators:
  - establishes an atmosphere of respectful and empathic interpersonal relationships with his/her students
  - provides participation opportunities for all his/her students
  - promotes attitudes of solidarity and compromise between his/her students
- Confidence in students’ learning abilities and development
- Consistency concerning the norms of co-existence in the classroom
- Providing a work environment, resources and space for learning
DIMENSION C

Teaching methods

- Clear and precise presentation of learning objectives. Example indicators:
  - Communicates to his/her students the purposes of the lesson and the goals to fulfil
  - Makes the (self) evaluation criteria explicit to the students
- Coherence, significance and difficulty of teaching strategies for students
- Conceptual level of difficulty and comprehensive conveyance of contents
- Optimizing teaching time
- Promoting and developing thoughts
- Evaluation and monitoring of the students comprehension and learning

DIMENSION D

Professional responsibilities

- Systematic analysis of the teacher’s work. Example indicators:
  - Evaluates the mark students received for their work
  - Analyses critically his/her education practice and reformulates it based on the students’ results
  - Identifies his/her learning needs and tries to satisfy these
- Building relationships and setting up professional teams
- Orientation of students
- Managing information about profession, education system and valid policies

The similarities in content between the FFID standards and the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza are apparent. In fact, most of the stakeholders say that the only difference between them is that the FFID framework leaves a bit more room for interpretation, which is appreciated by some.

As mentioned previously, several of the stakeholders in Chile involved in the making of this report are against the concept of “competence” and refuse also to regard the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza as a CP. A number of representatives of the Colegio de Profesores state unanimously:

“Our union isn’t in favour of the concept of competence. Education is not simply a sum of several ‘points’. It is so much more… Education includes, for example, values. Now, tell us: how can values be measured? Besides, the concept of competence is pretty vague. What do we mean by it? There’s a lot of confusion about how to interpret the concept. You can compare it with the notion of ‘quality of education’. We all talk about it, but do we all know what we mean by it? Everyone has his or her own interpretation.”

The union’s opinion is expressed several times during interviews with stakeholders in Chile. The vast majority of the interviewees prefer ‘standards’ or ‘dimensions’ instead,
which they regard as broader concepts that leave more room for interpretation. Additionally, some of the stakeholders associate ‘competences’ with Western/American ideology. A Colegio de Profesores representative says:

“If you speak of competence-based education, I think of a market-based ideology. I link those two. If we speak of competences in education it is as if education is a commercial enterprise. Education of good quality is not to be reduced to a number of competences. Education should not be regarded as something instrumental and technical.”

The Chilean National Teacher Evaluation System – which has as its purpose “to strengthen the teaching profession and to improve the quality of education” – is a mandatory evaluation process established by law in 2004, when the old evaluation system was replaced by a new one. Each teacher has to submit to evaluation every four years, and the final result is expressed in four possible performance levels: outstanding, competent, basic and unsatisfactory. The standards for the evaluation system are based on the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza.

The evaluation is based on four instruments, which define the overall evaluation category for each teacher the percentages do not add up to 100 so I suggest we leave them out. Or else, indicate a ranking in terms of degree of importance, but not percentage:

1. The **self-evaluation** consists of questions seeking to generate reflection and evaluation on their performance from the teachers themselves, in accordance with the criteria and descriptions of the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza framework. They are requested to qualify themselves as unsatisfactory, basic, competent or outstanding.
2. The **portfolio** includes two modules. The first consists of written evidence about planning of teaching and the evaluation of students (a lesson plan and an assessment plan), and the other is a video of a 40-minute class. These two modules are scored on 8 dimensions (two for the planning of teaching, two for the student’s assessment, one for the teacher’s reflection about his/her performance and three based on the video).
3. The **peer evaluation** consists of an extensive interview conducted by an external, trained interviewer appointed by the Ministry of Education. It is based on the scope and criteria of the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza. The evaluator will classify the teachers’ answers as Unsatisfactory, Basic, Competent or Outstanding.
4. A hierarchical superior formulates the **third party reference report**. It consists of questions regarding the teacher’s performance and again, the evaluation categories are unsatisfactory, basic, competent or outstanding.
Evaluation of teachers’ performance since 2003 has been done step by step and includes only teachers working in public schools. The test results until 2007 are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results of teacher evaluations</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>33.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competent</td>
<td>56.6%</td>
<td>50.8%</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
<td>56.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outstanding</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of teachers evaluated</td>
<td>3,740</td>
<td>1,721</td>
<td>10,695</td>
<td>14,207</td>
<td>10,415</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


These numbers have been subject to different interpretations. The teachers’ union has used the figures to make clear that teachers cannot bear all responsibility for problems related to quality and equity. They have been protesting against the use of the results by the media, since media tend to draw a disastrous picture. Some politicians have focused on one third of all teachers being classified as unsatisfactory or basic, and only 8 outstanding; teachers’ associations call attention to the fact that half of the teachers are ‘competent’, and only 2-3% of teachers have severe difficulties.

If one compares the 2007 results with the first teacher evaluation in 2003, 57.9% of those classified as “competent” maintained or improved their performance; 76.5% of those classified as “outstanding” maintained on this level. And, 43.3% of teachers who were evaluated as “basic” in 2003, were “competent” or “outstanding” in the next year. Moreover, teachers of first grade who were being evaluated for the second time, obtained better results than those tested for the first time. Of the evaluated teachers in 2003, 56.2% was found “outstanding” or ‘competent’ in 2007. That is 9% above the results obtained by teachers who were evaluated for the first time in 2007.

Teachers are assessed every 4 years, unless they receive the lowest performance level (unsatisfactory), in which case they have to be re-evaluated the following year. Teachers who receive the two lowest categories (unsatisfactory and basic) are offered professional training programmes. Teachers with good results (competent and outstanding) are eligible for an economic incentive called the Variable Assignment for Individual Performance. They have to take a pedagogical and subject knowledge standardized test and depending on their performance they could receive one of three scales of salary increase.
3.4 Implementation of the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza

The majority of the people interviewed stress the importance of the existence of a framework for teacher performance. The main reason mentioned by all is that it contributes to the quality of education. A number of them, however, find the Marco standards too prescriptive and would favour a more general framework that leaves more room for interpretation.

All of the stakeholders feel that some aspects need to be improved with respect to implementation of the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza. To begin with: the standards may or may not be incorporated in teacher training curricula and may or may not coincide with individual teacher performance standards that primary schools might have formulated. In other words: in practice it is possible that a huge gap exists between what teachers are being evaluated upon every four years and what they have learned during teacher training or in their school environment. As one of the interviewed primary school teachers says:

“There is teacher education, daily practice in the classroom and evaluation. These three are different islands with a lot of sea between them.”

There is general agreement amongst almost all interviewees that teachers who do not perform well according to the evaluation do not get proper and sufficient support to improve themselves. Courses are provided, but they differ immensely in quality and have an impersonal general character. Additionally, the courses take place during evening hours or at weekends, because of the workload of teachers during the week. Also, the interviewed teachers all know of examples of excellent teachers who receive bad evaluations. A teacher asserts:

“The national evaluation system isn’t of much use. The purpose of an evaluation should be to inform and support teachers. Not to condemn them. It turned out that I wasn’t doing well on the evaluation of pupils, but nobody supported me to improve that aspect of my work. I also don’t like the fact that the evaluation course is far from personal. There are standard responses to wrong answers. And a colleague of mine came out terribly in the evaluation, although we, her colleagues, honestly consider her to be one of the most excellent teachers. She understands the desires of her students, she’s sensitive to their backgrounds, she has good contact with the children and she has profound knowledge of the subject matter. And her pupils adore her. How to explain her bad results in the evaluation? I definitely don’t understand this.”

XXXVII By the time the case study researcher was in Chile (July 2010), the Ministry of Education was concerned with developing new standards to evaluate students at the end of their teacher training and before they enter daily working practice in schools.
Another teacher also criticizes the one-size-fits-all approach of the national teacher evaluation, but from another perspective. She works in a primary school with children with special needs.

“I work with children with special learning necessities. The way we work has absolutely nothing to do with the criteria of the evaluation. I work, for example, mainly on an individual basis with my students. Our reality is so different… However, I am evaluated by the same criteria as all other primary school teachers… The evaluation gives me a lot of stress. I feel like I have to perform a role that doesn’t suit me.”

3.5 Conclusions and recommendations from Chile

From the Chilean case study it becomes clear that to understand the character of teacher education and the way it is delivered one needs to understand the wider economic and political context in which it developed. Chile inherited from the military regime an authoritarian concept of teacher education, and the quality of teacher training programmes varies greatly across the country.

Guided by the concern for quality, two frameworks were developed that are relevant to primary teachers. The non-mandatory 2000 MoE FFID standards developed by academics and representatives from teacher training institutes, and the standards of the Marco para la Buena Enseñanza, a union initiative developed in 2003 in cooperation with the MoE and municipalities. It is unclear to what extent the former framework is used, as there is no official monitoring. Some of the interviewees never heard of the FFID standards. The latter framework is widely applied.

The process of development of the Marco is generally criticized; it has been difficult finding a middle ground between technocratic and more developmental views, and disagreement on frequency of evaluation existed, as well as on whether to fire or support teachers that scored low. Also, teachers felt they were given too little time to review the Marco.

Very evident in Chile is the resistance to the term “competence”. Although both the frameworks describe dimensions of teachers’ performance, and consist of criteria and indicators, a number of the people spoken with strongly oppose the idea of these being called competence profiles. Some object for ideological reasons (they link the concept “competence profile” to Western market-based ideology), and some because they believe “competence” is too narrow and strict as a concept and thus leaves little room for different interpretations. Others feel not everything is measurable, such as teachers’ care for children and teachers’ values, and ‘competence’ is seen as the equivalent
of ‘that which is measurable’. Education is not a sum of several points, it is argued. Others oppose the term because it is “too vague”.

The importance of moving away from a quantitative technical or purely instrumental view of education towards the development of a broad framework based on commonly shared understandings of competence, with attention for “less easily measurable aspects” such as values, thus becomes evident from the Chilean experience. Also, the need becomes clear to establish shared understanding of what is meant by competence, and to inherently link this to the definition of quality teaching.

Notwithstanding the discussion about the existence or non-existence of a national CP, which basically is a discussion about concepts, all the people interviewed in Chile agree that a common framework for teacher performance does contribute to the quality of education. These standards should include the visions of those directly involved: the teachers. When developing competence frameworks, thought should be given to how best create conditions that will allow all stakeholders to effectively understand and analyse the framework and to formulate an opinion, such as time and background information. Interestingly, in both the development of the FFID and the Marco, neither parents, nor the community or students were involved, which raises again the question of who should be involved in the process of development of CP?

The issue of evaluation is highlighted. Again and again it is stressed that the standards on which the Marco are based do often not form part of the curriculum of teacher training institutions or schools. Teacher training, daily classroom practice and evaluation systems are three isolated islands, whereas stakeholders feel that education should be approached holistically and the same standards should be employed for teacher training, daily performance and evaluation. Support/professional development courses are currently not of consistent quality. Stakeholders are in favour of courses based on an individual approach in which the different needs and problems teachers face receive proper attention.

Also, the question is raised of what is done with the result, i.e. to control or support/inform teachers? It is stressed that teachers should never be solely held accountable for the quality of education. Some raise the concern that good teachers do not necessarily score high on their evaluation. Lastly, stakeholders feel thought should be given as to whether all teachers should be evaluated according to the same tests, or whether there should be specialized tests for special education teachers.

The Chilean stakeholders believe an international framework that describes core knowledge, skills and attitudes for teachers to have in order for them to be able to deliver quality education for all teachers around the globe might be worth striving for. They also all state, without exception, that indicators are context-bound.
### SUMMARY OF VIEWS EXPRESSED BY STAKEHOLDERS INTERVIEWED IN CHILE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A good teacher:</th>
<th>An international competence profile should:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Has profound understanding of the content of the subject matter;</td>
<td>• Describe standards or competences in general terms. There has to be room for interpretation by the different teacher training programmes and schools;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has enough methodological tools in his/her toolbag to select what methodology is appropriate in different learning contexts;</td>
<td>• Not formulate indicators. These are always context-bound, and they can never be formulated in general terms and thus should not be laid down in a profile or framework;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is sensitive towards the different needs and backgrounds of students;</td>
<td>• Be accompanied by the establishment of adequate circumstances to accomplish standards/competences;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cares for his/her students;</td>
<td>• Be developed in cooperation with key players in education. Participation is crucial while developing a teacher profile. Sufficient information about the profile has to be provided as well as enough time to reflect upon the profile;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ensures the maximum opportunities of learning and development of every child in his/her context.</td>
<td>• Be incorporated in the curriculum of teacher training institutions and in daily school practice. In other words: standards and criteria in evaluation should be in line with standards and criteria in teacher training and daily work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
BRAZIL

Brazil is a federation composed of 26 States and a Federal District. It is the world’s fifth largest country, both by geographical area and by population. Brazil has no mandatory national CP for teachers. There are, however, guidelines for teachers established by law: the LDB (Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação Nacional).

This chapter first addresses briefly the question of why Brazil has no CP, according to the stakeholders interviewed; then it will describe the LDB guidelines for teachers and the way the LDB is implemented in daily educational practice.

Interviews were held with people working in universities (3), the Ministry of Education, primary schools (3), Education Centre Paulo Freire, teachers’ union CNTE, PROIFES (forum for teachers of federal universities) and the Federal Senate Legislative Council.

3.6 The absence of a national teachers’ CP

There are three distinct political entities in Brazil: the States, the Municipalities and the Federal District. Education is organised differently across the country: each State has its own demands for teachers to comply with.

The concept of ‘primary school’ has been non-existent in Brazil since the early 1970s. Instead ‘basic education’ is used and is compulsory for children within the age group 6-14 (grade 1-9). Those who want to become primary school teachers must either study Pedagogy (allows one to teach grade 1-5, age group 6-10) or Licensatura (‘licensed to teach a specific area’: allows one to teach grade 6-9, age 11-14).

A number of reasons are mentioned by the stakeholders in Brazil for the absence of a national CP for primary teachers. The most commonly heard is the country’s immense diversity regarding the cultural, economic, linguistic, historical and social contexts in which people live. Due to this it would, it is argued, be extremely difficult to develop a national CP for all teachers. A representative of the Ministry of Education says:

“I would like a CP for our teachers, but it is not easy to realise in a country that is as diverse as ours. We have, for example, 227 indigenous languages. And there are many different populations. How to make ONE profile? People living in rural areas face a completely different reality than those living in the big cities. A child growing up in the Amazon deals with a different context than a boy or a girl in a neighbourhood of São Paulo where the well-to-do live. People have different needs. It’s Brazil’s diversity that constructs our identity… And we’re proud of our diversity.”
Other reasons mentioned by stakeholders for the current absence of a national CP in Brazil include:

- Teacher training is a relatively new phenomenon. Until the 1950s teachers were not trained in higher education institutions. Instead they received their training in secondary schools;
- Teacher training institutions don’t collaborate; they don’t decide jointly the purpose of their programmes. Each institution believes it is delivering the best teachers;
- Teacher training institutions don’t discuss jointly the curriculum that should be included in their programmes. Some institutions give priority to the practice of teaching, whereas others focus more on theory;
- Resistance to the competence concept.

Although Brazil’s heterogeneity might make it a difficult exercise to formulate a teacher profile that can be applied in the whole country, the majority of the people interviewed are in favour of a profile in which a number of core competences are formulated. A representative of teachers’ union CNTE believes that despite the huge diversities a national and even an international CP is desirable. He argues:

“All these differences… The North of Brazil, for example, is completely different from the South… In a rural area people might not have access to the internet. And in Arabic countries relations between men and women may be different from ours… There are so many differences within and between countries I could mention… But still: everybody needs a good teacher. There are a few main competences that all teachers around the globe should posses.”
The question of who decides is a shared issue. A teacher trainer working at a State University in Brasilia says:

“\textit{It is good to think about competences all teachers should have in common in order for them to be good teachers. But, the question we do need to ask ourselves as well is: What institution or authority would be able to formulate it?’}"

A fear shared by practically all the people interviewed with respect to the establishment of a CP is that theorists will be the ones who have the power to construct the CP. An education expert said: “What definitely must not happen is that some rich countries develop a model, because for example they get economic or cultural benefits out of it.” A stakeholder once very active for teachers’ union CNTE, and currently a consultant on educational issues at the Federal Senate, adds:

“\textit{The concept of Competence Profile is not a Brazilian concept. It’s the World Bank who wants us to have a CP. I feel however also that it would be good to establish a few main competences for all teachers, but this must be the result of a bottom-up process. It’s of crucial importance to formulate goals for the education system of one’s country and this includes goals for the teaching profession.”}"

All the stakeholders agree on the process being ‘bottom-up’, and they feel that the CP must be the result of the joint effort of several kinds of stakeholders, such as teachers’ unions, teachers, teacher trainers, the Ministry of Education, the Education Secretaries of States and universities.

A primary school teacher raises the concern is that training in competences is not enough to improve the teaching profession:

“\textit{Education is not just about competences. What is crucial is an awakening of a critical outlook in professionals. They need to perceive the educational process as a whole. It’s history and sociology for example…”}"

As stated, the vast majority of the stakeholders feel it is important for Brazil to develop a CP; one that is sensitive towards all the different contexts in which the population lives. Notwithstanding the huge difference between realities of people, the stakeholders believe there are a number of core competences that all teachers, regardless of their circumstances and backgrounds and the context in which they teach, should possess. The profile, every one stresses, must be relevant to all teachers, whether someone lives, for example, in an indigenous rural village or in an urban setting. Therefore, it is strongly believed by all the people interviewed that indicators must never be generic. Instead, they need to be context-bound and should be the result of discussions and negotiations.
between key figures in a certain community or educational setting such as teachers, teacher trainers and universities.

Just a few of the people interviewed mention that it is also important to exchange ideas with stakeholders from other countries in the process of developing *indicators*, whereas most of them think it can be very fruitful to exchange ideas with foreign stakeholders while drafting *competences* for a national CP.

### 3.7 LDB and Diretrizes Curriculares

“We don’t have a national competence profile. We have the LDB and the Diretrizes Curriculares.” This is how almost every interview in Brazil starts. What is the LDB then? “It consists amongst other things of competences for primary teachers working in public schools and is mandatory in the whole of Brazil,” the stakeholders answer. But is it not a CP? “No, most certainly not,” is everyone’s reply.

The Guidelines and Bases for National Education Law (*Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação – LDB*) defines and regulates the Brazilian educational system based on constitutional principles. The first LDB, created in 1961, was followed by a second version in 1971 and its most recent version was issued in 1996.

A multitude of actors were involved in the process of the development of the LDB, amongst them representatives of the Ministry of Education, civil society, the National Association of Professional Training, the National Association of Education Administration and the National Workers Confederation. It was hard, state a number of stakeholders, for the involved actors in the development process to agree. “They all had different agendas and there were a lot of disputes between them,” says a professor at the Federal University of the State of Mato Grosso do Sul, “so that is why the LDB and its Diretrizes have a very general character. They leave a lot of room for interpretation.”

The 1996 LDB’s main characteristics are:

- Democratic management of public education and progressive pedagogical and administrative autonomy for school units (art. 3 and 15);
- Mandatory and free basic education (ensino fundamental) (art. 4);
- A common nucleus for basic and middle schooling, plus a diversified part to deal with local differences (art. 26);
- For basic education, teachers need higher level education (undergraduate) training, whereas to teach early childhood education and the first four grades of basic schooling the professional needs training in *Normal do ensino médio* (art. 62);
- Required training of specialists in education consists of higher education training (undergraduate or graduate) in Pedagogy (art. 64).232
Profile for primary teachers: training requirements

Of its 92 articles on curriculum content for basic education nationwide, those under Title VI of Chapter V (articles 61 to 66) address the training expected of education professionals:

- Art. 61. The training of education professionals, to meet objectives of the different levels and modalities of education and the characteristics of each phase of development, will have as its fundamental basis: I – association between theory and practice, including in-service training; II – acceptance of previous training and experience in educational institutions as well as other activities;
- Art. 62. The training of teachers to work in basic education takes place at the higher education level resulting in a licenciatura (license to teach) degree in full graduation at universities and higher education institutions, as the minimum training required for the exercise of teaching early childhood education and the first four first grades of basic education;
- Art. 63. Institutions of higher education will maintain: I – training courses for basic education professionals, including the normal higher education course designed for the training of teachers for early childhood education and the first grades of basic education; II – programmes of pedagogical training for those holding graduate diplomas and wishing to dedicate themselves to basic education; III – continuing education programmes for the professionals at diverse levels;
- Art. 64. The training of education professionals for administration, planning, inspection, supervision and educational orientation in basic education will be at undergraduate Pedagogy courses or at graduate levels depending in the institution’s criteria of education. In such training, a national common framework is guaranteed;
- Art. 65. Except for higher education, teacher training will include teaching practice of at least three hundred hours;
- Art. 66. Preparation for teaching higher education will occur at the graduate level mainly in Masters and PhD programmes.

Complementary norms – Pedagogy graduates

Articles 61 to 66 refer to norms that complement the LDB in a separate document from 2006 called “National curricular guidelines for the Pedagogy course” (Lei Diretrizes Curriculares Nacionais para o Curso de Pedagogia). It is stated there that “the Pedagogy graduate will have to be able:

- To act ethically and be committed to the construction of a just, egalitarian society;
- To understand, care for and educate children from zero to five years of age, contributing to their physical, psychological, intellectual and social development;
- To strengthen children’s development and learning, as well as of those who do not have access to school at the proper age;
• To work in spaces inside and outside school, promoting learning in citizens at different phases of human development, and in diverse levels and modalities of the educational process;

• To recognize and respect physical and cognitive development and needs, as well as students’ emotional and affective needs both individually and within groups;

• To apply ways to teach foreign languages, Portuguese, Mathematics, Sciences, History, Geography, Arts, and Physical Education in an interdisciplinary manner adapted to the different phases of human development, particularly in children;

• To relate the languages of applied media to education in didactic-pedagogical processes, demonstrating command of the appropriate information technologies and communication to the development of significant learning tools;

• To promote and facilitate cooperation between the educational institution, the family and the community;

• To identify socio-cultural and educational problems with an investigative, integrative and open posture when facing complex realities, seeking to contribute to overcoming social, ethnic-racial, economic, cultural, and religious practices of exclusion and such;

• To demonstrate a consciousness of diversity, respecting differences of an environment-ecological, ethnic-racial, generational, social class or religious nature, as well as gender and special needs and choices, amongst others;

• To develop teamwork, establishing a dialogue between education and the other areas of knowledge;

• To participate in the management of institutions where they work as students or professionals, contributing to the elaboration, implementation, coordination, accompaniment and evaluation of the pedagogical process;

• To participate in the management of their institutions, planning, executing, following and evaluating educational projects and programmes pertaining to both school and non-school environments;

• To carry out research that provides knowledge, amongst others, about: students and the socio-cultural reality of their non-school experiences; teaching and learning processes in different environmental-ecological mediums; curricular proposals; and the organisation of educational work and pedagogical practice;

• To use, with ownership, instruments for the construction of pedagogical and scientific knowledge;

• To critically study and apply the curricular guidelines and other legal provisions as needed, and to execute, evaluate and direct the result of this evaluation to the relevant institutions.
In the case of indigenous teachers and teachers who come to work in indigenous schools: given the particularity of the populations with which they work and the situations where they work, they should also:

- Promote dialogue between fields of knowledge, values, ways of life, and philosophical, political, religious orientations specific to the culture of the indigenous people among whom they work as well as those from the majority society;
- Act as intercultural agents, seeking to value and study relevant indigenous themes.

These same orientations apply to the training of teachers for schools of quilombos (rural Afro-Brazilian populations) or that are characterized by their reception of populations from specific ethnicities and cultures.

3.8 Implementation of LDB

“If 10,000 out of all the teachers in Brazil have read the LDB and the Diretrizes it would greatly surprise me. To most of the teachers, it’s just a piece of paper. Also, each single state and municipality interprets the documents differently.”

These are the words of a Brazilian specialist in educational issues.

A teacher trainer working in a public university in Brasilia states:

“The LDB Diretrizes define a profile for teachers. The guidelines set down what is expected from them. They give teachers a basis for linking theory with practice. But the truth is that universities often don’t work with the guidelines. We know this, because the Ministry of Education has carried out an assessment of pedagogy courses in universities.”

And then there’s a university professor of the Federal University Mato Grosso do Sul (one of the states in Brazil), who says:

“The quality and content of the different pedagogy courses throughout the country vary, but still the courses are being conditioned by the guidelines as formulated in the LDB National Curricular Guidelines for the Pedagogy Course. Teacher training programmes operate within the Diretrizes framework. Within its matrixes.”

By the time the author concerned with the case study research was in Brazil, the Commission of Education, Culture and Sports had developed a bill to alter the LDB (which establishes guidelines for national education) to elaborate on basic education teacher training. On July 6th, 2010, it passed the Senate and has gone on to the House of Representatives. It will become law once published. Regarding Art. 62, National Congress decrees that from now on the minimum training required of basic education teachers will be the licenciatura degree in higher education to teach early childhood education and the first five years of ensino fundamental. Also, States will enable and provide financial incentives for the training of teaching professionals to work in public basic education. Those already in service will have 6 years to begin and conclude a licenciatura course. Furthermore, in-service continuing education will be guaranteed to professionals in basic and higher education institutions. Regarding Art. 67, the government will give technical assistance to the States, the Federal District and municipalities in the elaboration of concursos publicos (mandatory state exams teachers have to pass in order to be permitted to work in the classroom). Project title: Projeto de Lei da Câmara (PLC) nr. 280.
A pedagogy professor at a private university in Brasilia adds:

“The national Curricular Guidelines for the Pedagogy Course are mandatory. These are part of a law. Universities have to incorporate the guidelines in their curriculum. However, every university interprets the LDB and its Diretrizes differently.”

Thus, visions on the question of implementation of the LDB guidelines vary to a great extent. About half of the people interviewed say that the guidelines are indeed the foundation on which teacher training courses base their programmes. Others are certain that although in theory teacher training institutions are obliged to use the guidelines as the framework of their programme, in practice this is often not the case. Opinions also vary on the implementation of LDB guidelines in primary schools’ daily practice. A number of interviewees state that schools use the guidelines; others that although some might, others don’t bother about the guidelines at all. A pedagogy professor at a private university in Brasilia mentions a study conducted by one of her students on discrimination at primary schools. The anecdote illustrates that daily practice can be opposed to what the guidelines advocate:

“There was an Indian boy who came with his parents to Brasilia. They used to live in a rural community in the Amazon, but the parents moved to our city in search of a job. They are very poor and live on the streets. The boy cannot read. His teacher doesn’t want to give him extra attention. She literally said: ‘The boy can’t read because he is an Indian. Indians don’t know how to learn. Why put extra effort to get him to study?’”

Notwithstanding the fact this teacher’s attitude is opposed to several guidelines of the LDB, she can continue this discriminatory behaviour without any problem because she will most probably not be evaluated according to the guidelines.

3.9 Teacher evaluation and support

According to practically everybody interviewed, the set-up of primary teacher evaluation is very poor in Brazil. The majority of stakeholders state that primary schools have not formulated guidelines or frameworks for their teachers, and nor do they have a list of competences based on which teachers are assessed. Some say primary schools have documents describing the standards of teachers, but if evaluation takes place at all it is felt that it is done in a very informal manner (for example the headmaster passing by and observing a class for a while). Evaluations are not followed up. If it turns out a teacher didn’t conduct his/her class properly, very rarely feedback is provided, let alone a course for professional improvement.
A university professor from the State of Mato Grosso do Sul explains that in her State primary teachers have a three-year probation period in which they are assessed. A representative of teachers’ union CNTE states that this kind of evaluation in the probation phase is in line with the LDB guidelines, and that – depending on the state – courses are provided to teachers who don’t perform well in evaluations. Courses are never mandatory and it is important to note that this kind of evaluation doesn’t take place in all states in Brazil.

After teacher education, everybody who wants to work in the classroom has to pass a State Exam called the Concurso Público. The Concurso Público content varies across the country, some consisting for example predominantly of multiple choice questions while others might have a more holistic approach towards teachers’ knowledge, attitudes and skills and can include, for example, a pedagogical evaluation list. Every State has its own institute that is concerned with composing the exam and implementing it. None of the interviewees has compared the exam with a competence profile. If one takes a closer look at the Concurso Público for teachers in the State of Pará (a northern State), one could however interpret the exam as a CP.235

WRITTEN EXAM EVALUATION CHECKLIST

- **Clarity/Cohesion**
  - Coherent writing in logic-thematic terms (logical linking of discourse in accordance with what was solicited in the selected item)
  - Adequate and correct use of technical-scientific terminology
  - Content domination and relevance
  - Authors and titles reference

- **Written Communication**
  - Well-structured composition without syntax, punctuation and/or orthographic errors

- **Handwriting**
  - Legible / a little legible / impossible to read

CONTENT CHECKLIST

- **Introduces subject**
  - Presents the topic of the class
  - Presents desired learning to be achieved at the end of the class
  - Commands content
  - Transmits assurance in content knowledge

- **Displays vocabulary adequate to content**
  - Subject matter's technical vocabulary
  - Language at students’ level
• Reinforces the learning of presented content
  - Reviews key points
  - Recommends content-fixing exercises

• Bibliography
  - Indicates or makes bibliographical references

• Empathy
  - Involves student in participating
  - Updated and current knowledge of content

PEDAGOGICAL EVALUATION CHECKLIST

• Content observed
  - Content-related objectives
  - Procedures
  - Adequate didactic resources
  - Forms of evaluation
  - Bibliography

• Orality
  - Uses clear and correct language
  - Adequate tone of voice

• Teaching technology
  - Uses teaching techniques adequately
  - Uses didactic resources adequately

• Time
  - Makes adequate use of time available for class

• Methodology
  - Class displays continuity in its development
  - Organisation

• Conclusion
  - At the end of the class, candidate evaluates class, allowing for an integral view of the whole

If one compares this to the Concurso Publico of, say, Sao Paulo, one can conclude that the highly populated city of São Paulo has a main focus on theoretical knowledge of teachers whereas Pará pays great attention to practical knowledge and pedagogical issues.

According to a few interviewed stakeholders the State exams are a superficial way of testing future teachers. Teaching encompasses, they argue, so much more than is paid attention to in the test.
3.10 Conclusions and recommendations from Brazil

As in Chile, in Brazil the importance of a sound understanding of the education context before embarking on processes related to educational change becomes clear. Education in Brazil is organized differently across the country; each state has its own demands for teachers to comply with.

The Brazilian interviewees express the view that Brazil does not currently have a national CP. However, Brazil does have guidelines for teachers – the LDB – that consist amongst others of competences for primary teachers and which could be called a competence framework. Thus, as in Chile, the importance of establishing shared understandings of terms and meanings of concepts becomes evident. However, also similarly to Chile, in the process of development of the LDB it was extremely difficult to reach consensus between all the different involved people because everybody had different agendas.

Interviewees attribute the lack of a national CP to Brazil’s enormous cultural, economic, linguistic, historical and social diversity. In addition, the relatively recent nature of teacher training institutes and the lack of cooperation between teacher training institutes on the purpose of programmes and curricula are mentioned. However, there is a desire for a national CP that specifies a number of core competences for all primary teachers, as in the end “everybody needs a good teacher”. It is stressed that such a CP cannot incorporate generic indicators; indicators should always be context-bound, because the CP should be responsive to the country’s enormous diversity and relevant to all teachers. Many of the stakeholders agree that any teacher performance framework should perceive the educational process as holistic, including knowledge of history and sociology, and that it is fundamentally about awakening a critical outlook in professionals.

The issue of who will develop a CP is raised. All the stakeholders in Brazil feel that the development of a CP must be the result of a “bottom-up” collective effort of several stakeholders, such as teachers’ unions, teachers, teacher trainers, the Ministry of Education, the Education Secretaries of States and universities. A fear of imposing views of theorists or external agencies is expressed by all. It is generally felt that the CP should be fundamentally linked to the goals established for education and the perceptions of what constitutes good quality education.

Stakeholders disagree on the extent to which the LDB is implemented in teacher training and primary schools. They do agree that each state interprets the framework differently, and that the daily practice can be quite different from what is prescribed (e.g. discrimination). Evaluation is generally felt to be poor; either there are no guidelines in primary schools, or evaluation is done informally. Follow-up/feedback is generally absent.

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The Ministry of Education of Brazil is in the process of developing evaluation standards for primary school teachers, since they express their discontentment with the current teachers’ assessment system. The Ministry wants a new evaluation system with respect to teacher evaluation during teacher training and regarding assessment in the daily classroom practice.
### SUMMARY OF VIEWS EXPRESSED BY STAKEHOLDERS INTERVIEWED IN BRAZIL

**A good teacher:**
- Is dynamic and flexible;
- Likes children and knows how to work with them;
- Develops him/herself constantly professionally;
- Focuses both on the intellectual development of students and on citizenship training;
- Has knowledge of all different kinds of methodologies and knows which methodology to use depending on a child’s needs;
- Knows his/her pupils, recognizes their capabilities and encourages them to develop themselves further;
- Acts responsibly.

**An international competence profile should:**
- Consist of content knowledge, didactics, philosophy, psychology, history, pedagogical knowledge, theories about learning, knowledge of the politics of education, knowledge of the context in which the teaching-learning process takes place;
- Not have generic indicators, as different contexts require different indicators;
- Address knowledge, skills and values;
- Respect cultural diversity, therefore indicators must always be context-bound.
CHAPTER 4

India and Malaysia

INDIA

India comprises 28 States and 7 Union Territories (that are further divided into Districts); education is organized by the individual States. The country's National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education is being widely used by pre-service teacher training institutions. The Framework defines guidelines considered essential for all teachers throughout India.

Interviewed institutions include teachers’ union AIPTF, the District Institute of Education and Training (DIET) of the Southern District of Delhi, the Jamia Millia Islamia University, NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training), NCTE (National Council for Teacher Education), a primary school and TSG (technical Support Group Ministry of Human Resource Development; Department of School Education and Literacy.

This section starts with a description of teachers’ guidelines, the way they were developed and their content. Then their implementation in daily practice is addressed. Lastly, the opinions of the interviewed stakeholders regarding a national and international competence profile will be addressed.

4.1 Teachers’ opinions on a Competence Profile

“I have a teachers’ profile in my head. Not on paper.” The headmaster of a public primary school in New Delhi laughs. His school has over 750 students, the teacher:pupil ratio being approximately 1:45.

Although in India there is less resistance towards speaking of competences than is the case in South American countries Chile and Brazil, a number of the stakeholders interviewed are not fond of the concept of ‘competence’. Neither does the majority of them like the concept of ‘standard’ (as they, for example, prefer to use in Chile). On the other hand the notion of ‘guideline’ is considered much more appropriate. The chairperson of the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) – the Statutory Body of the Government of India and concerned with the development and formulation of the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education – explains:

[X] Other concepts that by were not appreciated by a number of the interviewees were ‘evaluation’ and ‘interview’. Instead the stakeholders in general preferred ‘assessment’ and ‘interaction’.
“When you speak of competences in teachers, it means you approach education in a very technical way. We prefer to speak of guidelines. We also don’t like the notion of standards, since we associate a standard with something rigid. Something that is all but flexible. And although I am not against competence profiles for teachers, I still like the concept of guidelines for teachers a lot better. However, we have not been defining and spelling out competences so far, as is the case in countries such as Sweden and Australia. We have however developed guidelines for teachers all around the country.”

There have been efforts to develop a national CP. In the early 1980s for example, a handbook on core teaching skills was published by the National Council of Educational Research and Training.²³⁷

One of the two authors (currently working for the AIPTF teachers’ union) states:

“Thousands of copies were sold. And a lot of universities have incorporated the content in their curriculum. It was the result of eight years of research throughout many different States in India. It has, however, never been obligatory to work with the 20 competences we’ve formulated. But I feel these are competences that all teachers should have. No matter in what state they live.”

Despite endeavours to establish a national mandatory CP, up till now India has not created one: neither in pre-service training nor in primary schools, and nor does a national profile exist as an instrument for teachers’ evaluation. A representative of the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) shares:

“We don’t have a national competence profile that’s obligatory for our teachers. We have The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education, the National Curriculum Framework and the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education. This last framework is probably the closest to a CP.”

The NCERT representative is not the only stakeholder comparing the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE) with a CP. One of the interviewed persons, a university professor in Delhi, even states that India’s NCFTE is a CP. This view however is not shared by the other interviewees.

²³¹ In India you have pre-service teacher training and in-service teacher training. All primary teachers are obliged to follow an in-service teacher training course each year for 10 or 20 days (depending on a State’s in-service training policy). In-service training programmes are need-based programmes. The content of the training depends on the educational needs in a certain area. In-service training is organized at District level by District Institutes of Education (DIETs). There is no Competency Profile in in-service training. Teachers are not evaluated during this annual training.
In general, there’s agreement with respect to the question of why a mandatory national CP for primary teachers is absent in India. In fact, the main reason coincides with one also mentioned by stakeholders in Brazil: the country’s diversity. Because of India’s huge heterogeneity (e.g. cultural, socio-economical) a national CP should never consist of rigid competences and indicators, all of the stakeholders say; it must by all means leave room for interpretation and be sensitive towards people’s different contexts and accordingly different needs. One of the NCERT representatives mentions for example that “children with special needs need teachers to have other competences than ‘normal’ children,” and a NCERT professor asserts:

“One cannot be rigid in the formulation of a CP. Look for example at the concept of ‘childhood’. Every society, every context interprets this concept differently. Or let us examine children’s obedience. In India we consider it very important for children to be obedient. And we don’t find it incompatible with the concept of child centeredness. I know however, that in some countries children’s obedience cannot be linked with child centeredness.”

The NCERTs Head of the Department states:

“You have so many kinds of schools! There are big classes, small classes, urban schools, rural schools, schools with facilities, schools without facilities, there are schools in remote areas, single teacher schools… How would you like to assess all the teachers based on one single rigid profile?”

However, the fact that India hasn’t got a national CP for primary teachers doesn’t mean that there is no desire to develop one. The vast majority of the interviewees express their wish for such a profile, because they feel this can contribute to the quality of educators. They are in favour of a national, and even an international CP, comprising a number of guidelines that teachers are obliged to follow, regardless of the context in which they live and work. A NCERT representative stated that “no external agency should be interfering be with contextual aspects of education. These need to be developed by teachers themselves.” She also feels that some competences should be formulated that are to be mandatory for all teachers. She mentions specifically communication skills (with the students and their parents), a proper attitude (e.g. encourage students to develop their potentials. No mental harassment whatsoever), and sound knowledge (e.g. pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of the subject matter). A colleague of hers explains during a group interaction his preference for the notion of guideline instead of competence and he expresses his point of view on the content of a CP:

The interaction took place in the NCERT office, where about twenty NCERT representatives were present to share their views with respect to teachers’ competencies and teachers’ assessment.
“I feel one could make a list of core competences that should apply for all teachers, no matter in which part of the world they live. Still, these competences are preferably called guidelines. The concept of guideline is more flexible. And yes, these guidelines must be mandatory. A few of the core guidelines are that teachers should have pedagogical and communication skills, they must have content knowledge and they must care for children. But some issues within the education system are contextual. Always. For example, the curricular content and the interaction between teachers and pupils.”

4.2 Existing Frameworks for Teacher Education

Let us have a brief look at the documents referred to by a number of stakeholders when answering questions regarding teachers’ profiles in India. Overall, they refer to the three documents mentioned by the NCERT representative cited above, the first being The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act 2009\(^\text{238}\) (which came into force in April 2010). With respect to the topic of this report, section 24 and 29 are considered important by the stakeholders:

Section 24: “A teacher (…) shall perform the following duties, namely:

(a) maintain regularity and punctuality in attending school;
(b) conduct and complete the curriculum in accordance with the provisions of sub-section (2) of section 29. (see below)
(c) complete entire curriculum within the specified time;
(d) assess the learning ability of each child and accordingly supplement additional instructions, if any, as required;
(e) hold regular meetings with parents and guardians and apprise them about the regularity in attendance, ability to learn, progress made in learning and any other relevant information about the child; and
(f) perform such other duties as may be prescribed.”

Section 29 (2): “The academic authority, while laying down the curriculum and the evaluation procedure (…) shall take into consideration the following, namely:

(a) conformity with the values enshrined in the Constitution;
(b) all round development of the child;
(c) building up child’s knowledge, potentiality and talent;
(d) development of physical and mental abilities to the fullest extent;
(e) learning through activities, discovery and exploration in a child friendly and child-centered manner;
(f) medium of instructions shall, as far as practicable, be in child’s mother tongue;
(g) making the child free of fear, trauma and anxiety and helping the child to express views freely;
(h) comprehensive and continuous evaluation of child’s understanding of knowledge and his or her ability to apply the same.”
Secondly, interviewees mention the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005. The NCF was developed by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), together with many other stakeholders, including scholars from different disciplines, principals, teachers and parents, students, representatives of NGOs, State Secretaries of Education and Directors of State Councils for Educational research and Training (SCERTs). The document seeks to provide a framework within which teachers and schools can choose and plan experiences that they think children should have.

NCF’s guiding principles are:

- Connecting knowledge to life outside the school;
- Ensuring that learning is shifted away from rote methods;
- Enriching the curriculum to provide for overall development of children rather than remaining textbook-centric;
- Making examinations more flexible and integrated into classroom life; and
- Nurturing an over-riding identity informed by caring concerns within the democratic polity of the country.

However, according to the majority of stakeholders, the most important document regarding teachers’ competences is the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education. The following paragraph derives from the Preface of the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education 2009.

“This National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE, 2009) elaborates the context, concerns and visions underscoring that teacher education and school education have a symbiotic relationship and developments in both these sectors mutually reinforce the concerns necessary for qualitative improvements of the entire spectrum of education including teacher education as well. (…) Issues related to inclusive education, perspectives for equitable and sustainable development, gender perspectives, role of community knowledge in education and ICT in schooling as well as e-learning become the centre-stage in the Framework.”

The National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), a statutory Body of the Government of India, is engaged with developing guidelines for (future) teachers. The previous NCTEs Framework is from 1998. Teacher education needs to be seen, as stated in the NCFTE, “as a holistic enterprise involving actions of different kinds and from multiple fronts aimed at the development of the total teacher – knowledge and understanding, repertoire of skills, positive attitudes, habits, values and the capacity to reflect.” Although these fit the definition of competences, they are not specifically referred to as such.

Note: "The main objective of the NCTE is to achieve planned and coordinated development of the teacher education system throughout the country, the regulation and proper maintenance of Norms & Standards in the teacher education system and for matters connected therewith." See: http://www.ncte-india.org/ (last checked by the author on the 28th of September 2010)
In the process of developing the NCFTE 2009, NCTE received all kinds of input from educationists and experts in teacher education. The initial draft of the NCTE 2009 was developed by an Expert Committee, based on the ideas generated in a series of intensive deliberations by the members of the committee and scholars, teacher educators, teachers, trainee teachers, representatives of NGOs, Faculty of RIEs (Regional Institutes of Education) of NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training), SCERTs (State Councils for Educational Research and Training), DIETs (District Institutes of Education and Training), IASEs (Institutes of Advanced Studies in Education), CTEs (Colleges of Teacher Education), university departments of education, and state departments of education at consultative meetings. The document was subsequently posted on the NCTEs website for feedback. Based on the received input and recommendations, amongst others from a number of university professors, NCTE fine-tuned the draft and sent it to state governments. After having incorporated their recommendations, the document was ready. Workshops were organized to prepare teacher educators working with the Framework and how they could incorporate the Framework in their syllabus. A few universities in the United States of America were also invited to share their views on the framework. NCTE’s chairperson shares:

“We look at what changes take place in schools. We explore the challenges within the education community, the new demands, emerging issues… What we want is to sensitize teachers for new challenges. While developing our Framework, we held country wide consultation with all different kinds of stakeholders, such as teacher educators, teacher administrators, civil society, education NGOs, policymakers, curriculum designers… This process of consultation took about two years. One of the main reasons our Framework is widely embraced is because of the involvement of all these stakeholders during the development of it. We involved so many levels…”

The NCFTE consists of guidelines for teachers which are not mandatory by law. Notwithstanding, according to the vast majority of the interviewees the NCFTE is used as a framework for teaching all around India. The inclusive process of the development of the Framework is been one of the principal reasons that most of the teachers (trainers) have welcomed it and are using it, according to the interviewees.

The Framework asks teachers to:

• Care for children and love to be with them, understand children within social, cultural and political contexts, develop sensitivity to their needs and problems, treat children equally;
• Perceive children not as passive receivers of knowledge, augment their natural propensity to construct meaning, discourage rote learning, make learning a joyful, participatory and meaningful activity;
• Critically examine curriculum and textbooks, contextualize curriculum to suit local needs;
• Do not treat knowledge as a ‘given’, embedded in the curriculum and accepted without question;
• Organize learner-centred, activity-based, participatory learning experiences – play, projects, discussion, dialogue, observation, visits and learn to reflect on their own practice;
• Integrate academic learning with social and personal realities of learners, responding to diversities in the classroom;
• Promote values of peace, democratic way of life, equality, justice, liberty, fraternity, secularism and zeal for social reconstruction.

The Framework further states that “this can only be achieved if teacher education curriculum provides appropriate and critical opportunities for student teachers to:

• Observe and engage with children, communicate with and relate to children;
• Understand the self and others, one’s beliefs, assumptions, emotions and aspirations; develop the capacity for self-analysis, self-evaluation, adaptability, flexibility, creativity and innovation;
• Develop habits and the capacity for self-directed learning, have time to think, reflect, assimilate and articulate new ideas; be self-critical and to work collaboratively in groups;
• Engage with subject content, examine disciplinary knowledge and social realities, relate subject matter with the social milieu of learners and develop critical thinking;
• Develop professional skills in pedagogy, observation, documentation, analysis and interpretation, drama, craft, story-telling and reflective inquiry.”

The Framework then provides concrete suggestions on how teachers’ education can be redesigned. Again, these are suggestions or guidelines, and there are no indicators formulated that are related to these guidelines.

According to NCTE chairperson it is too early to draw conclusions on the effects of the implementation of the Framework, since it was only in 2009 that the document was published, but he and all the other stakeholders interviewed do say with certainty that States have incorporated the guidelines of the Framework in their pre-service teacher education curriculum.

4.3 Implementation of the NCFTE

How the NCFTE is included is decided individually by each and every training programme, as well as which elements of the Framework need to carry the most weight. The great majority of the stakeholders believe that the flexible character makes it easy for diverse teaching and learning contexts to use the Framework according to their specific needs and interests.
As the teacher training institutions in the different States utilize the Framework depending on their wishes and contexts, the way teachers are being assessed varies across India. Some of the interviewees say that once teachers work in a school, they never get assessed anymore. Others state that some schools assess their educators on a regular basis. A primary school teacher asserts:

“Once in a while our principal visits my class. He sits down in the back of the classroom and starts observing me and the children. He stays about a quarter of an hour and then he leaves. Later he will tell me what he thought of my lesson. This, I feel, in an extremely subjective system of assessment. He doesn’t use a certain framework. Yes, his personal one. He just expresses whether he likes how I am doing my job.”

The principal of a DIET in New Delhi explains:

“All teacher education institutions make their own decisions regarding their students’ assessment. And principals of schools also decide themselves how they want to assess their teachers.”

“We have to work on teachers’ assessment,” says the Head of the Department of the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), concerned with the development and formulation of the National Curriculum Framework. Without a single exception, all of the stakeholders interviewed feel that overall teachers’ assessment system is poor throughout the country. Their main comment is that the assessment, if it takes place at all, usually doesn’t lead to better quality teachers. In the NCFTE it is stated that:

“Qualitative dimensions of teacher education, other professional capacities, attitudes and values remain outside the purview of evaluation. Further, evaluation is not continuous as it should be.”

A representative of the National Council of Educational Research and Training says:

“Teachers don’t get support on how to improve themselves after being assessed. They only hear that they performed well or lousy. What’s the use of hearing that when you have no idea how to become a better teacher?”

With respect to evaluation during pre-service teacher training: unsurprisingly, evaluation criteria again differ considerably throughout the different regions, but also between teacher training programmes. In general, future teachers being assessed during their internship in a primary school by their educators of the pre-service teacher training.

xliv The latest version of the National Curriculum Framework is from 2005.
For example, the 15 assessment criteria of a teacher training institution in the South District of Delhi are:

- Personality (max. 5 marks)
- Confidence (5)
- Voice Modulation (5)
- Use of gesture & expression (10)
- Language command (10)
- Writing of Teaching Plan (5)
- Lesson presentation (10)
- Content Command (10)
- Blackboard Work (5)
- Lesson pacing (5)
- Teaching Methodology (10)
- Student Participation (5)
- Class Control (5)
- Use of Teaching Aid (5)
- Evaluation of Learning Outcome (5)
- Total Marks (maximum 100)

Other training programmes may have slightly or completely different assessment criteria.

The NCFTE gives suggestions and criteria with respect to evaluation in teacher education, including observing learners for a specified duration in specific situations (e.g. number of hours of observation, method used, reports); observational records maintained by the student teacher on a set of criteria relevant to the tasks and report writing (e.g. field notes); school contact practicum to relate and communicate with learner (e.g. preparation, choice of activities, materials, creativity, interaction with children); planning for the school
contact (e.g. communication skills, time management, organisation of materials); post-contact discussions, report writing and group presentations (e.g. insights, analysis, reflections), psychological and professional development of the teacher (e.g. courses, capacity to integrate thought and action, feeling and intellect, open-mindedness, social sensitivity); assessing a repertoire of skills (e.g. use of library, organizing field visits and exhibitions, story telling skills); understanding the learner, curricular and pedagogic issues (e.g. observation of classroom teaching practices, visits to centres of innovation, reflections); teacher as researcher (e.g. analysis of school textbooks and alternative materials, analysis of learners’ errors and observation of their learning styles and strategies), internship activities on which students may be assessed (e.g. teaching-learner resources developed, evaluation of learners, type of questions in domain areas); and reflective journal (e.g. short description of how the class was conducted, how learners responded, capacity to include learners’ sharing of their experiences). Once more, these are suggestions for evaluation and not mandatory assessment criteria.

4.4 Conclusions and recommendations from India

The great majority of Indian stakeholders express the view that India does not currently have a competence framework for teachers. As was the case in Brazil, the current absence of a CP is attributed to the country’s enormous diversity. However, according to the interviewees, the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE), which provides teacher guidelines, closely resembles a competence framework. As in Chile and Brazil, the concept of “competence” is generally not appreciated; instead the term “guideline” is preferred. Again, it is crucial to take a closer look at the meaning that is given to the term competence, i.e. the way it is understood. The Indian stakeholders associate competence with approaching education in a technical and rigid way, whereas guidelines are more flexible. As in Chile and Brazil, the Indian stakeholders are not necessarily against a mandatory competence profile for primary teachers, as they feel this can contribute to the quality of educators. Also, there is common understanding and agreement regarding the development and the content of a CP. Interviewees express that the reason why teacher training institutions have integrated the non-mandatory guidelines of the NCFTE is for a great deal due to the fact that many stakeholders were involved in the development of the Framework, such as education scholars and experts, teacher educators, teachers, teacher trainees, NGO representatives, and local and national education institutes. Interestingly, in the development of the other framework mentioned by the stakeholders – the NCF – both student and parent organizations were involved. Thus, if a national CP were to be realized in India, stakeholders feel it is of utmost importance that the process of development should be an inclusive and participatory one, that all kinds of relevant actors have their say, that there’s enough room and time to exchange ideas, and that preparation workshops take place. The opinion was expressed that no external agency should be interfering with contextual aspects of education.
Also, interviewees generally agree that a CP should take the form of “concrete suggestions”, that is should leave sufficient room for interpretation, and that it should never consist of rigid competences and indicators, since people’s social, geographic, economic, linguistic contexts and individual needs vary immensely.

Implementation of the NCFTE is decided individually by the training programmes. Although the flexible character makes it easy to employ the framework according to specific needs, this also leads to a situation in which the character and frequency of teacher assessment differs across India. The short time of the evaluation and subjectivity of evaluators are mentioned as problematic. As in both Chile and Brazil, stakeholders feel teacher evaluation can improve enormously. It is felt that even when assessment takes place, this doesn’t lead to better quality teachers since evaluations are not followed up with support. Qualitative aspects such as professional capacities, attitudes and values remain outside evaluation, and is it not continuous.

**SUMMARY OF VIEWS EXPRESSED BY STAKEHOLDERS INTERVIEWED IN INDIA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A <strong>good teacher:</strong></th>
<th>An <strong>international competence profile</strong> should:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Can deal properly with diversity in the student population and is sensitive to children’s different needs;</td>
<td>• Be developed in a participatory way;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is understanding;</td>
<td>• Consist of flexible guidelines, and leave room for diverse interpretations;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Knows the background of his/her students;</td>
<td>• Stress the importance of inclusive education;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Encourages creativity in his/her pupils;</td>
<td>• Not develop indicators, as indicators need to be context-dependent.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Is flexible;</td>
<td>• Develops him/herself continuously;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Develops him/herself continuously;</td>
<td>• Encourages his/her students to become good human beings;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Encourages his/her students to become good human beings;</td>
<td>• Stimulates an all-round development of the child;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Stimulates an all-round development of the child;</td>
<td>• Should create an interactive learning and teaching environment;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Should create an interactive learning and teaching environment;</td>
<td>• Promotes effective learning on the part of his/her students, both in the cognitive and in the non-cognitive domains;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Promotes effective learning on the part of his/her students, both in the cognitive and in the non-cognitive domains;</td>
<td>• Has sound knowledge of the subject matter;</td>
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<td>• Has sound knowledge of the subject matter;</td>
<td>• Has communication skills;</td>
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<td>• Has communication skills;</td>
<td>• Has managerial skills;</td>
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<td>• Has managerial skills;</td>
<td>• Is pedagogically competent;</td>
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<td>• Is pedagogically competent;</td>
<td>• Is patient;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Is patient;</td>
<td>• Uses participatory teaching and learning methods;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Uses participatory teaching and learning methods;</td>
<td>• Loves and cares for children;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Loves and cares for children;</td>
<td>• Has language command.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MALAYSIA

Malaysia, consisting of 13 States and 3 Federal Territories, has a highly centralized education system. State and local governments have little to say regarding the curriculum or other important aspects of education. The population of the country consists of three main ethnic groups: Malay, Chinese and peoples of the South Asia subcontinent.

Teacher Education Institutes work in accordance with a national competence profile, called the Standard Guru Malaysia or Malaysian Teachers’ Standards. Added to this, primary school teachers need to perform in line with two other CPs: the PTK profile and the LNPT profile. The first concerns content knowledge whereas the LNPT is about teachers’ performance.

In what follows, the focus is on the meaning and content of these different CPs, as well as the way teachers experience working accordingly. First, salient features of teacher education in Malaysia and the Malaysian Teachers’ Standards will be described.

In Malaysia, meetings were organised with two primary schools, two secondary schools, NUTP (National Union of the Teaching Profession), two divisions of the Ministry of Education (Competency Development & Assessment and Teacher Education) and the Institute Aminuddin Baki (National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership).

4.5 Some teacher education features & standards in teacher training

In Malaysia, the Ministry of Education (MoE) is concerned with the training of primary teachers via the Institute of Teacher Education (ITE), previously known as Teacher Training Colleges. In 2006, Teacher Training Colleges were upgraded to the status of institutes. The goal of establishing ITEs is to ameliorate the quality of teacher education in Malaysia. ITEs’ lecturers are expected to have at least a master’s degree in their respective disciplines and are encouraged to acquire a PhD in their respective fields.

The Teacher Education Division (TED), together with the Institutes of Teacher Education and the Public Institutes of Higher Education (PIHE) are responsible for the planning and implementing of teacher training to fulfil the need for teachers in schools nationwide. Three main aspects are emphasized to ensure the development of high quality teachers, namely the values of the teaching profession, knowledge and understanding, and teaching and learning skills.

The biggest challenge for the TED division is catering to the various mediums of instruction used in schools existing in the Malaysian education system. There are three major types of public schools in the country: the National Schools, in which the Malay language
is used as medium of instruction (although in recent years English has been used to teach science and mathematics); the Chinese schools, which use Mandarin as the medium of instruction; and the Tamil schools, using the Tamil language as instruction medium. ITEs have to provide training in the respective languages while teaching other subjects, for example sociology and psychology, in the national language. It is compulsory for all types of schools to be proficient in English.

The MoE of Malaysia has developed The Malaysian Teachers’ Standards as a guide and reference for all teachers and teacher educators. Stakeholders interviewed, including the Teacher Education Division of the MoE, say the Standards are the equivalent of competences. All 27 teacher training institutes across the country use the MTS; their curriculum is conform the standards in the manual. The MTS was only recently published, in 2009.

The Malaysian Teachers’ Standards are defined as follows by TED: “A statement of professional competences that ought to be achieved by the teachers and the statement of the aspects prepared and implemented by the ITE and agencies.” The formulation of the MTS has been based on the following, as can be read in a paper prepared by TED:

- In order to function effectively as professionals, teachers need to enhance their practice of the values of the teaching profession, knowledge and understanding, and teaching and learning skills;
- Teacher training institutions and agencies should have clear and complete descriptions for policies, curriculum, infrastructure, teaching staff, teaching and learning resources as well as quality assurance procedures to ensure that the training process is smooth, effective and of high quality;
- The MoE is striving to promote excellence amongst the ITE and consequently be a model for others;
- The Malaysian Teachers’ Standards has outlined criteria and standards consistent with the Malaysian Qualifications Framework which sets the general standards and criteria for higher education.

The Standards were formulated for the following purposes:

1. To identify the level of teachers’ professional competence related to their practice of the values of the teaching profession, knowledge and understanding, and teaching and learning skills;
2. To identify the level of readiness and the implementation of training needs by teacher training institutions and agencies to ensure that the desired level of teacher competence is achieved;
3. To help identify the policies and development strategies for teacher education that need to be improved upon in line with developments and current challenges in the world of education.
The three Standards of the MTS are as follows:

**Standard 1:** The practice and the values of the teaching profession – details the professional values and practices in the personal, social and professional domains that a teacher ought to possess.

- Values focused upon in the **personal domain** are belief in God, honesty, sincerity, knowledge, kindness, patience, tact, fairness, caring, perseverance, competitiveness, being tough, alertness, being active and healthy, possessing interpersonal and intrapersonal skills, a volunteering spirit and efficiency.
- Values emphasized in the **professional domain** are love for the profession, being smart, integrity, being an example to others, practicing teamwork, being proactive, creative and innovative.
- The main values in the **social domain** are being in harmony, developing social skills, having a community spirit, patriotism and love for the environment.

**Standard 2:** Knowledge and Understanding – gives in detail the competence levels of the knowledge and understanding in the major discipline chosen, education studies, curriculum and co-curriculum that a teacher should possess. This standard explains in detail the competences for teaching and learning that teacher should possess:

- Philosophy, goals, curriculum and co-curriculum objectives, learning outcomes, and teaching and learning needs for the subject taught.
- Content of the subject taught.
- Information and Communication Technology (ICT), media and education resources in the implementation of the curriculum and co-curriculum.
- Strategies to create a conducive learning environment.
- Methods of assessment and evaluation, and action research to improve the practice of teaching and learning.
- Student potential and the ways to develop it in a holistic and integrated manner.

**Standard 3:** Teaching and Learning Skills. These skills use various approaches, methods and techniques and integrate thinking skills, creative and innovative skills, learning skills, information and communication technology skills, facilitation skills and skills for assessment and evaluation.

The MTS Manual has also incorporated indicators that relate to each of the three standards. For example, with respect to Standard 1, the degree to which student teachers practice the values of three domains (personal, professional and social) is measured. Regarding Standard 2 (Knowledge and Understanding), examples of indicators are the degree to which student teachers master the syllabus; assessment methods; ICT; and strategies to create a conducive learning environment. And thirdly, the student teachers are evaluated concerning, amongst others, their planning skills; the way they take into account the differences in capabilities of children and the degree to which student teachers master classroom management skills.
Since the MTS Manual was only very recently published, it is too early to examine teachers’ points of view on working with and implementing the Standards in daily classroom practice.

4.6 Competence Profiles for primary school teachers

Primary school teachers are evaluated by a three-level evaluation system: the PTK test, the LNPT classroom performance evaluation and the Federal Inspectors’ assessment. With respect to the last evaluation: a Federal Inspector observes the teacher, writes a report based on these observations and sends this to the director of the State Education Department. However, the stakeholders interviewed speak of CPs of the PTK test and the LNPT when asked about CPs in their country. They don’t make reference to the CP of the Federal Inspectors’ assessment. Therefore, in what follows attention is paid to the PTK CP and the LNPT CP and the evaluations based on these teachers’ profiles.

4.6.1 PTK CP

In 2003, a new assessment test for teachers was introduced by the Public Service Department: the PTK. The associated CP consists of exclusively knowledge competences. The PTK annual assessment made it possible for educators to get promotion and a higher salary on condition that they had excellent test scores.

On the question of who was involved in the process of development of the PTK, opinions vary. According to representatives of the Competency Development and Assessment Division of the MoE, a lot of teachers from all over the country were involved. They state that the establishment of the PTK and the CP related to it was the result of a participatory process. They also assert that pre-service teacher training is synchronized with what a teacher is supposed to know during the PTK assessment.

Teachers spoken with, however, do not agree: neither regarding the statement about the way the PTK and its CP were developed, nor with respect to the statement that teacher training curriculum is in line with what teachers are being evaluated upon during the PTK test. According to the interviewed teachers, there was no opportunity to give feedback on the PTK, and what they learned during their pre-service training has little to do with what they are supposed to know for the PTK exam.

Previous to the establishment of the PTK test and the related CP for teachers, teachers were evaluated only by their school principal and a senior assistant. A representative of teachers’ union NUTP explains why this was problematic:
“The introduction of the PTK has created more promotional opportunities for teachers; also regarding their payment. Additionally, before 2003 teachers were only being evaluated by the school principal and the senior assistant. And before 1992 the principal was the only person concerned with assessing teachers. He/she then came into the classroom once in a while. This sort of evaluation can be unfair. Far too subjective by in its nature. There were, for example, many good teachers who never got promotion.”

She continues by saying that “we’re not in favour of the assessment test, but at the moment we have no alternative.” Apart from the positive aspects of the PTK – that it creates promotion opportunities for teachers, and its objective character – NUTP representatives have their thoughts about its content and value. One of them explains:

“At first, the content of the PTK had almost nothing to do with the teaching profession. It was all about Malaysian laws and factual knowledge on things that do not relate to teachers’ daily practice. In 2004, one year after the introduction of PTK, only a very, very limited number of teachers had passed the test. It was shocking to all of us. To the teachers, to our union, to the parents, to everybody… There were pupils who came to know the weak test score of their teachers, and started to humiliate the teacher. Consequently, several teachers felt ashamed at school.

“We as a union felt that we had to take drastic action. In 2005 we organized a big gathering. With about 1000 people we held a demonstration against the government.

“Slowly the government started to change the new teachers’ profile. The PTK has improved considerably in the last years. The number of exam assignments has decreased and PTKs ‘preparation’ syllabus has improved. But we weren’t included in the development of the CP. We don’t have collective bargaining rights.”

The teachers’ union organizes teachers’ competences courses annually, sometimes twice or three times a year, in which teachers are given tools to be better equipped to do the PTK exam. The MoE mentions it organizes support courses as well.

According to NUTP, the introduction of the PTK exam affected teachers negatively in several ways. A representative raises the very interesting issue of how age affects the development of competence:

“For young teachers, who don’t have a family to take care of and thus have more time to study, the test is easier than for older teachers who have children and a household to look after.”
The fact that teachers still have to reproduce a lot of factual knowledge on topics that do not relate to their profession is also mentioned. The union states that the PTK test score doesn’t necessarily say something about the quality of a teacher. One of the NUTP representatives:

“A teacher can be excellent in the classroom, but may fail in the assessment test. That’s a weakness of the system. A lot of demands are being placed upon teachers’ shoulders. They have to know so much… also about irrelevant stuff. For example, they have to know a great deal about all kinds of federal laws.”

In general, the teachers interviewed are not in the slightest way pleased about the PTK evaluation. They criticize the PTK for not reflecting daily classroom practice. They also express their discontentment about the lack of feedback afterwards; they feel they don’t get support on how to improve their knowledge competences. Additionally, in accordance with the union, they all firmly believe that quality of teaching encompasses a lot more than what test results show. And even high test results might not necessarily be related to good quality teaching. A teacher states:

“A lot of young teachers are just teaching because they don’t know what else to do. They simply can’t find another job. So their heart is not with education. And I firmly believe that if that is the case, you shouldn’t enter the teaching profession! The attitude of commitment is so important…”

The other interviewee teachers agree, and state there are many excellent teachers who don’t pass the PTK exam. Some mention this has led to teacher demoralization and emigration. Others choose to simply ignore the test results:

“We, myself and my colleagues, don’t bother about the PTK results. We just want to teach. As long as the children are enjoying my lessons I am happy. It’s all I want. It’s as simple as that. Test scores are of minor importance to me.”

4.6.2 LNPT CP and evaluation

Like the PTK, the LNPT (also called the Annual Performance Appraisal Report) was developed by the Public Service Department, only years earlier – in 1992. Taking into account the criticism of many teachers (addressed below), it can be doubted whether a great number of relevant stakeholders, such as teachers, principals, and teacher trainers, were involved in the development of the LNPT.

Before 1992 only the school’s principal was concerned with teachers’ evaluation. In the LNPT evaluation, apart from the principal also a senior assistant is engaged with teachers’ assessment. Whereas the PTK assessment has the teacher’s knowledge as
its main focus point, the LNPT focuses on teacher’s performance. The evaluation format, consisting of a number of competences and indicators used by principals and senior assistants, is the same all across Malaysia.

Apart from the competences and indicators described below, the evaluation also consists of questions regarding co-curricular activities of teachers, such as following relevant courses or participating in relevant projects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competences</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work effectiveness</td>
<td>Quantity; quality; timeframe; effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills and Knowledge</td>
<td>General knowledge; performing in line with national educational policy;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>communication with colleagues; communication skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal qualities</td>
<td>Leadership; administration skills; disciplinary skills; cooperative skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Together with a senior assistant, the school’s principal composes a teacher’s performance report. A number of teachers interviewed complain that they never hear about the outcome of the LNPT. Or they do hear about it, but they don’t receive sound feedback on what aspect of their performance they should improve. A primary school teacher:

“If most principals, as is the case, don’t show the outcomes of the assessment to the teacher and don’t inform him/her about the reasons for a positive or negative outcome of the assessment, what’s the use of the evaluation?”

A teacher can get promotion if the school principal nominates him/her for being an ‘excellent’ teacher. One of the teachers interviewed is rather sceptical about the way in which and the criteria on which the principal’s evaluation takes place. She states:

“I was teaching for over 25 years in a particular primary school and I never got promotion. Then I decided to work in another school. In my second year I got promotion for being an excellent teacher! Can you imagine? What does that say?”

Another teacher adds to this:

“It’s not a good system, the LNPT evaluation. Just observing teachers for a little while doesn’t reflect how they do their job. You may not have your day, for example, when the assessment takes place. I feel the children are the best evaluators. If they do well, if they look happy, I am doing my work right.”

The majority of teachers say that the competences described in the LNPT do not include some essential qualities a good teacher should have. Besides, they explain, some of the competences may be difficult, if not impossible, for teachers to work in accordance with. Take for example ‘interactive teaching methodology’. A teacher:

“Some of the competences you are assessed upon can not be matched with classroom’s reality. Say, a teacher has many pupils who do not master the English language. How then can you be interactive in your teaching methodology?”

A few teachers also question whether it is possible at all to use a CP in order to be able to evaluate educators. One of them:

“I feel that a lot of skills that I believe a teacher should possess are extremely difficult, even impossible in some cases, to measure. How can you measure if a teacher cares for children, for example? And to which degree he or she is passionate about the profession? Therefore, my opinion is that education cannot be simplified into competences and indicators. You cannot measure education in all its aspects.”
Notwithstanding the criticism on the CPs in their country, the majority of the stakeholders do feel that it is desirable to strive after the establishment of an international CP. Again – as in the previous country case studies of Chile, Brazil and India – everybody says indicators should always be context-dependent. A representative from the National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership of the Ministry of Education (Insitut Aminuddin Baki) verbalizes an opinion commonly heard during interviews:

“Indicators are context-bound. One cannot isolate him or herself from the context. And schools operate in diverse contexts. Values vary, backgrounds are different. Say, for example, you want ICT education to be mandatory and incorporated in a competence profile throughout the world, or across a nation. This would be ridiculous, since remote rural schools have neither access to computers nor the internet.”

4.7 Conclusions and recommendations from Malaysia

The highly centralized Malaysian education system has three different CPs relevant to primary teachers:

1. The Malaysian Teacher Standards, developed by the MoE and published in 2009, which are competences all teachers and teacher educators need to acquire. All Teacher Training Institutes in the country have incorporated these standards and have synchronized standards and curriculum.

2. The PTK CP for teachers already working in the classroom, which focuses on teachers’ knowledge competences. Test scores are linked to pay rates.

3. The LNPT profile is focused on teachers’ performance; i.e. work effectiveness, skills, personal qualities, and co-curricular activities. Both the PTK and LNPT are national evaluations; the competences evaluated are the same throughout Malaysia.

Disagreement exists regarding the process of development of these CPs: the MoE claims to have involved all different kinds of stakeholders, but teachers refute this. Their main criticism on both the PTK and the LNPT CPs are:

- What teachers are tested on doesn’t reflect teachers’ daily classroom reality;
- High test results not necessarily imply a practice of good quality teaching. Equally, good teachers not always score well on tests;
- The lack of feedback after the evaluation;
- The lack of support on how to improve themselves.
Concerning the PTK, interviewed teachers agree that a great deal of knowledge one is supposed to possess according to PTK standards has nothing to do with, and is not relevant for the teaching profession. Consequent teacher demoralization and emigration are mentioned. And with respect to the LNPT it is commonly claimed by teachers that some of the essential qualities of a good teacher are not, or cannot, be addressed in the evaluation. Subjectivity and limited time of evaluations are found to be problematic. Interestingly, the issues of how age and gender affect competence development are raised. The feeble bargaining position of the teacher union NUTP becomes evident throughout the case study.

Notwithstanding the criticism on the Malaysian CPs, the majority of the stakeholders do feel that it is desirable to strive after the establishment of an international CP. Again, as in the previous countries of Chile, Brazil and India, everybody says indicators should always be context-dependent.

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**SUMMARY OF VIEWS EXPRESSED BY STAKEHOLDERS INTERVIEWED IN MALAYSIA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A good teacher:</th>
<th>An international competence profile should:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Possesses pedagogical knowledge;</td>
<td>• Consist of a description of attitudes, skills and knowledge;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has sound knowledge of the subject matter;</td>
<td>• Not include generic indicators as indicators are always context-bound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is patient;</td>
<td>• Involve teachers with different (socio-cultural) backgrounds from diverse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can motivate students;</td>
<td>contexts in the process of realization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Cares for children;</td>
<td>• Ensure clear communication between the different stake-holders involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is passionate about teaching;</td>
<td>to avoid the risk of discrepancy between what is taught during teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Has a flexible attitude and embraces new</td>
<td>training and what you are evaluated on when working in the daily practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knowledge;</td>
<td>of the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Is creative, and not exam-oriented as</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>exam-oriented teachers limit their</td>
<td></td>
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<td>creativity.</td>
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CHAPTER 5
The Netherlands & Slovenia

THE NETHERLANDS

In the summer of 2004, the Dutch Parliament passed the Professions in Education Act (called BIO Act). The essence of the Act is that educational staff (teachers, assisting staff members, school managers) must not only be qualified, but also competent. For this reason, sets of competences and requirements for them have been developed for teachers. Schools are obliged to take competent staff into their employment and subsequently enable them to keep up their competences at a high level and to further improve them; teacher training colleges use these competences as a guideline to their educational programme.249

The process of development of the BIO Act is first discussed. Then, the content of the competence framework for primary teachers is addressed. Lastly, opinions of stakeholders regarding the CP and its implementation are highlighted.

The interviewed stakeholders in the Netherlands include representatives from teachers’ union AOb, teachers’ union CNV Onderwijs (CNVo), SBL (the Association for the Professional Quality of Teachers), the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, Hogeschool van Amsterdam (teacher training college) and Zirkon (an organisation specialised in education and development).

5.1 BIO Act: Professions in Education Act

A large representation of a professional group of teachers developed the competences with their requirements at the request of the Dutch Minister of Education, Culture and Science. SBL, the Association for the Professional Quality of Teachers – as a representative of the Dutch teachers’ unions and of the professional associations – facilitated and gave advice to this professional group of teachers during the process.250 Various working groups of teachers worked out a proposal for competence requirements under the supervision of SBL. From September 2000 onwards they made an inventory of typical professional situations, actions and responsibilities, which served as a basis for the description of seven teachers’ competences (to be addressed in the next section).

Subsequently, this description model was tried out in portfolio projects. During this time, teachers in primary, secondary and vocational education put their own competence on the screen in the form of a teacher portfolio, while the working groups continued developing and formulating competence requirements.
The first phase ended in April 2002, when the first version of the proposal for competence requirements was handed to the Minister of Education at the time. This version was published on the SBL-website and widely spread amongst the professional group of teachers in the form of a CD-rom and a video documentary. The video film was shown to groups of teachers, who then exchanged ideas, at hundreds of meetings (workshops, conferences, seminars). At SBL’s request 15,000 copies of the CD-rom were distributed. An SBL stakeholder states during an interview that although CD-roms were distributed throughout the country, not all teachers have received one. “That was a logistical problem,” she says. “But I believe that everybody has also his/her own responsibility to get to know the law.”

After September 2002 the working groups turned into regional quality panels under the supervision of a regional coordinator; at first they numbered fifteen, later extended to twenty-five. These regional quality panels discussed and commented on the proposal for competence requirements while at the same time the proposal was brought up for discussion on the SBL website. SBL’s advisory council was also concerned with the proposal. Additionally, it was discussed with the department concerned in the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. In all these ways, as is stated on SBL’s website, the professional group of teachers has been involved in the process and invited to comment on the proposal, together with other stakeholders, such as employers’ organisations, school management, parents’ associations, students, training colleges, school advisory services and other educational advisory centres.
All input and feedback have resulted in a number of adjustments to the original proposal: the description of the competences has become more practical and the competence requirements less detailed. Furthermore, the teacher’s professional knowledge and his/her knowledge of the subject matter have been more explicitly formulated. Also, the difference between being a teacher in primary, secondary and vocational, and in preparatory higher education has been straightened out, which resulted in three different sets of competence requirements.

By the time the Dutch Parliament was dealing with the BIO Act, the then Minister of Education, Culture and Science sent a draft version of the competence requirements to MPs. This draft version was repeatedly addressed during the debate, and the Parliament argued that a supplement to this draft version was desirable. The issue was the identifiable requirements for vocational education and more attention for students with special educational needs. After the debate in Parliament, SBL together with the parties involved in vocational education, modified the requirements on these points. Then, the professional group of teachers completed a final proposal for competence requirements. The SBL Board presented this proposal to the Minister of Education, Culture and Science, who then laid it down as an implementing regulation.

The competence requirements for teachers were decided on and accepted by the government; they have been operational since August 2006. Nearly all teacher-training colleges have become familiar with the competence requirements. Although they design the curriculum according to their wishes, they must incorporate the competences framework, since it is mandatory for students to meet the CP requirements before entering the teaching profession.

During an interview, a representative of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science states that there were two important issues that had to be overcome in the process of CP development. First of all: How to find teachers who were able to represent the teaching community? And secondly: How could one describe the requirements in a manner that they would be directive, but at the same time not restricting teachers’ freedom of action? Whereas none of the stakeholders interviewed addressed the issue raised by the Ministry’s representative in the second remark, the first question is highlighted during several interviews.

A few stakeholders doubt whether the process of development of the CP was indeed as participatory as the SBL claims it to be, and whether teachers have indeed been consulted properly throughout the process. In particular the two teachers’ unions AOb and CNVo express their concern regarding the consultation mechanism. The CNVo stakeholder feels the competence framework should have been designed by teachers, and then worked out in the individual schools based on their school plans:

“The competence framework for teachers has to be developed and formulated within schools, not outside as happened in the Netherlands.”
By the time of the production of this report, it had been decided upon to convert SBL into an association by and for teachers. One of the main reasons for this change is that according to the then State Secretary of Education, Culture and Science\textsuperscript{XLVI} the reappraisal and development of teachers’ competences should be more in the hands of teachers themselves.\textsuperscript{257}

5.2 Teachers’ competences, their requirements and indicators.

In the SBL document “Competence requirements for teachers”\textsuperscript{258}, it is stated that: “It would not be satisfactory either to define a good teacher by summing up his/her repertoire of behavioural variety. A teacher always acts on the basis of a complex mixture of knowledge, insight and skills. Besides that, professional views, attitudes and character traits also play an important role. (…). To put it briefly, the definition of a good teacher is a complex matter. But however complex the matter, however broad the field of activity, it is necessary to describe the teachers’ competences as clearly as possible. After all, there can be no doubt that a teacher must be competent. Without professional competence the teacher cannot possibly take his/her responsibilities.”\textsuperscript{259}

SBL formulates that teachers’ responsibilities can be summarised by distinguishing four professional roles, namely the interpersonal role, the pedagogical role, the organisational role and the role of an expert in subject matter and teaching methods. The teacher fulfils these professional roles in four different types of situations: working with students, colleagues, the schools’ working environment, and with him/herself. The link between the four professional roles and the four types of situations produces a framework for the description of a teacher’s competence. According to SBL, seven partial competences are enough to cover all the essential aspects of a teacher’s competence:\textsuperscript{260}

\begin{table}[h]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
Competence & With students & With colleague & With the working environment & With him/herself \\
\hline
Interpersonal & 1 &  &  &  \\
Pedagogical & 2 &  &  &  \\
Expert in subject matter and teaching methods & 3 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\
Organisational & 4 &  &  &  \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{XLVI} Marja van Bijsterveldt. In the new Rutte government (inauguration 14 October 2010), Marja van Bijsterveldt is Minister of Education, Culture and Science.
A summary of the competences, their requirements and their indicators is presented below. Not every indicator is included. For a complete overview (in English) of the SBL teachers' profile, see http://www.bekwaamheidsdossier.nl/cms/bijlagen/SBLcompetency_primary.pdf.

Competence: Interpersonal competence
Competence Requirement: Teacher is aware of his/her own behaviour and its influence on students; he/she has sufficient knowledge and skills to handle group processes and communication.

Indicators (examples)
• Is aware of what happens in his/her group; listens to the children and responds to them; calls them to account for unwanted behaviour and stimulates desired behaviour; accepts the children as they are;
• In his/her language use, manners and ways of communicating, he/she takes into account conventions in the pupils' own social environment.

Competence: Pedagogical competence
Competence requirement: The teacher has sufficient pedagogical knowledge and skills to create a safe learning environment for a whole class or group, but also for individual pupils; accomplishes this in a professional and systematic way.

Indicators (examples)
• Teacher observes how the children communicate and work with each other and discusses with them the atmosphere in the group and the manners of communicating with each other;
• Appreciates children's contributions, is curious about their ideas and regularly gives them compliments. He/she stimulates them to critically reflect on their own opinions and their behaviour and to discuss those in the group.

Competence: Subject knowledge & methodological competence
Competence requirement: Has sufficient knowledge and skills in the subject matter he/she teaches and knows which teaching methods to apply to create a powerful learning environment, where children can acquire the cultural learning needed in society; he/she accomplishes this in a contemporary, professional and systematic way.

Indicators (examples)
• Teacher can do the assignments, exercises and tests the children have to do without making any mistakes, and he/she can demonstrate or explain them clearly;
• He/she chooses varied child-oriented playing-and-learning activities, making use of modern teaching aids, for example ICT. He/she offers opportunities for different ways of working.
Competence: Organisational competence
Competence requirement: Has sufficient organisational knowledge and skills to create a good learning and working climate in lessons and classroom: well-organised, orderly and task-oriented in all respects, for him/herself, colleagues and in the first place for the children; accomplishes this in a professional and systematic manner.
Indicators (examples)
• Is consistent in applying concrete and functional procedures and agreements accepted by the children;
• Can account for his/her approach and classroom management.

Competence: Competence for collaboration with colleagues
Competence requirement: Has sufficient knowledge and skills to make a professional contribution to a positive pedagogical climate in his/her school, as well as to good working relations and a well-functioning school organisation.
Indicators (examples)
• Keeps accessible records and registers data relating to the pupils;
• Is considerate of his/her colleagues and of the interests of the school.

Competence: Competence for collaboration with the working environment
Competence requirement: Has sufficient knowledge and skills to establish a good collaboration with people and institutions involved in child welfare or belonging to the school’s working environment.
Indicators (examples)
• Keeps in touch, in an open and constructive manner, with parents, guardians or other parties involved;
• Can account for his/her working methods in the field of collaboration with parents, guardians and others outside the school.

Competence: Competence for reflection and development
Competence requirement: Analyses and develops his/her views on the profession and his/her competences as a teacher, and makes them explicit.
Indicators (examples)
• Makes explicit what is important in being a teacher, and explains the basis for his/her professional views;
• Is aware of his/her strengths and weaknesses, formulates learning questions and works on those systematically.
5.3 Qualified versus competent

With the introduction of the BIO Act and its CP, a difference is being made between “qualified” (bevoegd) and “competent” (bekwaam), the CP clearly consisting of competence requirements (bekwaamheidseisen).

Several stakeholders air their opinions about the shift they’ve experienced from being teachers performing their job based on qualification to teaching based on competence. A representative of teachers’ union AOb argues the following:

“There is an increasing number of unqualified teachers, but that do have the label of being ‘competent’. I feel that the teaching profession and the status of teachers have both suffered quite a lot from the shift towards competence-based teacher education. I have noticed, however, that competence-based thinking is not as popular as it used to be. One of the main reasons is, according to me, the fact that it is hard to measure how competent a teacher is. The indicators within the CP are vague. Behaviour is difficult, if not impossible, to measure.”

A policy officer from teachers’ union CNVo and a representative of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science mention that the BIO Act was also meant to appoint people who wanted to enter the teaching profession, but were not qualified (yet) (the so-called zij-instromers). The idea behind it was that teachers would develop themselves professionally and that the CP and its implementation would allow for a gradual transition to qualified status. However, the control mechanism to look after these teachers and make sure they got proper qualifications didn’t function adequately. Therefore, CNVo’s representative argues, there are numerous unqualified teachers standing in front of the classroom nowadays.

An issue raised again and again during interviews is that of content knowledge. Some stakeholders feel that with the introduction of competence-based education, content knowledge has lost importance. An AOb representative states:

“Nowadays, the content knowledge of teachers is not as important as it once was. Currently, the accent is on interpersonal competences, and on the organisational and social aspects of teaching. But teaching should consist of attitude, skills and knowledge. In the Dutch CP the knowledge element has far too little room. I strongly believe that the requirements teachers should meet have to be sharpened.”

The majority of the people interviewed, from teachers’ unions to a future teacher, agree that knowledge of the subject matter needs to play a much more important role within
the CP than is actually the case. A teacher trainer spoken with explicitly states that all teachers should possess intellectual abilities. An AOb representative also points to the fact that at present teacher training colleges (PABOs) attract an increasing number of students from the MBO (which is oriented towards vocational training) and less from HAVO (literally: higher general continued education; consists of 5 grades) and VWO (literally: preparatory scientific education; consists of 6 grades). The so called ‘zij-instromers’ from the MBO often lack analytical capacities, she says. “In general their focus is on how to solve issues. Not on analysing them.”

Added to this, some of the stakeholders feel that the quality of teachers depends a great deal on their content knowledge, whereas currently the “soft” elements of teaching – as some like to call them – get most of the attention. This is refuted by others, such as the SBL, who state that content knowledge is a fundamental part of the framework, and that competence without knowledge (or uninformed action) is surely not what competence is about.

A teacher trainer working at a number of PABOs and a Dutch university emphasizes that teaching quality is not so much affected by the introduction of the BIO Act and the shift towards competence requirements, but rather by the declining status of teachers in the Netherlands, their low salaries and the increasing pressure put on them, for example because they face nowadays more heterogeneous classroom populations.

Another issue that came to the fore during the research is that of the ‘feminisation of the teaching profession’. Some feel the introduction of the CP is related to the decreasing number of male teachers. However, stakeholders add this is really just a feeling, and that systematic research needs to be carried out on whether the Dutch CP and the decreasing number of male teachers are in fact related.

5.4 Implementation of the BIO Act

The SBL website www.lerarenweb.nl gives information about the BIO Act and the competences for teachers with their requirements. This information was also, as said before, put on CD-rom\[XLVII\] and distributed to all Dutch teachers in October 2004. Furthermore, SBL publishes materials and instruments on the website they developed to support teachers in their efforts to improve themselves. On the site teachers can find several digital scans that enable them to gain a clear understanding of their own competences, and how to make these a subject of discussion with a colleague, a team or a group of pupils/students. The site also contains a digital teachers’ portfolio, an instrument for teachers to both verify and express their competences.\[261\]

\[XLVII\] The CD-rom is called ‘In competent hands’.
Thus, in theory teachers can become informed about the CP and how to work with competences. Does the teaching community make use of it? Are future teachers well-prepared to work with competences? Do they work with them in daily practice? How are they being evaluated?

All teacher training colleges have made the BIO Act a part of their curriculum, as mentioned previously. And all student teachers are evaluated throughout the course of their studies based upon the competences framework, amongst others during their internship period at a primary school. An issue mentioned during interviews with respect to the evaluation of student teachers is that sometimes the teacher trainers themselves are not used to working with the competence framework. A future teacher explains:

“Most of the teachers working in the schools where we have to do our internship have not themselves had a competence-based teacher training. So, that makes the supervision and guidance rather complicated. I myself had to explain a lot about competences to one of my supervisors…”

A number of weak points to the evaluation system are pointed out during interviews. The issue of subjectivity of evaluation is raised, i.e. the fact that different evaluators assess differently. Also, it is felt by some of the interviewees that the time allotted for assessment is too short. A future teacher states: “What can you say about someone’s competences if you only observe him/her half an hour?” This future teacher also brings up an issue that has not been raised before in this report, i.e. the room for manipulation of evaluations by future teachers. The future teacher shares: “I have heard of student teachers who tell their pupils that someone [the assessor] is coming in their classroom and that they will get sweets if they behave nicely.” Although this is very interesting data, it is important to point out that this is the opinion of just one of the interviewed stakeholders.

Criticism on the implementation level is not restricted to teacher training colleges. Primary schools, it is said by almost all stakeholders, are not familiar working with the CP as was intended when the BIO Act was introduced. Why? “They just have no idea about the content of the competences framework,” answers a CNVo representative. Most of the other interviewees agree with this opinion. Although, as stated in the introductory paragraph of this chapter, SBL argues that schools are obliged to enable staff to keep up their competences at a high level and further develop them, in practice this is not always the case, according to the interviewees. A teacher trainer says:

“What one learns during teacher training is one thing. What happens in daily classroom practice is another. Students learn to work with competences throughout their education, but they are, as far as I know, almost never assessed with respect to these competences once they enter the work arena.”
A stakeholder from AOb believes that the way HRM policy within primary schools is organised is one of the major reasons for the poor implementation of the CP. He states:

"Personnel policy in primary schools in the Netherlands is often very poor. The success of implementing a CP however depends greatly on the way the personnel policy is formulated and implemented. In many cases, schools don’t organise teachers’ performance interviews. There’s no time to reflect on education nowadays."

All the interviewed stakeholders say that the evaluation mechanism at the school level needs to be improved. How this should take place remains a question to most of the stakeholders, although some of them mention the importance of evaluation on a structural basis, consisting of constructive feedback and carried out by colleagues.

### 5.5 Conclusions and recommendations from The Netherlands

In the Netherlands, a competence framework has been operational since 2006, specifying four professional teacher roles, in four different types of situations, resulting in seven different competences. They are specified for primary, secondary and vocational education. The CP is developed by teachers facilitated by the SBL. Professional groups of teachers were involved in the process of development, as were employers’ organisations, school management, parents’ associations, students, training colleges, school advisory services and other educational advisory centres. Although SBL claims that the development of the competence framework was participatory and included the active involvement of many teachers throughout the country, some of the other interviewed stakeholders, especially those from teachers’ unions CNVo and AOb, express their doubts and question the consultation mechanism throughout the process. And issue that is raised is how detailed or general to competences should be described (“level of specificity” problem).

With regard to implementation in daily classroom practice, i.e. after graduation, stakeholders generally share the opinion that much could be improved. Some critical issues that might obstruct the successful implementation of the CP are: 1) the teacher trainer is not properly equipped to teach their students on how to work with competences; 2) the subjective character of the evaluation system; 3) lack of time for assessors to evaluate; 4) the way the evaluation system is structured currently leaves room for manipulation of the side of the student teacher. In general however, the feeling is shared that with the introduction of the CP, a common framework to discuss teacher performance is provided.

Some of the interviewees feel that with the introduction of the CP teachers’ knowledge on subject matter has lost importance. This is not shared by others. Some stakeholders...
feel a decline of teacher quality is linked to competence-based education. Others state that other factors should be taken into account that have contributed to the deterioration of the quality of teachers, such as a decrease in the status of educators, their low salaries and the pressure on them due to the increasingly heterogeneous student population. The educational level of students going into teacher education is potentially falling, affecting their analytical strength in learning the profession.

Notwithstanding existing criticism regarding the Dutch CP and its implementation, most of the stakeholders argue that there are some core competences that all teachers throughout the world should possess, no matter what their background is and regardless the circumstances under which they perform their job. As in Chile, Brazil, India and Malaysia, interviewees believe that indicators should always be developed in individual education contexts and can therefore never be generic. Interviewees’ recommendations on competences that would be desirable to include in an international CP are basically the same ones as described in the Dutch competence framework for primary teachers.

### Summary of views expressed by stakeholders interviewed in The Netherlands

**A good teacher:**
- Possesses pedagogical and didactical knowledge;
- Possesses thorough knowledge of the subject matter;
- Is flexible and is able to cope with unexpected situations;
- Creates a safe learning environment;
- Knows each of his/her students individually and establishes a relationship with them;
- Is creative;
- Possesses intellectual faculties; has capacity to analyse;
- Has to be interested in the ‘broader’ world;
- Has to stimulate children’s independence.

**An international competence profile should:**
- Always stress the importance of schools needing to be a safe learning environment for children;
- Take into account that indicators vary per context;
- Incorporate organisational competences;
- Include pedagogical didactical competences;
- Include interpersonal competences;
- Include competences with respect to reflection and self development;
- Include subject matter specific and teaching methods competences;
- Include competences on working with colleagues.
SLOVENIA

Starting in 2004, an extensive debate took place about teachers’ competences in Slovenia. This discussion needs to be interpreted within the Bologna Process framework and has resulted in the establishment of a list of competences for teachers. Before paying attention to the Slovenian CP, a brief description of the process of development of teachers’ competences is provided. The question of implementation of the competences is described at the end of this chapter.

During the period of field study in Slovenia, interviews were held with four representatives of the Faculty of Education of the University of Ljubljana (a researcher, a teacher trainer, a professor and the dean, two of whom are former Ministers of Education), a representative of the Ministry of Education and Sport, and a representative from teachers’ union ESTUS.

5.6 Development of teachers’ competences

The Bologna reform stimulates universities and faculties to develop teacher training programmes in line with European recommendations. A professor at the Faculty of Education of the University of Ljubljana explains:

“Within the Bologna Process, the importance of competence based studies is stressed over and over again. Before Bologna, we had more or less implicitly formulated competences for teachers; now we are explicit in our description.”

All of the people interviewed agree that Slovenia’s efforts to formulate a CP has everything to do with the Bologna Process. A representative of teachers’ union ESTUS adds:

“International pressure is one of the reasons why Slovenia has a CP. It was not so much because teachers were demanding one.”

A representative of the Ministry of Education and Sport adds, however, that the demand to develop a competence framework for primary teachers came also from schools and teachers themselves. Interestingly she states that one of the reasons why teachers

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XLVIII The overarching aim of the Bologna Process is to create a European Higher Education Area (EHEA) based on international cooperation and academic exchange. Currently, the Process unites 47 countries. It involves, amongst others, the European Commission, the Council of Europe and UNESCO-CEPES, as well as representatives of higher education institutions, staff, quality assurance agencies, students and employers. See for more information for example: http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/about/index.htm (last checked by the author on the 25th of October 2010)

XLIX There are in total three Faculties of Education in Slovenia.
wanted a CP was because they were facing an increasing number of children with special needs in their classrooms. She says:

“In the past, ‘children with special needs’ went to ‘special’ schools. Nowadays they go to regular schools and that can sometimes be difficult for teachers. They feel they lack certain skills to cope with the diversity in the classroom. Therefore, they expressed their wish that a profile was to be formulated with competences and that they would get training regarding those competences.”

The process of curricular renewal was led by the University of Ljubljana Faculty of Education, which was at that time involved in the Tuning Process and which performed a systemic survey including respondents from various groups/stakeholders. After broad discussions with participants from different levels of education (amongst others teachers from primary and secondary schools, principals, teacher trainers, and teachers’ union ESTUS) a consensus was reached that higher education institutions would develop and present in their new study programmes detailed lists of teachers competences that students should develop after completing their bachelor and masters’ degree (in a consecutive model).

Inspired by innovative practices at teacher training faculties in the period 2004-2008, the Council for Higher Education adopted in 2008 amended accreditation criteria which categorised these competences into five areas: (1) effective instruction, (2) life-long learning, (3) classroom management and communication, (4) assessment and evaluation of individual’s learning progress, and (5) professional competences in a more general sense.

The Criteria for the Accreditation of Teacher Training Programmes (Merila za akreditacijo študijskih programov za izobraževanje učiteljev), which were established by Council for Higher education on 20th of June 2008, spell out what study programme developers must take into account when addressing human resource requirements for teachers, and the importance of specific professional components.

Competences that are to be developed during undergraduate studies at the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana are set out below. A former Minister of Education and current researcher and director of the Centre for Educational Policy Studies states that the list of competences is not harmonised between faculties, not even between faculties of the same university. However, he adds, there are no substantial differences or controversies amongst them.

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1 The Tuning Process’s main objective is to contribute to the elaboration of a framework of compatible and comparable qualifications in each of the (potential) signatory countries of the Bologna Process. This framework has to be described in terms of workload, level, learning outcomes, competencies and profile. See for more information e.g.: http://tuning.unideusto.org/tuningeu/index.php?option=com_frontpage&Itemid=1 (last checked by the author on the 25th of October 2010)

2 After the establishment by the Council for Higher Education they were published in Uradni list RS, št. 70/2008 (Official Journal of Republic of Slovenia, no. 70/2008).

3 At the Faculty of Education of the University of Ljubljana.
1. Effective instruction
   • reformulation and transmission of subject content to the learner in a manner appropriate to the learner's needs;
   • ability to link aims, content, methodology and learner need when carrying out the teaching process;
   • ability to plan, organize and execute all learning activities efficiently;
   • mastery of basic research principles in education and effective use of these principles in promoting learning and teaching;
   • encouragement of active and independent learning, which enables learners to plan, evaluate and manage their own learning;
   • encouragement of cooperative learning to develop students social skills and enable students successful work in heterogeneous groups.

2. Life-long learning
   • use of appropriate methods to increase students' motivation and foster learning strategies which enable lifelong learning;
   • encouragement of positive learner characteristics: flexibility and persistence in facing new tasks and challenges, ability of self-evaluation;
   • use of ICT and development of ICT literacy in learners; development of social and communication skills in learners.

3. Classroom management and communication
   • ability to effectively communicate with learners and develop a positive rapport with them;
   • ability to create an encouraging learning environment in which diversity is valued and each learner feels accepted, safe and self-confident;
   • ability to formulate clear rules of behaviour and classroom discipline which are based on respect towards all participants;
   • ability to deal effectively with inappropriate behaviour, aggression and conflict and use appropriate strategies to solve these problems;
   • giving all learners equal opportunities and adapting work to their individual needs;
   • recognising learners with special needs, their strengths and weaknesses, adapting work to their abilities and, when necessary, cooperating with specialists and specialized institutions.

4. Assessment and evaluation of individual's learning progress
   • appropriate use of different methods of evaluation of individual learner progress according to the learning aims and giving constructive feedback;
   • evaluation and assessment of learner progress in the area of developing learning strategies, social skills, reading and ICT literacy;
   • communicating to parents and other responsible persons about learner progress.
5. Professional competences in a more general sense

• development of a positive attitude towards learners, respect towards their social, cultural, linguistic and religious backgrounds;
• ability to adhere to ethical principles and the law;
• demonstrates and encourages the same positive values, opinions and behaviours that are expected of learners;
• effective communication with parents and other persons responsible for the learners,
• cooperation with other teachers and school staff;
• participation in various activities in the local and wider community and in the area of education;
• planning, evaluation and management of one's own professional development.

After the discussions at the Slovenian universities, a need was recognised to create a common framework for teacher education at state level and define generic competences that would be common to all teachers. A professional group was established at the Slovenian Ministry for Education and Sports, Office for Educational Development, which proposed five groups of competences:

1. Communication and relationships;
2. Effective teaching;
3. Organisation and leadership;
4. Cooperation with working and social environment; and
5. Professional development.

The basic condition for the development of these professional teacher competences is solid subject knowledge. The first and second group of competences should be achieved at the basic level during masters' degree study; the third, fourth and fifth group of competences should be developed during the period of probation and in in-service training.

The list of competences is not official yet. “Our CP,” states a representative of the Ministry of Education and Sport, “is not established as a law. It’s a kind of decree. Or something like that…” While other stakeholders don’t mention any specific difficulties regarding the development of the CP, she says:

“In fact, it was very difficult to develop the CP. There’s always a battle between those who feel teachers need predominantly training on subject knowledge, general training; and those who feel professional training, training how to teach, is more important. The battle has been quite hard and it lasted more than two years before it was agreed upon what had to be included within teacher training programmes. Our CP is an agreement between professionals, schools and state. In the end the CPs focus is more on subject training than on professional training.”
The following are the key teacher competences:

1. Communication and relationships

   THE TEACHER
   - effectively communicates with students, develops positive group climate and good relationships with and between students;
   - shows and develops students’ communicative competence in Slovene language;
   - develops students’ social skills, understands and uses basic principles and steps of counselling conversation and work with students;
   - creates an encouraging learning environment in which diversity is valued and each learner feels accepted, safe and self-confident;
   - (co)creates clear rules for discipline and behaviour in the classroom;
   - uses appropriate strategies for coping with inappropriate behaviour, aggression and conflicts;
   - shows positive attitude toward students, shows understanding and appreciation of students’ social, cultural, language and religious origins;
   - is aware of ethical frame of his work and acts accordingly.

2. Effective teaching

   THE TEACHER
   - is fully acquainted with principles and methods for planning, executing and evaluating of learning process;
   - at curriculum implementation, appropriately connects and coordinates goals, content, learning methods, approaches and considers contemporary curricular-didactic knowledge;
   - takes into consideration students’ developmental characteristics and principles and successful learning in planning and executing teaching;
   - adapts teaching to students’ individual characteristics in their knowledge, interest, learning styles and learning competences;
   - with the use of wide range of learning methods and strategies which stimulate students’ cognitive activity, establishes a powerful learning environment;
   - effectively combines individual, group and frontal forms of teaching;
   - uses effective methods to increase students’ motivation and foster learning strategies;
   - includes use of ICT in teaching and develops ICT literacy in learners;
   - recognises learners with special needs, their strengths and weaknesses, adapts work to their abilities and, when necessary, cooperates with other teachers and specialists;
   - is fully acquainted with and uses appropriate methods of assessing and evaluating students’ achievement, referring to students’ knowledge, learning strategies and social skills;
   - gives constructive feedback and communicates learning results appropriately.
3. Organisation and leadership

**THE TEACHER**

- is fully acquainted with organisational and administrative tasks which are related to planning, executing, monitoring and evaluating of learning process (space and time planning, use of resources and materials);
- can manage the class effectively, also as a principal teacher of a class.

4. Cooperation with working and social environment

**THE TEACHER**

- effectively communicates and cooperates with teachers and other school staff (in teams, in projects);
- effectively cooperates with parents and other persons responsible for the learners;
- establishes cooperative partnerships with other schools and institutions in school district and with other specialists in the field of education;
- knows, understands and works according to institutional frame of school work (legislation).

5. Professional development

**THE TEACHER**

- is able to analyse strengths and weaknesses of his own work and plan his own professional development;
- is open to feedback and advice from his professional environment;
- gets acquainted with new scientific achievements which are important for his professional work, critically reflects on this knowledge and introduces it into his own practice;
- uses opportunities for in-service education and innovation in his own work;
- is qualified for cooperation in research – developmental projects aimed to improve the quality of educational practice.  

5.7 Implementation and evaluation of the competences

During the period of probation, the student teacher works under the mentorship of an experienced teacher. The student’s tasks on probation include planning, organisation and execution of the educational programmes; to get acquainted with different teaching methods; to deepen subjects’ didactics, to get knowledge in the field of student assessment and evaluation, to get acquainted with classroom management methods, student counselling and the ways of problem solving in the field of students' rights, to work with other teachers and professional services inside the school, to prepare for the work with parents, other teachers and services inside the school, to improve his use of Slovenian as a teaching language, to get acquainted with the Slovene
In sum, the most important fields for the future teacher’s improvement are:

- Subjects’ didactics or teaching methods;
- Classroom management;
- Work and cooperation with parents, fellow teachers and school services;
- Legislation;
- Use of Slovenian.

After one year of probation, the student teacher has to do an exam which consists of two parts: one part is on legislation that regulates the field of education and acts about child rights, and the second part is Slovene language. Their professional competences are assessed by their mentor and the principal of the school where they are employed. The principal has to observe the candidate for at least five different school hours. With respect to the evaluation of student teachers’ competences by principals and mentors: there are no official recommendations for them regarding the competences they should assess. Their task is just to evaluate their probationer and write a report on his/her work in three areas, including his/her attitudes toward educational work, his/her teaching under mentorship and his/her readiness for independent work in the classroom.

One can be very brief about the assessment of teachers once they start working in the classroom after they’ve completed their studies. According to some stakeholders they are not evaluated any more after their teacher training. Others say that assessment takes place, but only on an irregular basis. The headmaster is the one concerned with...
the evaluation, they state, but this evaluation is “not based on a State paper,” as an Associate Professor at the Faculty of Education (University of Ljubljana) explains.

All people interviewed explain that there are no graduates yet who have already finished their teacher training based on the competence framework. Therefore, they argue, there’s nothing reasonable to be said about the assessment of competences of teachers after their studies. “Come back in some years,” the majority says. “Then we will be able to tell you more.”

All the stakeholders interviewed, except for one, are in favour of an international competences profile for primary teachers. The only person very much against an international CP is a representative from ESTUS. He states that one cannot decide at the international level what it means to be a teacher of good quality and what competences he/she must possess. The ESTUS representative also comments on the fact that a lot of stakeholders mention that “a good teacher loves (to work with) children”:

> “Why do teachers have to love children, or to love working with them? I really don’t know… Some teachers might say that love will disturb good teaching. And besides: what’s love? Let every educational context decide for its own what is best.”

On the other hand, a Professor at the Faculty of Education (Ljubljana) argues that a CP for primary teachers will lead to education of better quality. However, she remarks: “the list of competences should not be long. That doesn’t work. It’s better to have a few competences and try to achieve these.”

With respect to the indicators: in general, according to the stakeholders the indicators should be: 1) context-bound and by no means generic, and 2) descriptive and not comprising a ranking system (e.g. from 1-10). A professor at the Faculty of Education explains this point of view: “You can’t say someone is, for example, reflexive ranked 2.”

One of the former Ministers of Education (currently Professor at the Faculty of Education of the University of Ljubljana) questions the concept of competences. He prefers instead the notion of guidelines, “because guidelines are less strict”. He continues:

> “When one speaks of a competence profile, it seems as if everything is supposed to be measurable. If life was all about measuring, computers could substitute us. But they can’t. Wanting to measure everything is a reflection of the neoliberal era…. If you speak of improving the quality of teaching, then it is essential to also address the fact that the conditions in which teaching and learning takes place are adequate. You cannot isolate teaching from the circumstances under which it happens.”

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LIII As defined in this report, i.e. a de-contextualized conceptual framework valid across different schools and places.
5.8 Conclusions and recommendations from Slovenia

The Bologna Process is seen as a crucial factor within the process of the development of the teachers' competences framework in Slovenia. Just one stakeholder interviewed mentions that there were difficulties in the process of the formulation of the CP. The same person argues that the desire to establish key competences for teachers also came from the teachers themselves. All of the interviewees agree that different groups of stakeholders were involved while formulating the CP.

Student teachers have been trained on competences for only a few years. As there are no graduates who've finished their teacher training based on the competences framework, it is too early to say anything about the evaluation mechanism that is linked to the CP. The assessment procedure for classroom teachers has still to be developed and put into practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summary of views expressed by stakeholders interviewed in Slovenia</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A good teacher:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Is motivated;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Knows the subject matter;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Is open-minded;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Listens to his/her pupils;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Supports his/her pupils;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Approaches and sees his/her students as human beings with</td>
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<td>dignity;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Is reflexive;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Is flexible;</td>
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<td>• Is sensitive towards the different backgrounds of students;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Has knowledge of different teaching methods;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Can manage group processes and has at the same time an eye</td>
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<td>for the individual</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>An international competence profile should:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Include a limited number of competences. The list should not</td>
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<tr>
<td>be long;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Leave the formulation of indicators to each and every</td>
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<td>(educational) context. Indicators should always be context-</td>
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<tr>
<td>bound, descriptive and flexible in nature;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Be accompanied in the different contexts by adequate</td>
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<tr>
<td>teaching and learning conditions. Attention for the context</td>
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<tr>
<td>in which teaching and learning takes place is essential;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Have a general character, so it can be interpreted in various</td>
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<tr>
<td>ways. Principles are applied differently in different</td>
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<td>contexts.</td>
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CHAPTER 6

Pilot Studies: Mali & Uganda

Mali

This section is concerned with the implementation of the Quality-Ed Programme in Mali. First a brief overview is provided of the educational situation in the country; then the development of the Malian Competence Profile is addressed as well as the content of the teacher’s profile.

6.1 Education in Mali

Mali is one of the poorest countries in the world. There are many challenges to overcome in realising even the most basic rights of its citizens. These challenges are increased by the country’s vulnerability to shocks, such as the food and fuel crises.

The goal of education for all Malian children by 2015 is still more a dream than a reality despite evident improvements in providing education since democratic rule began in 1991. The number of children attending primary school has risen immensely, with the proportion growing from 21% in 1990 to 61% in 2008. Also, more than 20,000 extra teachers have been recruited in the past ten years. However, in the age group 7-12 there are still about 900,000 Malian children (more than a third) out of school. Of these children, 60% (which is more than half a million children in total) are girls. And a lot of children who start school do not complete it.

The quality of education is worrisome as well, due to insufficient teachers and large classes (on average the teacher:pupil ratio is 1:64 in state primary schools), poorly trained and qualified teachers, poor infrastructure with not enough schools and classrooms, lack of books and equipment, and confusion regarding curriculum policy.

Together these factors mean that the majority of those Malian children who do attend school are being educated inadequately. The poor quality becomes apparent in the fact that only 23% of Malian adults and only 29% of Malians within the 5-24 age group can read and write. This is the lowest literacy rate in the world.

The crisis in the teaching profession in Mali is especially important; UNESCO estimates a current workforce gap exists of at least 27,000 teachers. The teachers who are in post generally received improper training and less than half of all primary teachers have had any teacher training at all. This means that there’s a gap of more than 45,000 trained teachers. Across the profession the average length of training per teacher is only five days. This lack is all the more alarming given that a lot of teaching recruits have had
limited education to start with. Meagre salaries provide little encouragement for better-qualified teachers.

Additionally, economic and cultural barriers have been cited as creating problems. In the Oxfam Research Report ‘Delivering Education for All in Mali’ (2009) it is stated that the situation is worsened because many parents don’t want to send their children, especially their daughters, to school. Currently, primary school costs money, which strengthens the resistance.

6.2 The Quality Educators Programme

The feasibility study carried out in 2008 by Oxfam Novib and Education International, through their representatives EPT and SNEC, clearly demonstrated the shortcomings in the quality of teachers in Mali. Among these shortcomings, specifically striking was the disparate level of different categories of teachers in the same group and the weak integration of pedagogical innovations in the initial training programme.

Bearing this in mind, objective one of the Quality Educators for All programme in Mali was formulated as follows:

“With reference to existing legislation, official documents and cases of good practice, establish a competence profile combining basic skills education and the learning of life skills and information technologies, gender equality, active citizenship, prevention against HIV/AIDS and violence, etc.”

In developing this programme, civil society organisations active in the field of education (Coalition EPT), the Syndicat National de L’Éducation et la Culture (SNEC, National Union of Education and Culture) and the Ministry of National Education (MEN) established a process to define a contemporary primary teacher’s profile in Mali.

These stakeholders argue it is imperative to develop a teacher’s competence profile which combines basic competences and the learning of life skills. The Steering Group of the Quality Ed Programme states in a report:

“The definition and the consensus based validation of this profile constitute the basis for all training activities that will be set up in the frame of the programme ‘Quality Educators for All in Mali. The way this profile will be defined needs to take into account the existing one, the legislation, the national policy documents in terms of education and the cases of good practice.”

The gender dimension is a thread that runs through the project. Gender balance and parity are the objectives in all fields of the Quality-ED Project.

\[L/VI\] In Mali, there are different categories of teachers: teachers with a teacher’s diploma, teachers without a teacher’s diploma and teachers having no diploma whatsoever.
6.3 Defining a primary teacher competence profile in Mali

Both the feasibility study commissioned by the Quality Educators for all Project (June-July 2008) and the report “Profile of Quality Teacher in Mali” (August 2010) indicate that although the analysis study on needs in December 1999 had been intended to be based on a broad consultation and consensus, CSOs, parents and students had not been involved. Furthermore no validation and dissemination policy had been developed. As a result the competence profile remained unknown by most of the actors in the field and thus unused.

Therefore the first mandate given to the steering committee of the project in Mali was to develop a contemporary competence profile of primary teachers, based on a broad consensus and integrating pedagogical innovations and life skills.

For the National Analysis Study on Needs, various data collection tools were used to collect as much information as possible, both quantitative and qualitative. These tools included: 1) a literature review; 2) a closed questionnaire and semi-directed interviews; 3) individual meetings with regional directors; and 4) focus groups with retired people from UNEREC (Union Nationale des Retraités de l’Education), teachers’ unions, women groups and major players from the MEB (Ministry of Basic Education and National Languages).
THE MANDATE
The mandate to the Steering Committee in Mali to develop a revised competence profile included:

- Literature reviews to identify the experiences in terms of teacher profiles that exist in Mali and elsewhere;
- Establishing a competence profile that combines basis competencies in teaching, learning of life skills and information processing techniques (collection of additional data);
- Presenting a report;
- Supporting the process of presentation and validation of the teacher profile defined by the stakeholders involved in the formulation of the teacher profile.

METHODOLOGY
The methodology mainly consisted of a literature review and interviews with directly involved stakeholders. As well as documents related to PISE II and PISE III, consulted documents included:

- MEN (Ministère Education Nationale), Synthèse du rapport d’analyse des besoins de formation des enseignants du Mali, 1999,
- MEN, Programme cadre de formation, Juillet 2003, Politique de formation continue des maîtres de l’enseignement fondamental, MEN, Août 2003,
- MEN, Programme cadre de formation continue des maîtres, Août 2005, Étude de faisabilité pour la mise en place d’un programme «éducateurs de qualité au Mali», juin 2008,
- Uganda teacher competence profile, 2009,
- Formation Continue des Maîtres, programme de formation, MEN, Août 2006, Politique de formation initiale des Maîtres, MEN,
- Formation des enseignants contractuels de la stratégie alternative, programme de formation initiale, MEN, juillet 2003,
- Formation des enseignants des écoles communautaires, programme de formation initiale,
- MEN, avril 2004, Formation continue des maîtres (FCM), communautés d’apprentissage (CA) des maîtres, guide pratique, Décembre 2007,
- Curriculum de l’enseignement fondamental, référentiel niveau 1, MEN, Juin 2004

This first step helped with identification of gaps and the organisation of additional data collection to fill those gaps. The collection of additional data was done in three regions of Kayes, Koulikoro and Sikasso among the main stakeholders (NGOs, teachers, students, communities and parents of students).

Interviewees were asked 6 questions:

What are the features of a good teacher?
What are the features of a bad teacher?
What are the three most important features of a good teacher?
What are the three most important features of a bad teacher?
What are the three most important features a teacher must have?
Advice and recommendations?
The report was submitted to a scientific committee who carried the main mandate to define the teacher profile. This definition consisted in transforming generic competencies into operational competencies with practical examples as illustrations. The profile established was then submitted to a validation workshop bringing together all principal education stakeholders and chaired by the Minister of Basic Education and National Languages. The workshop proposed additional materials and a communication strategy for a better dissemination of the teacher profile.

Communication strategies were developed at the level of each locality, along with workshops involving a total of 265 people in the eight regions and the District of Bamako. This made a large dissemination of the profile possible among decentralised services of education (Académie d’Enseignement, Centres d’Animation Pédagogique, Conseillers pédagogiques, Instituts de Formation des Maîtres et Directeurs d’écoles), education trade unions, teachers, decentralised communities (Municipalities, local councils, regional assemblies) and education partners, in particular local NGOs. The presence of press (local radio and television) helped with media coverage. The workshops also led to intense moments of exchange and dialogue on training quality. These activities were held from 7 July till 16 August 2010.

Based on the literature review and data collection described above, teachers’ competencies were made as explicit as possible, as stated in the report of the Steering Group. The required competencies of a Malian teacher are listed in the table below.

### Required competencies of a teacher in Mali

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fields of competences</th>
<th>Description of competencies</th>
<th>How the competencies support each other</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disciplinary or interdisciplinary competencies</td>
<td>Allow the teacher to master the academic contents, the methods related to each discipline, and the links that may exist between disciplines</td>
<td>The “head”: Master the contents of the disciplines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical competencies</td>
<td>Allow the teacher to intervene efficiently and to favour students’ learning. These pedagogical competencies are in psychology of learning, didactics and education technologies, communication, evaluation and classroom management</td>
<td>The “heart”: Emotional involvement of the teacher with the child, knowledge of the different phases of child development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional competencies</td>
<td>Allow the teacher to integrate well in the teaching profession and act in conformity with the ethics of the profession</td>
<td>The “hands”: pedagogical practice as a whole, and management of the lesson, the classroom and the school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural or socio-relational competences</td>
<td>Allow the teacher to promote the social values of respect and dignity of the individual and to play the role expected of teachers in the broader environment</td>
<td>The “feet”: connection with the environment beyond the classroom, contacts with students’ families, involvement in activities outside school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These competences are standard and universally applicable, which means they can be adapted to all contexts (formal and non-formal educational settings) and leave room for pedagogical innovations. As shown in the table below, the competence profile is also proposed in an analogy of head, heart, arms and legs and looks at the basic principles, according to stakeholders, as well as the operational competencies, practical advice and the challenges to face.

Required competences in simple and operational language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fields</th>
<th>Basic principles</th>
<th>Operational competencies</th>
<th>Practical advice</th>
<th>Challenges to face</th>
<th>SARPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head</td>
<td>To be well trained and available Be able to communicate well Be a role model</td>
<td>Master the national language Master the disciplines and didactical methods to teach them as well as life skills</td>
<td>Be accessible for initial and continuous training Translate the training into practice</td>
<td>Improve pedagogical context Adopt pedagogical innovations</td>
<td>Strengthen academic training Strengthen didactical skills with respect to disciplines Improve the learning environment Adopt pedagogical innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart</td>
<td>Demonstrate motivation to teach Love the profession and the children. Be patient Act as a role model</td>
<td>Demonstrated skill in classroom organisation and management Capture the affection and attention of the children. Make children feel confident and proud of themselves</td>
<td>Develop commitment to the profession and the vocation Love the learners.</td>
<td>Develop commitment to the profession and the vocation Love the learners.</td>
<td>Develop commitment to the profession and the vocation Love the learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hands</td>
<td>Maintain good physical condition Affinity and active engagement in manual activities.</td>
<td>Write well Draw well Be able to conceive, prepare and plan learning activities. Be able to work in a team.</td>
<td>Give the learners a sense of accomplishment Impart an appreciation of a clean and healthy environment and lifestyle Encourage a feeling of autonomy among learners.</td>
<td>Practical training in physical and manual activities. Class management skills.</td>
<td>Strengthen didactical skills in disciplines Strengthen school functioning and professional morale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feet</td>
<td>Interest in social networking. Openness to pedagogical innovations. Physical capacity to be mobile.</td>
<td>Able to dance, gymnastics Able to organise physical activities and to lead school excursions. Enthusiasm for discovering nature and investigating the physical environment.</td>
<td>Gain the trust of learners.</td>
<td>Monitor the learning milieu. Integration of the teacher in the wider environment Develop social values. Encourage a sense of discovery.</td>
<td>Monitor the learning milieu. Integration of the teacher in the wider environment Develop social values. Encourage a sense of discovery.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is a good Malian teacher?
The box below presents the stakeholders’ points of view about the features of a good teacher.

A good teacher…
- Loves the profession
- Loves children
- Masters subject knowledge
- Possesses competencies
- Is properly trained
- Is motivated (to learn)
- Is gentle, patient, courageous, punctual, respectful, understanding, open
- Has good (social) behaviour
- Respects school rules
- Possesses good physical and intellectual qualities
- Knows about time management
- Has pedagogical knowledge
- Is easily approachable for children

6.4 Conclusions and recommendations from Mali

The Steering Group conclusions and recommendations regarding Mali at this stage of the Quality-Ed Programme are as follows. The literature review has been valuable in understanding the various processes developed in defining the teacher competence profile in Mali, and made it possible to provide an overview of the competencies expected from teachers. The studies additionally involved in the process many stakeholders – especially the teachers, who are directly concerned.

In the 1999 National Analysis Study on Needs, the involvement of stakeholders was nevertheless not effective at the level of civil society stakeholders, communities, students and parents. The feasibility study ‘Quality Educators for All in Mali’ demonstrated some innovative experiences at the level of the civil society organisations. Therefore, it was important through additional data collection to gather more perceptions from these actors about the teacher profile, to enrich it and make it more operational.

It needs to be noted that the competency profile of teachers in Mali derived from the 1999 study was not shared with stakeholders, including the teachers themselves, and

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Stems from the Steering Group’s report ‘Profile of Quality Teacher in Mali’, August 2010.
was only used to elaborate a training programme. Following validation, the 2010 profile developed by the Quality Educators for All programme was intended for a large-scale dissemination in order to serve as a common reference point for every teacher in Mali. This was done through presentation workshops in all regions and the District of Bamako.

The Steering Group’s report ends with the following sentences:

“It would be desirable that the Programme supports technically and financially these strategies in order to give again to the teacher his past place and value. Only a well trained educator can communicate with his students. Enlarging the format of the folder, the translation of its contents in national languages and then its posting in all primary schools can contribute much to achieve this.”

UGANDA

Along with Mali, Uganda was chosen as a pilot country for the Quality-ED project after feasibility studies. Like Mali, it had previously developed competence profiles for primary teachers, which however remained relatively unknown and unused as an instrument to guide teacher education, professional development and management towards quality standards.

It was considered especially important in Uganda to introduce life skills in teacher training curriculum, to address particular challenges such as the repercussions from two decades of conflict in Northern Uganda. The project also had to be carefully aligned with a range of new policies and initiatives that had been undertaken by the Ministry of Education and Sports, designed to improve educational quality and learning results.

This section will look at the national context and the rationale to develop a new competence profile, followed by lessons learned from previous experiences with competence profiles. After that, there is a short overview of the steps followed by the Quality-ED project in developing a new competence profile, concluding with an overview of the new profile.

6.15 Uganda’s educational context

Although 35,000 teachers need to be recruited and trained by 2015 to universalize primary education in Uganda, the main challenge is not so much to increase the overall number of qualified teachers –there are nearly enough available in relation to
the number of students – but rather to improve their distribution and retention. While some areas have a surplus of qualified teachers, other areas – notably the post-conflict North – face a consistent shortage, which is reflected in higher pupil:teacher ratios (67:1).

The rates of teacher attrition and turnover are high in general, and increase as one moves further afield in rural areas. For the fiscal year 2009/2010, Uganda was expected to have 131,000 teachers on the government payroll, but had only 124,000 due to teacher attrition and the difficulties that some districts had in recruiting.

The majority of Uganda's primary teachers are trained and professionally qualified: over 89% of the primary school teaching force has the required minimum qualification (grade 3 certificate) to teach at primary level. Forty percent are women, decreasing at higher levels. School leadership is almost exclusively male. Primary school enrolment is relatively high at 85%, with relative gender parity except in some of the more insecure and difficult-to-reach rural areas. The optimism generated by rapidly increasing enrolment rates has, however, been tempered by low learning outcomes and educational indicators: school completion is very problematic, with only around half completing. Only 3% of students complete without having repeated at least one year.

The disappointing learning results in many areas of the country were highlighted by a survey carried out by a 4-year programme known as UWEZO, aimed at improving competencies in literacy and numeracy among children aged 5-16. Special tests were developed for measuring literacy and numeracy. Citing the UWEZO report, the daily paper New Vision states:

“A total of 99% of pupils in lower primary classes in Gulu district cannot read or count numbers … The survey showed that at P3 level, only 1% of children were able to comprehend a P2 story text, while 20% were not able to identify letters and 70% could only identify letters and words…. At P7 level, 88% were able to comprehend a P2 story text, while 4% of the pupils could only read single words…. The assistant commissioner at the education standards agency in Gulu said that the thematic curriculum … has been hampered by overcrowded classes and poor attitude of teachers.”

Current reforms and the need for a competence profile

The government of Uganda has recently put in place a number of policies and programmes to improve educational quality. These include expanding the capacity of Primary Teachers Colleges to accommodate more students; enhancing the qualification of teacher trainers; hiring more qualified teachers both in formal and non-formal schools; sponsoring more students through primary teachers’ colleges; introducing the
Basic Minimum Requirement Standards (BRMS); school mentoring programmes; the Quality Enhancement Initiative; an induction curriculum for new teachers; Customized Performance Targets for the head teachers and their deputies; a new teacher training curriculum at primary level; a revised Scheme of Service; and a new thematic curriculum, focusing on learning in children’s mother tongues rather than English.

However, government literature indicates that while there has been adequate in-service training for the unqualified teachers, formal and informal professional development activities have been minimal or absent. Pre-service training cannot prepare teachers for all the challenges they will face throughout their careers: for example, large class sizes, mixed age classrooms, lack of support from parents, and personal circumstances such as living far from the school where they work, availability of housing and land, and indebtedness.

A lack of financial and human resources limits the professional support that can be offered by Centre Coordinating Tutors and School Inspectors. The Scheme of Service applies only to teachers on the public payroll, and even then offers very little to teachers in terms of working conditions and professional mobility. Decentralization of education has tended to isolate local policy makers from national support systems.
Gaps in ongoing professional development are related to the absence of a national framework that articulates teachers’ professional standards at any given stage of their career ladder. Teachers employed by the government for the first time are considered as novice teachers, regardless of whether they have previous teaching experience, and promotion is not based on displaying defined competences. Teacher support institutions tend to provide undifferentiated professional activities for teachers at different stages with distinct needs. Lacking a clear understanding of the competences that they need to demonstrate to advance in their careers, teachers are not able to plan their own professional development.

These are the issues that the Quality-ED project will address. Currently, the project is in the process of popularizing the national competence profile in a national-level communication strategy, complemented by some specific activities for key audiences. It is envisioned that as a national standard of practice, the new competence profile will serve three critical purposes: 1) informing the design of pre- and in-service teacher training; 2) aligning the professional development of teachers with the competence profile; and 3) enabling teachers’ career progression with particular concern for formalizing teachers who currently work outside the normal scheme of service.

Learning lessons from Uganda’s history with competence profiles

Two competence profiles were produced in Uganda in 2005, but according to feedback from education-related NGOs, these both suffered the fate of becoming invisible and unused.

One was produced by Kyambogo University. This was a very big document oriented towards proposing training material and concerned with conventional learning and teaching areas. The document is not user-friendly and lacks attention to life skills, classroom management and linkages to the community. There was no strategy to disseminate the profile, or to train users in its effective use. It is virtually unknown among teacher training institutions, teachers in service, inspectors, and others.

The other was produced by the Education Standards Agency at the request of the Ministry of Education and Sports. Unlike the previous profile, this document – called Guidelines on Teacher Professionalism and Competence – is a short, non-comprehensive document. At a workshop to discuss the findings from the feasibility study, participants commented that it was primarily a code of conduct about what teachers should and should not do. Because they were not widely disseminated, these Guidelines remain very little known.

Neither document gave adequate attention to the pedagogical aspects of working with children, fostering emotional intelligence, or connecting with parents, the local
community, or with the professional teaching community in Uganda and world-wide via distance learning and refreshment opportunities.

In 2008, the Government of Uganda initiated the Quality Enhancement Initiative (QEI), focusing on four agreed “Pillars”: the pupil, teacher, management and the community. QEI is intended to cover all primary schools in Uganda but with a focus on the worst performing districts. The initiative does not, however, focus on non-qualified teachers and does not include development of a competence profile – though public officials confirmed that a competence profile would be highly relevant to the initiative.

In light of this experience, the Quality-ED project decided that when working out a new competence profile:

i) The competence profile would need to be owned by the Government and the key actors that are responsible for teacher management and teacher education;

ii) An effective communication strategy must be in place that will popularise the document amongst all the key stakeholders. Adequate resources must be mobilised so that copies of the CP are available to every teacher and school, both pre- and in-service teachers;

iii) Finalizing the profile requires widespread consultations. The draft profile needs to reach key stakeholders with a clear process to collect their feedback and ensure that all stakeholders give their backing to the product, including a consensus about a strategy for implementation;

iv) Deliberate efforts must be made to orient teachers, Head Teachers, Deputies and Inspectors/DEOs to the revised CP and other policy documents, explaining the alignment between competences and the possibilities for professional development at different stages of teachers’ careers;

v) New teachers need to be consciously inducted with reference to the competence profile during a fixed ‘probation’ period in lead-up to full qualification. School leaders must ensure this process as one of the key result areas of the school.

6.6 Quality-Ed and Uganda’s revised competence profile

FAWEU (Forum for African Women Educationalists – Uganda), LABE (Literacy and Adult Basic Education) and UNATU (Unganda National Teachers Union) launched the Quality Educators Project with the support of Oxfam Novib and Education International in a bid to improve the quality of primary education in Uganda. Their main focus was the performance of primary school teachers, with special emphasis on teachers in Northern Uganda who have experienced two decades of conflict. FAWEU, LABE and UNATU
form the Initiative Team, which acts in close collaboration with the Department of Teacher and Instructor Education and Training (Ministry of Education and Sports). In developing the competence profile, a Technical Team was formed that included Kyambogo University, the National Curriculum Development Centre and the Directorate of Educational Standards.

The profile development process

At the outset, the Technical Team reviewed a range of policy documents and previous competence profiles or quality guidelines. During the summer of 2010, FAWEU, LABE and UNATU organized a series of focus group discussions at district level to solicit input from a broad range of stakeholders. More than 20 districts were approached, with a bias for the North. District Education Officials, District Inspectors of Schools, Centre Coordinating Tutors, pre-service tutors, Kyambogo University staff, Ministry officials and members of school management committees were consulted. Where possible, community members were included in the discussions such as parents, religious leaders, and local politicians. The responses were collected and systematized.

Subsequently, teachers and Head Teachers were given special attention in the form of a questionnaire to be filled out anonymously. They were asked whether they had been equipped with the necessary knowledge and competences to execute their roles. The team also sought to establish whether there were mechanisms to support teachers and head teachers in schools, and whether they had been given orientation to the profession at the time that they entered their jobs.

Regional consultative meetings were held in four regions of the country: Gulu in the North, Mbale in the East, Kampala in the Centre and Mbarara in the West. Participants at these meetings included Head teachers, Principals of Primary Teachers Colleges (PTCs), Deputy Principals, Tutors, DEOs, DISs, Executives of Head teachers Associations, and local government leaders.

The Commissioner of Basic and Secondary Education, who is also the chairperson of the Curriculum Task Force, chaired a meeting to review the CP in November 2010 at the Ministry of Education and Sports. In the formal review process, the Technical Team worked closely with the Permanent Secretary’s Office and the Department of Teacher Instruction, Education and Training. These and subsequent steps in the CP development process are summarised in the timeline below.
## Timeline of the Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>May 2009</td>
<td>In-depth planning workshop, Kampala (+ questionnaire in advance)</td>
<td>Kyambogo University and government officials participate in a workshop, confirming their interest in a process to develop, approve and implement a competence profile for primary teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visit to Uganda by Project group (EI and ON)</td>
<td>First ideas for a proposal for financing are discussed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept 2009</td>
<td>First proposal is submitted to ON and EI for support.</td>
<td>FAWEU, LABE and UNATU collaborate in joint proposal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Initiative Group is formed, project management structure and liaison arranged with MoES.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 2010</td>
<td>Technical Group is set up to work on the CP.</td>
<td>Representatives from the National Curriculum Development Center, Kyambogo University, Directorate of Education Standards and the Teacher and Instructor Education and Training Department/ Ministry of Education &amp; Sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 2010</td>
<td>EI and ON start up Intl research into competence profiles</td>
<td>Uganda and Mali are pilot studies included in a study intended for international audiences. Six case studies from other regions also studied.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Review of policy documents and previous competence profile work gets underway.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06-07-2010</td>
<td>Launch of the Quality Educators project</td>
<td>Minister of Education launches the project in a special event. Media coverage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer 2010</td>
<td>Community consultations in more than 20 Districts with community members, schools, SMCS and local public officials.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 2011</td>
<td>Four regional consultative meetings throughout the country, seeking input in the draft CP.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug-Sep 2010</td>
<td>Data collected from teachers and Head teachers through questionnaires.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Nov 2010</td>
<td>Key meeting at Ministry of Education and Sports.</td>
<td>Draft CP is formally reviewed by a range of national actors, including the Curriculum Task Force and the Permanent Secretary's Office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09-12-2010</td>
<td>Validation Workshop with respect to Competence Profile and Life Skills Curriculum</td>
<td>Invites: District Education Officers and District Inspector of Schools, PTC’s (Principals, CCTs, DPOs), Teachers, Chairpersons Head Teachers’ Associations, Ministry of Education and Sports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27-01-2011</td>
<td>High Level Technical Meeting among key actors</td>
<td>Further input into the draft CP document and to guide the implementation strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb/March 2011</td>
<td>Meeting with the Education Development Partners</td>
<td>Present the CP research to the main education donors inside Uganda with the objective of strengthening partnerships for the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>Monitoring mechanism introduced</td>
<td>Consultant on site at FAWEU will be dedicated to the task of project monitoring and capacity building.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication strategy</td>
<td>National-level communication strategy rolled out to popularize the newly-revised CP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Studies into specific topics</td>
<td>School-level study planned into teacher attrition, absenteeism, gender balance in the profession.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Findings from consultations

Analysis of the data from documentation and policies, focus group discussions, questionnaires to teachers and head teachers and regional consultative meetings led to the following findings:

• Although the majority of respondents state that the PTCs prepared them to handle curriculum content, make and use instructional materials and implement different modes of learning assessment, on the ground this was not in evidence;

• The existing competence profiles for primary school teachers were not known to the various stakeholders including teachers, head teachers, tutors and education officials who participated in the study;

• The previous competence profile was not user-friendly and seemed designed as a training document;

• There are many documents to guide teachers but they were not harmonized with each other and not readily available in most schools;

• There was no orientation of newly qualified teachers to school systems and there were no mechanisms to support them;

• Teachers are not exposed to policy documents and vital information. In general, schools do not have an effective communication strategy to move information among the workforce;

• Teachers are not reflective practitioners and lack leadership skills.

Based on these findings, some recommendations were put forward in terms of how to go about developing a new CP more effectively:

• Popularize the competence profile through orientation and training of district officials, teachers and other relevant stakeholders;

• Primary teacher training colleges (PTCs) should incorporate the competence profile in their mainstream training activities;

• Every practicing teacher should possess a copy of the competence profile;

• There should be peer support, mentoring and coaching within schools;

• The outreach programme of the core PTCs should mentor and support the teachers on the use of the competence profile;

• The competence profile should be comprehensive and user-friendly and take into account perspectives from a wide range of stakeholders to ensure ownership and utilization.
6.7 Domains of competences

Reports in Uganda have observed that teachers lack the basic knowledge, professional skills and competences to effectively execute their responsibilities in the classroom and beyond. The competence profile is the bedrock for addressing this situation and constructing a quality education system. Everything rests on the foundation of how the nation defines the competences it seeks in a quality educator. The revised profile in Uganda has come to the following domains of competences:

1. KNOWLEDGE
   Content knowledge, professional knowledge, emerging and contemporary knowledge, to help pupils acquire the subject content and to use this knowledge in everyday life and working situations.

2. SKILLS AND VALUES
   Pedagogical and interpersonal skills and values to carry out professional responsibilities.

3. COLLABORATION AND TEAM WORK
   Relationships with e.g. parents and colleagues that will assist in doing work better.

4. COMMUNITY RELATIONS
   Teachers need to collaborate and network with the members of the community to enhance community relations.

5. REFLECTION AND DEVELOPMENT
   It is the responsibility of the teacher to work constantly on personal and professional development.

6. RESEARCH
   Doing research for more knowledge for self-improvement or institutional improvement.

7. PROFESSIONAL ETHICS
   The standards of behavior expected from a particular profession. Teachers are expected to conform to the expected professional code of conduct.

8. LEADERSHIP
   A competent teacher should exhibit leadership skills, such as presenting ideas, leading discussions and making decisions.
6.8 Conclusions and recommendations from Uganda

The Ugandan case illustrates the importance of formulating a teacher competence profile that is ‘owned’ by the work force and civic representatives, in this case UNATU, FAWE and LABE. It was recognised that the profile must be authorised by the Ministry of Education and Sports, together with the wider group of relevant stakeholders such as the Universities and representatives of the 52 recognised Primary Teacher Colleges (PTCs) and the National Qualification Authority.

In particular, the competence profile should address teachers’ relationships with students, parents and the community. Among teachers themselves, there is a need to look at gender balance in the work force which may call for special measures. The profile provides a basis for professional development of pre-service and in-service teachers because it equips the system to identify the achievements and gaps in the competences of an individual teacher.

Many actors in Uganda gave careful thought to a process of developing a competence profile that would would have legitimacy and ownership to maximize its use as a reference point in teacher education. Specific attention is now being given to dissemination and communication of the profile, which a comprehensive and user-friendly document that brings together many points of view from the most relevant sections of government, academia and society. The final product will be launched in an event to further popularise the use of this document.

The need for monitoring and evaluating this instrument over time cannot be over-emphasized. It is critically important to continuously identify gaps in the CP itself and its implementation so that remedial action can be taken. The Initiative team, the Steering Committee, the Technical Team, and administrators and supervisors at various levels in the educational system must occupy a central role here.

It is important to remember that a competence profile is never written in stone. It evolves over time, adjusting to new realities and perceived needs. The profile is best seen as a work constantly in progress, allowing its creators to periodically adjust or improve the instrument as new knowledge and insight is gained about our teachers and from our teachers.
CHAPTER 7

Overall conclusions and recommendations

One of the main challenges affecting access to and quality of education, especially in the majority world, is the shortage of quality educators. In response to this challenge, Oxfam Novib and Education International decided to investigate how nations conceived of competences and worked with them in order to promote the quality of their primary school teachers. At the same time, the two organizations instigated a partnership with governments and national actors in Mali and Uganda to pilot the development of competence frameworks in an inclusive way and to apply these competence profiles within the context of teacher education and professional development.

The aim was to arrive at a set of recommendations for national policy makers and international organizations who are working to deliver quality education for every child and who rely on a professionally competent, resilient work force to do so. The research was also designed to inform the agencies whether it was justifiable to recommend generic competences internationally as a starting point for other countries to develop competence-based teacher education or whether it was preferable to suggest a methodology of ‘what works’. The conclusions below address these aims.

7.1 Defining competence: The “checklist” versus “holistic” approach

There is currently a global revival in focusing on competences in teaching and teacher education. Concerns about quality of education and other factors such as the rise of the knowledge society and consequent changing expectations of teachers, accountability, inequality, violence, low learning results, and the need to decolonize curricula have all been mentioned as explanations.

However, the term “competence” is not widely and consistently understood. There are many different definitions and there is confusion about what a competence profile should include (for example: how is it different from a ‘code of conduct’ or other standards or frameworks that specify what a teacher should know and do), how competence should be taught, how and by whom it should be measured, and so on. In three out of the six country case studies (Chile, Brazil and India), for example, stakeholders stated that there are no competence profiles for primary teachers – but they do have performance standards for teachers with criteria and indicators.
This confusion stems from the fact that two main approaches to teacher competence can be discerned in both theory and practice: a narrow behaviouristic ‘checklist’ approach, and a more recent holistic approach to competence and competence-based teacher education (CBTE) that views competence as the possession and development of a complex combination of integrated skills, knowledge, attitudes and values displayed in the context of task performance. This report establishes that interpreting teacher competence in a holistic way can function as an effective tool for talking about and evaluating teacher quality, and guiding their professional development. However, an important finding from the literature review is the risk of reverting to a narrow approach. In practice, thinking about the meaning of competence in the specific context is sometimes skipped, and ‘policy borrowing’ from other contexts takes place. The result is a list of disconnected things a teacher should do, and in the worst case, this list is used as a checklist against which to hold teachers accountable.

In the majority of the country case studies that have competence standards for teachers, competence is understood as minimally consisting of a) knowledge, b) skills and c) something else. In South Africa, professional values are part of teacher competence, as in New Zealand. In the latter case, in addition, professional relationships are part of competence. In Alberta, Canada, competence consists of knowledge, skills and attributes.

Malaysia is somewhat of an exception. There, although they are explicitly called competence frameworks, the PTK test (the assessment test for teachers introduced by the Public Service Department in 2003) purely focuses on content knowledge and the LNPT (the classroom performance test introduced by the Public Service Department in 1992) on skills. This contradicts theory, which states that competence is about integrated skills, knowledge and attitudes. In other words, the elements are not separable, as competence is neither about ‘uninformed action’ nor ‘unpractical knowledge’. In the Netherlands, besides knowledge, skills and attitudes, insight, professional views and character traits are mentioned. Thus, in all the countries apart from Malaysia, at least on paper the behaviourist ‘checklist’ approach to teacher competence is rejected.

Interestingly, in the countries that state not to have a CP, knowledge, skills and attitudes/values do seem to form part of their teacher performance frameworks. For example, in India, the national framework for teachers, although not thought of as a competence framework by stakeholders, does speak about ‘the total teacher’ who has knowledge and understanding, skills, positive attitudes, habits and values and the capacity to reflect.

The issue of the position of knowledge in competence came to the fore in several of the countries. In Slovenia there has been a battle between those who assign more
importance to “teachers’ subject knowledge training” and those emphasising training in “how to teach”. In the Netherlands, some feel that subject knowledge has lost importance with the introduction of CP, but this is refuted by others. This discussion does raise the important point that whereas in theory subject knowledge is essential, in practice it might lose attention due to the amount of other competences that the teacher has to demonstrate, or other responsibilities teachers might have (e.g. administrative).

The holistic approach to teacher competence also allows for the gradation of competences to match different stages in the teacher’s career, which is suggested to work best as a model. In general, in the country case studies, different levels of teacher competence are specified for beginning and advanced teachers, often linked to their partial or full registration. In South Africa, however, the NSE specify one expected level of competence that is the same for experienced and beginning teachers. This set-up has been criticized.

Confirming the findings in the literature, in several of the country case studies, resistance to the term ‘competence’ exists – sometimes for ideological reasons, as in Chile and Brazil, and sometimes because competence is thought to be narrow, strict, technical and rigid as a concept and thus leaving little room for different interpretations, as also in Chile and Brazil and to a lesser extent in India. Also, there is resistance to the idea that everything is measurable, such as care for children and values. Education is not a sum of several points, it is argued. Others oppose the term because it is “too vague”.

What can be concluded is that all these important lines of critique generally correspond with critiques of the behaviourist ‘checklist’ approach to competence. A holistic approach to competence, with its attention for values and attitudes, has in fact incorporated many of these concerns.

From the literature review in the first chapter it became clear that a CP ideally includes both domain-specific and broader life-skills competences, as well as cultural and socio-emotional competences. A CP should pay attention to how personal factors are related to teachers’ performance. Also, teacher competence should be understood as a collective effort. Teacher competence depends on many factors and teachers should never be held solely accountable for their teaching quality. Only in this way can a CP be helpful as a framework for discussion about teaching quality, and be the basis for guidelines for teachers’ evaluation, empowerment and professional growth.

It was also concluded that teaching quality should encompass the competence to recognize gendered power processes in the classrooms, and being able to actively embrace diversity,
ensuring a safe, protective and gender responsive school environment. To understand stakeholders’ view on this last issue, the following question was presented to all of the stakeholders:

- If men/women are unequally represented in the teaching profession: what role does the CP and its implementation play in ensuring equal participation? Or in sustaining unequal participation?

Surprisingly, only in one country (Malaysia) stakeholders linked gender to competence development. In all the other countries, gender did not feature as an issue within debates about competence profiles.

7.2 Developing competence profiles: Context, ownership and evaluation

With respect to the development of the CPs in the country case studies, a number of obstacles were mentioned. The fundamental question in all the countries has been who decides on what the CP should look like and what competences it should include. In general, it is felt that the CP should be fundamentally linked to the goals established for education and the perceptions of what constitutes good quality education.

In all the countries stakeholders feel that the common vision of the desired competences of primary school teachers should be designed in cooperation with all stakeholders involved, most notably with the teachers. This is linked to the finding that change cannot be successful without stakeholders feeling ownership of it. In practice, in most of the country case studies the ministers of education (MoE), unions, the profession, academics and other sector organizations have at some point been involved, although disagreement often exists on the level and intensity of actual participation. For example, in Chile, although teachers were involved, the possibility to effectively analyse the teacher performance framework and form an opinion was hampered because the teachers were not provided with enough time or contextual information. In the case of India, there is common agreement amongst interviewees that the reason why teacher training institutions have integrated the non-mandatory guidelines of the NCFTE is very much due to the fact that its development has been inclusive: many stakeholders were involved in its development, such as education scholars and experts, teacher educators, teachers, teacher trainees, NGO representatives, and local and national education institutes.

Interestingly, in the country case studies, parent and student organizations are not necessarily part of the process of development of the CPs. In some of the countries, the opinion was expressed that no external agency should be interfering with contextual aspects of education. The stakeholders in Brazil and Chile express a fear of imposition of views by theorists or external agencies.
Cooperation has in some instances been problematic, as many stakeholders with different agendas were involved. Also, the aim of the profile is a source of conflict: should it be used for political aims, for holding teachers accountable, or for teacher support? An issue that has been a source of disagreement, in for example the Netherlands and New Zealand, is how detailed or general competences should be described (‘level of specificity’ problem), as well as finding a middle ground between a technocratic and a more developmental view of competence.

From the case studies, particularly South Africa and Malaysia, the importance of a clear understanding of the social, economic, and political contexts when engaging in the development of competence standards becomes evident. Successful reforms are designed in context, and where there is divergence between policy and practice this seems to stem from a focus on what is desirable rather than feasible.

Also, attention to conditions of reform implementation (e.g. dynamics, time-scale, preparation, resourcing) is essential. In Malaysia, interviewed teachers agree that the PTK is designed without taking teachers’ daily practice into account. That is, a great deal of knowledge one is supposed to possess according to PTK standards has nothing to do with daily practice, and is not relevant for the teaching profession. Consequent teacher demoralization and emigration are mentioned.

In the great majority of countries, teacher evaluation appears problematic. Sometimes evaluation is non-existent, sometimes it is of very bad quality.

From the research, it also becomes clear that evaluation can be the drawback to a holistic approach to competence, as the ‘soft’ and essential elements of teaching such as teachers’ values and attitudes disappear in the evaluation. For example, in Brazil, qualitative aspects such as professional capacities, attitudes and values remain outside evaluation.

In addition, in many cases, the standards on which evaluations are based often differ from those in the curriculums of teacher training institutions or schools. Teacher training, daily classroom practice and evaluation systems sometimes are three isolated islands, whereas stakeholders feel that education should be approached holistically and the same standards should be employed for teacher training, daily performance and evaluation.

In many countries, evaluations are not followed-up. Teacher either never hear about their results, or they don’t get feedback or support/professional development courses. In Chile, where courses are provided, they are not of consistent quality. Stakeholders are in favour of courses based on an individual approach in which the different needs and problems teachers are faced with receive proper attention.
Again, the question of what is done with the result is raised, i.e. to control or support/inform teachers? And again, the importance of approaching competence in a collective way becomes evident as it is stressed by stakeholders who say that teachers should never be solely held accountable for the quality of education.

A very serious issue that came to the fore in this research is the fact that teachers who are seen as good by stakeholders have not necessarily scored high on their evaluation in the past. In other words, what teachers are tested on doesn’t necessarily always reflect teachers’ daily classroom reality, and similarly, highest results do not always imply good quality teaching. This emphasizes the importance of designing evaluations in such a way that they actually evaluate what is essential.

In addition, thought should be given as to whether all teachers should be evaluated according to the same tests, or whether there should be specialized tests (for special education teachers). Subjectivity and limited time of evaluations are found to be problematic. In Chile there is disagreement on the frequency of evaluation.

The Quality Educators for All pilot projects in Mali and Uganda illustrates an approach to overcome the fate of previous profiles which remained relatively unknown and unutilized. The pilot profiles were formulated through a broad-based consultation process among many stakeholders. They will be disseminated through a communication strategy in which tailor-made activities are planned for specific audiences such as Head Teachers and local education officials. When developed and endorsed by a social consensus, the profile can be an important lever to improve the quality of pre-service and in-service teacher education. It is especially helpful in developing programmes to enable unqualified teachers to achieve qualification and in setting a single national norm for qualification. The pilots will be carefully monitored to see whether this process leads to improved implementation of quality norms within the public education system.

Interestingly, although the desk study showed that thinking about competence can be useful in non-formal education (NFE) as a tool for quality assurance and for facilitating the transition of non-formal teachers into formal education, this did not surface as an issue among the interviewed stakeholders from the formal sector. A number of countries such as South Africa and the Netherlands do facilitate the upgrading of un-/under-qualified teachers on the basis of recognition of competences. Various large-scale educational programmes run by CSOs were approached for feedback as well as resource people with a specialised knowledge of NFE but few could confirm the use of competence profiles or a similar instrument. It is possible that some quality standards are used in NFE, but we cannot draw conclusions from the limited input.
7.3 Recommendations about developing national CPs

- CPs should be developed in cooperation with all involved stakeholders. There should be enough room and time to exchange ideas. Definitions of competences should be linked to a common understanding of what constitutes quality teaching, and firmly linked to teachers’ daily classroom practice: divergence between the ‘ideal’ and the ‘real’ should be prevented;
- The findings in this report suggest that a CP can be helpful as a framework for discussion about teaching quality, and serve as a guideline for teachers’ evaluation, empowerment and professional growth, but only when:
  - Competence is defined holistically as complex integrated skills, knowledge, attitudes and values in a particular context, allowing different levels of competence that match different stages in the teacher’s career;
  - The CP includes both domain-specific and broader life-skills (generic competence) as well as cultural and socio-emotional competence, and pays attention to how personal and contextual factors are related to teachers' performance. Attention to ‘less easily measurable aspects’ such as values is crucial;
  - Teacher competence is approached as a collective, systemic effort;
  - The CP is applied along the entire spectrum of teacher learning: i.e. the competences used in initial or pre-service education, certification, professional development and evaluation are in line with each other.
- Implementation of competence-based initiatives cannot depend on teachers alone; successful implementations should be school-wide, and contextual factors (time-frame, preparation, resourcing, workshops) should be part of the planning, making sure everybody understands the reform. Clear strategies should be developed for teachers and schools to meet the competence standards. Sufficient attention should also be paid to assisting teachers during the transition from training to practice, for example in the form of induction/mentoring;
- Evaluation should be an essential part of the implementation of CPs, especially emphasizing the post evaluation follow-up (feedback or support/professional development courses);
- Teaching quality encompasses the competence to recognize gender relations in the classrooms, and being able to actively embrace diversity, ensuring safe, protective and gender responsive school environments. However, little is known about how teacher CPs and gender are related, and more research is urgently needed on 1) how working with CPs is different for men and women, and 2) whether working with CPs affects girls and boys differently.
- In addition, it could be interesting to look into the applicability of CPs in quality assurance of NFE and the transition of NFE teachers to the formal sector.
7.4 Recommendations with regard to an international CP

The question of whether the development of an international CP for primary teachers is feasible and desirable can now also be answered. Almost all the interviewed stakeholders are in favour of an international CP for primary teachers, although some prefer to call it guidelines or standards instead, as is the case in Brazil and India. All stakeholders feel that “everybody needs a good teacher”, and a common framework for teacher performance is thought to contribute to the quality of education. All agree that an international CP should include generic competences. Indicators are said to be always context-bound and thus should never be included in an international CP. In addition, stakeholders state that such an international CP should be developed by all stakeholders, but this does raise organizational/logistical problems at the international level.

Another practical issue that would complicate the development of an international CP is its content: there is quite a big variety in what stakeholders feel are the essential qualities of a good teacher. When all the characteristics mentioned by the stakeholders in the six country case studies are analysed, it becomes evident that out of a total of twenty-nine characteristics mentioned, eighteen occur only in one country. For example, only in Brazil is citizenship training thought to be part of quality teaching, and only in India is language command mentioned as essential. In six countries, a combination of two of the following characteristics appear: “reflexive/analytical capacity”, “passionate/motivated about teaching”, “patient”, “understanding/listens to students”, and “professional development”.

However, in most of the countries, the following characteristics (competences) are found important:

- ‘Subject knowledge’ (in 5 out of 6 countries);
- ‘Methodological/pedagogical/didactical tools’ (in 5 out of 6 countries);
- ‘Cares about/loves/likes children’ (in 4 out of 6 countries);
- ‘Attention to different needs/background of students’ (in 5 out of 6 countries) and
- ‘Dynamic/flexible/open-minded’ (in 5 out of 6 countries).

Based on the collected data in this report and the conclusions with regard to an international primary teacher CP – i.e. that there are organizational and logistical complications to the process of how a CP should be developed, and complications related to the content (i.e. which competences this international CP should consist of) – the recommendation would be for international guidelines for the development of national CPs rather than for the development of an international CP with fixed competences.
However, since another important finding of this research is that there is in fact agreement on a few aspects of teaching that are found to be essential to good teaching, part of the guideline could be that in all countries in the world these particular traits should form part of the national CP. It would however be absolutely necessary that the question as to what is considered a quality educator is investigated among stakeholders on an even bigger scale than has been the case in this research.
ANNEXES

Annex I: Competence Profiles of Quality Primary Teachers: Questionnaire

Core competencies and development of CP
1. When was the CP developed? Why was the CP developed? How was the CP developed? Who was involved in the process? What are the consequences of the way the CP has been developed?
2. What are the competencies for the profile of a quality primary teacher in your country/region? What are the indicators of the competencies as formulated in the CP?
3. Have there been obstacles to developing the CP? Where they overcome? If yes: how? If not: why not?
4. Is the CP formalised in a law, decree, legislation, circular letter,... are teacher education institutions obliged to work with CP, or is it an informal invitation for the Teacher Training Colleges to follow?

Implementation
5. Are teacher training colleges obliged to incorporate the CP in their curriculum?
6. If there are teacher education institutions that are not in line with the CP, what should be done? How to improve required competencies in teachers?
7. Have there been obstacles to incorporate the CP within teacher training colleges? And in classroom daily practice (e.g. teachers being unfamiliar with the CP)? Where they overcome? If yes: how? If not: why not?
8. How are teachers prepared during teacher training to perform their job in accordance with the CP?
9. Is the way the CP is being implemented at school level being evaluated? How? When? By whom?
10. After graduation, are teachers being supported to improve themselves with respect to competencies? In daily classroom practice? Is there a policy on the issue of teacher support with respect to amelioration of competencies as formulated in the CP?
11. Do CPs exist regarding non-formal education and contract/unqualified teachers? If yes: does the CP and its implementation allows for the gradual transition of non-formal teachers to formal status?
12. In case men/women are unequally represented in the teaching profession: what role does the CP and its implementation play in ensuring equal participation? Or in sustaining unequal participation?
Recommendations

13. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the CP? (policy and implementation/practice)
14. Are there competencies missing in the current CP? And how should these be measured?
15. What is a good quality teacher? And what is quality education?
16. Does the CP lead to good teaching practice and quality of education?
17. How should a teachers’ education system look like for teachers to be able to deliver quality education on a sustained basis? Please give examples of good (or/and bad) practice?
18. How do competencies of teachers during and after teacher education need to be evaluated and by whom?
19. In case teacher training colleges do not have the national CP incorporated in their curriculum: in what way should this issue be addressed? How to improve the required competencies in teachers?
20. Should there be a generic international CP? If yes: what should it consist of? And how and by whom is it to be formulated? If no: how and by whom should a CP be developed?
21. Other recommendations and/or concluding remarks?

Annex II: Interviewed institutions

- Academia de Humanismo Cristiano, Santiago, Chile
- AIPTF (All India Primary Teachers’ Federation), New Delhi, India
- AOb (Algemene Onderwijsbond), Utrecht, The Netherlands
- Centre for Educational Policy Studies, University of Ljubljana Faculty of Education, Ljubljana, Slovenia
- Centro de Educação Paulo Freire de Ceilândia, Ceilândia, Brazil
- CIAE (Centro de Investigación Avanzada en Educación), Santiago, Chile
- Centro de Perfeccionamiento, Experimentación e Investigaciones Pedagógicas (CPEIP; an institution that falls under the Ministry of Eduaction of Chile), Santiago, Chile
- CNTE (Confederação Nacional dos Trabalhadores em Educação), Brasilia, Brazil
- CNV-Onderwijs, Utrecht, the Netherlands
- Colegio de Profesores, Santiago, Chile
- DIET (District Institute of Education and Training), Southern District of Delhi, India
- Escola de Ceilândia, Distrito Federal, Brasilia, Brazil
- Escola estadual Professor Natalino Ferreira Mendes, Cáceres, State of Mato Grosso, Brazil
• Escola Gran Geraldo Napoleão de Sousa, Silvânia, State of Goiás, Brazil
• Escuela España, Santiago, Chile
• Escuela Marcela Paz, Santiago, Chile
• ESTUS (Education, Science and Culture Trade Union of Slovenia), Ljubljana, Slovenia
• HVA (Hogeschool van Amsterdam-Pabo), Amsterdam, the Netherlands
• Institút Aminuddin Baki (National Institute of Educational Management and Leadership), Genting Highlands, Malaysia
• Jamia Millia Islamia University, New Delhi, India
• Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap, the Hague, the Netherlands.
• Ministério Da Educação, Brasília, Brazil
• Ministrstvo za šolstvo in šport (Ministry of Education and Sport), Ljubljana, Slovenia
• Ministry of Education Malaysia, Competency Development and Assessment Division & Teacher Education Division, Cyberjaya & Putrajaya, Malaysia
• NCERT (National Council of Educational research and Training), New Delhi, India
• NCTE (National Council for Teacher Education), New Delhi, India
• Nigam Pratibha School, New Delhi, India
• NUTP (National Union of the Teaching Profession), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
• PROIFES (forum for teachers of federal universities), Brasilia, Brazil
• SBL: Stichting Beroepskwaliteit Leraren, Utrecht, the Netherlands
• Senado Federal Consultoria Legislativa, Brasilia, Brazil
• SJK (C) Lai Chee (primary school), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
• SJK (T) Thamboosamy Pillai, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
• SMK (P) Air Panas (secondary school), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
• SMK Puteri Titiwangsa (secondary school), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
• TSG, Technical Support Group Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of School Education & Literacy, New Delhi, India
• Universidade Católica de Brasília, Brasilia, Brazil
• Universidade Federal de Goiás, State of Goiás, Brazil
• Universidade Federal MS (Mato Grosso do Sul), Campo Grande, State of Mato Grosso do Sul, Brazil
• Univerza v Ljubljani Pedago?ka fakulteta (University of Ljubljana Faculty of Education), Ljubljana, Slovenia
• Zirkon, International Research and Education, Amsterdam, the Netherlands
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