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Commission

Teaching Careers in Europe

Access, Progression and Support

Eurydice Report



Education and
Training



Teaching Careers in Europe: Access, Progression and Support

Eurydice Report

*Education and
Training*

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Statistics

(:) Data not available (–) Not applicable or zero

Abbreviations and acronyms

International conventions

CPD	Continuing Professional Development
EQF	European Qualification Framework
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education (see the glossary)
ITE	Initial Teacher Education

National abbreviations in their language of origin

AHS	<i>Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule</i>	AT
GCSE	<i>General Certificate of Secondary Education</i>	UK-ENG/WLS/NIR
HAVO	<i>Hoger Algemeen Voortgezet Onderwijs</i>	NL
NMS	<i>Neue Mittelschule</i>	AT
PGCE	<i>Postgraduate Certificate in Education</i>	UK-ENG/WLS/NIR
VMBO	<i>Vorbereidend Middelbaar Beroepsonderwijs</i>	NL
VWO	<i>Vorbereidend Wetenschappelijk Onderwijs</i>	NL
ZŠ/G	<i>Základní škola/Gymnázium</i>	CZ

MAIN FINDINGS

The main findings highlight conclusions of particular interest to policy-makers. These findings are the product of an analysis of national level data using a comparative approach. They also serve as an overview of the key areas covered, including forward planning for teacher supply and demand, entry to the profession, teacher mobility between schools, continuing professional development and support, career structures, the use of teacher competence frameworks, and appraisal systems. Readers are referred to the specific indicators where more detailed information can be found.

Forward planning of teacher supply and demand is usually carried out by top-level authorities on a yearly basis

The majority of European countries carry out forward planning specifically for teacher supply and demand. Top-level education authorities carry out this task themselves in all the countries where it takes place. In addition, in five education systems local-level authorities also develop their own plans in this area (Belgium (Flemish Community), Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Switzerland) (see Figure 1.1).

While many education systems rely only on short-term planning, in some countries this is accompanied by longer-term forecasting to deal with the challenges expected in the mid- to long-term. Seven education systems carry out only long-term planning – some of these for more than 10 years ahead (Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, and Norway) (see Figure 1.2).

Forward planning is based largely on data relating to serving teachers rather than prospective teachers

All 26 education systems which carry out forward planning use data on serving teachers, although the level of detail varies. Most often, this data relates to retiring teachers, teacher demographics, teachers by taught subject(s) and teachers leaving the profession (other than for retirement reasons). The majority of European countries also use data on the likely demand for teachers, which is mostly based on pupil population growth projections. Many countries go further by using data on the subjects that these teachers will need to teach, thus having a clearer picture of the type of investment needed in initial teacher education (ITE).

Although data on prospective teachers is used less often, nearly half of the countries take into account data on the number of ITE students and graduates by specialisation. Evidence indicates that it is not straightforward to use data on ITE students for the purpose of forward planning, as it is difficult to predict whether or when graduates will subsequently enter the teaching profession (see Figures 1.3-1.5).

The most common challenges with respect to teacher demand and supply in Europe are teacher shortages and the ageing teacher population

Most countries are facing a number of challenges, many of which are inter-related as well as linked to the more general issue of the attractiveness of the profession. The shortage of teachers in some subjects is the most common challenge. It is mentioned by more than half of European education systems. However, the use of incentives to attract students to the teaching profession or to specific subjects is rare. Shortages and oversupply co-exist in several countries due, for instance, to an uneven distribution of teachers across subjects and geographical areas (Germany, Greece, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Liechtenstein and Montenegro).

Almost half of the countries are faced with an ageing teacher population. Some countries are also facing challenges with respect to retaining younger teachers in the profession. Moreover, almost a dozen countries indicate a general shortage of students enrolling in ITE, and four countries mention high ITE drop-out rates among their main challenges, namely Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway.

About one third of European education systems offer alternative pathways to a teaching qualification alongside the mainstream programmes. Alternative pathways are usually designed around short professional-oriented programmes and/or employment-based training. Most countries do not have alternative pathways into the teaching profession despite having a shortage of teachers (see Figures 1.6 and 2.2).

It is interesting to see that many education systems face similar challenges, whether they carry out forward planning or not. Of the countries which have no specific planning for teacher supply and demand, several indicate oversupply as their main challenge. This may mean that the need for planning is less urgent than in countries where there are shortages, but still raises questions about the efficient use of resources. For the other countries, the lack of forward planning processes probably means that they do not have the relevant data and analysis to form a clear picture of the challenges ahead (see Figure 1.6).

In more than half of the education systems, graduates from ITE have to comply with further requirements to be considered fully qualified

In 20 European education systems, teachers are considered fully qualified when they graduate from ITE. In 23 other systems, graduates in education must also meet additional requirements. In six of them, they must pass a competitive examination, while in another 17, candidate teachers must have their professional competency confirmed. This latter requirement is usually obtained through a professional examination or appraisal at the end of the induction programme, or through a process of accreditation, registration or certification (see Figure 2.1).

Teachers are most often recruited by schools or local authorities

In most European education systems, schools or local authorities are responsible for recruiting teachers. This decentralised approach is usually based on a system of open recruitment and means that vacancies are managed directly by schools or local authorities and teachers apply for specific vacant posts. Top-level education authorities are commonly responsible for employing fully qualified teachers in education systems where recruitment to the teaching profession is based on competitive examinations or candidate list(s) (see Figures 2.3-2.5).

All education systems offer the opportunity for fully qualified teachers to obtain contracts of indefinite duration

In almost two-thirds of the education systems, the employment status of fully qualified teachers is subject to special legislation governing contractual relations in the public sector (civil servants or non-civil servant public employees), while in 16 education systems all teachers are employed under contracts subject to general employment legislation. Contracts of indefinite duration are available to teachers in all education systems usually regardless of their employment status. While contracts of indefinite duration are closely associated with permanent positions, fixed-term contracts are commonly

used to fill temporary positions, staff on fixed-term projects, replace absent teachers, or to employ teachers during the probationary/induction period (see Figures 2.6 and 2.7).

In more than half of European education systems, teacher mobility is not regulated

Teacher mobility (i.e. transfer between schools) is not always regulated. In the countries where regulations do exist, they are largely implemented by top-level authorities, the exceptions being Albania and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, where mobility is regulated at local-level (see Figure 2.8).

In general, teachers seek mobility for professional and/or personal reasons. From an education system point of view, the need to manage teacher mobility can be useful in some circumstances, the most popular being in cases of school reorganisation, followed by the need to ensure an even distribution of teachers or to resolve teacher performance or personal issues. The possibility of transferring teachers without their consent exists in two countries (Germany and Austria), and it is allowed only in very specific circumstances and under restricted conditions. However, education authorities and schools rarely offer incentives for teacher mobility.

Provisions for teacher mobility generally relate to recruitment practices

Countries with open recruitment policies generally have fewer, if any, regulations on teacher mobility – movements between schools occur when teachers apply directly in response to advertised vacancies. Geographically speaking, this practice tends to occur in Northern and Eastern Europe. In contrast, in countries where top-level authorities play a role in the recruitment process, it is more common for teachers to apply to the education authority for a transfer (see Figures 2.3 and 2.9).

Induction and mentoring for new teachers are widely legislated across most European countries

Induction for prospective or beginning teachers exists in most European education systems and is compulsory in 26. Although the design of the induction process may vary between countries, some components such as mentoring, professional development, peer learning, and support from the school head are common (see Figures 3.1 and 3.2).

Mentoring for teachers entering the profession is mandatory in 29 education systems, and it is recommended in another five. However, mentoring is rarely regulated for other than beginning teachers. Only in Estonia and Finland, schools are recommended to provide mentoring to any teacher in need of support (see Figure 3.3).

In almost all countries where induction is compulsory, teachers are appraised at the end of this period. This evaluation is intended to verify that teachers have acquired the necessary practical skills to work independently, and it may feed into a more comprehensive and formal process of certifying the ability to teach (see Figure 5.3).

Professional and personal support is available to teachers in most education systems

Teachers may get professional help to deal with various types of difficulties: in 32 education systems teachers are given support for improving their relations with pupils, parents or other colleagues; in 26 systems for developing and improving their professional practice; and in 23 to deal with personal matters (see Figure 3.11).

In the vast majority of countries, specialist support is also provided for teachers of pupils with general learning difficulties. This is most commonly provided by educational psychologists, specialist educational staff and speech and language therapists (see Figure 3.10).

In most countries, teachers have an obligation to take part in continuing professional development (CPD)

In almost half of the education systems, CPD is mandatory for teachers and there is a minimum number of hours, days or credits that teachers must complete. In another 14, CPD is one of teachers' statutory professional duties, although a minimum time period is not defined. Only in few countries there is no statutory obligation for teachers to participate in CPD activities (see Figure 3.4).

Moreover, decisions on promotion or salary progression take into account teachers' participation in CPD in more than half of the education systems. In 17, there is a CPD requirement for taking up certain responsibilities such as mentoring or management roles (see Figure 3.8).

Supporting measures to facilitate teachers' participation in CPD can be found in all European countries

All European countries have measures in place to remove barriers to participation such as covering the cost of CPD activities or minimising the conflict with work schedules or family life. Courses are offered free of charge (or provider costs are covered by the public authorities) in all the education systems covered by this report. In two-thirds of them, schools also receive public funds to organise their own CPD activities.

Teachers can usually attend CPD activities during working hours but with certain limitations, especially when they have teaching commitments. Travel expenses are covered in most education systems. Teachers may also get additional allowances, grants or paid study leave in some countries (see Figure 3.9).

Schools usually participate in defining CPD needs and priorities

Schools are involved in defining CPD needs and priorities in 37 education systems. In most cases, they share this responsibility with the education authorities, but, in some education systems, they enjoy a large degree of autonomy (see Figure 3.7).

Moreover, in 25 education systems, the development of a CPD plan at school level is compulsory. CPD planning usually forms part of the school development planning process (see Figures 3.5 and 3.6).

A multi-level career structure exists in half of the education systems

In half of the European education systems studied, advancement is based on a multi-level career structure. In these systems, career levels are structured according to ascending levels of job complexity and increased responsibility. In the other half of the education systems, there is a single career level structure. These are therefore referred to as systems with 'flat career structures' (see Figure 4.1).

In almost all education systems with a multi-level career structure, promotion is linked to salary increases or additional allowances, except in Estonia and Serbia. However, in these two countries, a higher qualification level opens the way to more varied tasks (see Figure 4.2).

Teachers do not need to be in a multi-level career structure to be awarded some additional non-teaching responsibilities. This opportunity exists in all countries except Turkey. Thus almost all teachers have a chance to diversify their work. In three quarters of the education systems, teachers can become mentors – within the framework of induction programmes regulated by the top-level education authority, or those developed at school level – and/or have pedagogical or methodological roles outside the classroom. These roles may relate to the subject or the curriculum, to pupil support, school life, ITE/CPD or evaluation. In more than half of the education systems, teachers may also be involved in management roles (see Figure 4.5).

In most education systems with a multi-level career structure, school management is involved in decision-making on promotions

In seven education systems, promotion to a higher career level is fully decentralised and school management bodies are fully in charge of such decisions.

In six education systems, promotions to a higher career level are fully centralised and fall under the sole responsibility of the top-level education authority.

In nine education systems, the decision-making on promotions is shared between different levels: the school management, the local education authority and/or the top-level education authority. In three quarters of the education systems that have a multi-level career structure, the school management is involved in the decision-making on promotions (see Figure 4.4).

Career guidance specifically targeting serving teachers is rare

Career guidance specifically targeting serving teachers wishing to develop within the profession is rare, despite the diversity of teacher roles available and the existence of a multi-level career structure in half of the education systems. It is a legal requirement only in France, Hungary and Austria; career guidance is offered in various forms of online information as well as opportunities for interviews with specially trained career counsellors for teachers. Further investigation would be needed to understand whether teachers in other countries can rely on school management bodies, evaluators and/or trade unions to gain information and advice on career options (see Figure 4.6).

Teacher competence frameworks exist in most countries but the level of detail varies greatly

In the vast majority of countries, a teacher competence framework has been developed by the top-level education authority. Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina are in the process of developing such a framework (see Figure 4.7).

While all teacher competence frameworks define the areas of competence, the level of detail varies between education systems. In seven education systems, the framework lists only the competence areas without further detail on what they entail. In 25 education systems, however, the framework provides more detail on the specific skills, knowledge and/or attitudes required. Only four education systems differentiate between the competences applicable at different stages of a teacher's career (Belgium (Flemish Community), Estonia, Latvia and the United Kingdom (Scotland)) (see Figure 4.8).

The main use of teacher competence frameworks is to define the competences a candidate teacher should have mastered by the end of ITE. This is the case in 28 education systems. Its use in the context of CPD is less common (16 education systems). A teacher competence framework might be expected to be comprehensive enough to allow it to be used throughout all stages of a teacher's career, taking into account ITE and CPD. However, only 13 education systems use their competence frameworks for both purposes (see Figure 4.9).

Top-level authorities regulate teacher appraisal in most countries but seldom monitor its functioning

Teacher appraisal takes place in most European countries and in the vast majority it is regulated by top-level education authorities. In the remaining countries, schools or local authorities either have full autonomy in this matter or teacher appraisal is not carried out systematically. However, less than half of top-level education authorities have some form of monitoring of their appraisal system, which may be regular or occasional. In countries where appraisal is a matter of local or school autonomy, this never occurs (see Figures 5.1 and 5.2).

In-service teacher appraisal is a common practice, although in some countries it is not a regular exercise

Appraisal for serving teachers is common practice across Europe and is usually applicable to all teachers, although it is not always a regular exercise. Its frequency is not set down in regulations in eight countries, it is a local or school decision in another six, and practice varies greatly in the others.

In most countries in-service appraisal is used to provide teachers with feedback. In addition, it may be used to identify good performance and subsequently lead to the award of bonuses, salary progression or promotion. It can also serve to detect underperformance and trigger remedial measures. In almost half of the education systems, rating systems to evaluate teacher performance have been introduced (see Figures 5.4-5.8 and 5.14).

In-service teacher appraisal is not always used to identify professional development needs

Only in 13 education systems is appraisal systematically used to review professional development needs. In another 13 systems, this option is left to the discretion of the appraiser, while in seven more (Belgium (German-speaking Community), Spain, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Albania and Serbia) appraisal is never used for this purpose (see Figure 5.6).

School leaders are often involved in appraising teachers but only one third of education systems have mandatory training in this area

In most countries school leaders are either charged with the responsibility of appraising teachers or they participate actively in the process. However, almost half of the education systems do not offer training programmes for school leaders on appraisal. In 11 of the remaining systems training is mandatory while in another 11 it is optional. Where these do exist, they are either part of general school leadership programmes or are delivered as separate, dedicated courses (see Figures 5.10 and 5.11).

Teacher appraisal is generally based on a discussion with the school leader as well as on classroom observation

Teacher appraisal is always carried out with reference to at least one framework that describes what is expected of them. This may be a general appraisal framework developed by top-level education authorities or inspectorates, the teacher competence framework, the school development plan or the teacher's job description (see Figure 5.12).

Interviews and dialogues with the school leader combined with classroom observation are the most common methods used to carry out teacher appraisal. In some countries, this practice is accompanied by teacher self-evaluation. The use of pupil and/or parent surveys, pupil outcomes, and teacher testing is rare, although a possibility in around a quarter of European education systems (see Figure 5.13).

INTRODUCTION

The quality of teaching is crucial if young people are to be inspired in the classroom and reach their full potential. Good teachers make for good education systems, and both are necessary to give young people the best preparation for adult life as active and productive members of society. Although the role of teachers is becoming increasingly important as Europe rises to meet its educational, social and economic challenges, the teaching profession is becoming less attractive as a career choice. Higher expectations in terms of student outcomes and greater pressures due to a more diverse student population combined with rapid technological innovation are having a profound impact on the teaching profession.

European leaders and national policy-makers have committed themselves as part of Education and Training 2020 ⁽¹⁾ to identify the challenges and explore the best ways to provide effective support for teachers, enhance their professionalism, and raise their status.

The 2015 Joint report ⁽²⁾ and earlier the 'Rethinking education' communication (European Commission, 2012) have already pointed to a number of challenges that national policy-makers need to take into consideration. Many countries have serious shortages of staff. In some cases these are linked to specific subjects or geographical areas, while in others they are more general due to the ageing teacher population, drop-out rates from the profession and its attractiveness. Interest in the profession is also declining resulting in fewer candidates for posts (European Commission, 2013b). In addition, there are significant gender imbalances in staffing at different levels of education which also need to be addressed (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015).

The school population is changing – population densities in cities and remote areas are subject to fluctuation, and variations in pupils' cultural, economic, geographical or social backgrounds mean that teachers must cater for a wider range of needs. While innovation and digital technologies offer new possibilities for improving teaching and learning, Europe is slow to make the best use of them. According to the *Survey of Schools: ICT in Education Benchmarking Access, Use and Attitudes to Technology in Europe's schools* (European Commission, 2013e), teachers are generally positive about the impact of ICT on pupils' learning but only one in four pupils is taught by teachers that feel confident in the use of technology.

These and other challenges call for systemic responses from both the authorities in charge of education as well as from teachers themselves, who must continually update their skills and competences to be able to perform effectively and meet expectations.

Within the framework of Education and Training 2020, Member States together with the European Commission have worked together to address a number of these challenges. The outcomes include European guidance material on: 1) a set of competences that teachers should acquire to successfully lead and facilitate student learning (European Commission, 2013a); 2) support for teacher educators (European Commission, 2013d); and 3) support for the induction of new teachers (European Commission, 2010). Moreover, the report *Shaping Career-long Perspectives on Teaching* (European Commission, 2015) suggests creating a continuum in the development of teaching careers that includes teachers' learning needs, support structures, career paths, competence levels and school cultures.

⁽¹⁾ Council conclusions of 12 May 2009 on a strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training ('ET 2020') (2009/C 119/02), OJ C119, 28.05.2009, p. 2.

⁽²⁾ 2015 Joint Report of the Council and the Commission on the implementation of the strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (ET 2020) New priorities for European cooperation in education and training (2015/C 417/04), OJ C 417, 15.12.2015, p. 25.

In the 2015 Joint Report, Member States and the Commission reconfirmed their commitment to providing strong support for teachers and their professional development. A working group on schools was set up to address the strategic priorities for cooperation on school policy from 2016 to 2018. The group is exploring how governance in school education can support school development and innovation to ensure a sustained impact on the quality and inclusiveness of learning. One of the tasks of the working group is to discuss and develop policy guidance on the role of teachers and school leaders as agents of change in this process and to touch upon such issues as professional development, leadership and career structures.

The recent Communication from the European Commission on school development and excellent teaching (European Commission, 2017a) emphasises the need to make teaching careers more attractive and for changing the paradigm of the profession from static to dynamic. Teaching today involves lifelong career development, adapting to new challenges, collaborating with peers, using new technologies and being innovative. This calls for recognition that the teaching environment is constantly changing and teachers need the necessary policy reforms and support to be able to respond proactively to the new demands.

The Communication looks at a number of areas that can be acted upon to improve the working conditions and efficacy of teachers. Selection and recruitment of new teachers should take into account a broader set of attitudes and aptitudes in addition to academic merits; a bridged access to the profession should be provided for those from underrepresented groups and other professions; and conditions should be created which would provide for a better gender balance. To enhance the attractiveness of the profession, a focus should be placed on the provision of good contractual and employment conditions which can compete with professions requiring equivalent education levels. Opportunities for salary and career progression should also be provided. More attention should be given to continuing professional development and its relevance to teachers' professional needs; the ways in which it is delivered and the bodies and levels involved in deciding on what is relevant should be re-examined. Support in the early stages of a teacher's career and throughout their professional life should be accessible to all. Forms of collaboration with peers, team-work and peer-learning should be incentivised and become the norm across Europe.

Some of the above issues are also addressed in the latest Communication from the European Commission on strengthening European identity through education and culture (European Commission, 2017d) with concrete proposals on the way forward, and a special emphasis on the crucial role played by high quality training and attractive perspectives for teachers' professional development and remuneration.

In this context, the present report analyses some of the aspects of teachers' professional lives, including how teacher graduates enter the profession, develop their skills and make progress in their careers. It is intended to contribute to the body of evidence that can guide policy-making and reforms in these decisive areas.

Content and structure of the report

The present report therefore examines the main policy issues that affect teachers' professional lives. It is divided into five chapters.

Chapter 1 looks into teacher supply and demand from a system point of view. It looks at the existence of forward planning processes, the authorities involved and the kinds of data used. The chapter also maps and discusses some of the main challenges that systems are facing in terms of matching supply and demand.

Chapter 2 focuses on the entry to the teaching profession and teacher mobility between schools. The first section analyses the requirements that graduates from initial teacher education must comply with to become fully qualified teachers. The second section looks at alternative pathways to a teaching qualification. The third section outlines the main recruitment methods used for first appointments as well as the employment conditions of fully qualified teachers. It shows which administrative levels/bodies are responsible for employing teachers as well as the types of employment status or contracts they are given on appointment. Finally, the last section deals with the regulations and procedures that govern the movement of teachers between schools.

Chapter 3 examines the way new teachers are supported in their first post, in particular through induction programmes and mentoring. It also looks into the regulatory framework surrounding continuing professional development, and examines other incentives or support measures to encourage teacher participation. The last part of the chapter focuses on other types of professional and personal support available to teachers throughout their career.

Chapter 4 discusses how teaching careers develop in national education systems in Europe and explores the different non-teaching areas of responsibility that may be available to teachers as they progress. It also analyses the kinds of career guidance provided to teachers, as well as assessing the role of teacher competence frameworks in career development.

Finally, Chapter 5 examines teacher appraisal for both new and experienced teachers. The chapter is arranged in two sections. The first deals with legislative and structural aspects such as the existence of top-level authority regulations, the purposes of appraisal, and which teachers are covered. The second section looks into the practical implementation of appraisal, including the types of appraisers, the methods and instruments used and the existence of rating systems.

The report is supplemented by three annexes. The first one collects detailed information on the existing career structures and the impact that career advancement has on salary progression. The second annexe provides exhaustive information on the kinds of documents issued by top-level authorities that list teacher competences or are used as teacher competence frameworks. Finally, the third annexe details the uses of teacher competence frameworks at different stages of teachers' careers, such as, for example, their use in ITE or CPD or for promotion purposes.

A glossary defining the specific terms used can be found at the end of the report.

Scope of the report and sources of information

This report provides an overview of teaching careers across Europe at primary and general (lower and upper) secondary levels ⁽³⁾ (ISCED levels 1, 2 and 3).

Publicly funded schools are the focus in all countries. Private schools are not included, except for grant-aided private schools in the small number of countries where such schools enrol a large proportion of pupils, namely Belgium, Ireland, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom (England). Grant-aided private schools are schools which receive more than half of their basic funding from public sources.

The reference year is 2016/17. The report covers all 28 EU Member States, as well as Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, Norway, Serbia, and Turkey, covering 43 education systems in all.

The information has been collected through a questionnaire completed by national experts and/or the national representative of the Eurydice Network. The prime sources of information and the analysis contained in the report always refer to regulations/legislation and official guidance issued by top-level education authorities, unless otherwise stated.

The preparation and drafting of the report was coordinated by Unit A7, Erasmus+, the Education and Youth Policy Analysis unit of the Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA).

An 'Acknowledgements' section at the end of the report lists all those who have contributed to it.

⁽³⁾ For precise information on full-time compulsory primary and secondary general education in each country, please consult: *The Structures of the European education systems 2016/17* (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2016a).

CHAPTER 1: FORWARD PLANNING AND MAIN CHALLENGES IN TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND

Education authorities in most countries are facing various challenges with respect to the teaching profession. Many countries have serious shortages of staff. In some cases these are linked to specific subjects or certain geographical areas, while in others they are more generally due to the ageing teacher population and high drop-out rates from the profession. Oversupply is also a problem in some countries (or in some areas and subjects). Furthermore low enrolment in initial teacher education (ITE) and a diminishing attractiveness of teaching careers add to the challenges which are having a profound effect on the operation of education systems as a whole. While monitoring these developments is certainly a first step in understanding the changes taking place in particular education systems, forward planning can be a useful way to anticipate and address some of the challenges at a structural level. Forward planning, in fact, involves looking at demographic trends and statistical projections to forecast the future demand for teachers and balance the supply.

This first chapter aims to answer questions related to how European education systems organise the supply of teachers. It specifically analyses how this is dealt with in terms of official forward planning for the teaching profession: the levels of authority involved in forward planning, the timescales involved and the types of data with respect to serving teachers, prospective teachers and the future demand for teachers.

The second part of the chapter looks at the main challenges European education systems face in terms of balancing teacher supply and demand: teacher shortages and oversupply, the ageing teacher population, and the retention of serving teachers and those in ITE.

1.1. Forward planning

This section deals with the way education authorities manage the demand and supply of teachers through forward planning. It identifies which levels of authority are responsible, the timescales covered and the kinds of data education authorities use for this purpose, specifically with respect to serving teachers, prospective teachers, and the demand for teachers.

1.1.1. Levels of authority responsible for and approaches taken to forward planning for the teaching profession

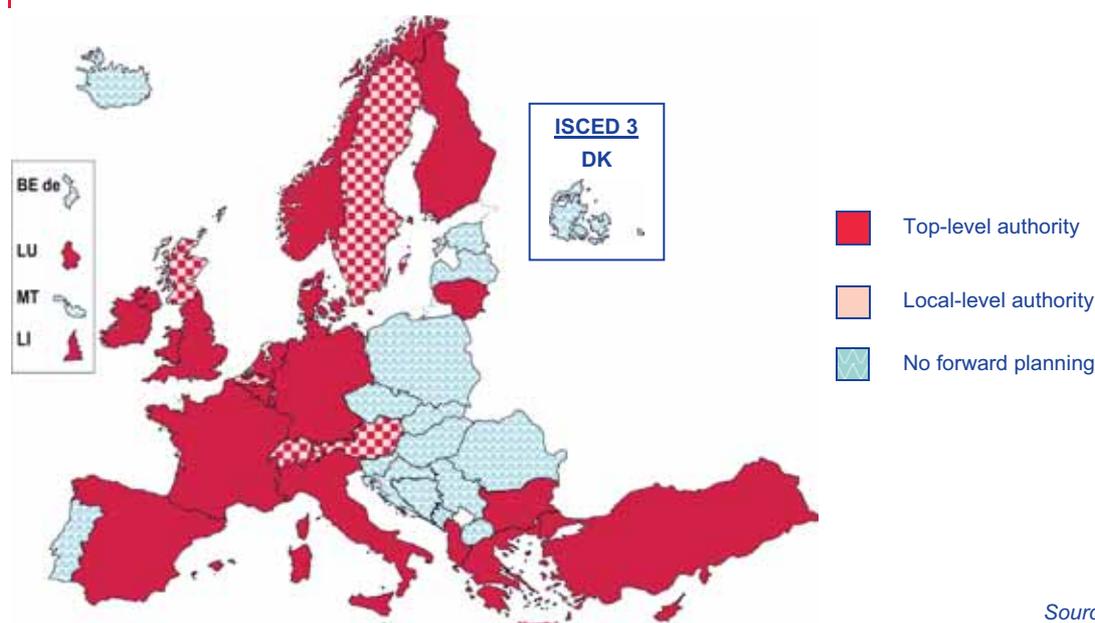
Forward planning is considered in this context as the monitoring and analysis of teacher supply and demand with a view to planning current and future needs in terms of qualified teachers and student teachers. It seeks to anticipate teacher shortages and, conversely, oversupply (see Section 1.2).

Almost all European countries carry out general labour market monitoring and many use it to check the balance between teacher supply and demand and to inform decision-makers. However, this section focuses only on countries where the data collected is used in official government forward planning specifically for the teaching profession.

The forward planning of teacher supply and demand takes place in the majority of European countries. The top-level authority usually carries this out, but in the Flemish Community of Belgium, Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and Switzerland local-level authorities can also develop forward planning.

In **Belgium (Flemish Community)**, for example, the city of Antwerp has developed a forward plan and it is updated periodically. In **Austria**, the provinces carry out forward planning for general compulsory schools (primary, new secondary school and pre-vocational schools) while for the academic secondary schools (*Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schulen*) this is done by the top-level.

Figure 1.1: Levels of authority carrying out specific forward planning for the teaching profession in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

This Figure shows the levels of authority that elaborate specific forward planning for the teaching profession. Cases where the regional/local level only contributes to the data collection are not shown.

Country-specific notes

Netherlands: As education policies in the Netherlands have been strongly deregulated, the room for direct government policy intervention on personnel policy is limited. Still, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science publishes an annual letter highlighting the most recent developments in the education labour market. The Dutch government uses labour-market estimates to monitor changes and predict shortages.

Albania: The local level education authorities monitor and plan the demand for teachers. Based on this data the Ministry of Education does the forward planning and organises the supply of teachers to schools.

Some education systems have developed a model to estimate teacher supply and demand.

In **Germany**, the federal states (*Länder*), as top-level authorities, collect data to estimate the demand for teachers and if needed introduce measures to counter shortages. Based on the data, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* in the Federal Republic of Germany (*Kultusministerkonferenz*) regularly publishes a formula for estimating teacher supply and demand. The report combines the current estimate of the demand for teachers in the various types of teaching roles for the coming years with a forecast of the numbers of students completing the Second State Examination. Most recently, the Standing Conference published the model for estimating teacher supply and demand for the years 2014 to 2025.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, the Department for Education operates the Teacher Supply Model (TSM) ⁽¹⁾, a statistical model used to estimate the future national need for teachers. It is informed by the data collected in the School Workforce Census, an annual data collection on the size and characteristics of the workforce in state-funded schools, and is used to inform Government decisions about the allocation of funding and places for postgraduate ITE at a national level. The TSM estimates 'teacher need' (the number of teachers required in the active stock each year) and the 'entrant teacher need' (the number of newly qualified teachers required to join the active stock in the forthcoming academic year to meet the 'teacher need', taking into account the anticipated numbers of teachers leaving the profession, projected pupil numbers, etc.). Similarly, in the **United Kingdom (Wales)**, the government operates a Teacher Planning and Supply Model (TPSM), though it is not currently based on as comprehensive a data collection as the English model.

In **Norway**, Statistics Norway produces labour market projections for teachers. The model (*Laerermød*) projects supply and demand for five different types of teachers (from pre-primary to upper secondary general and vocational education). The key variables are the uptake of new student teachers in the base year (supply side) and the trend in the number of future users of educational services

⁽¹⁾ <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teacher-supply-model>

based on population projections (demand side). The model allows analysing whether enough teachers are educated to match future needs. The calculations take into account that some of those trained as teachers do not work in the education sector.

In several education systems, the area of forward planning is currently being developed. In some of these systems, forward planning is already being carried out (Ireland, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (Wales)), while in others this is just being introduced (Estonia and Malta).

In **Ireland**, while forward planning for the supply of and demand for teachers has been undertaken on an intermittent basis, it was decided in 2014 that an analysis of arrangements for the planning of the teacher workforce should be undertaken. This has now been completed and the development of a model of teacher supply that would seek to ensure a sufficient supply of teachers is being considered.

In **Lithuania**, the education ministry and the Research and Higher Education Monitoring and Analysis Centre (MOSTA) launched a project to prepare a methodology of prognostic planning of education specialists (teachers as the main target). The aim is to create a tool for policy-makers, which will help assess the demand for teachers. This will allow to better plan and fund teacher training. The tool will be introduced mid-2018.

In the **United Kingdom (Wales)**, regulations have been made to allow for the development and implementation of an individual level school workforce census. This will include individual identifying data items such as name, date of birth and national insurance number. Wales previously had no central data collection that gathered the level of workforce information needed to support more detailed workforce planning. Following a consultation which ended in March 2017, the Education (Supply of Information about the School Workforce) (Wales) Regulations 2017 came into force on 31 October 2017.

In **Estonia**, a widespread analysis of labour needs and the skills necessary in the area of education was planned for autumn 2017. The first results will be available in June 2018 and published in August 2018.

In **Malta**, formal forward planning does not exist yet, but the Ministry has just set up the 'Evaluation of the Teaching Profession Working Group'. The objectives include forward planning in relation to teachers in state schools. Moreover, three- to five-year projections are developed when new education policy initiatives are introduced.

In nearly half of the countries studied, there is no specific forward planning for the teaching profession. Nevertheless, in several countries, labour market monitoring provides valuable data to the education authorities. For instance:

In **Latvia**, although there is no formal forward planning, the top-level education authority has carried out a survey with local governments on expected vacancies in the teaching profession over the next five years.

In **Hungary**, while there is no official forward planning, in practice the Ministry of Human Capacities (responsible for education) has been monitoring and analysing teacher supply and demand for a long time. The data used is found in central databases and includes the number of students entering ITE, dropouts and success rates within ITE, the number and age of serving teachers, the retirement rate and demographic changes in the pupil population. The monitoring is done on a general scale and also for specific subject fields and the results are used to steer stakeholders.

Forward planning timescales

Forward planning is ideally carried out on a medium- to long-term basis. Indeed, teacher supply and demand can be managed effectively if it is carried out within the appropriate timeframe. As ITE can take several years, structural shortages cannot be resolved easily in the short-term. In the same way, in the case of oversupply, the adjustment of the ITE system to avoid educating more teachers than required also needs to be planned carefully. Moreover, some of the challenges faced in attracting people to the teaching profession and establishing successful ITE and recruitment systems may require reforms that take some time to implement.

However, many countries still carry out forward planning on a year-by-year basis only, thereby risking being unable to anticipate longer-term trends and to plan ahead accordingly.

Figure 1.2: Official forward planning timescales for the teaching profession in years (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY
Short-term		⊗		1y	⊗			⊗	1y	1y	1y	1y	⊗		1y
Mid-term	4-5y											2-3y		2-3y	2-3y/4-5y
Long-term			6-10y			>10y	>10y								
	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	
Short-term	⊗			⊗	⊗		1y	⊗	⊗	⊗	⊗	⊗			
Mid-term		4-5y	4-5y												
Long-term						>10y	6-10y						>10y		
	UK-ENG	UK-WLS	UK-NIR	UK-SCT		AL	BA	CH	FY	IS	LI	ME	NO	RS	TR
Short-term	1y	1y	1y	1y		1y	⊗		⊗	⊗	1y	⊗		⊗	
Mid-term				4-5y											4-5y
Long-term	6-10y							6-10y					>10y		

⊗ No forward planning for the teaching profession

Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Denmark: The Figure only refers to primary and lower secondary education (ISCED 1 and 2). There is no forward planning for upper secondary education (ISCED 3).

France: Forward planning is carried out from one year to another to prepare the coming school year in primary and secondary education, but is also carried out two years ahead for secondary education.

Sweden: Forward planning is carried out but timescale varies.

Different timescales may be applied depending on the need. This is the case in Cyprus, Austria and the United Kingdom (England and Scotland), where there is both short-term planning for the year ahead and a longer-term one. For instance:

In **Austria**, there is both a short-term planning (yearly staffing plan) and a long-term plan related to the demand for teachers. The purpose of the former is to provide the needed resources for the next year in the staff plan. Additional data concerning the specific demand for teachers from the local authorities are taken into account. On the other hand, the results of long term planning are used for strategic decisions.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, the Teacher Supply Model (TSM) calculates the number of Initial Teacher Training (ITT) places required for postgraduate trainees. The ITT places allocation is made on a year-by-year basis but the TSM also calculates the teacher need by phase and subject, and projects pupil numbers into the future (the 2016/17 TSM does this up to 2026/27). In **Scotland**, intakes to ITE courses are also set on a year-by-year basis following each year's statistical modelling exercise, but the model also provides projected student teacher intakes over five years.

Belgium (Flemish Community), Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, Switzerland and Norway only carry out long-term forward planning. In Norway, the timescale is particularly long: in its latest forward planning publication, the forecast projects ahead to 2040.

In **Finland**, as in other European countries, there is also a debate about a possible shortage of teachers which is feared to get worse, especially as the baby boomers currently in the workplace are continuing to retire. A report published in 2011 estimates the number of teachers needed by 2025 and evaluates the volume of teacher education required to satisfy this need. The calculations are based on the latest population figures, teacher and ITE statistics, as well as estimates of teacher retention, entry rates of new teachers and job placement. The estimates cover primary, lower secondary and general and vocational upper secondary education.

In **Switzerland**, the Federal Statistical Office publishes forward planning scenarios for teachers at compulsory levels of education and at upper secondary level, the latest ones covering a timeframe from 2016 to 2025.

1.1.2. Types of data used

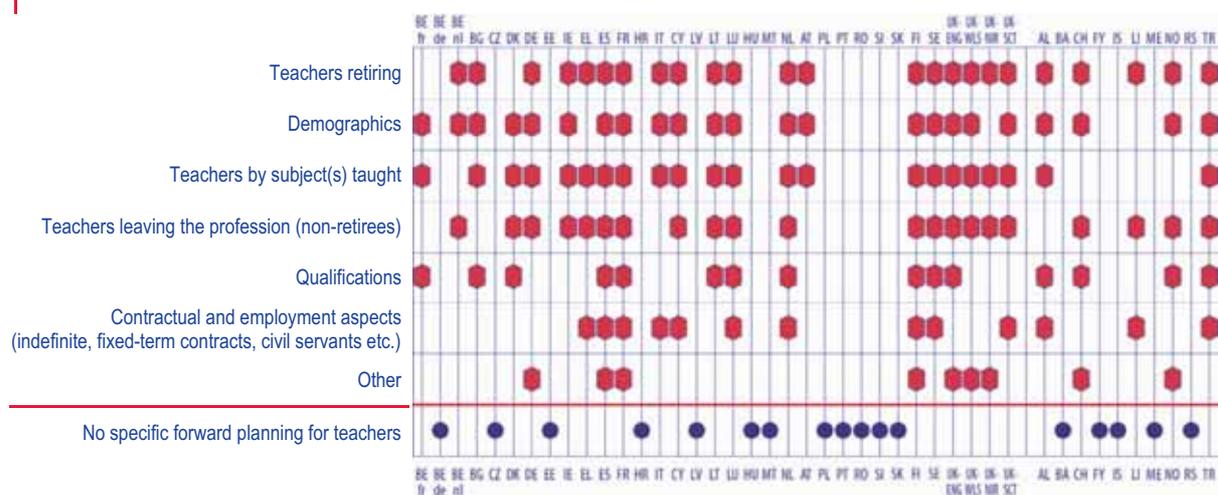
The collection of data, its analysis and acting upon the findings are all necessary elements of the forward planning process which eventually help education authorities meet the challenges related to teacher supply and demand. The following sections explore which types of data countries are using for their forward planning and identifies where the gaps are. In addition, education authorities must also

take into account policy reforms related to the retirement age, the pupil/teacher ratio and reforms affecting the education systems as a whole, given that these factors have a direct influence on the calculations behind the planning.

Data on serving teachers

All 26 education systems which carry out forward planning use data on serving teachers, but the levels of detail vary. In many of the other countries data on serving teachers is also being collected, often within the general framework of labour market statistical operations. However, this analysis focuses on countries where the collected data is specifically used for forward planning for the teaching profession.

Figure 1.3: Data on serving teachers used for forward planning in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific note

Denmark: The Figure only refers to the levels ISCED 1 and 2. There is no forward planning for the level ISCED 3.

The data most often used relate to the number of retiring teachers, teacher demographics, the number of teachers by taught subject(s) and the number of teachers leaving the profession (other than for retirement reasons). Conversely, data on qualifications held and contractual and employment aspects is used less often.

Some countries (Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England) and Turkey) use a very comprehensive data set on serving teachers.

In **Spain**, for example, a wide array of data is used. Other aspects considered are the restrictions on the number of new staff in the public sector, the acquisition of new specialisms by teachers and teachers in special situations such as those with disabilities. The number of teaching places that are offered in each public call for applications is related to these data. The replacement rate is published every year in the General State Budget Law.

Nine education systems use other types of information on serving teachers, such as pupil/teacher ratios and other demographic information, e.g. ethnicity and disability status. For instance:

In **Germany**, statistics also include the number of teachers by type of education (primary, general lower secondary, vocational, etc.).

In **France**, a whole array of data on employment is used in addition to the estimated number of teachers leaving the profession (retirements, resignations, death): the recruitments in the previous year, pupil/teacher ratio, and workload of teachers (full-time and part-time). All this data, together with data on the demand for teachers (see Figure 1.5), is then used to determine the number of teaching positions offered in the competitive examination.

Finland uses data on teachers' age, pupil numbers, class sizes and the distribution of the number of teaching hours.

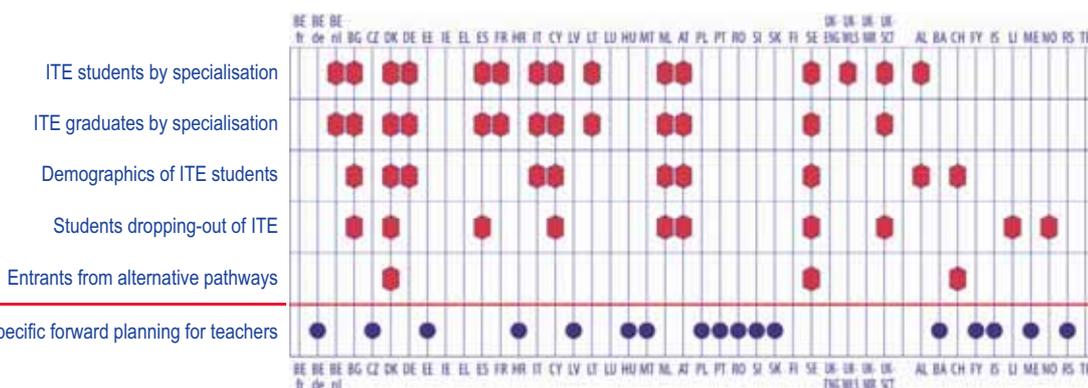
The **United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)** and **Norway** also use data on pupil/teacher ratios (in Northern Ireland, this is another factor in the teacher supply model).

In **Switzerland**, the workload (in the sense of the percentage of a full-time post held) of serving teachers is an important issue with regard to forward planning: the more serving teachers there are with a low workload, the greater the numbers needed. The Federal Statistical Office publishes long-term scenarios for teachers at compulsory education levels (2016-2025), looking also at differences between Cantons.

Data on prospective teachers

Generally speaking, European countries use less data on prospective teachers than on serving teachers (see Figure 1.3). Still, nearly half of the countries use data on the number of ITE students by specialist subject(s) and the number of ITE graduates by subject. Around a dozen countries also gather data on the demographics of ITE students and on the number of students dropping out of ITE. Only three countries, namely Denmark, Sweden and Switzerland use data on entrants from alternative pathways for their forward planning.

Figure 1.4: Data on prospective teachers used for forward planning in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Denmark: The Figure only refers to the levels ISCED 1 and 2. There is no forward planning for the level ISCED 3.

Spain: Data on the number of ITE graduates by subject exists only in some Autonomous Communities.

Switzerland: Some Cantons may use additional data, e.g. number of ITE students by specialisation.

Evidence indicates that it is not straightforward to use data on ITE students for the purpose of forward planning, as it is difficult to predict whether or when graduates will subsequently enter the teaching profession.

The **Flemish Community of Belgium** explains that figures relating to ITE students and graduates are presented to show trends, but are not actually used in calculating teacher shortages. In addition, in this education system an important number of entrants access the profession through alternative pathways.

However, there are different possibilities when using data related to ITE students to balance teacher supply and demand. In some cases, the results of forward planning determine the number of ITE students.

In **France**, the number of teaching positions offered in the competitive examination (see Section 2.1) from which prospective teachers will be selected is determined by the demand for teachers (see following section and Figure 1.5).

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, a key element of forward planning is the use of the Teacher Supply Model (TSM) to inform the allocation of postgraduate ITE places that will be made available the following year. The TSM is used in determining how many

Some countries state that they are lacking the data to effectively manage and plan teacher supply and demand – this is the case in Ireland, Liechtenstein and Serbia, for example. Bulgaria highlights the challenge of efficiently using the data.

Shortages, oversupply and unbalanced distribution

The shortage of teachers in some subjects is the most common challenge in teacher supply and demand. It is mentioned in more than half of the European education systems. This challenge has been raised previously (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2012) and is typically linked to specific subjects such as STEM subjects (science, technology, engineering and mathematics) (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2013). A recent Commission Communication on school development and excellent teaching highlights that 'a decline in the prestige of the profession and staff shortages are challenges in many Member States, holding back the quality of school education' ⁽²⁾.

Teacher shortages in some geographical areas are also mentioned by half of the countries. This is sometimes linked to the remoteness of some areas of a country (e.g. in Greece, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (Scotland)). In other cases, economic opportunities, cultural context and difficulty of the school environment also play a role. In Belgium (French and Flemish Communities), for example, it is more difficult to attract teachers to Brussels which might be related to its high cost of living and larger share of pupils from disadvantaged families. In Germany, in the Eastern *Länder*, there is a shortage of around 1 600 teachers per year, corresponding to a deficit of 27 %.

To tackle teacher shortages, some education systems are offering incentives to attract students to the teaching profession and to specific subjects.

The **United Kingdom (England and Wales)** are implementing similar policies to increase the recruitment of graduates from certain fields. In **England**, the Department for Education offers training bursaries and scholarships to attract graduates from 'priority subjects' into teaching; currently subjects with high priority are: mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, computing, languages and geography. In **Wales**, teacher training incentives are offered to graduates to train to teach 'specified' (shortage) subjects in secondary education. In the reference year, the highest incentives apply to studying mathematics, Welsh, physics and chemistry, followed by modern foreign languages and ICT/computer science. Despite these measures, Wales still struggles with an increase in the number of teaching vacancies remaining unfilled, and schools' ability to fill them varies greatly by subject, area, school or role.

In 2015, the **Czech Republic** issued an Amendment to the Act on Education Staff to prevent the shortage of teachers. Through this, the Minister of Education in cooperation with the trade unions and faculties of education averted the threat of a personnel crisis in schools all over the Czech Republic. The Act contains several measures to ease and open up the recruitment of teachers, also through the recruitment of professionals with different qualifications. Another priority of the Strategy for Education Policy of the Czech Republic until 2020 is the increase in funds for salaries of teaching and non-teaching staff in education.

Although shortages and oversupply seem to be contradictory, they co-exist in several countries due to an uneven distribution of teachers across subjects and geographical areas. This is the case in Germany, Greece, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Liechtenstein and Montenegro.

In **Germany** for example, there is a shortage of 27 % (reference year 2013) in the Eastern *Länder*. Moreover, there is an oversupply of teachers for general education subjects at upper secondary level of the academic track (*Gymnasium*) on the one hand, while on the other there is a shortage of teachers in vocational subjects at upper secondary level or in vocational schools.

In **Greece**, a shortage in some geographical areas, i.e. remote regions and small islands, co-exists with a general oversupply of available teachers due to the 'freeze' in recruitment of permanent teaching staff. Indeed, due to the economic crisis, and even though teaching needs are reported and registered, the top-level educational authority does not appoint permanent teachers but instead covers the vacancies by employing provisional staff.

⁽²⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Region on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life, COM(2017) 248 final, 30.5.2017.

In **Italy**, recent policies tackle the issues of oversupply in some subjects and in some geographical areas and of having waiting lists of qualified teachers. A special recruitment plan was implemented in 2015/16 with the purpose of solving the long-standing problem of 'waiting lists' (*graduatorie ad esaurimento*) of qualified teachers. Over 85 000 teachers, who have until now been employed on short-term contracts, were recruited on a permanent basis. Following a legislative decree on ITE approved in April 2017, prospective secondary education teachers holding their Master's degree and 24 credits in the pedagogical areas will have to pass an open competition to enrol in a one-year university specialisation followed by a two-year traineeship. During the traineeship they will gradually take on teaching roles including replacements for absent teachers, thus avoiding lists of temporary teachers. At the end of the three years, if they pass the assessment they are employed permanently.

Lithuania also mentions some shortages in rural areas. However, the main challenge here is the oversupply of teachers. As a consequence teachers do work, but often not full time and thus for a very low salary, which makes the profession unattractive for young people and demotivates current staff.

In several other countries (Cyprus, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia), there are no shortages but the main challenge is oversupply. For example:

In **Cyprus**, according to recent data (2016) for 400 available new permanent positions, there were approximately 49 000 candidates, a ratio of 1:122.5. In **Portugal**, the 2015 ratio in the national competition for temporary (annual) vacancies was 1:7.

In **Slovenia**, the demand for teachers has fallen in recent years due to a population decrease, the economic crisis and austerity measures. A measure to tackle the oversupply of teachers is the project First Employment in Education which aims to support the employment of young first-time job-seeking teachers or counselling specialists. Estimated funds in 2017 amount to approximately 1.5 million EUR.

The ageing workforce and teacher retention

Due to the demographic trends, 16 countries are challenged with an ageing teacher population. The latest Eurostat data ⁽³⁾ shows that 36 % of teachers in primary and secondary schools were 50 years old or more in 2015. In Italy, more than half of teachers fell into this age group (57 %). High proportions were also registered in Bulgaria (48 %), Estonia and Lithuania (both 47 %), Germany and Latvia (both 45 %). Nine per cent of teachers in the EU were over 60 years old, with the highest shares in this age group found again in Italy (18 %) and Estonia (17 %).

In the **United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)** both the ageing of the teacher population and oversupply are two elements of the same challenge. The median age of teachers in the workforce is increasing year-on-year and the proportion of teachers aged under 30 is decreasing. At the same time, recently qualified teachers have struggled to gain permanent employment.

Some countries are also facing challenges with respect to retaining younger teachers in the profession. The French and the Flemish Communities of Belgium, Bulgaria, Romania, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England), Switzerland and Liechtenstein indicate high leaving rates from the profession as one of their main challenges.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, a lot of debate on this topic surrounds the extent to which early-career teachers are leaving within the first five years or so after qualifying. In its February 2017 report, *Recruitment and Retention of Teachers*, the House of Commons Education Committee gave its opinion that the Government does not collect enough data on retention rates by subject, region, or route into teaching. Meanwhile, a survey exploring teachers' intentions found that, 'the majority of teachers are not considering leaving the profession' (Lynch, S. et al. 2016, p. 2). The proportion of teachers considering leaving had, however, increased significantly in the year to May 2016, from 17 to 23 %. While smaller proportions than this actually leave, this figure has also increased from six per cent in 2011 to eight per cent in 2015.

⁽³⁾ Eurostat/UOE data [educ_uae_perp01] (September 2017).

Enrolment shortfalls and retention rates in ITE

There are two main challenges concerning ITE students: low enrolment rates and retention. Less than a dozen countries indicate a general shortage of students enrolling in ITE. In these countries, this challenge is linked to others, such as the general shortage of teachers, the ageing of the teacher population and retention rates in the profession as a whole. The enrolment issue is clearly linked to the question of the attractiveness of the profession: career and pay prospects, stress factors, prestige, etc. Only four countries mention high drop-out rates from ITE among their main challenges, namely Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway.

To sum up, it is interesting to see that many education systems face similar challenges with regard to teacher supply and demand, whether they carry out forward planning or not. Only one of the countries with forward planning actually states that they are not facing any challenges (Finland). For the others, forward planning is certainly a way of dealing with the existing challenges. On the other hand, for the countries with no forward planning, it might be that the challenges are less pressing. This seems to be the case for several countries which indicate oversupply as their main challenge. Indeed, oversupply might create less need for planning than shortages, although this still raises questions on the efficient use of resources. On the other hand, some other countries without forward planning might lack relevant data or analysis and might therefore be unable to have a clear picture of the challenges.

CHAPTER 2: ENTRY TO THE PROFESSION AND TEACHER MOBILITY

The transition from initial teacher education (ITE) to professional life appears to be a crucial phase both for teachers and from an education system perspective. In the last Communication on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life ⁽¹⁾, the European Commission underlines that improving teachers' selection and recruitment processes may help identify the most suitable candidates. The traditional way to become a teacher in Europe starts by obtaining a teaching qualification. In some countries, successfully completing ITE is the only condition to enter the recruitment process on a fully-fledged basis. In others, the transition from ITE to professional life includes additional steps that ITE graduates have to undertake to be recruited as fully qualified teachers. Moreover, the way in which teachers are selected and recruited may have an impact not only on the quality of the teaching workforce but may also address the challenges in teacher supply and demand. For instance, centralised teacher selection mechanisms allow a high degree of control over teacher supply, while decentralised open recruitment provides a more flexible response to teacher demand. Another way to deal with teacher supply is to widen access to the profession by providing alternative pathways to teaching qualifications. Teacher mobility between schools can also play a role in the supply and distribution of teachers across the system.

This chapter looks at the entry to the profession and investigates the way teachers move or are transferred between schools. The first section outlines how ITE graduates make the transition to professional life, focusing on the requirements to become fully qualified. Alternative pathways to the teaching qualification are discussed in the second part of the chapter, while the third section addresses recruitment methods and employment conditions. The last part of this chapter deals with regulations and procedures that govern the mobility of teachers between schools.

2.1. Requirements to become a fully qualified teacher

This section examines the requirements that graduates from initial teacher education (ITE) have to meet to be considered fully qualified teachers. In some education systems, graduating from ITE is the only requirement to become fully qualified. In others, the completion of ITE alone is not sufficient and ITE graduates have to satisfy additional criteria. The purpose, administration and nature of these additional requirements vary considerably between countries and are dependent on how the teaching profession is organised. Eligibility criteria such as citizenship or absence of a criminal record are not addressed here.

Figure 2.1 shows that in nearly half of the education systems covered by the report, successfully graduating from ITE is the only condition for becoming a fully qualified teacher. In these systems, the ITE diploma attests not only to graduates' level of attainment but also certifies their ability to teach. In other words, ITE institutions deliver the full teaching qualification to their graduates.

In 23 other education systems, ITE graduates have to meet additional requirements to be considered fully qualified such as passing a competitive examination or confirming professional competency.

In six countries (Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Albania and Turkey), prospective teachers have to pass a competitive examination to obtain the full qualification. The competitive examination can be organised in the form of written tests, interviews, assessment of portfolios, observation of teaching practice or any combination of these methods. The examination usually focuses on evaluation of

⁽¹⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. School development and excellent teaching for a great start in life (COM (2017) 248 final).

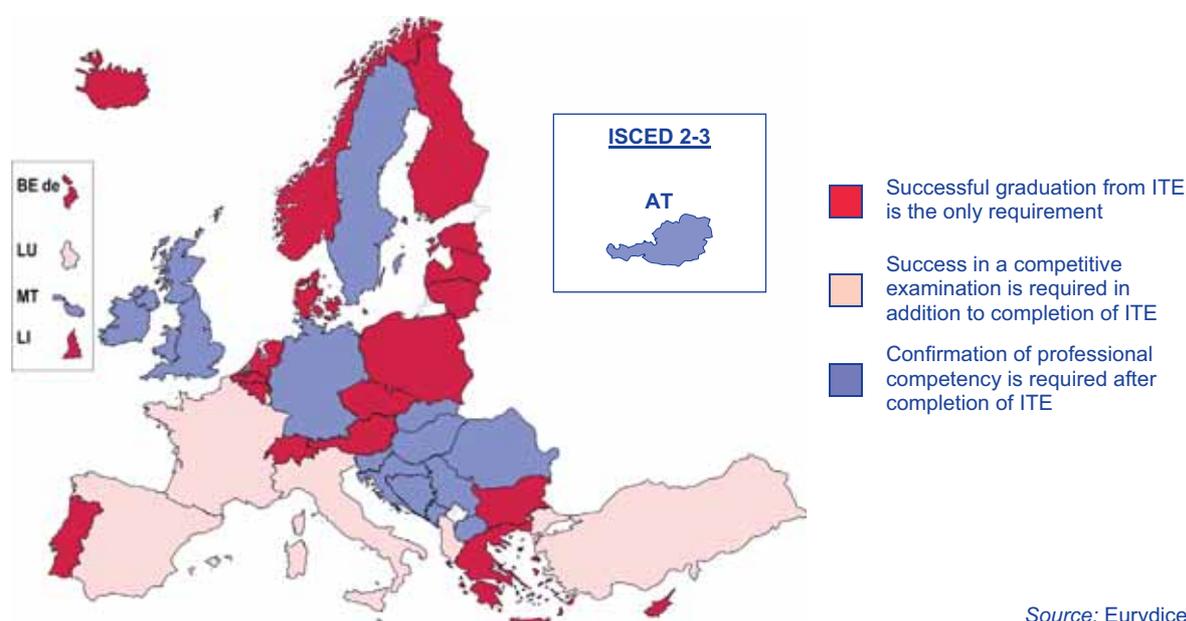
subject knowledge and professional competencies and may comprise different stages. In Spain and Turkey, for instance, the examination has two phases.

In **Spain**, the *Concurso-oposición* has an examination phase during which knowledge of the relevant field or specialty, teaching skills and aptitude for teaching are assessed. This is followed by a merit-based selection phase assessing education background and previous teaching experience.

In **Turkey**, the *Kamu Personeli Seçme Sınavı* has two examinations: the first assesses understanding of the education sciences and general culture, while the second tests knowledge of subject matter.

In addition to providing the full qualification, succeeding in a competitive examination usually gives access to a permanent teaching position.

Figure 2.1: Official requirements for becoming a fully qualified teacher in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Country-specific notes

France: Information presented in the Figure relates only to ITE students who succeed the competitive examination the first time.

Austria: Confirmation of professional competency only concerns teachers in *Allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen* (ISCED 2-3).

Liechtenstein: As all teachers are trained abroad, graduates from ITE have to satisfy additional requirements. Starting a new position they are appointed on a provisional basis for three years. During this provisional arrangement teachers are required to attend introductory courses focusing on various Liechtenstein-specific topics. At the end of this period, teachers have to pass a test on these topics and demonstrate that they meet the performance criteria for the post.

In 17 education systems, to be fully qualified, graduates from ITE have to have their ability to teach confirmed. While in all countries, prospective teachers receive professional training during ITE, usually through in-class placements, internships or induction (in some education systems), in some countries graduate teachers have to go through an additional step after ITE to confirm their professional competencies. This can take the form of a professional examination (national or state examination), appraisal at the end of an induction programme, or accreditation, registration or certification. In the context of the present study therefore 'confirmation of professional competency after completion of ITE' is used to categorise countries where graduates from ITE have to go through a structured mandatory process to confirm their capacity to teach effectively.

In Germany, Croatia, Romania, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia, after completing the induction programme, beginning teachers have to pass the professional examination which in some countries is called the 'state' or 'national'

examination. In Bosnia and Herzegovina and Montenegro, after the professional examination a temporary teaching licence is provided. The professional examination usually seeks to evaluate the ability of a prospective teacher to perform the job and can include theoretical and practical parts.

In **Germany**, after the preparatory service (*Vorbereitungsdienst*), prospective teachers have to pass a state examination in order to be fully qualified.

In **Croatia**, the licensing examination can only be taken after the teacher has completed the induction programme. The results of the traineeship are part of the documentation submitted with the application to take the examination. A five-member committee, comprising different experts and a senior advisor of the Education and Teacher Training Agency, examines the candidate through a combination of written and oral tests, and the observation by the committee of a lesson taught by the candidate.

In **Romania**, to be admitted to the national examination, ITE graduates have to gain mandatory work experience in teaching. An evaluation of the professional skills demonstrated during this period is a part of the competitive examination. The assessment process for permanent teacher certification is organised in two stages: *titularizare* and *definitivat* examinations. ITE graduates first enter into a probationary period of two years. At the end of this period, they are evaluated through the *definitivat* examination focusing on personal and professional portfolios and professional activities.

In **Slovenia**, to pass the state professional examination, applicants must have at least 840 hours (approximately 10 months) of teaching practice, and they must have completed at least five assessed teaching presentations either as part of induction (not compulsory) or independently. The professional examination is oral. The specific topics are determined by the Minister of Education.

In **Bosnia and Herzegovina**, the professional examination consists of a practical part (preparation and delivery of one lesson) and a general, administrative part (covering knowledge of legislation, etc.).

In the **former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia**, to be fully qualified, graduates from ITE have to successfully complete induction period and pass a professional examination.

In **Montenegro**, the examination includes a requirement for candidates to hold a class in front of a commission and for their knowledge of regulations in the field of education and pupils' rights to be assessed.

In **Serbia**, the purpose of the examination is to assess the teacher's ability to carry out educational tasks independently.

In Ireland, Sweden and the United Kingdom, graduates from ITE have to go through a formal registration or accreditation process. While in Ireland and the United Kingdom, the professional skills and attitudes demonstrated by beginning teachers are evaluated against professional standards, in Sweden, teacher registration is an official recognition of qualifications and degrees.

In **Ireland**, in addition to their academic qualification, teachers must also achieve full registration with the Teaching Council of Ireland. To do this beginning primary teachers must complete the Inspectorate Evaluated Probation period and the Induction Programme. Beginning secondary teachers must complete the Post Qualification Employment period and the Induction Programme. Alternatively primary and secondary teachers can complete the integrated route known as *Droichead* which is operated by experienced teachers in a school setting and the Induction Service.

In **Sweden**, teacher registration is conferred at the end of ITE and certifies in what subjects the teacher is fully qualified to teach. Graduates from ITE obtain teacher registration by applying to the National Agency for Education (*Skolverket*). With the application, teachers have to provide the evidence of obtained qualifications and degrees. Only registered teachers are allowed to grade pupils and obtain a permanent contract.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, in addition to their academic qualification, teachers have to achieve the professional accreditation of Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) in England and Wales, or the corresponding accreditation of 'eligibility to teach' in Northern Ireland. In each case, the accreditation is based on assessment against standards.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, to meet the competences of the Standard for Full Registration, beginning teachers have to gain professional experience during the mandatory probationary period. They do that either through the Teacher Induction Scheme or following the Flexible Route.

In Hungary, Malta, Austria (*Allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen, AHS*) and Slovakia, positive evaluation at the end of the induction phase leads to full certification.

In **Hungary**, after successfully completing induction period, teachers are registered as fully qualified.

In **Malta**, during the teacher's first two years of employment, she/he goes through an induction and mentoring phase. On successful completion of this two-year period, the teacher is recommended for his/her Teacher's Warrant from the Council for the Teaching Profession.

In **Austria**, AHS teachers are considered fully qualified if they have completed ITE and have demonstrated their professional competency during a mandatory induction phase.

In **Slovakia**, beginning teachers have to complete the induction phase within two years of the first employment to receive a certificate of full qualification.

In some education systems, before becoming fully qualified, candidate teachers have to satisfy other requirements such as demonstrating a certain level of language skills (Lithuania and some Autonomous Communities in Spain ⁽²⁾) or obtaining relevant certificates such as in swimming and first aid (primary teachers in France).

2.2. Alternative pathways to a teaching qualification

The traditional way to become a teacher is firstly to obtain a teaching qualification. In the context of the present report, a distinction is made between main routes and alternative pathways into a teaching qualification. The main routes considered here are ITE programmes organised according to the consecutive or concurrent models. Concurrent programmes are dedicated to ITE from their start, with general academic subjects provided alongside professional subjects (pedagogy, teaching methods, etc.). Consecutive models cover programmes where students who have undertaken higher education in a particular field move on to professional teacher training in a separate successive phase. The consecutive model is usually seen as a more flexible entry into a teaching qualification. Whereas in some systems ITE is provided only through one model, in others, both training routes coexist ⁽³⁾.

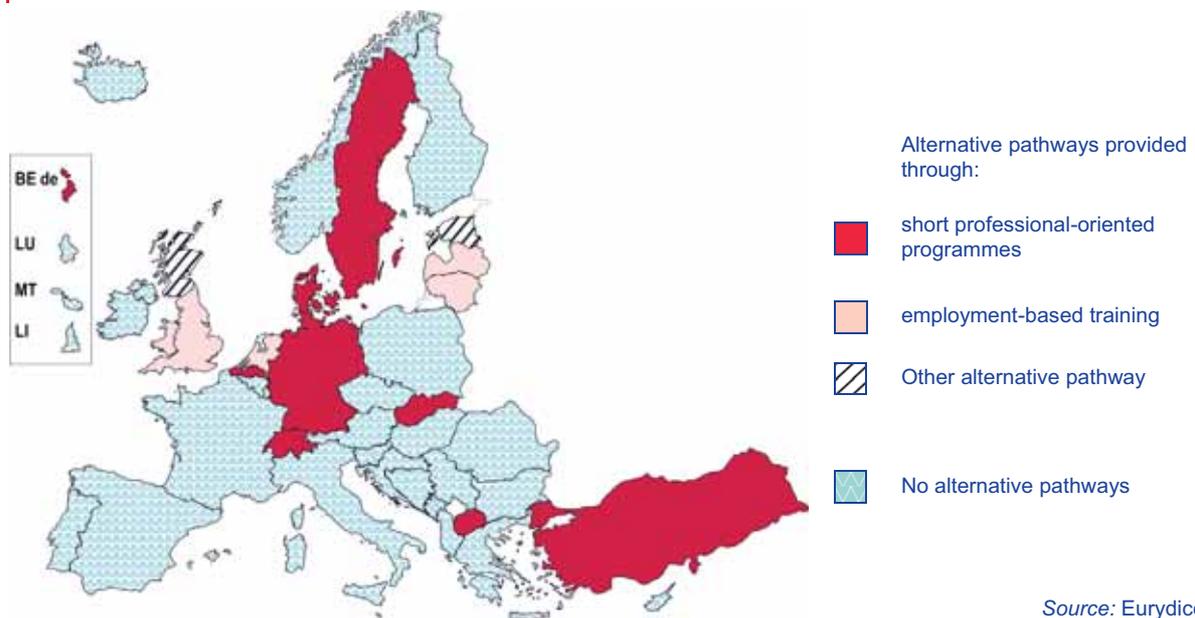
Alongside the main model(s) of ITE, some education systems have introduced alternative pathways to a teaching qualification. Alternative pathways as defined in this report are usually flexible, mostly employment-based and shorter than main ITE programmes. Such programmes typically target either individuals with professional experience gained inside or outside education or graduates from other disciplines. Traditionally, alternative pathways to a teaching qualification have been introduced alongside flexible recruitment methods in education systems suffering from teacher shortages. Alternative schemes have been also developed with the aim of diversifying the profession by attracting high quality graduates and/or highly skilled professionals from other fields.

Figure 2.2 shows that about one third of European education systems offer alternative pathways to a teaching qualification besides the mainstream programmes. Although alternative programmes vary considerably across Europe, two main organisational models can be distinguished.

⁽²⁾ *Comunidad Valenciana, Galicia, País Vasco, Cataluña, Illes Balears, Comunidad Foral de Navarra.*

⁽³⁾ For more information on ITE, see European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2013.

Figure 2.2: Alternative pathways to a teaching qualification in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Alternative pathways related to educational level(s):

BE de	BE nl	DE	DK	EE	ES	LV	LT	LU	NL	SK	SE	UK--ENG	UK-WLS	CH	FY	TR
○	○	●	▲	○	●	○	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	▲	○	○

▲ = ISCED 1 + 2 ○ = ISCED 2 + 3 ● = ISCED 1 + 2 + 3

The first approach allows graduates from other higher education fields and individuals with professional experience to gain a teaching qualification through short professional-oriented programmes. These alternative programmes usually aim at facilitating access to teacher education. They exist in nine education systems (German-speaking and Flemish Communities of Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Slovakia, Sweden, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Switzerland and Turkey) where the only main route to obtain a teaching qualification is to complete programmes entirely dedicated to ITE (concurrent model). Short professional-oriented programmes are usually provided by 'traditional' teacher education institutions and include pedagogical and psychological disciplines, methodology, didactics and practical training. They usually offer flexible forms of enrollment such as part-time, distance or blended learning, as well as evening courses. For instance:

In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, a trainee teacher programme (*Leraar in opleiding*) is provided by adult learning institutions. Applicants are commonly required to have a Bachelor's or Master's degree in the fields related to the subjects taught in schools.

In **Germany**, the main teacher education institutions provide opportunities for graduates from other areas to directly access the second part of mainstream ITE programmes (*Vorbereitungsdienst*).

In **Denmark**, alongside the formal ITE programme, the Merit-Teacher programme (150 ECTS) is designed for university/university college graduates and individuals who have obtained knowledge and experience outside teaching. After completion of this programme, they are accredited as a 'Merit Teacher'.

In **Sweden**, there is a range of paths leading to the teaching profession – for example, for people with other professional experience or those who have changed their mind about which profession to follow. For those who have sufficient knowledge of at least one subject, there is a supplementary teacher education programme leading to a degree in subject teaching, which comprises 90 ECTS.

In **Switzerland**, a minimum of three years of professional experience is required and an age restriction (minimum 30 years old) applies to access a short professional oriented programme.

The creation of more flexible short-term programmes in the above-mentioned education systems might lead to a gradual shift towards the consecutive model of ITE.

The second model of alternative pathways encompasses employment-based training that allows trainees to work in a school and follow an individual training programme leading to the teaching qualification. Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (England and Wales) offer these employment-based teacher training programmes as an alternative to the main ITE route(s).

Latvia and **Lithuania** take part in the Teach for All network. Alternative employment-based programmes leading to teaching qualifications in these countries are provided by the NGOs Mission Possible and the Centre for School Improvement respectively. In **Latvia**, the NGO Mission Possible recruits Latvia's university graduates and places them as teachers in schools around the country. They have a two-year commitment to full-time teaching and learning within the programme. In **Lithuania**, 'Choose to teach' (*Renkuosi mokyti!*) programme is employment-based training for recent graduates of universities and young professionals. Candidates have to hold at least a Bachelor-level tertiary education degree and not be older than 35.

In the **Netherlands**, the Minor in Education programme allows bachelor students at universities to earn a limited second-level teaching qualification (years 1-3 of general secondary education). The Lateral Entry programme provides another option for people with tertiary education qualifications to enter the teaching profession without a prior teaching qualification. Teachers appointed this way can work on a temporary contract for a maximum of two years while receiving the training and support needed to gain a full teaching qualification and thus a permanent contract.

In the **United Kingdom (England)**, School Direct (salaried) and Teach First are programmes that offer graduates a route to a teaching qualification while employed as a classroom teacher on the unqualified teacher pay range. Long-established as alternative routes, school led programmes have become progressively more mainstream following reforms from 2010-2017. There are also several smaller scale programmes:

- Troops to Teachers is a programme to sponsor leavers from the armed services (the Royal Navy, the British Army and the Royal Air Force) to train as teachers. Eligible service leavers who have a bachelor's degree may apply for regular consecutive routes to Qualified Teacher Status, supported by tax-free bursaries or scholarships to help fund their training. There is also a two-year school-based salaried path into teaching for non-graduates with sufficient evidence of academic achievement and specialist subject knowledge.
- Future Teaching Scholars is a six-year programme which offers a grant of GBP 15 000 and early preparatory training for teaching to undergraduates studying mathematics or physics. After graduation, participants will receive specialist employment-based teacher training with additional support for two further years.
- Researchers in Schools: Maths and Physics Chairs is a two-year course that will offer a salaried teacher training option for candidates who have completed, or are finishing, their doctorate. It aims to enable researchers to maintain their academic profile while training to teach, as up to 20 % of their time will be allocated to their own academic pursuits. Trainees will have access to a research grant to cover both years and will receive a salaried training scholarship in the first year and work as a Newly Qualified Teacher in the second year.

In the **United Kingdom (Wales)**, the Graduate Teacher Programme offers an alternative route into teaching by enabling graduates to be employed as a classroom teacher on the unqualified teacher pay range and to receive training while carrying out a paid teaching role. An alternative pathway also exists for candidates without a degree or with low level qualifications to become secondary teachers in specific priority subjects. This is the Certificate of Higher Education – Introduction to Secondary Teaching. Offered by the University of South Wales, this one-year full-time, or two-year part-time course prepares students to go on to take one of the two-year bachelor of science degree programmes for secondary teaching available in Wales. These allow students to gain Qualified Teacher Status in the priority subjects of mathematics, science, ICT and design and technology. There are no formal academic entry requirements for the Certificate of Higher Education – Introduction to Secondary Teaching, but candidates need to demonstrate suitable levels of literacy and numeracy skills during the application process.

In Estonia, professionals from other fields can obtain a teaching qualification through the national professional qualifications system. The professional certificate can be obtained by anybody who demonstrates the necessary competences described in the teacher's professional standard. Training courses are not obligatory.

To attract people into science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) teaching and address teacher shortages in some areas, a number of alternative routes to receive a teaching qualification have been created in the United Kingdom (Scotland). These pathways must still involve an ITE institution based within a university and must be accredited by the General Teaching Council for Scotland. Some of the new routes include a combined ITE and Induction Year and a programme to train existing local authority staff as teachers.

2.3. Recruitment methods and employment conditions

This section addresses the main recruitment methods used for a first appointment as well as the employment conditions of fully qualified teachers. While looking at employment conditions, this section examines the type of employment status teachers have and indicates the level/body responsible for employing them. This section also looks at the type of employment contract and explores under which conditions teachers can obtain a contract of indefinite duration, known in some countries as a permanent contract.

2.3.1. Main methods of recruiting fully qualified teachers

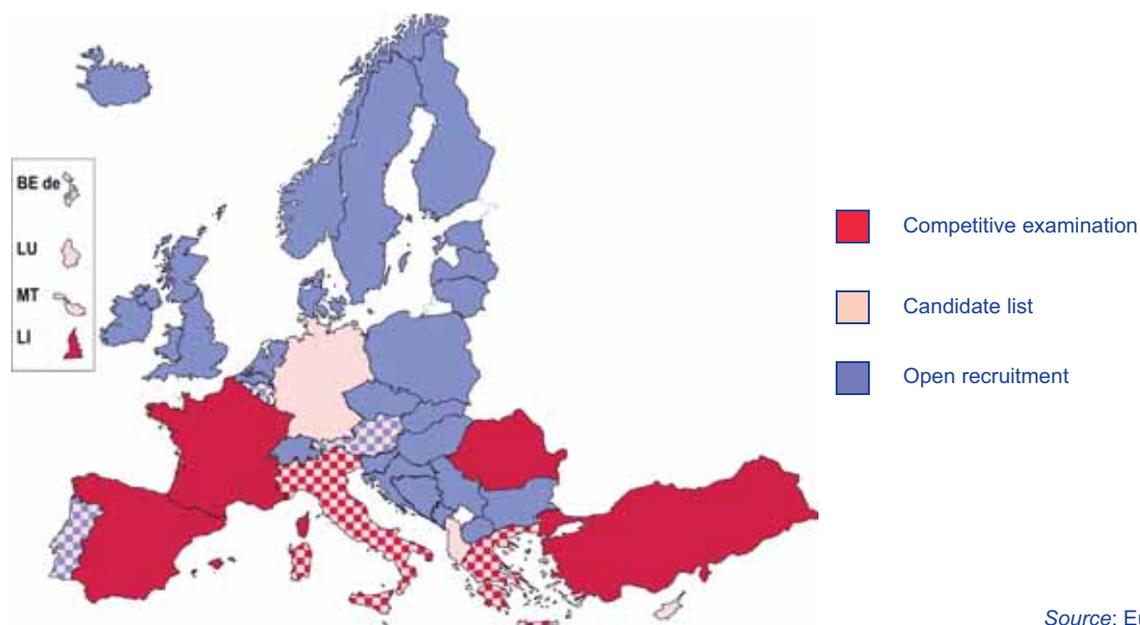
There are three main systems in operation in Europe for recruiting fully qualified teachers for their first appointment: open recruitment, competitive examination and candidate lists.

As Figure 2.3 shows, in almost three quarters of the systems, open recruitment is the dominant method, implying that the responsibility for advertising vacant posts, requesting applications and selecting the best candidate is decentralised. Under open recruitment, the process is usually managed by schools, sometimes in conjunction with the local authority. The open recruitment process implies the absence of a top-level system for allocating teachers to schools: the vacant teaching positions are filled by candidates applying for employment on a school-by-school basis. However, being responsible for recruitment does not necessarily mean schools have full autonomy for designing the process (setting up the recruitment procedure, selection criteria, etc.). In some education systems the whole procedure can be highly regulated, while in others only the main aspects are controlled. The legislation and practices on open recruitment and selection processes for teachers needs further investigation in order to understand the level of autonomy schools have in selecting the most appropriate candidates.

In seven education systems, recruitment to the teaching profession is based on competitive examinations organised by public authorities at top, regional or local levels. Only a certain number of candidates, and usually for a limited number of teaching positions in the public education system, are selected following a competitive examination. Typically, the selected candidates can express their preference regarding the areas/schools in which they wish to work, but the final decision is taken by the education authority which assigns them to the school. In some education systems, success in the competition is a guarantee of obtaining a permanent teacher position, while in others, successful candidates are ranked on the established reserve lists, but employment is not guaranteed.

In Spain, France, Romania, Liechtenstein and Turkey, the competitive examination is the only method of teacher recruitment. In Greece and Italy, candidate lists are used in addition to competitive examinations. In both countries, after the competition, candidates with the highest scores are appointed for permanent positions. Candidates, who succeeded in the competition but were not recruited, are placed on the candidate lists.

Figure 2.3: Main methods of recruiting fully qualified teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE fr, BE de): The use of candidate lists applies to public government-dependent schools and open recruitment to grant-aided private schools.

Spain, France, Italy and Turkey: To succeed in competitive examination is also a mandatory condition to be fully qualified (see Section 2.1).

Cyprus: As of 2018/19, candidate teachers for ISCED 1 will have to pass a competitive examination at the end of ITE. For ISCED 2-3, Bachelor's graduates will have to pass it before starting the professional training. The current system will gradually be replaced by this new method over a 10-year period.

In **Greece**, the top-level authority draws up a reserve list of the candidates who achieve a pass in the competitive examination but have not been granted a permanent appointment. The new rankings, ordered by branch and specialisation, are used by the Ministry of Education, Research and Religious Affairs in order to cover operational needs (substitute teachers).

In **Italy**, candidate lists are set at provincial level and include prospective teachers who hold a teaching qualification. These candidates are usually employed on contracts of indefinite duration within the limit of 50 % of vacant teaching posts annually available or on short-term contracts by schools.

Finally, the 'candidate list' recruitment method (without a competitive examination) is used in nine education systems. This method refers to the system where candidate teachers submit applications for employment to a top- or intermediate-level authority which, in most cases, rank candidates according to defined criteria. In Germany, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta and Albania, this is the main recruitment method. For instance:

In **Germany**, following successful completion of their preparatory service (*Vorbereitungsdienst*), newly qualified teachers can apply for permanent employment at public schools. Depending on the *Land*, the application should be sent to the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs or to the school supervisory authority responsible. A decision on recruitment is taken centrally on the basis of job vacancies and according to the criteria of aptitude, qualifications and record of achievement. In some *Länder*, some of the positions are also advertised with the profile of a particular school in mind and the respective school takes part in selecting the applicants. In such cases, the applications are sometimes sent directly to the respective school; however, the appointment is not made by the school itself but by the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs or by the school authority that reports to it. Successful applicants are usually appointed as civil servants on probation.

In **Albania**, there are two ways to recruit teachers through candidate lists. 1) The 'Teachers for Albania' online platform has been created to ensure that the recruitment of teachers is transparent. Applicants from all over Albania can apply to take part in the selection test. Each applicant teacher is ranked according to his/her test results and their personal file and the recruitment is

based on his/her ranking in each Regional Education Directorate. 2) Candidate teachers send an application to the local education unit where they wish to be employed. After assessment of the candidates' portfolio, candidate teachers are ranked and lists by profile are established.

In Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Austria and Portugal, candidate lists are used alongside open recruitment.

In **Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities)**, the use of candidate lists applies to government-dependent schools and open recruitment to grant-aided private schools.

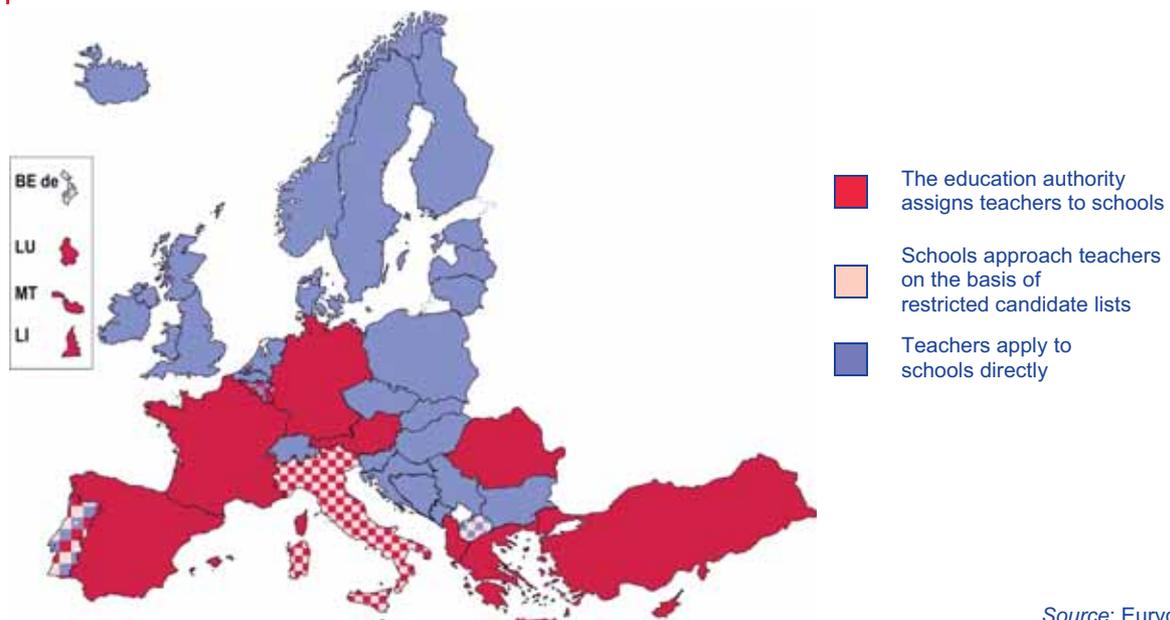
In **Austria**, teachers are mostly recruited according to the open recruitment method; however, the traditional candidate lists method is still used at the provincial level.

In **Portugal**, the main recruitment method is the candidate list. Schools are allowed to make use of open recruitment to fill in temporary vacancies or to recruit professional specialists in a specific subject area only where no candidates are left on the candidate lists.

Appointment of teachers

Teacher appointment procedures usually correlate closely to the type of recruitment method used in the education system (see Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.4: Appointment of teachers to schools in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific note

Finland: The legal employer of teachers is the education provider, most commonly a municipality. The education provider advertises specific positions in specific schools. Teachers apply to the education provider for a job position in a specific school.

In most countries using the open recruitment method, teachers are appointed to the schools to which they have successfully applied.

In **Austria**, teachers apply to the regional school authority which then assigns them to schools. In several Austrian provinces, however, there are already pilot projects 'Get your teacher' where teachers apply directly to schools after their administrative records have been checked by the responsible authority and their data has been included in a teacher database.

In the **former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia**, prospective teachers typically look for an available position and apply directly to a school. In some cases, schools can use the list of fully qualified teachers established by the top-level education authority and call on suitable candidates.

In countries where the main recruitment method is competitive examination and/or candidate lists, teachers are usually appointed to a school by the education authority.

In **Italy**, all teachers in permanent positions are appointed to their posts by the education authority. Schools can call on suitable candidates from the candidate list only to fulfil unmet vacancies and only for fixed-term contracts.

In Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities) and Portugal, the appointment of teachers to schools depends on the type of school and recruitment method respectively.

In the **French Community of Belgium**, in public schools teachers are assigned to schools by the education authority on the basis of the French Community candidate list. For the government grant-aided private schools, teachers can freely apply to schools in response to vacancies and schools can recruit prospective teachers using the teacher database 'Primoweb'.

In the **German-speaking Community of Belgium**, public schools contact teachers on restricted candidate lists. Teachers apply directly to grant-aided private schools.

In **Portugal**, teachers recruited through the candidate list are assigned to a school by the education authority. Those recruited on the basis of open recruitment can be called on by schools for temporary and part-time vacancies, or they can apply directly to schools.

2.3.2 Employers and employment status of fully qualified teachers

Employers

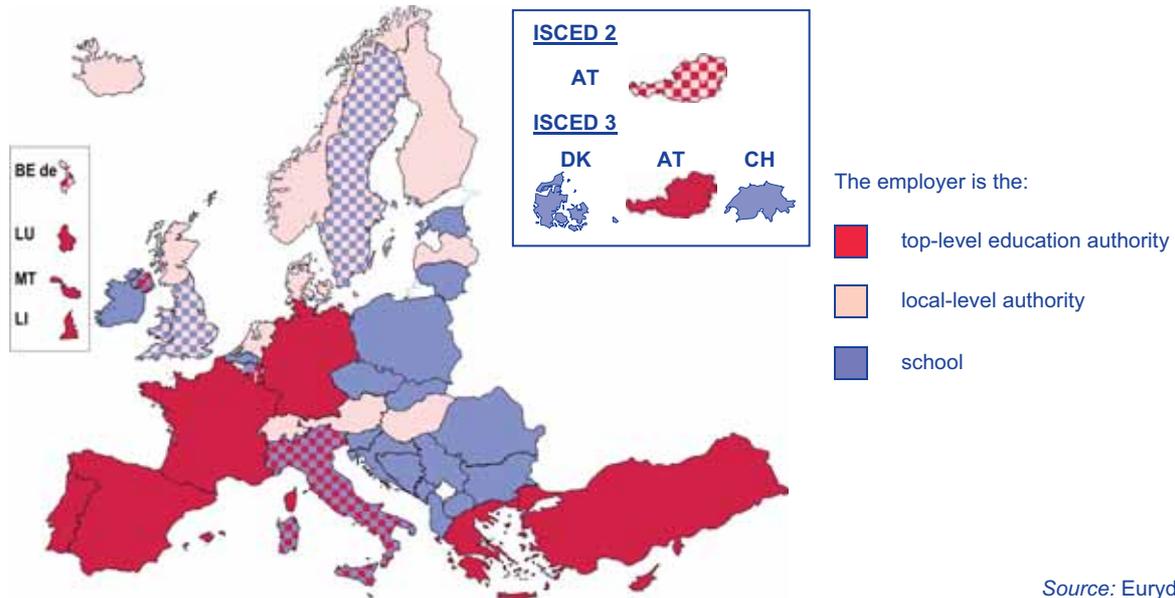
The responsibility for employing fully qualified teachers can be held by top-level education authorities, local-level authorities (municipalities, provinces, etc.) or schools; responsibility may also be shared between different administrative levels. The administrative level responsible for employing teachers correlates to a certain extent on recruitment methods and employment status (see Figures 2.3 and 2.6).

Fully qualified teachers are employed by the top-level education authority in 10 education systems. In these systems fully qualified teachers are recruited either through a competitive examination (Greece, Spain, France, Liechtenstein and Turkey), or through the candidate lists (Germany, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta and Portugal). In Italy, the top-level education authority appoints teachers in permanent positions, while fixed-term contracts for temporary positions are made directly with schools.

Schools have direct and exclusive responsibility for employing fully qualified teachers at primary and secondary levels in 16 education systems. In all these systems, except Romania and Albania, teachers are recruited through the open recruitment method.

Local-level authorities are the only employer of fully qualified teachers in nine education systems (Denmark (primary and lower secondary education), Latvia, Hungary, the Netherlands, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Switzerland (primary and lower secondary education), Iceland and Norway). In all these countries fully qualified teachers are recruited through open recruitment.

Figure 2.5: Administrative level/body with responsibility for employing fully qualified teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Country-specific note

Switzerland: The employing authority may vary between Cantons.

In seven education systems (Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities), Austria, Sweden, and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)), the responsibility for employing teachers varies depending on the category of school. For instance:

In **Belgium (French and German-speaking Communities)**, top- and local-level education authorities appoint teachers to public schools, while grant-aided private schools employ teachers directly.

In **Austria**, for primary teachers the employer is the province (local-level authority). For secondary education, the top-level education authorities (the regional boards of education) employ teachers for *Allgemeinbildende höhere Schulen* (ISCED 2-3), while the province (local-level authority) employs teachers for *Neue Mittelschulen* (ISCED 2)).

In **the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)**, the employer may be the top-level authority (the Education Authority), the school (the Board of Governors), or the Council for Catholic Maintained Schools for teachers in Catholic maintained schools.

Types of employment status

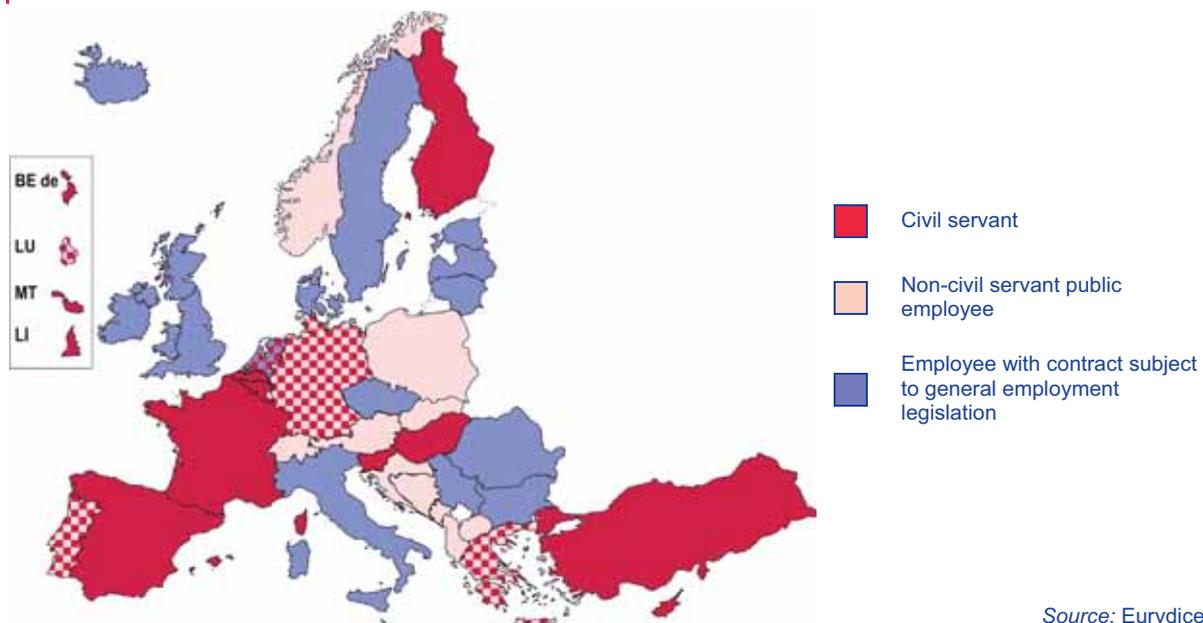
Teachers employed in public schools are considered to be public employees in all European countries. However, the meaning, contractual arrangements and employment conditions of teachers as public employees can vary from one country to the other. Generally, the employment status of fully qualified teachers falls into two categories: they can be employees with contractual status subject to general employment legislation or subject to special employment legislation governing contractual relations in the public sector. Moreover, in some education systems where special public sector employment legislation exists, they may have the status of civil servants or non-civil servants. Civil servants are employed or appointed in accordance with distinct legislation linked to public administration and usually involves higher job security through permanent employment and lifelong career opportunities.

As Figure 2.6 shows, in about two-thirds of education systems, special employment legislation governs statutory relations and employment conditions in the public sector. Fully qualified teachers in these systems usually have either civil servant or non-civil servant public employee status. Fully

qualified teachers may be employed as civil servants in 17 education systems. In Germany, Greece, Luxembourg and Portugal, only teachers in permanent positions are appointed as civil servants, those occupying temporary positions are non-civil servant public employees. In Austria, civil servant status is no longer granted, but as the status is being phased-out there are still civil servant teachers in the system.

Although, 'civil servant' status is commonly associated with systems where fully qualified teachers are selected and recruited through a competitive examination, there is no strong correlation between recruitment methods and employment status. While in Spain, France, Greece, Liechtenstein and Turkey, candidate teachers that have succeeded in the competitive examination are employed as civil servants, in Italy and Romania they are employed with contractual status. In contrast, in Hungary, Slovenia and Finland, fully qualified teachers recruited through the open recruitment method are granted civil servant status.

Figure 2.6: Types of employment status available to fully qualified teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Country-specific notes

Germany: Generally, fully qualified teachers are appointed as civil servants. Only in three *Länder* (Berlin, Sachsen and Thüringen), they are recruited as non-civil servant public employees.

Spain: Civil servant status shown in the Figure corresponds to *funcionarios de carrera* status.

Netherlands: Teachers in public schools have civil servant status and those working in grant-aided private schools are employed under general employment legislation. However, both categories may have comparable or even the same working conditions. In the Netherlands, collective agreements cover the whole education sector.

Poland: The teaching profession is regulated by separate legislation (the Teachers Charter) which defines rules of admission, duties, remuneration and dismissal of teachers as well as their career path.

In nine education systems all fully qualified teachers are non-civil servant public employees (Croatia, Poland, Slovakia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Norway).

In 17 of the education systems, all fully qualified teachers are employees with contracts subject to general employment legislation. In all these countries, except Italy and Romania, teachers are recruited according to the open recruitment method.

2.4. Teacher mobility between schools

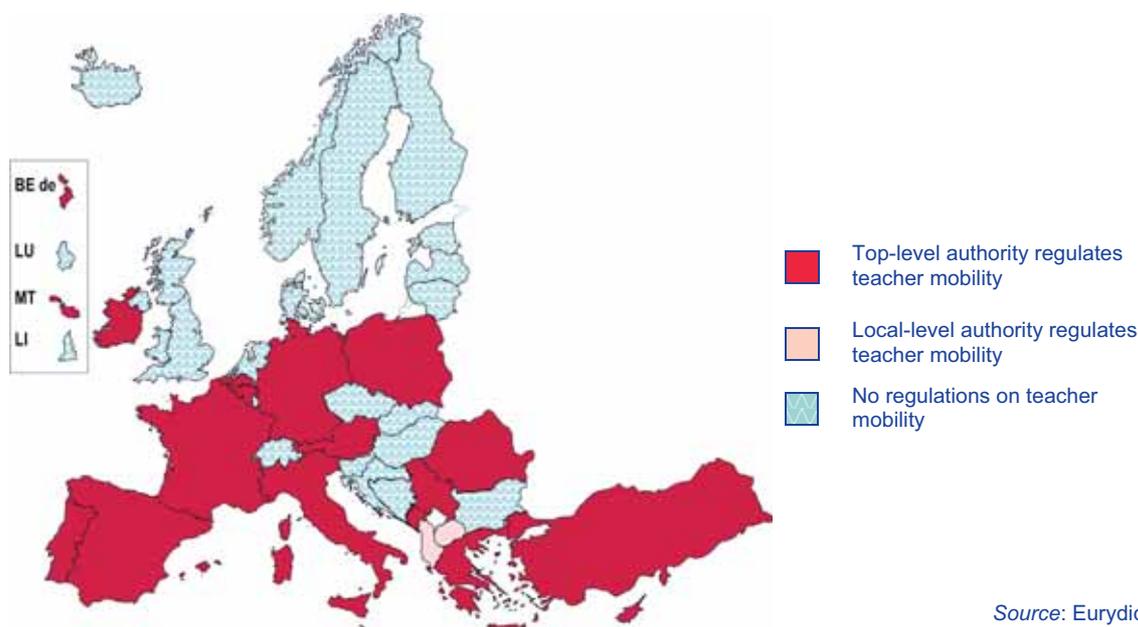
This section investigates the way teachers move or are transferred between schools. In this report, teacher mobility refers to any move made by teachers after their initial appointment to a school, including moves to another school either within or between school districts. It takes into account moves initiated by teachers themselves as well as transfers instigated by education authorities, including those made by early-career teachers and those taking place later in a teacher's career. Teacher mobility with respect to those leaving the profession, the engagement of substitute teachers and the short-term assignments new teachers may have in a number of schools before gaining a permanent post are not included here.

The regulations on teacher mobility are addressed first, examining the countries in which they occur and the levels of authority responsible for issuing them. The specific procedures and practices of teacher mobility are then considered. Finally, the different reasons why teachers may want to move or why education authorities or schools may need to transfer them are also explored.

2.4.1. Regulations on teacher mobility between schools

In more than half of the European education systems there are no regulations on teacher mobility. In the other half, regulations on teacher mobility between schools do exist. This tends to be in the countries in the south and west of Europe rather than the north or east.

Figure 2.8: Regulations and levels of authority responsible for teacher mobility between schools in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Country-specific notes

Germany: Regulations vary between *Länder*.

Ireland: Teacher mobility is regulated in relation to redeployment of surplus or permanent teachers, or those holding an indefinite contract.

Poland: Teacher mobility is regulated by the Teachers' Charter. However, the regulations related to transferring teachers are currently suspended and are to be phased out in January 2018. In practice, mobility is left to the discretion and agreement of both involved parties. The initiative for transfer can be both on the part of the teacher and the school (school managing body).

Slovenia: Teacher mobility is only regulated for some exceptional cases (re-organisation of schools).

United Kingdom (SCT): Teacher mobility is not regulated. Teachers are appointed by the local authority and are free to apply to vacant positions. They are employed as mobile grades, which gives local authorities the flexibility to redeploy them as necessary.

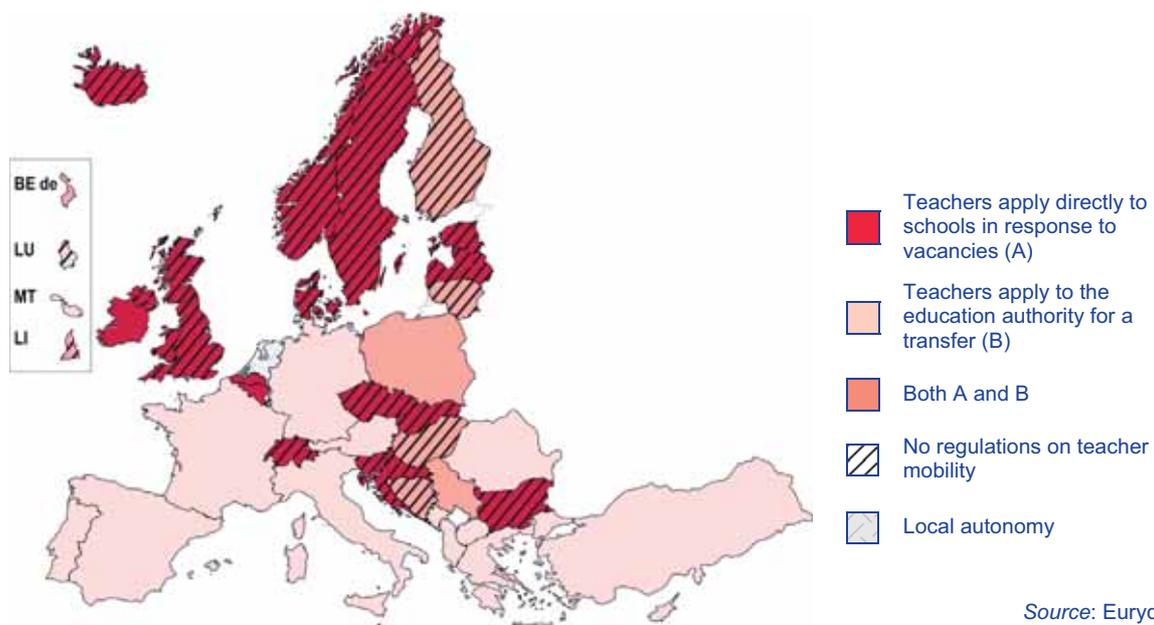
In all but two countries regulations are issued by the top-level authority.

In **Albania**, teacher mobility is mostly regulated at local level by the regional education offices and school directors.

Similarly, in the **former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia**, local-level authorities are responsible for teacher mobility. All regular public primary schools are under the responsibility of the municipalities. The secondary schools in Skopje fall under the responsibility of the City of Skopje, whereas the secondary schools in other cities fall under the responsibility of the respective municipality of that city.

A degree of teacher mobility is necessary in all education systems. Teachers may wish to move for personal, family or professional reasons. Conversely, education authorities need to ensure an even distribution of teachers, ensure that all posts are filled as well as manage school re-organisations and closures. Schools contribute to the process by monitoring and notifying authorities of their vacancies and balancing their staff's workload. The specific procedures vary between countries and are usually related to the system of recruitment and employment in place.

Figure 2.9: Procedures for teacher mobility between schools in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

In more than half of European countries, teachers apply directly in response to advertised vacancies (27 education systems). Geographically speaking, this system is common in Northern and Eastern Europe, in line with the method of open recruitment, and consistent with the fact most of these countries don't have regulations on teacher mobility. In the other half, teachers need to apply to the education authority for a transfer. This is often the case in the Western, Central and Southern part of Europe. The ways of doing it vary across education systems.

In several countries teachers can both apply directly in response to advertised vacancies or to the education authority for a transfer. The different procedures can be linked to different types of mobility and/or regulations (German-speaking Community of Belgium, Poland and Serbia). For instance:

In **Serbia**, if there is a vacancy in a specific school, the local-level authority and the school consult the list of employees whose services are wholly or partially redundant in the current school year and invite teachers from this list for employment. The school may also post the vacancy in the National Employment Agency's publication if there is no suitable candidate on the list. Also, teachers can initiate moves to another school if there is no suitable candidate from the list of employees and on condition that both schools agree.

In countries where teacher mobility is not regulated, in addition to responding to vacancies, teachers can still apply to the education authority for a transfer under specific circumstances, such as school re-organisations (Lithuania, Hungary, Finland, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Liechtenstein).

2.4.2. Characteristics of teacher mobility processes

Mobility practices vary across Europe. Some of them are presented in this section and illustrated by country examples. They are not intended to give a comprehensive picture. Indeed, further investigation is needed to better understand which education systems use national competitions to manage teacher mobility and how these are run; or the number of countries that have a credit-based system to rank requests for move, or what other procedures the remaining countries use to facilitate mobility.

In some countries, mobility is managed through national competitions.

In **Spain**, the transfer competition (*concurso de traslados*), organised every other year, is the most common way for teachers to move between schools. Civil servants can apply for personal or professional reasons. One year it is organised by the top-level authority in every Autonomous Community with vacancies in their territory. The next year the national authority calls for vacancies across the whole country.

In **Portugal**, a transfer process for permanent teachers is run every four years via national competition. However, permanent teachers without a post may apply each year.

In **Albania**, whereas teacher mobility is mostly regulated at local level, teachers may also be appointed following national examinations. In this case, the successful candidates are appointed to a post based on their personal preference.

Similarly, mobility can also be managed using a credit-based or point system. Teachers improve their chances of choosing their preferred post by accumulating credits/points.

In **France**, mobility can be between or within *académies* – the main administrative districts of the Ministry of Education. In the latter case, each year, the needs of each academy are matched with the mobility requests of new and serving teachers. The objective is to appoint teachers where they are needed while taking into account personal preferences for mobility. In each mobility request within *académies*, teachers at lower and upper secondary level, for instance, can give up to 20 school wishes and a calculation of points is done. The point scale gives priority to family-related moves, teachers with disabilities and to teachers appointed in certain priority areas. These and other criteria allow ranking the mobility requests.

In **Cyprus**, teachers enter a credit-system, under which they get credits based on (a) their years of employment, (b) the types of schools in which they have served, and (c) the distance of the school from the teacher's home. At the end of each school year, the list is used by the top-level as well as local-level authorities to determine where each candidate will be appointed the next school year. Teachers with the most credits on this list have the opportunity to be appointed to schools of their preference.

In **Belgium (French Community)**, this applies in a specific case only. Teachers teaching in schools with a bigger share of pupils from a disadvantaged background, based on a socio-economic index, and therefore benefiting from additional financial and human resources, have the right to request a change to another school of their choice (after 10 years).

In two federal, countries specific procedures have been introduced to facilitate mobility between the regions.

In 2015, the education ministries of the three Communities of **Belgium** decided to create an online-platform to facilitate and promote teacher mobility between the Communities. The goal is that languages or curriculum subjects taught through the medium of another language may be provided by teachers who are native speakers.

In **Germany**, teachers with civil service status who wish to work in another *Land* require the consent of the Ministry of Education and Cultural Affairs responsible for their school of origin and that of the receiving *Land*. In an agreement adopted in May 2001, the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the *Länder* laid down two procedures for the transfer of teachers between *Länder*. This agreement is aimed, amongst other things, at increasing teacher mobility in Germany. The main but not exclusive purpose is to enable families to live together.

Mobility regulations may also apply differently to different types of school.

In **Belgium (French Community)**, for example, while it is easy to move from one public school (depending directly on the ministry of the French Community) to another while keeping the same status, in grant-aided schools it is extremely difficult for teachers to change schools without losing their status and seniority.

Exchange schemes allow teachers to move between schools, sometimes for a temporary period.

In **Belgium (German-speaking Community)**, appointed teachers may exchange posts. The two teachers applying for an exchange must be working for the same school provider in the same role. The exchange is first temporary, for a period of 12 months, but can then become permanent as the request can be reintroduced as often as the teacher decides.

In **Ireland**, the scheme is designed to enable primary teachers to temporarily exchange their posts for educational purposes. The minimum period for which an exchange may occur is one year and the maximum is five years. It is a matter for teachers to find colleagues with whom they wish to enter into an exchange arrangement.

In the absence of any regulations on teacher mobility, practices vary. It depends both on who runs the schools (the local-level authorities or the top-level) and on the employment status of teachers. For example:

In the **Czech Republic**, local-level authorities, who run most schools, are responsible for reorganising provision as necessary: merging, closing or opening new schools. This may mean that they have to transfer teachers between schools.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, teachers are not civil servants and are appointed by the individual school. Teachers are free to decide that they wish to move to another school and to apply for any vacant positions that arise, which will be filled through open competition. In **England**, multi-academy trusts (MATs) are an increasingly prevalent feature of the education landscape. As the name suggests, these are trusts that operate more than one academy (the size ranges considerably). MATs are the legal employers of all staff in their schools, and have the opportunity to redeploy teachers and senior leaders to where they are most needed within the trust. Research (Worth, J., 2017) finds that the amount of staff movement between schools in the same MAT is more than ten times higher than the amount of movement that would be expected between any two schools that are not in the same MAT and are the same geographical distance apart.

In **Liechtenstein**, teachers can take the initiative to express their wish to change school. School heads can instigate moves to ensure they have the right team in place or to resolve vacancy issues; the top-level authority may do so as a result of external evaluation results, reports from inspectors, vacancies or as a result of long-term planning for teaching positions in schools.

2.4.3. Reasons for teacher mobility

In general, teachers seek mobility for professional and personal needs or preferences (e.g. to work closer to home or to their family or improve their work situation, etc.). According to the information provided by the participating countries, the most common reasons for teachers requesting a move are not job-related, but rather for personal or family reasons. Another possible reason is the need to change school environment. Also, teachers may request a move for medical reasons, as in Greece for example, where a formal request citing the medical problem can be made and in Portugal where teachers with medical problems can apply for mobility without giving any formal reasons.

From an education system point of view, the need to organise teacher mobility can arise for several reasons. Of the four possible reasons cited in this analysis, the most common is school reorganisation, which is mentioned by half of the countries studied. 'Ensuring an even distribution of teachers' and 'resolving teacher performance or personal issues' come joint second. In many countries, any of these three reasons can lead to a teacher being transferred. Only seven education systems mention that teachers may be transferred to meet the needs of schools serving disadvantaged or low-performing pupil populations. Among those, Austria clearly states that transfers for this reason must have the agreement of the teacher in question.

Finally, the possibility of transferring teachers without their consent exists in two countries (only Germany and Austria), and even in these, it is allowed only in very specific circumstances and under restricted conditions.

In **Germany**, teachers may be transferred without their consent only when the destination school is accountable to the same authority as the originating school and the new position is a sideward career step with the same basic salary. It must be justified by good professional reasons, e.g. school mergers or a reduction in teaching positions due to falling school rolls. Other reasons are directly linked to the teacher, such as being considered suitable for other duties. A transfer is considered when it is the only way to bring a teacher's duties in line with his/her position. The responsibilities of a civil servant towards his employer imply that the teacher must accept a transfer even if it does not correspond to his/her wishes. However, the school supervisory authority is required to consider any significant personal circumstances which may make a transfer unreasonable (e.g. advanced age or poor health).

In **Austria**, if a teacher is assigned to a service without his/her consent, there will be restrictions in terms of time and subject matter. *Transfer ex officio* (that is without the teacher's consent) is only possible if there are important reasons for it. The teacher can submit objections to the proposed transfer and appeal against the transfer decision and/or take legal steps.

On the other hand, very few countries (Cyprus, Austria, Albania and Liechtenstein) mention incentives to encourage teacher mobility between schools. As teacher mobility is generally driven by the teachers themselves and motivated by personal and/or professional reasons, it seems that education authorities and schools rarely intervene through incentives to encourage mobility.

In **Austria**, for example, teachers that have acquired extra qualifications may be transferred to a school where they are able to do more specialised work and thereby improve their working conditions. Similarly, **Albania** mentions that mobility provides teachers with more experience and improves their opportunities to achieve their career goals since it broadens their experience.

In **Liechtenstein**, incentives are linked to workload and to the possibility of receiving an indefinite contract.

CHAPTER 3: INDUCTION, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND SUPPORT

High-quality teaching is determined to a great extent on what teachers know and are able to do. Knowledge and skills acquired during initial teacher education (ITE) are only the starting point. Induction and mentoring programmes at the early stages of their career allow teachers to develop their professional skills and develop fruitful links within the school environment. Continuing professional development (CPD) gives teachers the opportunity to improve their competences and adapt them to today's fast changing environment. Support from other colleagues and from professional specialists can also help them tackle complex issues and better perform demanding tasks.

In its Communication on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life, the European Commission underlines the importance of teacher education for teaching quality, pointing out the role that collaborative work and career-long professional development can play⁽¹⁾. The Commission highlights the need for CPD to be accessible, affordable and relevant, and underscores the positive effect of involving schools and teachers in defining CPD policies. It also underlines the need to provide special support to teachers, especially during the early stages of their careers.

All these issues are examined in this chapter, which is divided in three sections. The first part focuses on the support made available to teachers new to the profession through induction programmes, and on mentoring more generally. The second section investigates the situation of teachers' CPD in European countries. The third part looks into other types of support available to serving teachers throughout their careers.

3.1. Induction and mentoring

3.1.1. Induction

The 2017 European Commission Communication on school development and excellent teaching stresses the importance of providing specific support to teachers during the early stage of their career. As stated in the European Commission handbook for policy-makers on induction into the teaching profession, 'the point at which newly educated teachers transfer from initial education and move into professional life is seen as crucial for further professional commitment and development and for reducing the number of teachers leaving the profession' (European Commission, 2010, p. 9).

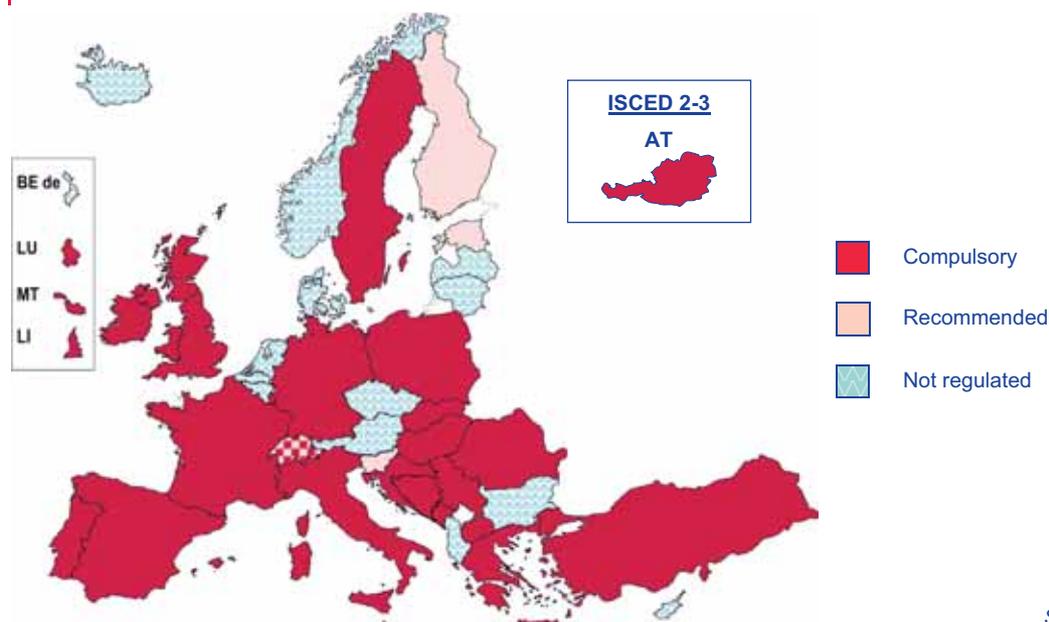
Induction, as understood here, is a structured support phase provided either for teachers new to the profession or for prospective teachers. During this phase they carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and are remunerated for their work. Induction has important formative and supportive components; it usually includes additional training as well as personalised help and advice.

⁽¹⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on school development and excellent teaching for a great start in life, COM/2017/165 final.

Status and length of induction programmes

Figure 3.1 shows that in the vast majority of European education systems, prospective teachers or teachers new to the profession have access to induction programmes. In 26 systems, a structured induction phase is made compulsory through top-level authority regulations, while in Estonia, Slovenia and Finland, induction is recommended. In Estonia, Slovenia and Finland, induction is recommended.

Figure 3.1: Status of induction programmes in primary and secondary general education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY
Duration in months	⊗	⊗	⊗	⊗	⊗	⊗	12-24	12	36	4	3 – 12	12	12	12	⊗
	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	
Duration in months	⊗	⊗	36	24	24	●	12	9	12	12	10	12	●	12	
	UK-ENG	UK-WLS	UK-NIR	UK-SCT		AL	BA	CH	FY	IS	LI	ME	NO	RS	TR
Duration in months	12	12	12	12		⊗	12	12 – 24	12	⊗	36	12	⊗	12	12

⊗ No top-level regulations ● School autonomy

Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Germany: Information provided in the Figure refers to compulsory remunerated preparatory service at school (*Vorbereitungsdienst*).

Ireland: Two models of induction are available: 1) National Induction Programme Workshops where newly qualified teachers must complete 20 hours of workshops and 2) a school-based system *Droichead* which combines induction and probation/post qualification work experience. For primary teachers, it takes at least 100 days to complete *Droichead* and, for post primary teachers, 300 teaching hours. Newly qualified teachers have 36 months to complete either model.

Greece: Induction is available for all beginning teachers. It is compulsory for beginning teachers in permanent positions, while it is only recommended for substitute teachers.

Spain: The content and duration of the induction phase vary depending on the Autonomous Community concerned.

Italy: During one year induction period, teachers have to ensure 180 days of school service (120 of teaching activities).

Netherlands: Social partners set the framework for induction in collective labour agreements. Schools are responsible for interpretation and providing early career support.

Austria: Compulsory only for graduate teachers who have followed the consecutive route through ITE and who can teach in *Allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen* (ISCED 2-3).

Slovenia: Under special circumstances, the duration of the induction phase can be extended or shortened.

United Kingdom (SCT): Compulsory induction can be undertaken either through the Teacher Induction Scheme or following the Flexible Route. The information on the duration of induction period refers to the Teacher Induction Scheme.

Liechtenstein: Induction takes place within three years' probationary period.

Switzerland: Induction programmes are regulated at cantonal level. A majority of Cantons have compulsory programmes, others are optional. The length ranges from 12 to 24 months. In some Cantons, the duration may be tailored to individual needs.

Induction programmes where they exist may be organised in different ways. In some education systems, induction is provided for new fully qualified teachers, in others, beginning teachers are considered to be fully qualified only after successfully completing the induction period (see Section 2.1). Induction is usually organised at the start of the first contract as a graduate teacher in school and in some systems it occurs during the probationary period. In Germany, France, Luxembourg and Austria, induction takes place in the framework of ITE.

In **Germany**, compulsory remunerated preparatory service at school (*Vorbereitungsdienst*) is considered as a compulsory induction programme. All graduates (with a First State Examination or Master's degree in ITE depending on the particular *Land*) have to undertake it in order to pass the Second State Examination which is a necessary condition to be fully qualified and obtain permanent employment. It is also recommended that early career support is provided from the start of the first contract for fully qualified teachers and it is up to the *Länder* to decide on the types of support measures and how they are organised. Seven *Länder* organise an induction programme for fully qualified teachers. In six of them it is optional, while in Brandenburg it is compulsory.

In **France**, students take the competitive examination at the end of year 4 (Master 1). The successful candidates follow an induction programme (part of ITE) during which they are remunerated as trainee teachers/civil servants for teaching activities. Those who are unsuccessful can continue on to Master 2 level. During their second year of this Master they follow an in-school placement (8-12 weeks) instead of an induction programme and are not remunerated for teaching activities. They can take the competitive examination at the end of year 5 and if successful undertake an induction programme. During this induction phase, they are remunerated as trainee teachers/civil servants for teaching activities.

In **Luxembourg**, prospective secondary education teachers complete higher education studies of four or more years in the subject of their choice. After these studies, they need to access to a professionalisation path of three years training (*stage pédagogique*). In order to access this path, they have to succeed in an entry examination (*examen-concours*). Induction takes place during these three years of training. During this period, prospective teachers have a 'trainee contract' with a school and are remunerated for the teaching activities. At the end of the training period, prospective teachers pass a final examination which grants them access to the designation/title of civil servants and are then considered fully qualified teachers. Prospective primary teachers undertake induction after completing the Bachelor's degree and during three years professional training (*stage préparant à la fonction d'instituteur de l'enseignement fondamental*). The successful completion of these three years professional training is a mandatory condition to become civil servants and thus qualified teachers.

In **Austria**, the existing induction programme for prospective teachers in *Allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen* (secondary education) is considered as being a part of ITE. It occurs at the very end of ITE, once prospective teachers have finished their studies and have passed a university examination. Only individuals successfully completing this programme are certified to teach. From September 2019, induction will be compulsory for all beginning teachers at primary and secondary levels. Induction will be organised at the start of the first contract as a graduate teacher.

The induction period usually lasts one year, although in Greece and Spain (in some Autonomous Communities) it lasts only a few months. In Ireland, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein, induction has to be completed within three years from its start.

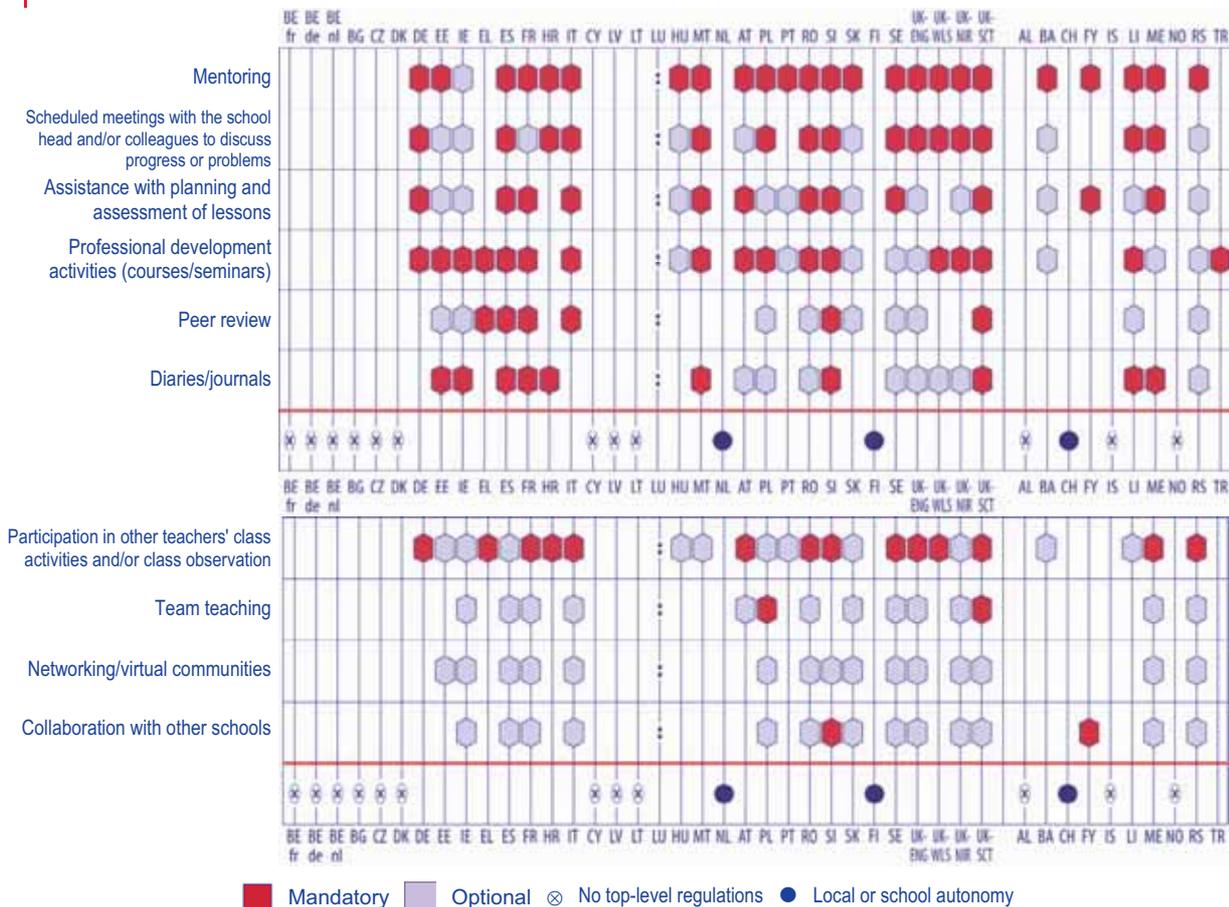
Types of support

The European Commission handbook for policy-makers on induction into the teaching profession emphasises the importance of three kinds of support for beginning teachers: personal, social and professional (European Commission, 2010). Induction programmes may contain different elements such as mentoring, professional training, peer review and scheduled meetings with the school head through which personal, social and professional support are provided.

Mentoring, which is considered to be one of the main elements of induction programmes, usually encompasses all three kinds of support. As a rule, a mentor is an experienced teacher appointed to take responsibility for new colleagues or prospective teachers. The mentor is usually a more senior teacher who introduces beginning teachers to the school community and professional life, supporting them and providing coaching and advice when necessary. Indeed, Figure 3.2 shows that mentoring is

a compulsory element of induction programmes in almost all education systems where induction is regulated. Only in Greece and Turkey, is mentoring not a feature of regulated induction programmes; in Ireland, it is optional.

Figure 3.2: Types of support included in the induction programme in primary and secondary general education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

- Germany:** The information provided in the Figure refers to *Vorbereitungsdienst*.
- Ireland:** Information in the Figure refers to the National Induction Programme Workshops.
- Spain:** Types of support included in the induction programme may differ between Autonomous Communities.
- United Kingdom (SCT):** Compulsory induction can be undertaken either through the Teacher Induction Scheme or following the Flexible Route. The information in the Figure refers to the Teacher Induction Scheme.
- Switzerland:** Types of support differ between Cantons. All types may exist, either compulsory or optional.

School heads also play an important role in supporting beginning teachers and this is evident in 23 education systems. In these systems, school heads, often in co-operation with the mentor and/or other senior teachers, regularly organise meetings with beginning teachers to discuss work progress, personal and professional issues and, when appropriate, provide feedback and give advice. In 15 systems, support from school heads is a mandatory element of induction programmes.

Induction typically provides an opportunity for beginning teachers to gain practical experience, develop teaching skills and sometimes extend the knowledge they have acquired during ITE. Various types of professional development activities such as training, courses and seminars are a component of induction programmes in 25 education systems; in 17 of these, they are a mandatory element. In 23 systems, professional support for beginning teachers is also provided through assistance with

planning and assessment of lessons. Peer review and diaries/journals are a common practice in 15 and 18 systems respectively.

The social dimension of the induction programme is usually reflected in activities that enable the creation of a collaborative environment, helping to integrate beginning teachers into the school and professional community, where good practice and ideas are shared with colleagues and networks are established. Social support may be provided through different activities, the most widespread being participation in other teachers' class activities and/or class observation. Indeed, in 25 education systems this element is specified in induction programmes. In about a half of the education systems where induction exists, schools foster beginning teachers' inclusion into professional life by organising networking/virtual communities, assuring collaboration with other schools and promoting team teaching. These activities are usually organised on voluntary basis.

Induction, particularly where it is compulsory, usually ends with a formal evaluation (see Section 5.1.2). In some education systems, positive evaluation leads to the full qualification or contributes to the final accreditation/registration as fully qualified teacher (see Section 2.1). In others, it is a prerequisite for permanent employment. In systems where induction is combined with the probationary period, final evaluation is needed to confirm recruitment (e.g. in Spain).

Induction programmes for prospective/beginning teachers have gained considerable importance in recent years. As previous Eurydice studies reveal, over the last decade, structured induction programmes have been introduced in Ireland, Malta, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Sweden and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2013 and 2015). The German-speaking Community of Belgium plans to introduce an induction programme for beginning teachers in primary education in 2018. In Austria, the new teacher education includes a mandatory induction phase for all beginning teachers as from September 2019.

3.1.2. Mentoring

As shown in the previous section, mentoring is a compulsory element of induction programmes in almost all education systems where induction is regulated. However, mentoring can also be made available to beginning teachers in the absence of an induction programme, and to all serving teachers in need of support.

Overall, mentoring for teachers entering the profession is mandatory in 28 education systems (see Figure 3.3), and it is recommended in another five (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Latvia and Norway). In Switzerland, it is mandatory in the Cantons where induction is compulsory and recommended in the others.

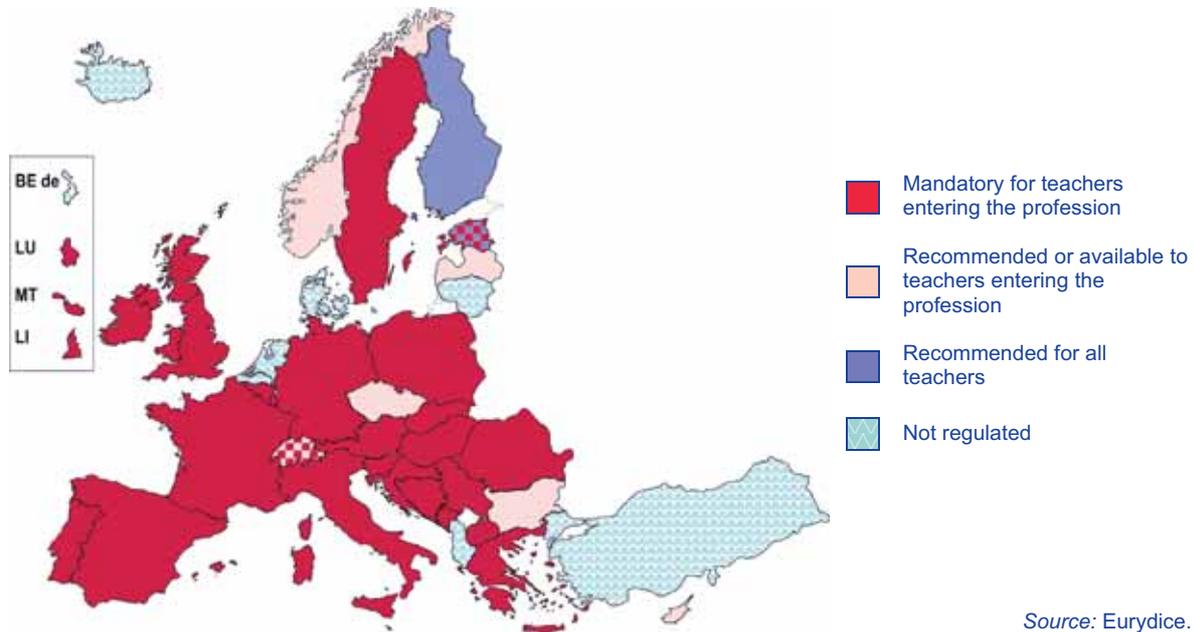
In the **Czech Republic**, according to the annual report of the Czech School Inspectorate (2015/16), in over 70 % of schools newly qualified teachers benefit from mentoring support.

In **Latvia**, mentoring for newly qualified teachers is a common practice despite not being mandatory.

Mentoring for other than beginning teachers is not that common in Europe. In Finland, schools are recommended to provide mentoring to any teacher in need of support. In Estonia, mentoring is a compulsory element of induction programmes and it is recommended for other serving teachers. In France and Hungary, it is only mandatory for new teachers but the inspection services may recommend it for underperforming teachers. Although mentoring is rarely regulated for other than beginning teachers, in many European countries other forms of professional and personal support are available for serving teachers (see Section 3.3.2).

Only in eight education systems, are there no official recommendations or regulations on mentoring.

Figure 3.3: Status of mentoring for teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Germany: Mentoring is a compulsory part of the preparatory service at school (*Vorbereitungsdienst*).

Greece: A new regulation provides the obligation of appointing a mentor for all new teachers but it is not yet been implemented.

Austria: In *Allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen* (ISCED 2-3), mentoring is part of the induction process. As from 2019, mentoring will be made available to all beginning teachers.

Switzerland: Mentoring is mandatory in the Cantons where induction is compulsory and it is recommended in the others.

3.2. Continuing professional development

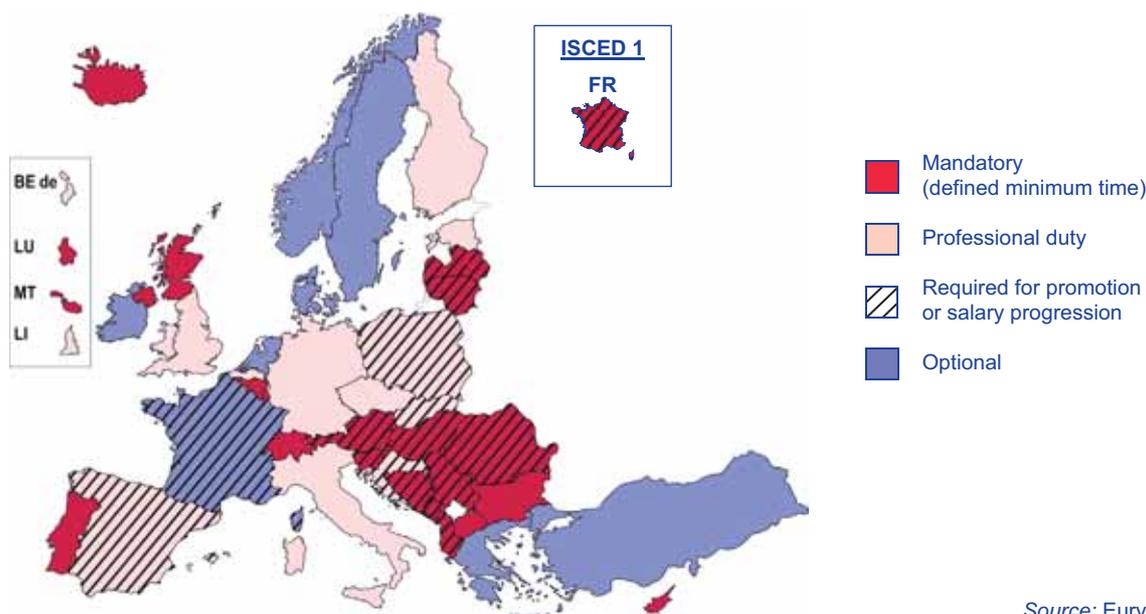
Previous studies have identified a number of elements influencing teachers' participation in CPD and its suitability. The Eurydice report, *The Teaching Profession in Europe* (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015), shows that the time teachers in lower secondary education spend in CPD is higher in countries where it is mandatory. The study also underlines that the mismatch between the CPD offer and the needs expressed by teachers is generally lower in countries where schools and teachers themselves are responsible for defining training priorities. According to *TALIS 2013 Results* (OECD, 2014), higher participation rates are also associated with higher levels of financial support and to the possibility of attending CPD activities during working hours. The most common barriers to participation indicated by teachers in lower secondary education are indeed a conflict with work schedules and the absence of incentives.

This section looks into the status of CPD in European countries, for example, whether it is mandatory or not. It investigates in which countries schools must have a CPD plan and, where this is the case, what the main requirements are. It also analyses the involvement of schools and teachers in defining CPD needs and activities. Finally, the main incentives to encourage teachers to become involved in CPD and specific measures in place to facilitate their participation are described.

3.2.1. Status of CPD

Broadly speaking, CPD in Europe may be regarded as mandatory (i.e. there is a minimum amount of CPD that all teachers must complete); it may be one of teachers' statutory duties according to regulations, relevant policy documents or employment contracts (but no minimum time is centrally defined); or it may be optional for teachers.

Figure 3.4: Status of CPD for teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Minimum number of mandatory CPD hours, days or credits for the given number of years

	BE fr	BG	FR	CY	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	AT	PT	RO	SI	UK- SCT	AL	BA	CH	FY	IS	ME	RS
Number of hours/ days/credits	3 days	48 hours	9 hours	10 hours	36 hours	5 days	16 hours	120 hours	18 hours	15 hours	50 hours	90 credits	15 days	35 hours	6 hours	:	:	60 hours	150 hours	24 hours	64 hours
Time period (years)	1	3	1	1	3	1	1	7	1	1	4	5	3	1	1	:	:	3	1	5	1

Explanatory notes

Mandatory: CPD is considered to have mandatory status when there is a set minimum number of hours, days or credits that all teachers are obliged to complete.

Professional duty: CPD is considered to be one of teachers' professional duties according to regulations or other relevant policy documents but a minimum number of compulsory hours is not defined.

Optional: There is no statutory obligation for teachers to participate in CPD.

Time period: Indicates the number of years teachers are given to complete the prescribed hours/credits of CPD.

Country-specific notes

France: Primary teachers must complete between 9 and 18 CPD hours a year. At secondary level, this obligation does not exist.

Hungary: The completion of a two-year CPD training is required to become a 'Master Teacher'. For other promotions, CPD is one of the elements taken into account but it is not mandatory.

Austria: The minimum number of mandatory CPD hours per year refer to primary teachers and *Neue Mittelschulen* teachers (ISCED 2). For teachers in *Allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen* (ISCED 2-3), CPD is mandatory but a minimum number of hours is not centrally defined.

Finland: The collective agreement sets three days for CPD and planning altogether. Teachers decide together with the school managers and the employer how much of this time to devote to CPD.

United Kingdom (NIR): Early Professional Development, which covers the second and third year of a teacher's career, is mandatory for all teachers and must include at least two Professional Development Activities mapped against appropriate teacher competences from those defined by the General Teaching Council (GTCNI).

Bosnia and Herzegovina: It is left to the discretion of each Canton to define the minimum required. The average is 12 hours per year.

Switzerland: Regulations on the minimum number of hours vary between Cantons. In a few Cantons, CPD is a professional duty but no minimum time is defined.

CPD is mandatory for all teachers in primary and secondary education in 21 education systems (see Figure 3.4). In France, it is mandatory only for primary teachers. In all of these, there is a minimum number of hours, days or credits that teachers must complete within a specific time period (see table below Figure 3.4). Moreover, the completion of CPD activities is required for promotion to the next career level in nine of these countries (France, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Romania, Slovenia, Albania, Montenegro and Serbia). In Austria and Bosnia and Herzegovina, it is a prerequisite for salary progression.

In another 14 education systems, engagement in CPD is considered to be one of teachers' statutory professional duties but regulations and policy documents do not define a minimum number of mandatory hours. In three of these countries (Croatia, Poland and Slovakia), the completion of CPD activities is also a requirement for promotion. In Spain, it is also required for salary progression.

In the other seven countries (and in France at secondary level), there is no statutory obligation for teachers to participate in CPD. In Sweden, the relevant authorities have an obligation to promote and provide CPD but it is left to the discretion of teachers whether or not to participate.

3.2.2. CPD planning at school level

In 25 of the education systems covered by this report, it is compulsory for schools to have a CPD plan (see Figure 3.5). In 19 of these, it is the top-level authority that establishes this obligation and also regulates the specific conditions under which CPD plans operate. In the other education systems, this responsibility is shared with other authority levels (i.e. with the local and school-level authorities in the French Community of Belgium and Iceland, with the school-level authorities in the Czech Republic, Poland and the United Kingdom (Scotland), and with the regional authorities in Albania).

Figure 3.5: Status of CPD planning at school level in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

France: The National Training Plan (*Plan national de formation*) is developed at the level of the *académies* – the main administrative districts of the Ministry of Education – through the *Académies' Training Plan (Plan académique de formation)* and is made available to teachers through their schools.

Spain: The Autonomous Communities have the power to establish regulations regarding school CPD plans. In most Autonomous Communities, it is mandatory while in others it is strongly recommended.

Norway: It is compulsory to have a CPD plan at local level. In practice, the local authorities cooperate with the schools to elaborate the local CPD plan.

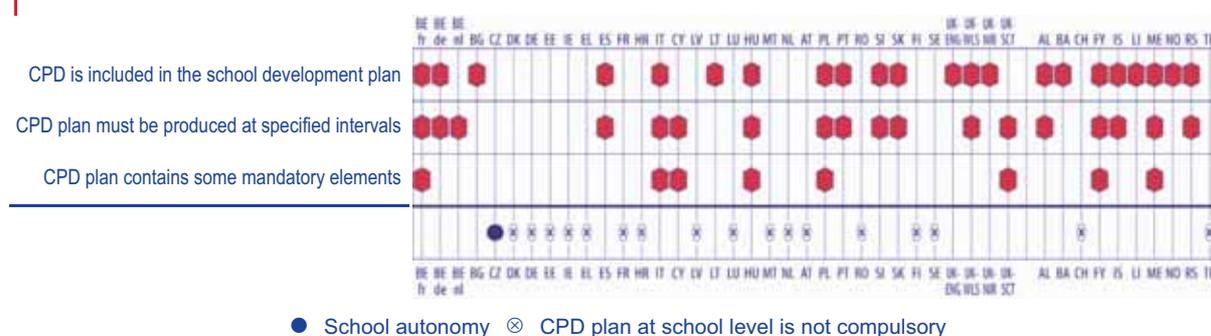
In 18 countries, it is not mandatory for schools to develop a CPD plan but CPD planning at school level may exist.

In **Luxembourg**, schools were strongly recommended to include CPD in their development plans before September 2017, becoming compulsory thereafter.

In **Austria**, school CPD planning is part of two processes: School Quality Education (*Schulqualität Allgemeinbildung*) and the Quality Initiative Training (*Qualitätsinitiative Berufsbildung*).

In countries where school CPD planning is compulsory, statutory provisions may include certain mandatory requirements, for instance, whether CPD should be included in the school development plan or the frequency with which the planning should be carried out. Figure 3.6 shows which features are centrally regulated in these education systems. The Czech Republic is the only country where there are no mandatory requirements centrally defined: schools are responsible for developing their own CPD plans after negotiations with the relevant trade unions.

Figure 3.6: Statutory features of compulsory CPD plans in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

CPD planning is part of the school development plan in 22 education systems. It is a separate document only in Cyprus and the United Kingdom (Scotland). In the Flemish Community of Belgium, schools normally include CPD planning in the school development plan although it is not a statutory obligation.

In a few countries (Bulgaria, Lithuania, the United Kingdom (England and Northern Ireland), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Liechtenstein and Norway), regulations or other policy documents do not specify the frequency with which CPD plans should be updated. In the other countries, CPD plans are normally produced every year. Exceptions are Italy and the United Kingdom (Wales), where CPD plans are produced every three years, and Montenegro, every two.

In eight education systems, the competent authorities specify certain elements that school CPD plans must include such as a list of the planned CPD activities, the outcomes, the time frame and the budget.

In the **French Community of Belgium**, CPD plans must specify the objectives of the training activities and how they are linked to the school project.

In **Italy**, the three-year plan has to combine school and teachers' individual needs with national priorities regarding the development of systemic skills (e.g. school autonomy, evaluation, innovative teaching), 21st century skills (e.g. foreign languages, digital skills, school-based and workplace learning) and skills for inclusive schooling.

In **Cyprus**, the top-level authority regulates the duration and frequency of CPD activities that schools must offer and include in their CPD plans.

In **Hungary**, school CPD plans must indicate the formal university courses and other activities to be provided, the budget allocated, and the plan for replacing teachers undertaking CPD. The CPD plan is updated annually in accordance with the five-year programme. All school staff must be involved in the development process and give their approval to the CPD plan.

In **Poland**, the mandatory elements refer to CPD plans for individual teachers and the specifications that must be included depending on their status and type of contract in terms of competences, skills and knowledge. The individual CPD plans are taken into account in the school development plan.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, the CPD plan must include the relevant elements of the school improvement plan and the development needs identified by the teachers. The professional review and development process examines *a posteriori* the impact of CPD training on the teacher's practice.

In the **former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia**, the CPD plan is integrated into the annual work programme and must follow the corresponding guidelines. The CPD plan must refer to five areas: needs and priorities, activities, personal professional development, horizontal learning and team work and school climate.

In **Montenegro**, based on the CPD catalogue published by the National Council for Education, schools have to prepare a two-year CPD plan indicating: the objectives, the activities needed to reach each objective, the target group, the time framework, the person responsible and the indicators for measuring success.

3.2.3. Authority levels responsible for defining CPD needs and priorities

In the vast majority of European countries, schools play an important role when it comes to deciding the needs and priorities for teachers' professional development. In countries where a CPD plan at school level is compulsory, schools are usually responsible for deciding what training is needed. In doing so, they may follow general guidelines and priorities set by the education authorities, or they may consult teachers themselves, or they act in consultation with organisations representing teachers. CPD is intrinsically linked to the school development plan in most cases. In countries where CPD planning at school level is not mandatory, schools also tend to have an active role in defining CPD needs. Overall, schools are involved in the definition of CPD needs and priorities in 37 education systems (see Figure 3.7). Their role in the process varies across countries and is linked to the involvement of other authority levels (e.g. top-level authorities and municipalities).

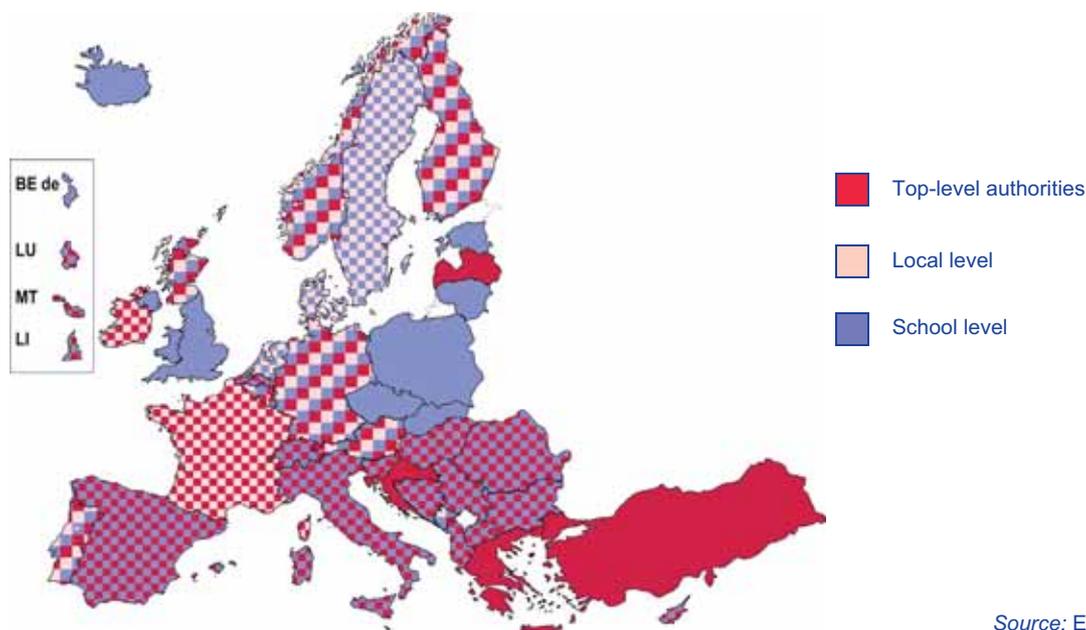
In 30 education systems, the top-level education authorities are responsible for determining CPD needs and priorities, although this responsibility lies solely with the top level in only four systems (Greece, Croatia, Latvia and Turkey). In the remaining 26 education systems, the top-level authority shares this responsibility with local institutions and/or schools. The participation of the different levels varies across countries, as described below.

In Ireland and France, statutory bodies dependent on top-level education authorities are involved at local level.

In **Ireland**, the Education Centres organise the local delivery of national programmes of teacher professional development on behalf of the Department of Education and Skills. These centres also organise specific programmes on demand for teachers, school management and parents at local level.

In **France**, the top-level education authority outlines the policy priorities in the National Training Plan (*Plan national de formation*). These priority areas are subsequently developed by the *académies* – the main administrative districts of the Ministry of Education – taking into account their needs and priorities.

Figure 3.7: Authority level responsible for defining CPD needs and priorities in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

In another 16 education systems, schools contribute to the process of identifying CPD needs and priorities together with top-level education authorities. Schools may be involved in various ways:

- *Top-down approach*: in developing their CPD plans, schools follow general guidelines and priorities set by the education authorities and take into account their own priorities and needs (Bulgaria, Italy, Cyprus, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia).
- *Bottom-up approach*: there are formal procedures in place so that schools and teachers can channel their needs and priorities to the top-level education authorities (Spain, Hungary, Malta, Romania, Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina).
- *Two-layer approach*: schools can decide on their own CPD priorities and activities in addition to those offered by the relevant education authorities (Flemish Community of Belgium, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Liechtenstein and Switzerland).

In eight other education systems, the process to define CPD needs and priorities involves the top, local and school levels. In Germany and Austria, top-level education authorities define the priority areas, which are implemented by government-dependent training institutions at regional and local level; schools may also organise their own CPD activities. In Portugal, Finland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), Montenegro and Norway, specific priorities and activities may be defined at local and school level in addition to those decided at top level. In the French Community of Belgium, local education authorities and schools (after developing their school CPD plans and those for individual teachers) channel their needs for training and proposals for priority areas to the top-level education authorities.

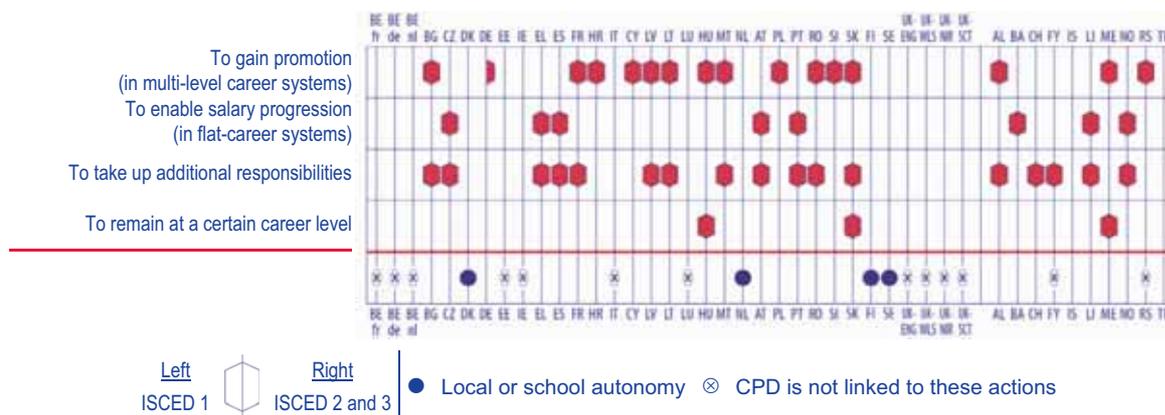
In a second group of countries, local authorities and schools are responsible for determining CPD needs and priorities. This is the case in Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden.

Finally, top-level regulations establish that CPD needs and priorities are defined by schools and teachers themselves in 10 education systems (German-speaking Community of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) and Iceland). In some cases, the responsibility lies mainly with the school authorities, although they take into account teachers' individual plans and self-evaluation (e.g. the Czech Republic, Estonia and Poland). In the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), the focus is mainly on individual teachers, who, in their annual appraisal, must agree with their line managers on the CPD objectives, planned activities and expected outcomes.

3.2.4. Incentives to promote teacher participation in CPD

Career and salary progression are the most common incentives among European countries to encourage teachers' participation in CPD. In 14 countries with multi-level career systems, the completion of CPD activities is required for promotion to the next career level (see Figure 3.8). In three of them, it is necessary to remain at a certain career level (Hungary, Slovakia⁽²⁾ and Montenegro). In another two countries, CPD is one of the elements taken into account in decisions on promotion (Bulgaria and Cyprus). In some of these countries, allowances or salary increases for completing CPD activities are also possible within the same career level (Slovenia and Slovakia).

Figure 3.8: Incentives defined by top-level authorities to encourage teachers to participate in CPD in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Germany: CPD is one element considered for promotion to a higher career level for teachers qualified to teach at upper secondary level (ISCED 3).

Sweden: CPD falls within the scope of school autonomy. However, the National Agency for Education offers CPD to accredited teachers that are teaching certain subjects or specific grades for which they do not have the required qualification.

United Kingdom (SCT): The General Teaching Council for Scotland confirms teachers' registration every five years as part of the *Professional Update* process. This accreditation is based on an agreed record of a teacher's professional learning, including the mandatory CPD hours, and it is required for all teachers.

In three countries with a flat-career structure, CPD is a prerequisite for salary progression (Spain, Austria and Bosnia and Herzegovina). In another five, CPD is considered in decisions on salary increases (the Czech Republic, Greece, Portugal, Liechtenstein and Norway). In some cases, specific CPD is only required at a certain point in a teacher's career (e.g. to move to the highest pay group in the Czech Republic or to get the additional payment for six years' service (*sexenios*) in Spain).

⁽²⁾ For school management positions and for some pedagogical and professional employees.

In 17 countries, CPD is necessary for taking up additional responsibilities, which may also carry a financial incentive. These duties may refer, for instance, to management positions, subject coordination, mentoring, career guidance and advisory roles.

In the **Czech Republic**, teachers may get special allowances for acting as ICT coordinators or developing education programmes, and specific CPD is required for performing these tasks.

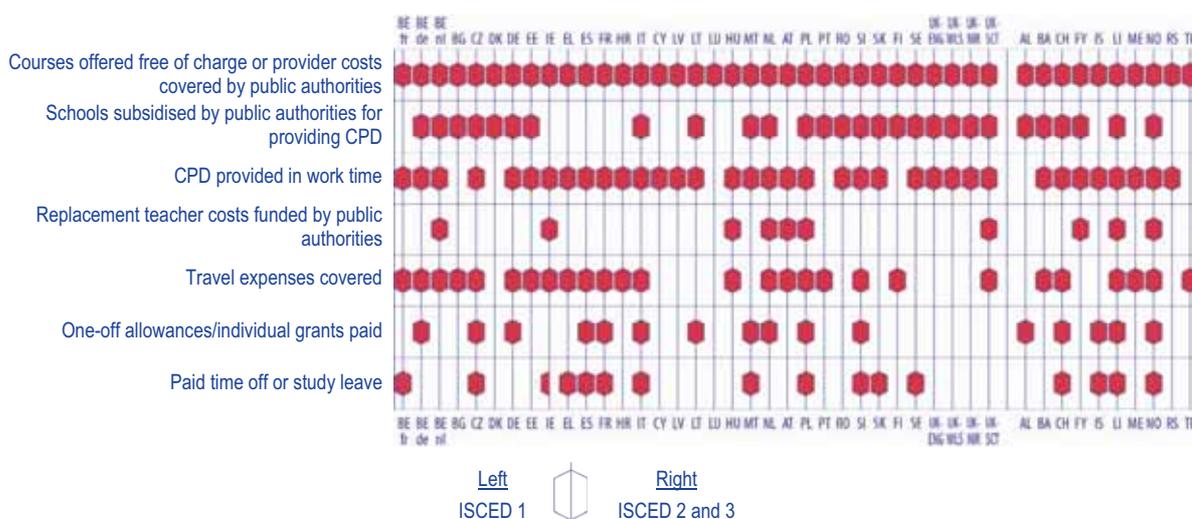
In **Austria**, teachers taking up additional responsibilities such as educational counselling, mentoring or the coordination of career guidance must have completed the relevant training; and they also receive an allowance for performing these duties.

In Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden, incentives to encourage CPD are decided by local authorities and schools.

3.2.5. Measures to facilitate teacher participation in CPD activities

In addition to these incentives to promote teachers' engagement in CPD, in all European countries, there are additional measures aimed at removing barriers to participation. These supporting measures can have a financial nature (i.e. the provision of free courses, funding for schools or grants for teachers). They can also be non-financial such as the option to attend courses during working hours or have an unpaid study leave.

Figure 3.9: Measures to facilitate teacher participation in CPD activities in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific note

Switzerland: Supporting measures vary across Cantons.

As Figure 3.9 shows, in all European countries, professional development courses are available free of charge to teachers. These courses can be part of programmes organised or supported by the relevant education authorities, the training organisations under their control or other providers. Individual schools may also organise their own courses and provide them free of charge to their teaching staff.

In most countries, the education authorities (often through their own training organisations) run courses, or cover the costs of provision in line with the established CPD priority areas. Local authorities may also provide some free courses to address specific needs. In four education systems, free courses are mainly offered by municipalities or school providers (Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom (Scotland)). In Finland, not only school providers but also

universities and private companies can apply for government funding to cover the cost of CPD activities related to education policy priorities. In three countries, the cost of teachers' participation in CPD courses is covered by the school budget (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Poland).

In addition to free courses, in 28 education systems, schools are also subsidised by public authorities for providing their own CPD activities.

Teachers can attend CPD activities during working hours in 36 education systems, normally under certain conditions (e.g. for a limited number of hours, with the school heads' consent or when teachers have no teaching obligations). In 10 of these education systems, schools receive funding from public authorities to cover the costs of replacing teachers attending CPD activities (Flemish Community of Belgium, Ireland, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Poland, the United Kingdom (Scotland), the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Liechtenstein and Norway).

In most European countries there are additional measures in place also aiming at removing barriers to participation, such as the defrayal of travel costs, one-off allowances to cover other costs, individual grants, study leave and time off. In 27 education systems, teachers' travel expenses are covered, in particular when participation in CPD is compulsory. In 16 education systems, teachers can get extra funding to cover the cost of CPD (e.g. enrolment fees, accommodation, learning materials) or apply for a grant. Teachers can get paid study leave or time off also in 16 education systems. For instance:

In the **French Community of Belgium**, primary teachers can get up to five teaching days off per year for voluntary training (i.e. on top of the days for mandatory training). In secondary education, teachers can get up to three teaching days off per year for voluntary training. There are no limits for voluntary training in days where teaching is not scheduled at both education levels.

In the **Czech Republic**, teachers are entitled to 12 paid working days off per academic year to participate in CPD. Travel and other expenses for participating in mandatory CPD are covered.

In **Ireland**, primary teachers undertaking summer courses may be given extra personal vacation days.

In **Greece**, teachers can compete for a scholarship for study leave and can also apply for unpaid leave (for up to four years) to complete postgraduate studies.

In **Spain**, the education authorities offer financial aid to teachers for undertaking training activities that are not free of charge. Teachers can also apply for paid and unpaid study leave under the conditions set by the Autonomous Communities.

In **France**, teachers gain a 20-hour time credit per year (*Droit individuel à la formation*) for training activities other than those included in Académies' Training Plan (*Plan académique de formation*). This training cannot take place during teaching time and teachers may apply for a training allowance which amounts to 50 % of their hourly salary if the training takes place during holidays. Teachers can also ask for study leave of up to three years. For the first year they receive 85 % of their salary.

In **Italy**, teachers receive an electronic card with EUR 500 per year to be used for CPD (books, multimedia supports, courses, etc.) and they are entitled to 150 hours of paid leave.

In **Norway**, teachers can apply for a scholarship of up to NOK 110 000 in order to acquire up to 30 CPD credits or to be released from their job at a rate of up to 37.5 % of a full-time position to obtain these credits. Teachers may also get paid study leave on the day(s) of the exam(s), and two additional days prior to each exam.

3.3. Specialist support for serving teachers

Specific support is essential if teachers are to be able to deal effectively with the challenging circumstances and increasingly complex tasks required in today's schools. This section looks into the support made available to teachers across Europe to manage pupils with general learning difficulties (i.e. those not directly related to any specific physical, sensory or intellectual impairment – see Glossary). It also examines the help given to teachers to deal with personal/health issues and interpersonal relations, and for improving their professional practice.

3.3.1. Specialist support for teachers with pupils having general learning difficulties

Professional specialists to support teachers of pupils with general learning difficulties are mentioned in top-level authority regulations in all European countries except Romania and Turkey.

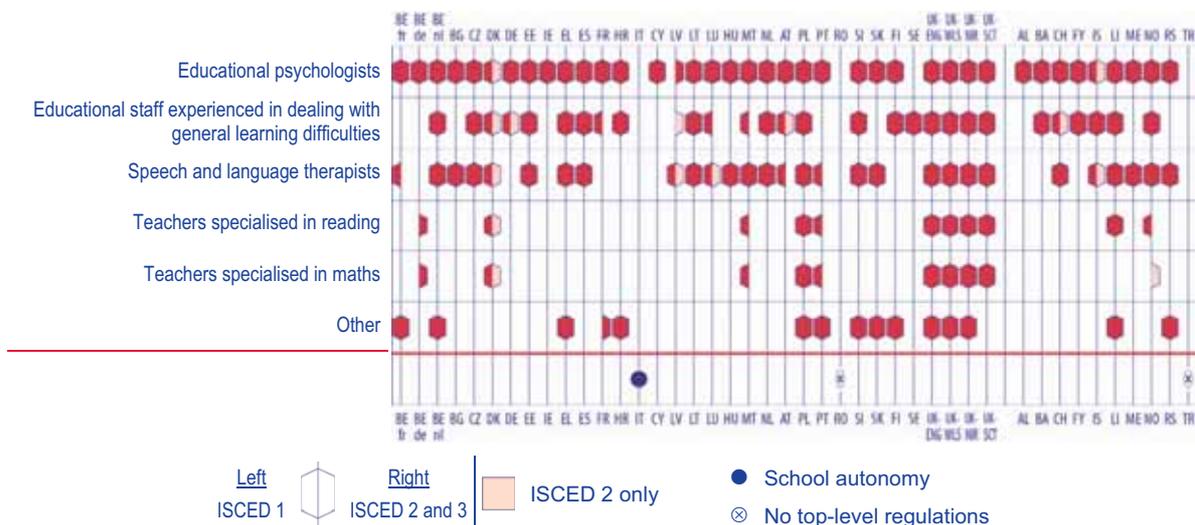
The type of specialist support most often recommended by top-level education authorities is that provided by educational psychologists. Thirty-nine education systems offer this support, usually at all education levels (see Figure 3.10). In Latvia, however, this type of support is normally available only in secondary education, while in Denmark and Iceland, the official recommendation refers only to primary and lower secondary education.

Teachers may get support from educational staff experienced in dealing with general learning difficulties in 29 education systems. In eight countries, the official recommendation does not refer to all education levels. In France, Luxembourg and Malta, this support is usually made available only in primary education; in Latvia, only in lower secondary education; and in Denmark, Germany, Austria and Switzerland, the provision does not extend to upper secondary education.

Also in 29 education systems, teachers have the support of speech and language therapists. In some cases, the official recommendation refers only to primary education (French Community of Belgium, Austria and Portugal), or to primary and lower secondary education (Denmark, Latvia, Luxembourg and Iceland).

Overall, in 22 education systems, teachers count on the support of all three above-mentioned specialists (i.e. educational psychologists, educational staff experienced in dealing with general learning difficulties and speech and language therapists).

Figure 3.10: Specialist support for teachers of pupils with general learning difficulties in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Support provided by teachers specialised in reading and maths is less common and is available to teachers at all three education levels only in Poland and the United Kingdom. In Malta and Portugal, teachers have access to this support only in primary education, and in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, only in secondary education. In Denmark, the recommendations do not apply to upper secondary education as arrangements are agreed at local level. Support by teachers specialised in reading is also provided in Iceland and, at primary level, in Norway; and by teachers specialised in maths at lower secondary level in Serbia.

In 15 education systems, teachers of pupils with general learning difficulties may also get support from other professionals such as pedagogues, language teachers for speakers of other languages, learning mentors, attendance officers, social workers or health care support workers.

Specialist support can be provided in a number of ways:

- *In-school service*: the specialists are based in the school (Spain, France, Croatia, Latvia, Austria, Slovenia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia). The number of professional specialists may depend on the size of the school and the school-specific needs.
- *Joint service for a cluster of schools*: the professional specialists work at a centre (or school) or for an external organisation that is responsible for providing this support service to a cluster of schools (French and German-speaking Communities of Belgium, Ireland, Greece, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Portugal, Slovakia and Switzerland).
- *In-school and joint service*: both forms of support are available depending on the school and/or the type of specialist (Germany, Estonia, Italy, Lithuania, Poland and Iceland).

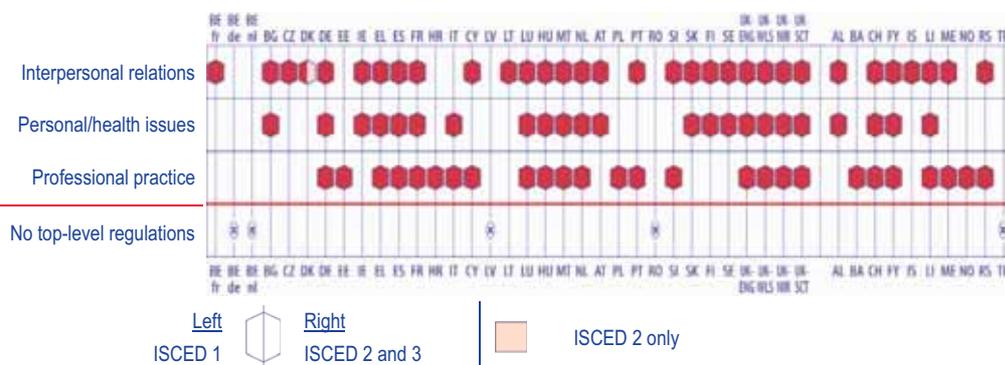
In five education systems, local authorities and schools decide on the organisation of this support service (Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and Norway). In Italy, it is at the discretion of schools whether and how to provide these support services.

3.3.2. Support for personal and professional matters

In most European countries, teachers may also get advice and support for dealing with personal/health matters, for managing interpersonal relations or for developing and improving professional practice.

Support for managing interpersonal relationships such as conflicts involving pupils, parents and/or colleagues is the most common type. It is available to teachers in 32 education systems (see Figure 3.11). In 22 of them, teachers may also get support for personal matters relating, for example, to changes in their personal/family circumstances or to help them with mental health issues. The same applies to Italy. Both types of support may be provided by the education authorities or at local or school level depending on the country.

Figure 3.11: Support for dealing with personal, interpersonal and professional matters in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory notes

Interpersonal relations: Support for dealing with relationships in the workplace including interpersonal conflicts involving pupils, parents and/or colleagues (e.g. disciplinary issues with pupils).

Personal/health: Support for dealing with issues of a private nature (e.g. changes in personal/family circumstances) or health problems including mental health issues.

Professional: Specific support for individual teachers in developing and improving their professional practice (excluding CPD activities).

In one group of countries, education authorities either offer this assistance directly to teachers on request (Hungary, Malta and Liechtenstein) or they support a general service to provide it (Ireland, France and Luxembourg). In Spain, the service is made available by some Autonomous Communities.

In **France**, teachers can get specific support for personal matters and interpersonal relations from the *académies* and also from the network Prevention, Aid and Follow-up (*Prévention, Aide et Suivi*), a joint partnership between the education authorities and the health insurance system.

In **Ireland**, the Occupational Health Strategy is a supportive resource for employees to promote their health in their workplace comprising the Employee Assistance and Occupational Health Services. The Employee Assistance Service provides teachers and their immediate family members with access to confidential counselling and assists in coping with the effect of personal and work-related issues.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, outside the school, the charity *Education Support Partnership* is also dedicated to improving the health and wellbeing of the entire education workforce through a telephone support line, online support resources, bespoke training programmes, campaigning and research.

The second group includes countries where support to teachers for inter-personal relations and/or personal matters is organised at local or school level. In the French Community of Belgium, Germany (most *Länder*), Switzerland and Iceland, this support is made available by external providers. In Denmark (primary and lower secondary education), Italy, the United Kingdom (Scotland) and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, it may be offered by the school or by the local authorities depending on the municipality. In the remaining education systems, it is provided in school by the psychological or counselling services (Lithuania, Austria, Slovenia, Albania, Montenegro and Serbia), the school head (Bulgaria, Cyprus and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)) or staff members dealing with inter-personal conflicts (trained teachers in the Czech Republic and interdisciplinary teams in Portugal). In Greece, support to teachers for inter-personal relations and personal matters is offered by the school with the assistance of school advisors when necessary. In the Netherlands, Finland and Sweden, school providers must make available an occupational health professional to support teachers in personal matters; providers have autonomy in deciding how to organise support for inter-personal relations with other colleagues, pupils and parents.

In addition to support for inter-personal relations and personal matters, teachers may also receive support for developing and improving their professional practice. This is the case in 26 education systems. This support refers to the specific guidance and help that teachers may receive to develop particular skills or deal with specific challenges. It excludes mentoring and CPD (see Sections 3.1 and 3.2).

In 10 education systems, this support is provided outside the school by the education ministry (Luxembourg and Liechtenstein) or by pedagogical/education training institutes (Germany, Spain, France, Hungary, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Switzerland and Liechtenstein). In three of these countries, teachers can also receive peer support in their schools (from 'Master Teachers' in Hungary and from expert groups in Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina).

In **Spain**, the Guidance Teams are multidisciplinary services supporting the development of teachers' professional competences to deal with diversity and general learning difficulties in primary education. Secondary schools usually have their own guidance departments. Educational resources are also made available on the web sites of the National Institute of Educational Technologies and Teacher Training and the National Centre for Educational Innovation and Research. Several Autonomous Communities have also developed their own portals with online resource centres and teacher networks.

In the remaining 16 education systems, the service is organised at school level. In Malta and Portugal, it is provided for a cluster of schools. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom (Scotland), schools

have the autonomy to decide how to organise it. In the other countries, this support is offered in school by professional specialists (Estonia, Croatia, Montenegro and Serbia), qualified teachers (Poland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Norway) or school heads (the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)).

In **Italy**, top-level regulations provide for peer support in schools and school networks, which can be provided by professional specialists, qualified teachers and school heads. The three-year National Plan for Digital Education (*Piano Nazionale Scuola Digitale*), which aims to improve the digital competencies of teachers and pupils, promotes the role of 'digital animators' in schools.

In **Poland**, support to teachers for the development of their professional competences is provided by the so-called 'methodological advisors', who are responsible for advising teachers and teachers' councils on the learning process, support materials, curriculum content, methodological skills and new initiatives in teaching, through individualised advice, workshops, in-service training and networks.

CHAPTER 4: CAREER DEVELOPMENT

This chapter examines the opportunities available to fully qualified, in-service teachers to develop their career. Career development is considered here both in terms of progression through the various levels of the career structure, and progression in terms of experience gained through undertaking additional responsibilities. The chapter also looks at the provision of guidance to help teachers progress through the system and examines the competence frameworks which underpin the career structure.

Having good career prospects may be an important factor in helping teachers remain motivated throughout their career. It encourages them to develop the skills they need to keep pace with the changing educational environment and to continue providing high quality teaching to pupils.

The first section of this chapter explores the types of career structure in place in European countries – investigating whether a formal structure exists and, where this is the case, the process for moving to the next level.

The opportunities for teachers to widen their experience are examined in Section 2. The various roles and responsibilities teachers can have in addition to their teaching duties such as mentoring, coordinating subjects or managing school activities are discussed.

The third section considers guidance for teachers to help them manage their career. These are support measures directly linked to career development. The pedagogical and psychological support available to teachers is analysed in Section 3.3.

No examination of career development would be complete without considering whether it operates within an official competence framework. The last section therefore looks at how teacher competences are defined by top-level education authorities and how they are used in relation to teachers' progression through the different stages of their career.

4.1. The career structure for teachers

The quality of teaching is commonly recognised as one of the key factors in ensuring positive educational outcomes for pupils. It is therefore important for teachers to be able to continue developing and improving their skills throughout their career and, most importantly, to remain motivated to teach. Several elements may play a role in this respect, such as CPD (see Section 3.2), meaningful appraisal and feedback systems (see Chapter 5), collaboration between teachers and good career prospects.

This section analyses the opportunities for fully qualified teachers to progress to the upper levels in the career structure whilst retaining some responsibility for teaching. It shows the education systems where the career structure is flat (single level) or hierarchical (multi-level). For those with multi-level career structures, it explores the relationship between promotion to a higher career level and salary progression, as well as the requirements for promotion and the level of authority at which promotions are decided.

Only promotions to posts that continue to have teaching responsibilities are considered. For instance, the promotion to a headship where the role is purely administrative is excluded as is the promotion of a teacher to a management or administrative role which does not involve any teaching hours.

4.1.1. Types of career structure and progression

'Career structure' is defined here as a recognised progression pathway within a job or a profession. Career structures may have one or more levels:

- In multi-level career structures, the levels are usually defined by a set of competences and/or responsibilities. Within a multi-level career structure, different career levels are structured in terms of ascending complexity and greater responsibility. A salary scale may be linked to the career structure, but is not its determining feature.
- Career structures with only one level are referred to as 'flat career structures' in this report. A salary scale may be in use but it usually relates to years spent in service and, possibly, performance. A flat career structure may allow for a teacher to widen their experience or take on additional tasks or responsibilities.

In several countries, the initial teacher salary varies according to the level of qualification at the recruitment stage. When a teacher has a qualification level – or in some cases a number of credits – higher than the minimum requirement, the initial salary awarded is above the minimum. Furthermore, whilst in service, a teacher may also be awarded a salary increase for obtaining a higher qualification level (e.g. a PhD). However, these enhancements are not considered here as promotions within a multi-level career structure.

Similarly, accessing to another status through a different type of competitive examination is not considered to be a promotion.

In **France**, two main competitive examinations are organised for secondary teachers in general education: *certification* and *agrégation*. The *agrégation* is recognised as higher level competition, with a higher salary scale and fewer teaching hours. A teacher recruited with the *certification* may later obtain the *agrégation*, but this is a change of status, not of career level.

Flat and multi-level career structures

Figure 4.1 shows that half of the European education systems have an advancement system based on a multi-level structure and half of them have a flat career structure where teachers cannot move to higher career levels. Germany is the only country where both types of career structure exist, however, the multi-level career structure is limited to teachers qualified to teach at upper secondary level. In the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, a multi-level career system has recently been adopted and should have been applied in 2016/17. However, due to budgetary constraints, the new system has not yet been implemented.

For education systems with a multi-level career structure, several types of scale exist (see Annexe 1). For instance:

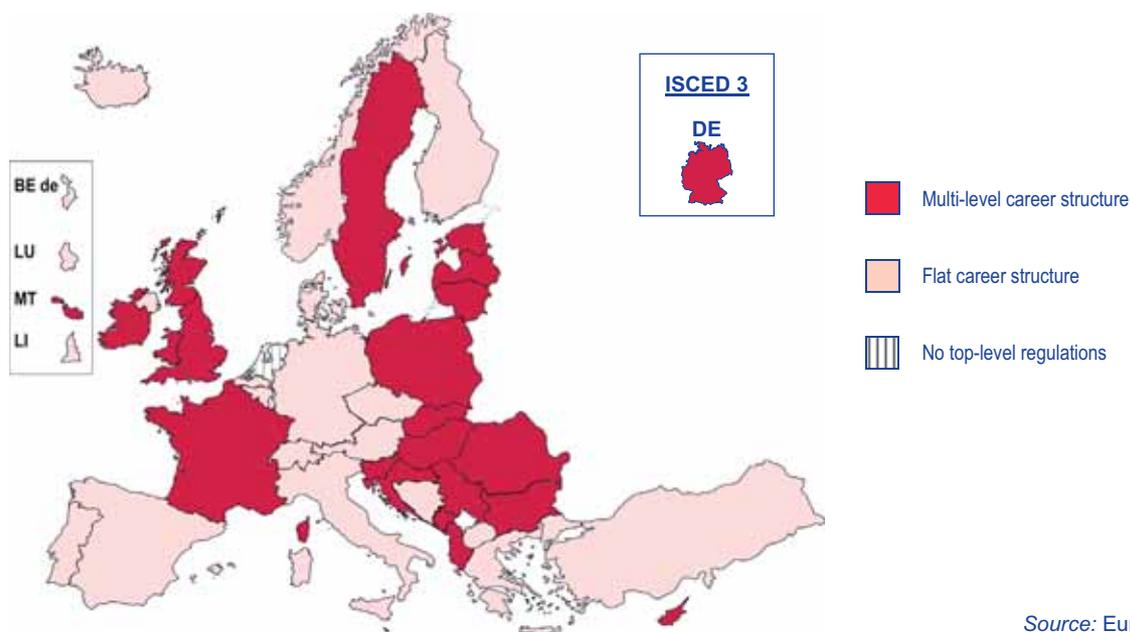
In **Cyprus**, the three career levels in secondary education correspond to a progression in the school management: 1. 'Teacher' (*kathigitis*), 2. 'Deputy Head Teacher' (*boithos diefthintis*) and 3. 'Deputy Head Teacher A' (*boithos diefthintis A*).

In **Latvia**, the career structure is based on five 'Quality Levels' (*kvalitātes pakāpe 1-5*). Teachers have to choose the 'Quality Level' against which they would like to be evaluated. They may apply to a higher 'Quality Level' without having formerly passed the lower ones.

In **Romania**, the career structure has four different levels reflecting an increase in teaching experience: 1. 'Beginner Teacher' (*profesor debutant*) – who has completed ITE and passed the first examination (*titularizare*) out of two needed to be considered as a fully qualified teacher –, 2. 'Teacher' (*profesor cu definitivare în învățământ*), 3. 'Teacher with Teaching Level II' (*profesor gradul II*) and 4. 'Teacher with Teaching Level I' (*profesor gradul I*). The teacher competence framework defines the competences required for the two upper teacher career levels.

In **Montenegro**, the career levels reflect the evolution in terms of the roles of a teacher: 1. 'Trainee Teacher' (*nastavnik pripravnik*) – not yet fully qualified – 2. 'Teacher' (*nastavnik*), 3. 'Teacher Mentor' (*nastavnik mentor*), 4. 'Teacher Advisor' (*nastavnik savjetnik*), 5. 'Senior Teacher Advisor' (*nastavnik viši savjetnik*). The highest level is 'Teacher Researcher' (*nastavnik istraživač*) but this career level may be attained without gradual progression, as long as a teacher meets the required criteria for this level.

Figure 4.1: Types of career structure for fully qualified teachers as defined by the top-level education authority, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The promotion of teachers to a non-teaching post is not considered (e.g. teachers seconded to bodies in charge of inspection, research or education administration).

Changes due to the acquisition of a higher qualification/degree after recruitment or the change of status through passing a different competitive examination are excluded.

Country-specific notes

Germany: In some *Länder*, ISCED 1 and 2 teachers may be promoted within a two-level career structure (grades A12 and A13). This type of promotion, limited to some *Länder*, is not taken into account in this report.

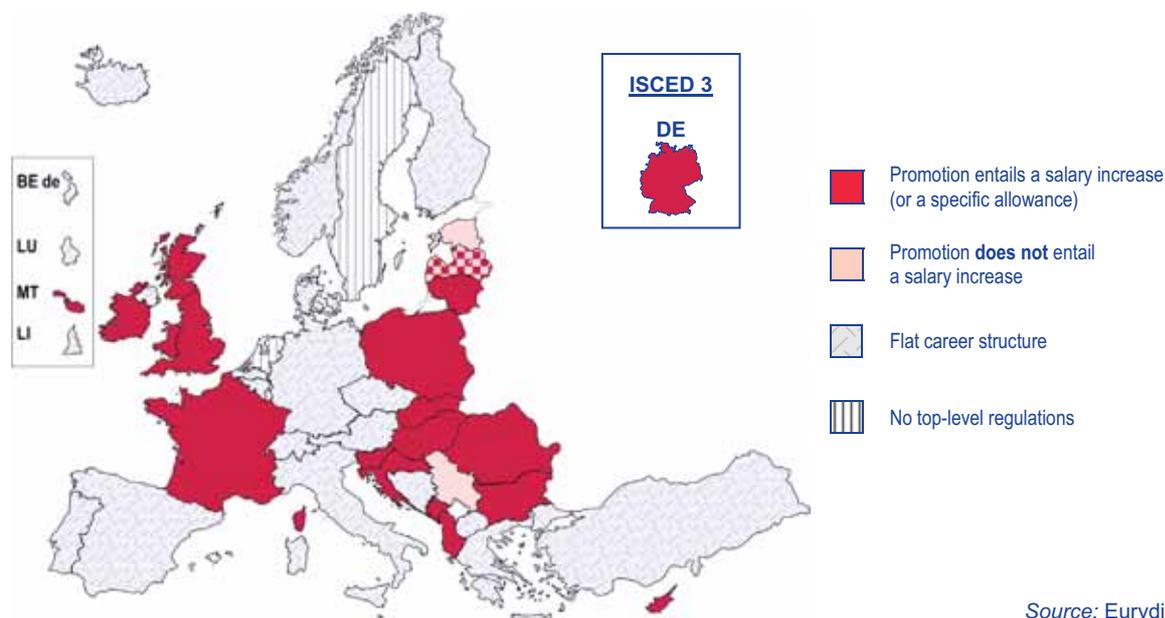
Netherlands: Social partners set the framework for a multi-level career structure through collective agreements. School boards are responsible for its interpretation and adaptation at school level.

Career progression and salary

As shown in Figure 4.2, promotion to a higher level in the career structure is linked to a salary increase in most of the countries with a multi-level career structure (Annexe 1 includes an indication of the relative salary increases in some countries). In Ireland, France and Latvia (upper career levels only), promoted teachers do not receive a higher salary but a specific allowance on top of their incremental salary, depending on the promotion.

Only in Estonia and Serbia is promotion to a higher level in the career structure not linked to a salary increase. However, in these countries, a higher career level opens the way to more varied tasks (see Section 4.2).

Figure 4.2: Relationship between promotion to a higher level in the career structure and a salary increase, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

For data on the level of increase, see Annexe 1. These data have not been harmonised and are therefore not comparable across countries.

Country-specific notes

Latvia: Only promotions to 'Quality Levels' 3 to 5 (*kvalitātes pakāpe*) entail a specific allowance.

Sweden: A promotion usually corresponds to a substantial salary increase.

4.1.2. Requirements for promotion and decision-makers in multi-level career structures

Requirements

Figure 4.3 shows the requirements for promotions to a higher career level. Six criteria are considered: a positive evaluation/appraisal, the length of professional experience, the demonstration of specific competences, specific professional development, research activities and running or designing CPD courses. Among these possible requirements, the first three apply to almost three quarters of education systems that have a multi-level career structure.

The evaluation/appraisal can be conducted as part of the standard teacher evaluation process or on an ad-hoc basis for promotion purposes. However, the promotion is rarely decided by the evaluator, except in education systems where school heads are both in charge of the promotion decision and the appraisal.

While many countries consider the length of experience for promotion to a higher level, Sweden is the only country where this is the only requirement set down by the top-level education authority. Teachers must have a minimum of four years of experience in the profession. However, school heads are free to determine additional promotion criteria and may promote a limited number of teachers.

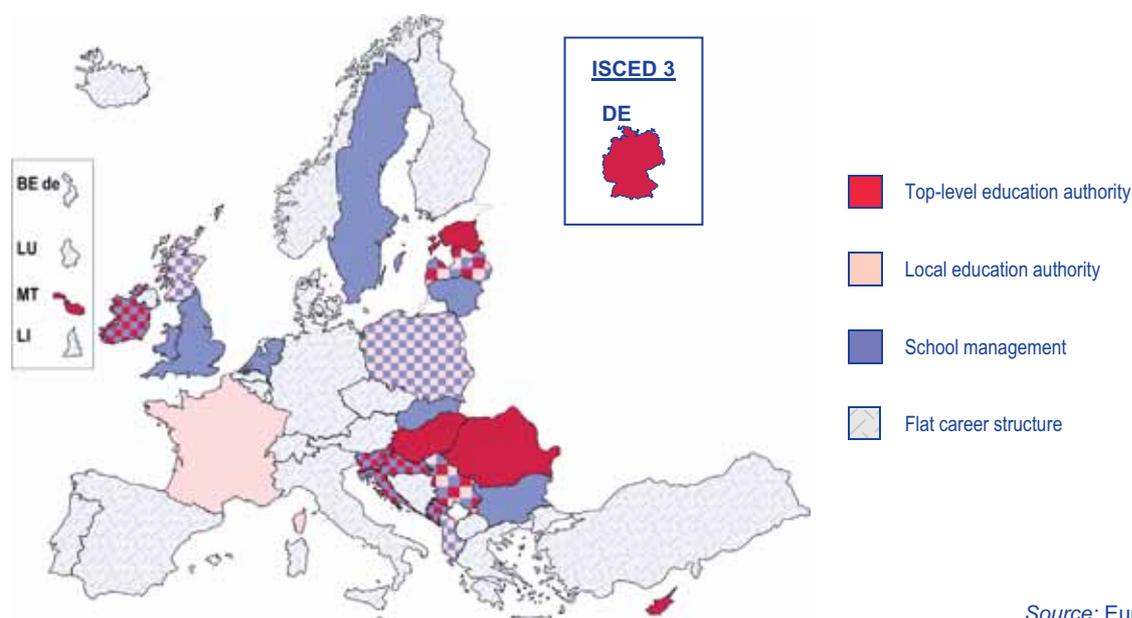
Specific competences may be required such as experience as an expert or a teacher trainer. They can be demonstrated in different ways: via a certification, a test, an evaluation, etc.

In **Croatia**, as part of the procedure for promotion, a candidate for the position of 'Teacher Mentor' (*učitelj/professor – mentor*) or 'Teacher Advisor' (*učitelj/professor – savjetnik*) is evaluated by the school head and the pedagogical expert from the Teacher Training and Education Agency, the central quality assurance body for general school education.

In **Slovenia**, the school head usually nominates candidates for promotion to the Ministry of Education following the candidates' appraisal at school level. Teachers may also apply directly to the Ministry. In this case, they are also evaluated by the school head and school teachers' assembly.

In **Montenegro**, the school head usually proposes candidates for promotion to a commission constituted by the Ministry of Education. Teachers may also apply directly to this commission.

Figure 4.4: Decision-makers involved in promoting a fully qualified teacher to a higher level in the career structure, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The top-level education authority may delegate this decision-making process to another central body (e.g. national quality assurance body for education).

School management can mean the school head alone or the body set up to help manage the school.

Country-specific note

France: The decision-maker is the *académie* – the main administrative district of the Ministry of Education.

In two countries, the three levels of decision-makers – the top-level education authority, the local level and the school level – are involved in promoting a teacher to a higher level in the career structure:

In **Latvia**, the school head is responsible for promoting to 'Quality Levels' 1 to 3, with the approval of the local authority. The local authority is responsible for promoting to 'Quality Level 4', with the approval of the top-level authority. The latter decides on promotions to 'Quality Level 5'.

In **Serbia**, the school professional and pedagogical council and the educational advisor of the local education authority must always be consulted before promoting a teacher to a higher level. The final decision is taken by the school head for the first two career levels – 'Pedagogical Advisor' (*pedagoški savetnik*) and 'Independent Pedagogical Advisor' (*samostalni pedagoški savetnik*). For the two upper career levels – 'Higher Pedagogical Advisor' (*viši pedagoški savetnik*) and 'Senior Pedagogical Advisor' (*visoki pedagoški savetnik*) –, the decision is taken by the Institute for Education Advancement which is a central body.

In three education systems, local authorities and the school management are involved:

In **Poland**, the authority level depends on the stage in the promotion process. Teachers in schools are promoted to 'Contract Teacher' (*nauczyciel kontraktowy*) roles by the school head and to 'Appointed Teacher' (*nauczyciel mianowany*) roles by the school

- pupil support: learning coaches, remedial education coordinator, special education coordinator, guidance officer;
- school life: class teacher/tutor, project coordinator, home/school liaison coordinator;
- ITE/CPD: CPD coordinator, teacher trainer;
- evaluation: advisor/inspector for other schools, examination coordinator.

In more than half of the education systems, teachers may be granted management responsibilities while they still have teaching hours. They may for instance become school head or deputy school head.

In the education systems with a multi-level career structure, some of the additional responsibilities are related to specific career levels. For instance:

In **Bulgaria** and **Romania**, only teachers at the highest career level – respectively ‘Chief Teacher’ (*glaven uchitel*) and ‘Teacher with Teaching Level I’ (*profesor gradul I*) – can become mentors.

In **Slovenia**, in order to become a mentor, a teacher should either have one of the two higher roles – ‘Advisor’ (*svetovalec*) or ‘Counsellor’ (*svetnik*) – or have been in the career level ‘Mentor’ (*mentor*) for at least five years. One of the requirements for a teacher to be appointed as a member of the National Committee for Assessment of Knowledge in Basic Schools is that he/she has been promoted to one of the two higher career levels.

In **Serbia**, a teacher needs to have been promoted to one of the two higher career levels – ‘Higher Pedagogical Advisor’ (*viši pedagoški savetnik*) or ‘Senior Pedagogical Advisor’ (*visoki pedagoški savetnik*) – in order to be able to lead educational research at local, regional or national level.

In **Hungary**, a teacher with a PhD can apply for a five-year ‘Teacher Researcher’ status (*kutatótanár*). During this five-year period, the mini mum salary of a ‘Teacher Researcher’ is higher than the minimum salary of a ‘Master Teacher’ (*mester pedagógus*) – the highest level in the career structure not requiring a PhD.

In several of the education systems with a flat career structure, some of the additional responsibilities may carry a specific financial incentive. This is, for instance, the case in the German-speaking Community of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Spain, Italy, Latvia, Austria, the United Kingdom (Northern Ireland), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iceland and Norway.

4.3. Career guidance for serving teachers

This section focuses on career guidance specifically for teachers in service, which is considered here to mean support for teachers in managing and planning their progression within the teaching profession. It includes the provision of information, coaching or counselling with a view to advancing a teacher’s career. For education systems with a flat-career structure, career guidance may be offered on the wider roles/responsibilities open to teachers, on improving their qualification levels or enhancing their official teacher status. Guidance limited to CPD provision or pedagogical and psychological support is not considered here. Guidance for candidates entering the profession or for teachers in service wishing to change their profession is also excluded.

Career guidance, as defined here, is rare in European countries (see Figure 4.6). Only three countries have made career guidance a legal requirement specifically for serving teachers:

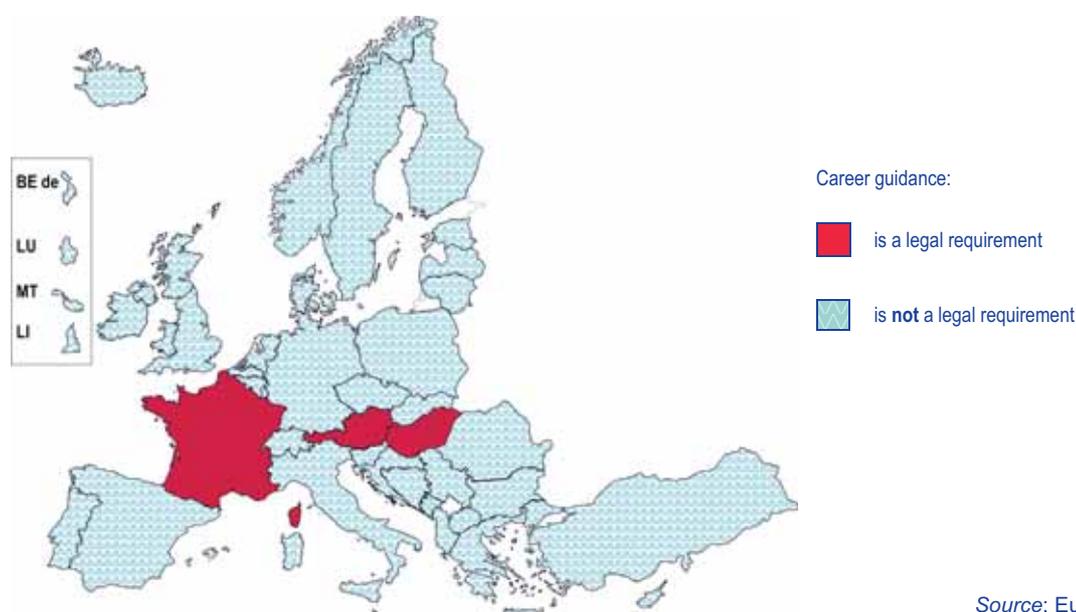
In **France**, each *académie* – the main administrative district of the Ministry of Education – has a dedicated service for career guidance with career mobility counsellors who provide guidance face to face through individual appointments. This service also offers information online and through leaflets. The Ministry of Education also provides useful online information for career development on several web sites such as the Ministry’s own web site, the electronic platform for teachers – *Espace I-Prof*s –, or the ‘Become a

Teacher' web site (*Devenir enseignant*)⁽¹⁾. Teachers' unions also serve as resource centres providing a variety of information on teaching careers (legal aspects, latest news, advice, etc.).

In **Hungary**, the Pedagogical Educational Centres (POK) which are regional branches of the educational top-level authority are responsible for career guidance and support. Each year in January, they carry out a survey on teachers' support needs concerning their advancement in the teaching career. Based on this survey, POKs allocate counsellors to teachers who expressed their needs so that they can be guided and get support in filling their portfolios for promotion. Counsellors are 'Master Teachers' (*mester pedagógus – szaktanácsadó*) specialised for teacher support, who spend a proportion of their working time on the provision of career guidance and CPD support for teachers. Every year, the educational authority also organises one day workshops providing information on teachers' possibilities for promotion.

In **Austria**, career guidance is provided by counselling services managed by the local education authorities (provinces). It is also part of the teacher training colleges' mission to organise programmes for career guidance. The Career Counselling for Teachers website, supported by the Ministry of Education, also provides information on the additional responsibilities teachers may get to widen their experience⁽²⁾.

Figure 4.6: Career guidance targeting fully qualified serving teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

Guidance for candidates to the profession or for teachers in service wishing to change profession is not considered. Career guidance not specifically targeting fully qualified serving teachers is not considered here.

Country-specific notes

Spain: The Figure represents the situation at national level. Navarra provides career guidance for teachers in service.

Slovenia: Information on applying for promotion to a higher career level is available on the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport web site⁽³⁾.

Switzerland: Universities delivering ITE or cantonal agencies offer support to teachers. This support may also include career guidance.

Liechtenstein: The Education Office has a framework contract with the University of Teacher Education in Zürich (Switzerland), to provide schools with a maximum of 10 hours' support per year. The services provided may include career guidance as well as pedagogical support and coaching. Both school heads and teachers are eligible.

⁽¹⁾ See <http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid23346/preparer-sa-mobilite.html>, <http://www.devenirenseignant.gouv.fr/cid99161/evoluer-enseigner-autrement-durant-carriere.html> and <http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid2674/i-prof-l-assistant-carriere.html>

⁽²⁾ <http://studierende.cct-austria.at/karrieren-im-bildungsbereich>

⁽³⁾ See http://www.mizs.gov.si/si/storitve/izobrazevanje/napredovanje_v_nazive/

4.4. Teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities

In 2013, the European Commission Thematic Working Group 'Teacher Professional Development' published its final report on the development of teacher competences for better learning outcomes. In this report, teaching is acknowledged as requiring 'complex and dynamic combinations of knowledge, skills, understanding, values and attitudes; their acquisition and development is a career-long endeavour that requires a reflexive, purposeful practice and high quality feedback' (European Commission, 2013a, p. 43). Thus teacher development is considered to be an on-going process, starting with ITE and continuing throughout a teacher's career. The 2017 report of the European Commission's Thematic Working Group 'Schools', underlines the different purposes a competence framework can serve: 'If [teacher competence frameworks or professional standards] provide the opportunity for dialogue, rather than serving as mechanistic tick-lists, they can help promote quality in the teaching profession by increasing transparency, by helping teachers deploy and develop their professional competences and by promoting teacher agency, empowerment and responsibility' (European Commission, 2017, p. 28).

In 2014, the Council also encouraged European countries to promote the development of 'comprehensive professional competence frameworks for teachers' ⁽⁴⁾. This section therefore provides the current state of play in European countries, investigating the level of detail at which existing competence frameworks are operating and showing the ways in which they are used. Only teacher competence frameworks established by top-level education authorities are considered.

4.4.1. Implementation of teacher competence frameworks

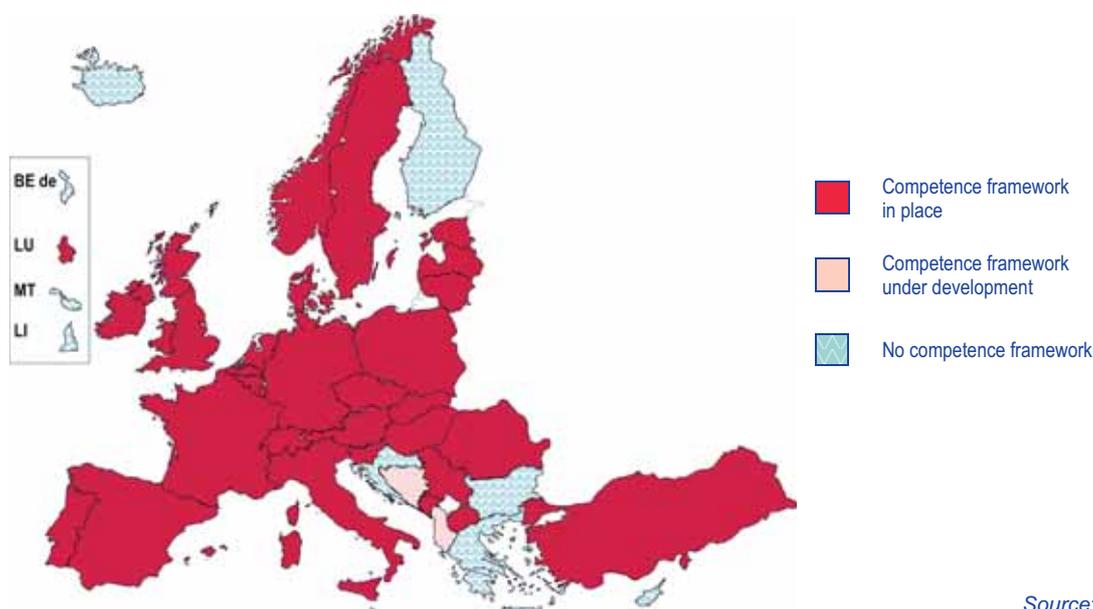
A teacher competence framework, as defined in this report, is a collection of statements about what a teacher as a professional should know, understand and be able to do. The framework may be set down in any type of official document issued by a top-level education authority – a list of the documents referred to can be found in Annexe 2. The framework may be used for a variety of purposes, including identifying individual development needs and improving the skills of the teaching workforce in general.

The official documents in which competence frameworks are published may include legislative documents (decrees, laws, etc.), regulations (for ITE or of CPD), or national plans, as well as stand-alone texts focusing on teacher competences or teacher standards. The level of detail provided in these documents may vary when describing the knowledge, skills and competences teachers should acquire.

Figure 4.7 shows that a vast majority of countries already have in place a teacher competence framework defined by the top-level education authority. Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina are in the process of developing one. Nine education systems have no teacher competence framework nor have plans to introduce one: the German-speaking Community of Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Croatia, Cyprus, Malta, Finland, Iceland and Liechtenstein.

⁽⁴⁾ Council Conclusions of 20 May 2014 on effective teacher education, OJ C 183, 14.6.2014.

Figure 4.7: Teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

4.4.2. Areas of competence and level of detail

All existing teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities define areas of competence. Some of these competence areas are common to almost all the frameworks considered here, although they may be described in different ways: they include psycho-pedagogical competences, subject knowledge and its teaching approaches, the organisation of learning and evaluation, innovative teaching approaches, communication with pupils, cooperation with colleagues, and relationships with parents and other external partners.

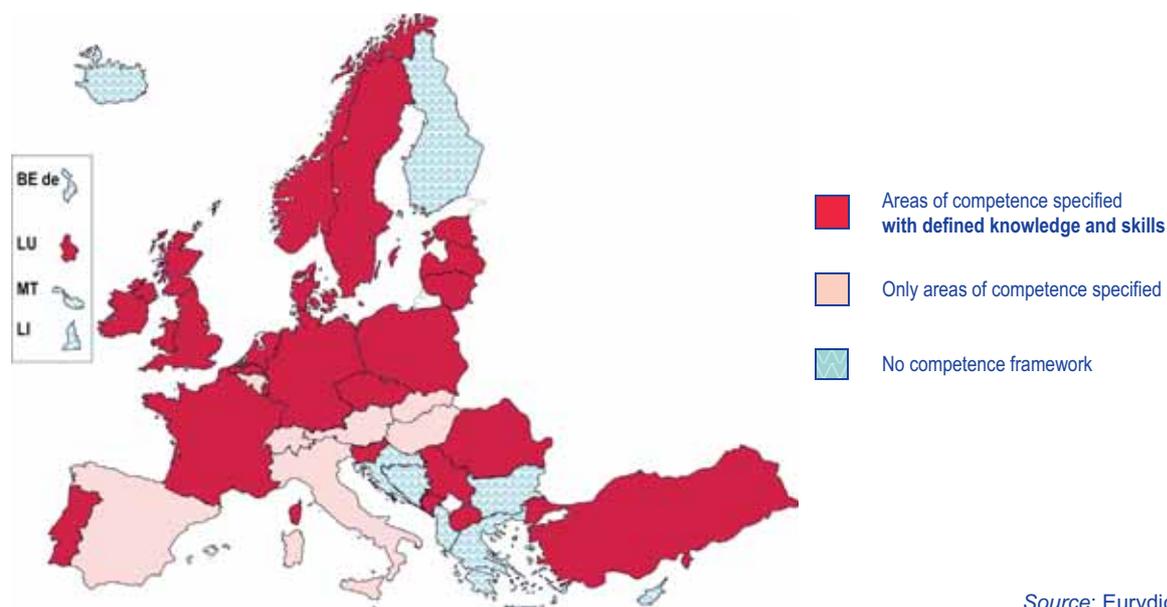
However, as shown in Figure 4.8, the level of detail varies. In seven education systems, the teacher competence frameworks list the competence areas but do not provide further detail on what they entail. This is the case in the French Community of Belgium, Spain, Italy, Hungary, Austria, Slovakia and Switzerland. For instance:

In the **French Community of Belgium**, the teacher competence framework issued by the top-level authority has 13 competence areas such as 'effective partnership relationships with the institution, colleagues and parents', 'mastering the subject-related teaching approaches', 'working as a team within the school', 'having a critical and independent view on past and future scientific knowledge', 'taking a reflective approach to one's own practice and arranging one's own continuing professional development'. However there is no further detail on what these areas cover.

In over three quarters of the education systems with a teacher competence framework issued by a top-level authority, the competence areas also provide more detail on the specific skills involved. For instance:

In the **Netherlands**, teacher competences are divided into seven different areas. For each area, the general objective is provided, as well as the required skills and knowledge. For instance, the *objective* for the 'competences in the subject and teaching approaches' area is that the teacher should be able to create a powerful learning environment in a modern, professional and organised manner so that each child can acquire the cultural knowledge expected in society. One of the five *specific skills* mentioned for this competence area is that 'teachers have a clear picture of the extent to which children master the learning content and the way in which they deal with their work'. One of the nine elements of *knowledge* and understanding for the same area is to 'know how language control and language acquisition influence learning and how to take this into account in practice'.

Figure 4.8: Level of detail provided in teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific note

Spain: The Figure reflects the situation at central level. The Autonomous Community of Castilla y León lists competence areas with skills by area.

In four education systems, competences are described for different stages:

In the **Flemish Community of Belgium**, the Decision on Teachers' Professional Profile describes the competences required of all teachers. Derived from it, the decision on teachers' basic competences indicates the competences a prospective teacher should have acquired by the end of their initial teacher training in order to be able to start teaching.

In **Estonia**, the teacher competence framework indicates the required competences for a 'Teacher' (*õpetaja*). It also specifies the additional competences needed for the upper career levels. A 'Senior Teacher' (*vanemõpetaja*) should also support the development of other teachers and contribute to developing teaching methodology in his/her own institution. A 'Master Teacher' (*meisterõpetaja*) should participate in the development of creative activities inside and outside the institution and should operate in close cooperation with a university. It is worth noting that the career levels 'Teacher' (*õpetaja*) and 'Senior Teacher' (*vanemõpetaja*) are classified as level 7 EQF, while 'Master Teacher' (*meisterõpetaja*) is classified as Level 8 EQF.

In **Latvia**, the teacher competence framework, attached to the Procedure for Assessing the Quality of Teachers' Professional Activity, specifies the competences required for each of the five 'Quality Levels' (*Kvalitātes pakāpes*). For instance, teachers at 'Quality Level 4' – in addition to mastering the competences of the first three 'Quality Levels' – should be actively involved in the implementation of the municipal school development plan and in the transfer of their methodological work experience. At 'Quality Level 5', teachers should also be actively involved in the national education development strategy and should transfer their experience purposefully and methodically to others.

In the **United Kingdom**, the Standards for Registration, the General Teaching Council for **Scotland** defines for each competence two different levels of attainment: the Standard for Provisional Registration sets out the level needed to provisionally register as a teacher and the Standard for Full Registration sets out the level required to be fully registered at the end of the probationary period.

4.4.3. Different uses of teacher competence frameworks

While teacher competence frameworks may have been developed initially for a specific purpose, such as accrediting initial teacher education programmes, they may serve wider purposes. A teacher competence framework can be a reference tool for different stakeholders: education decision-makers, initial teacher training institutions, CPD providers, mentors and evaluators, as well as candidate and

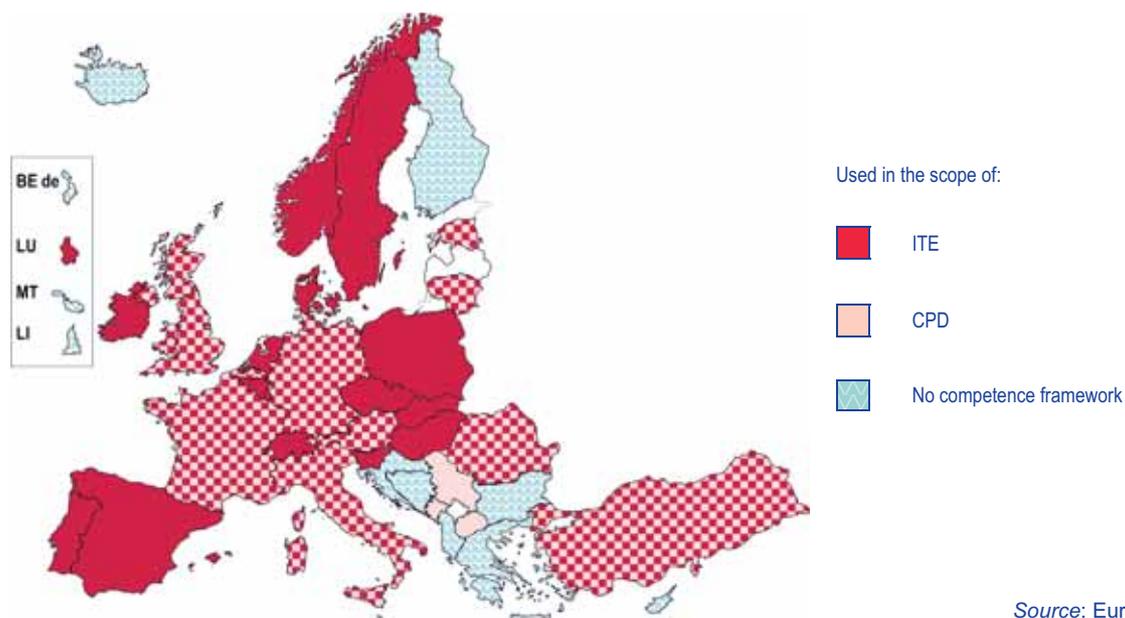
serving teachers. The competence framework should also be a reference tool for the various stages of development of a teacher.

Annexe 3 provides information on the different uses of teacher competence frameworks according to nine different criteria organised into four categories:

1. ITE: defining the learning outcomes to be acquired by the end of ITE;
2. Entry to the profession: teacher accreditation/licensing criteria, selection/recruitment criteria, assessing teacher competences at the end of induction;
3. CPD: developing CPD programmes, preparing individual teachers' CPD plans;
4. Other: teacher appraisal/evaluation criteria, teacher promotion, disciplinary procedures/cases of serious misconduct.

Figure 4.9 indicates the use of teacher competence frameworks for ITE on the one hand, and for CPD purposes on the other – this is intended to show whether the frameworks are used as a benchmark throughout teachers' careers or whether their use is restricted to a particular phase.

Figure 4.9: Use of teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

A table presenting more detail on the different uses made of teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities is available in Annexe 3.

ITE, according to Annexe 3, means that the competence frameworks are used for defining learning outcomes to be acquired by the end of ITE.

CPD, according to Annexe 3, means that competence frameworks are used in one of the following two procedures: 'developing CPD programmes' and/or 'preparing individual teachers' CPD plans'.

Country-specific notes

Spain: The Figure reflects the situation at central level. The Autonomous Community of Castilla y León mentions the use of the teacher competence framework for CPD.

Latvia: The teacher competence framework is not used for either ITE nor CPD.

Over one third of the education systems with teacher competence frameworks use them throughout teachers' careers, i.e. both for ITE and CPD. This is the case of Belgium (Flemish Community), Germany, Estonia, France, Italy, Lithuania, Austria, Romania, the United Kingdom (all four jurisdictions) and Turkey.

Almost half of the education systems with teacher competence frameworks use them for the initial phase, but not for CPD. This is the case in Belgium (French Community), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Ireland, Spain, Luxembourg, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia, Slovakia, Sweden, Switzerland and Norway.

In three countries, the teacher competence framework is used in relation to CPD but not for ITE (the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia).

Teacher competence frameworks can be used for other purposes as well, such as career advancement, appraisal and disciplinary measures. For instance:

In **Estonia**, the teacher competence framework, Professional Standards for Teachers, is used for teacher advancement to a higher career level.

In **France**, teacher appraisal must take the teacher competence framework into account.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, where a teacher is involved in a disciplinary procedure or suspected of serious misconduct, he/she is assessed against the standards as set out in the General Teaching Council for Scotland Code of Professionalism and Conduct.

CHAPTER 5: TEACHER APPRAISAL

Teacher appraisal is a process intended to assess individual teachers' performance and ensure that they have the skills needed to carry out their role effectively. As well as examining their performance in the classroom, appraisal can also involve an evaluation of a teacher's contribution to the broader objectives of the school in which they work. Usually, appraisal is carried out separately from other quality assurance processes such as school evaluation, although it can take place as part of these procedures. Teacher appraisal can be carried out by appraisers from within the school or external evaluators may be involved. It can be based on frameworks established by the authorities responsible for education, or it may follow procedures developed at school level and agreed between school leaders and teachers. Methods and approaches also vary and can draw on a range of information from classroom observations to parent and/or pupil surveys.

This chapter analyses how teacher appraisal operates in Europe. It is divided into two broad sections.

The first part of the chapter looks at the structure and scope of the appraisal system, covering the existence of regulations, the monitoring by top-level authorities, the extent and aims of teacher appraisal, its contribution to defining professional development needs or to managing under-performance, and finally which teachers are subject to appraisal.

The second section of the chapter analysis its practical implementation by identifying who appraises teachers, which frameworks, methods and instruments are used, and if rating systems for teachers exist.

The chapter makes a broad distinction between appraisal for new teachers and appraisal for serving teachers. In the first section, these two aspects are discussed separately in order to better capture their structural elements. In the second part of the chapter, however, these two aspects are examined together, although differences are highlighted where they exist. Appraisal carried-out only in exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct are out of scope and not analysed in this chapter.

5.1. Structure and scope of the teacher appraisal system

Teacher appraisal may serve different purposes and be used in many ways: it can have either a formative or summative nature or, as is more often the case, a mixture of the two; it can be designed for new teachers, serving teachers, or both; moreover, it can be linked to promotion and professional development needs, or be a way to provide teachers with feedback on their performance.

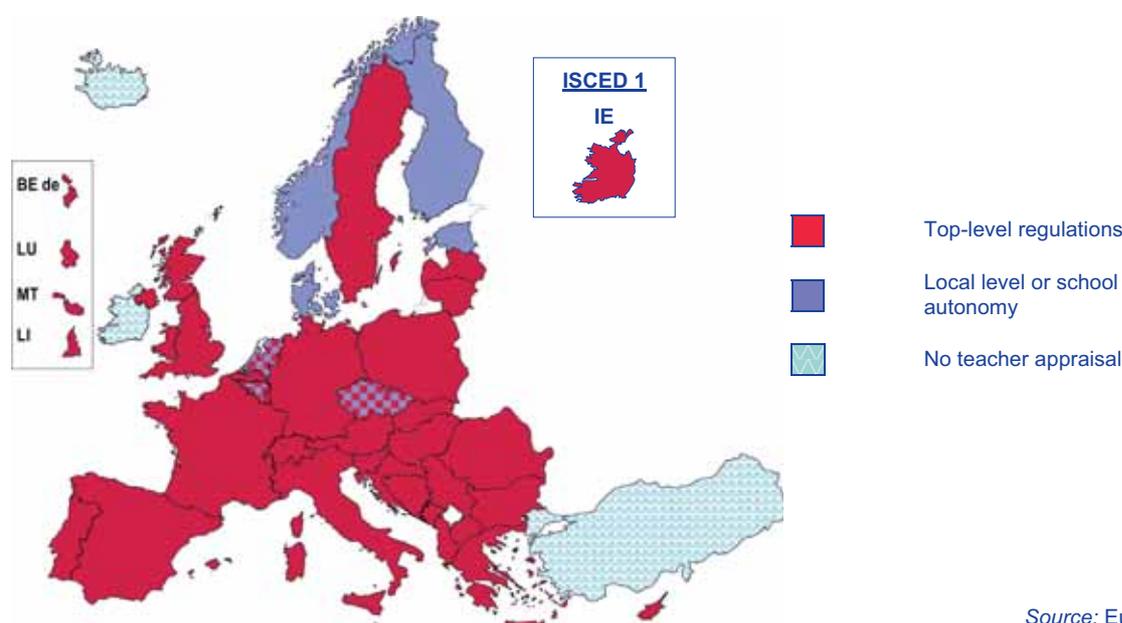
This section analyses the structure and scope of teacher appraisal. First of all, it provides an overview of the regulatory framework, distinguishing the countries that have top-level regulations from those where teacher appraisal is a matter of local or school autonomy and those where there is no teacher appraisal at all. It also examines whether any monitoring is carried out by top-level authorities to assess the quality of appraisal systems. Secondly, the section analyses how appraisal is applied, distinguishing two groups of teachers: those new to the profession and those already in service. The former looks at appraisal carried out at the end of the probationary period or induction programme, while the latter deals with all other forms of appraisal for teachers in service. Appraisal for this second group of teachers is further analysed in terms of its aims and outcomes – whether it is intended only to provide teachers with feedback on their performance or whether it has other purposes such as assessing readiness for promotion. Other aspects such as the contribution of the appraisal process in identifying professional development needs or managing underperformance are also addressed.

5.1.1. Regulation and monitoring

Levels of authority involved

In the vast majority of European countries teacher appraisal is common practice. Figure 5.1 shows that in 33 education systems, regulations from top-level authorities require teacher appraisal to be carried out. In these countries, top-level regulations also usually provide a general framework for its practical implementation. In four countries (Denmark, Estonia, Finland and Norway), the top-level education authorities are not involved and schools or the local authorities that run them have full autonomy for deciding whether teachers should be appraised and how and when this should take place.

Figure 5.1: Levels of authority involved in regulating teacher appraisal in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific notes

Germany: The top-level authorities with responsibility for teacher appraisal are the *Länder*.

Switzerland: The top-level authorities competent for teacher appraisal are the Cantons. Teacher appraisal is required in the majority of the Cantons.

Turkey: Inspectors can assess the competence and work of individual teachers and provide them with feedback within the framework of school evaluation. This however is not regulated and is left to the initiative of the school inspectors.

Three education systems have hybrid arrangements whereby there is some top-level input but schools are left a good deal of autonomy. In the French Community of Belgium, teacher appraisal is not regulated as a separate process but can be carried out either by the inspectorate within the framework of school inspection, or by the school leader within the framework of school self-evaluation. In the latter case, where there is no specific framework or regulations to follow, implementation is left to the school leader. In the Czech Republic and the Netherlands, legislation requires that teacher appraisal is carried out but does not provide guidance on when and how it should be done.

In the **Czech Republic**, the national labour code, also applicable to teachers, requires that employers evaluate employees. School leaders as employers have a duty to evaluate the quality of teachers but are fully autonomous in determining how this takes place.

In the **Netherlands**, national regulations specify that schools should hold regular performance interviews with teachers, at least once every four years in primary education and once every three years in secondary education. Implementation, however, is left to schools to decide.

Only Ireland (at secondary school level), Iceland and Turkey do not have regulations on systematic appraisal for teachers.

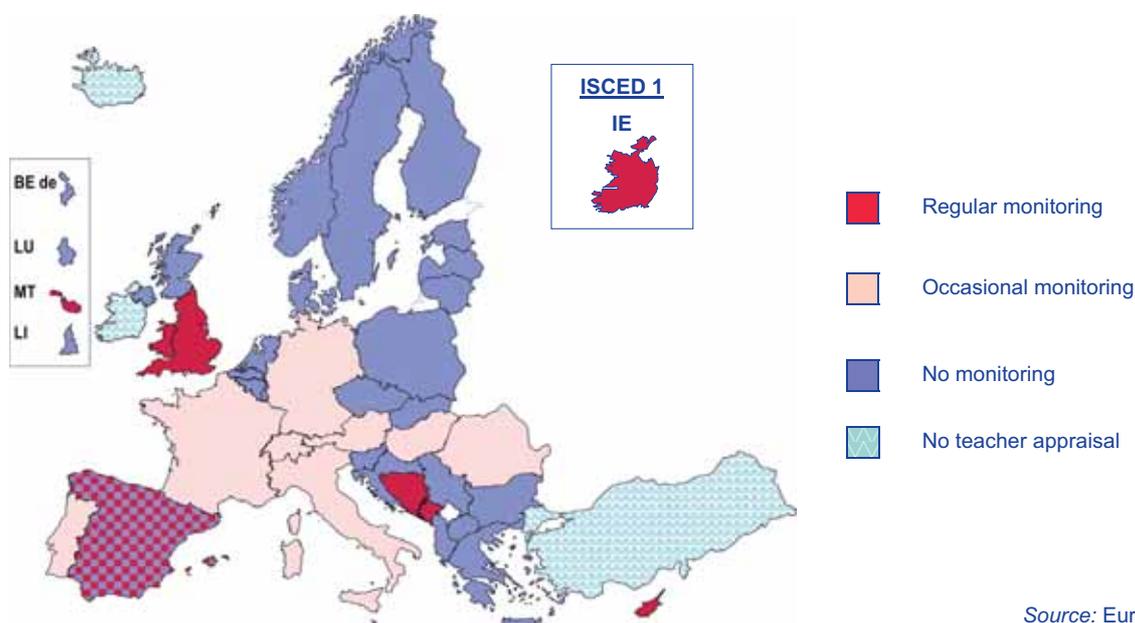
In **Ireland**, the Teaching Council is responsible for regulating the teaching profession at primary school level, including the induction and probation of newly qualified teachers. Serving teachers at all school education levels (ISCED 1, 2 and 3) may be appraised only in exceptional cases; this is carried out by the inspectorate at the request of the school board.

Monitoring the system

The monitoring of teacher appraisal is carried out with a view to assessing its quality and consistency. It usually entails an analysis of results, including positive or negative feedback expressed by those involved directly or indirectly, and any other quantitative or qualitative data available. While appraisal is regulated in the vast majority of education systems, top-level authorities rarely monitor the outcomes. In countries where appraisal is a matter of local or school autonomy, this never occurs.

Figure 5.2 shows that across Europe less than half of the education systems have some form of monitoring in place. Eight systems report the existence of regular monitoring mechanisms, while another eight carry out monitoring only occasionally.

Figure 5.2: Monitoring of the appraisal system for teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) by the top-level education authority, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific notes

Germany: Regulations vary between *Länder*.

Italy: Following the school reform introducing in-service teacher appraisal, a three year monitoring is being carried out.

Spain: The Autonomous Communities of Castilla-La Mancha, Navarra and Cantabria monitor the appraisal system regularly.

Latvia: Only statistical data on the results of appraisal is collected, without further analysis.

The top-level education authority might not conduct monitoring activities itself, but it may delegate this task to other bodies such as the inspectorate (for example in France and Cyprus) or the quality assurance agency (for example in Romania and Bosnia and Herzegovina).

In **Portugal**, the 2008 reform that introduced teacher appraisal was highly contested by teachers' unions. As a consequence, a national research committee was created with the responsibility of regularly monitoring the quality of the appraisal system. The board was abolished in 2012 but monitoring activities are being continued through external contractors on behalf of the top-level education authority.

In some systems, although monitoring is not carried out by the top-level authority, regulations provide for some form of quality assurance.

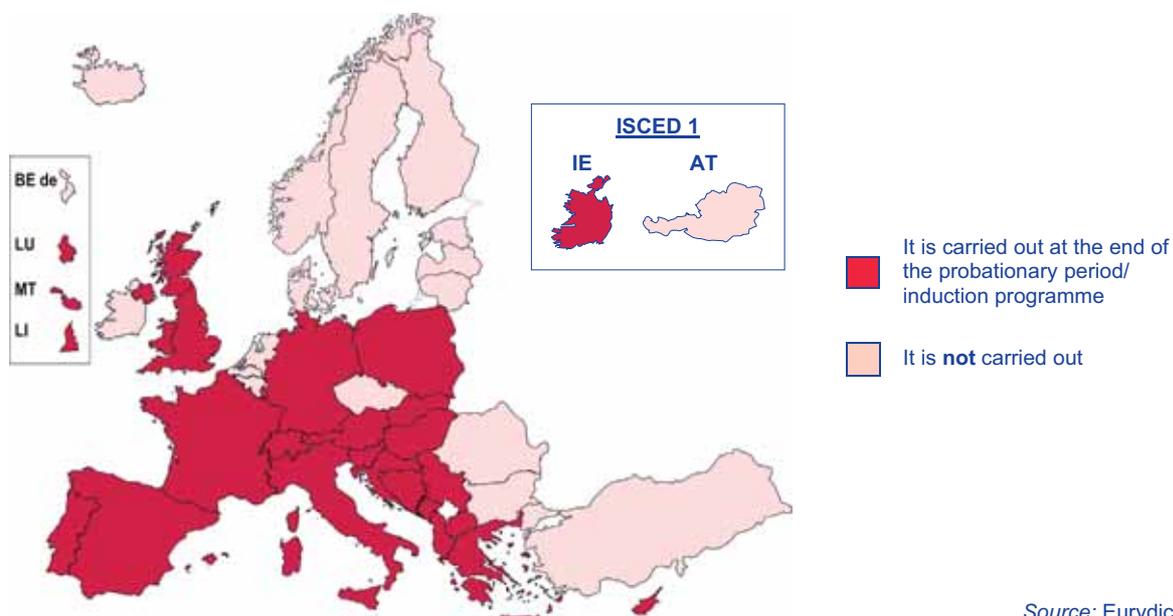
In the **United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)**, each school's Board of Governors must have procedures and processes in place to monitor and evaluate the operation and effectiveness of the appraisal scheme.

The General Teaching Council of **Scotland**, responsible for registering teachers, accredits the professional review and development system used by the local authorities to appraise teachers.

5.1.2. Appraisal of new teachers

Appraisal can take place at different times in teachers' professional lives: at the very beginning of their working life when they have completed the initial induction programme, at regular intervals for serving teachers, or at specific times in their career. The analysis of European education systems shows that a widespread approach is to assess new teachers at the end of their probationary period or induction programme. As displayed in Figure 5.3, in almost two thirds of European countries new teachers are evaluated at this moment in their career.

Figure 5.3: Appraisal for new teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE nl): Teacher appraisal takes place regularly for all teachers who work at least 104 days per school year. Beginning teachers are always appointed with temporary contracts and a negative evaluation during that period can mean a permanent employment contract is not granted or it may lead to dismissal.

Austria: Only teachers working in the *Allgemeinbildenden höheren Schulen* (ISCED 2-3) are subject to appraisal at the end of the induction programme.

Appraisal at this stage is intended to ensure that new teachers have acquired the necessary practical skills to work independently and to ensure that they have had sufficient experience in a school environment.

However, this goal is approached in different ways across Europe. In many countries, the process is largely managed within and by schools, as further described in Section 5.2.1. In others, it feeds into highly regulated proceedings that take the form of a national or state exam or contributes to a process managed by teaching councils or other bodies that formally recognise the ability of the teacher to teach. As highlighted in Chapter 2, Section 2.1, some countries require teachers to demonstrate their professional competencies before considering them as fully qualified, and in that context appraisal at the end of the induction programme or the probationary period can inform those responsible. For example:

In **Slovenia** where trainee teachers take the state professional examination organised by the Ministry of Education, applicants must have completed at least five assessed teaching presentations. These are graded by the mentor and the head teacher in the school where the induction programme was completed. It is also worth noting that school leaders can appoint a committee composed of three teachers to appraise teachers new to the school at the end of their probationary period. This latter system however is different from the former one which is limited to beginning teachers.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, those who are going through the probationary period have to have their profile signed off at school level by the school leader. The profile is then submitted to the General Teaching Council for Scotland and subsequently the individual can become registered to teach in Scotland.

In **Montenegro**, a specific commission examines the candidates also on the basis of the report filed by the trainee teacher's mentor.

In two countries (Romania and Sweden), although there is a requirement to demonstrate professional competencies (see Figure 2.1), there is no appraisal at the end of the induction programme or probationary period.

5.1.3. In-service teacher appraisal

In-service teacher appraisal is considered here as any form of appraisal that evaluates individual teachers once they have been confirmed in the profession. This section examines the:

- extent of in-service teacher appraisal in Europe and how often it takes place;
- aims and outcomes of in-service teacher appraisal including: providing teachers with feedback on their performance, assessing whether they merit a bonus or other reward, determining whether they qualify for salary progression, and assessing whether they are ready for promotion;
- relationship between appraisal and professional development needs;
- links between appraisal and managing underperformance;
- coverage of appraisal – whether it applies to all those in service or whether it depends on teachers' employment contracts or conditions of service.

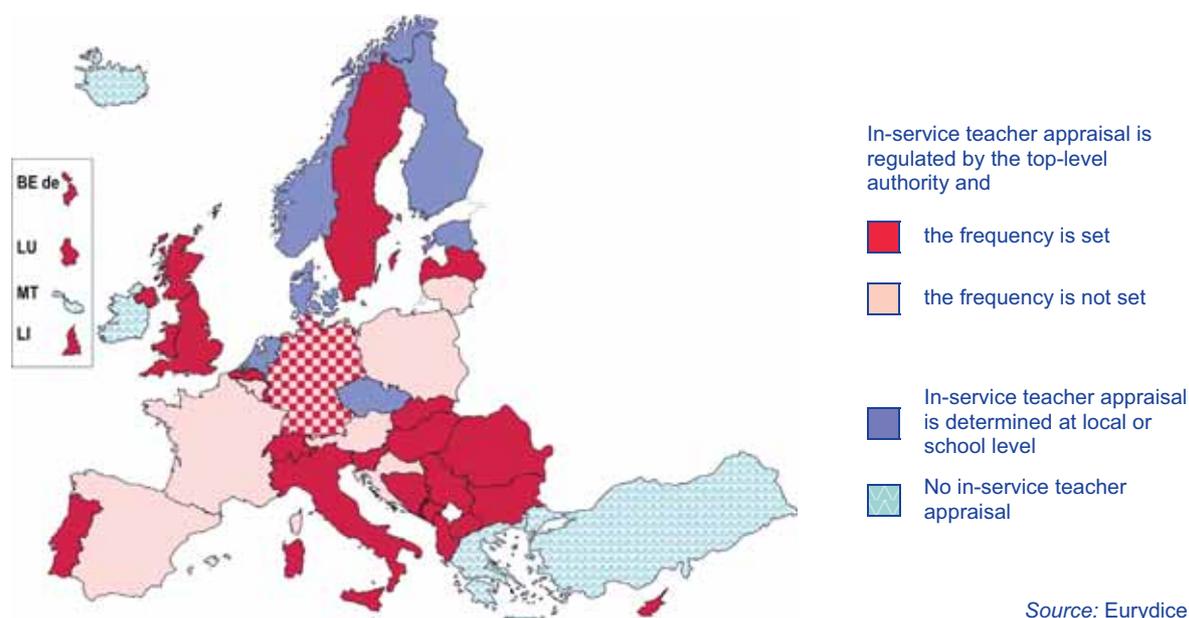
Extent and frequency

In-service teacher appraisal is widely practiced across Europe. As shown in Figure 5.4, in 32 education systems, in-service teacher appraisal is regulated by the top-level education authority and in 24 of these it is a regular exercise. In Germany, some *Länder* have set the frequency of appraisal while others have not. In six education systems, the procedures – including frequency – of

in-service teacher appraisal are determined at local or school level. In two of these countries (the Czech Republic and the Netherlands), the top-level authority requires some form of teacher appraisal to take place, in the other four countries there is no such requirement. Only in Ireland, Greece, Malta, Iceland, and Turkey are serving teachers not appraised.

In the 24 education systems where appraisal takes place at regular intervals, the period between evaluations varies. In nine education systems, in-service teacher appraisal is an annual exercise, while in another six it is a cyclical endeavour that takes place every three to five years depending on the country.

Figure 5.4: Extent and frequency of in-service teacher appraisal in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Frequency

	BE fr	BE de	BE nl	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	IE	EL	ES	FR	HR	IT	CY
Years	(-)	1, 2 or 3	4	4	(-)	(-)	:	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	1	12*; 10**
	LV	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SE	
Years	5	(-)	12; 20	3 - 5	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	4	1-4	1	1	(-)	1	
	UK-ENG	UK-WLS	UK-NIR	UK-SCT		AL	BA	CH	IS	LI	ME	MK	NO	RS	TR
Years	1	1	1	1-5		1	2-4	1-4	(-)	5	1-4	1	(-)	5	(-)

* ISCED 1; ** ISCED 2 and 3

Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific notes

Greece: Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

Portugal: Teachers with temporary contracts undergo appraisal every year. Teachers with indefinite contracts are evaluated every four years.

Slovenia: The frequency refers to regular appraisal.

Liechtenstein: Teachers are evaluated for the first time in the third year of their career and then every five years.

Serbia: The frequency refers to the self-evaluation and external evaluation processes, which expect that at least 40 % of teachers at each school undergo appraisal every five years. The frequency of other appraisal processes is decided at local level by the educational authorities.

In Cyprus and Luxembourg, teachers are evaluated less frequently, although the appraisal framework sets down the specific years of service in which it should take place.

In **Cyprus**, teachers with permanent jobs (civil servants) are evaluated after the 10th (for secondary education) and 12th year (for primary education) of their service and every other year thereafter.

In **Luxembourg**, teachers are evaluated only twice: in their 12th and 20th years of service.

In seven systems, the frequency varies depending on other factors.

In the **German-speaking Community of Belgium**, the type of employment contract determines how often teachers are evaluated.

In **Hungary, Romania and Montenegro**, the frequency depends on the aims of the appraisal exercise.

In the **United Kingdom (Scotland)**, every teacher performs an annual self-evaluation based on professional learning and using a professional standard framework provided by the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS). Every five years the GTCS confirms teachers' registration after reviewing the professional learning they have undertaken as part of the Professional Update process.

In **Bosnia and Herzegovina and Switzerland**, the frequency varies according to the Canton.

In seven countries, there is no regular in-service teacher appraisal.

In the **French Community of Belgium and Austria**, teacher appraisal takes place at the initiative of appraisers.

In **Spain**, the monitoring of teacher quality and practice is one of the tasks carried out by the educational inspectorate responsible for external school evaluation. In theory, individual teachers can be appraised, although this would be for feedback only. However, this is not a regular practice and there is no general framework that requires it to take place.

In **France**, the current framework for teacher appraisal is being reformed. Until the 2016/17 school year, teachers were appraised irregularly. The average interval between two visits was estimated to three years for primary teachers and five years for secondary school teachers. As of 2017/18, appraisal is based on four career interviews throughout teachers' professional life and regular counselling visits. The new system links appraisal to career development and progression on the salary scale.

In **Croatia and Lithuania**, in-service teacher appraisal is carried out only for promotion purposes, therefore teachers request appraisal when they want to be considered for a higher level post.

In **Poland**, appraisal aimed at evaluating teacher performance is carried out at the initiative of the appraiser, while appraisal for promotion is initiated by teachers themselves.

As stated above, in six countries, in-service teacher appraisal is determined at local or school level. However, in the Czech Republic, the national labour code implies that this exercise should take place at regular intervals, although how often is not set down in legislation and school leaders are free to make their decisions.

Aims and outcomes of in-service teacher appraisal

In-service appraisal can serve different purposes. Four of the most commonly stated aims are explored here and shown in Figure 5.5: to provide teachers with feedback on their performance, to assess whether they merit a bonus or other reward, to determine whether they qualify for salary progression, and last but not least, to assess whether they are ready for promotion.

The most common reason for appraisal is to provide teachers with feedback on their performance sometimes accompanied by a reflection on professional development needs. Feedback is used here in a wide sense – it may be the outcome of an informal discussion between the teacher and the school leader or it may result in a formal report compiled by an inspector. Its nature is largely formative, although it can be part of a summative process that results in a formal grading based on an established rating system. Twenty-nine education systems report that providing feedback on

These practices of recognition are sometimes combined.

In **Poland**, both rewards and promotion are possible. Rewards are usually given to teachers considered to be performing in an outstanding way but who have not applied for a promotion. The reward can be granted, for example, for teaching achievements, for introducing innovative teaching practices or for exceptional performance in their normal duties. Promotion on the other hand allows teachers to access a higher career level and obtain a salary increase.

In **Portugal**, salary progression and rewards are currently suspended. However, appraisal is directly linked to them. Legislation provides for teachers to be evaluated and considered for salary progression every four years and, in addition, two forms of reward are available: a dispensation which allows teachers to access a salary increase in a shorter period of time, or an extra month's salary if their performance is declared 'Very good' or 'Excellent' at two consecutive appraisals.

In **Slovenia**, salary progression and rewards are offered at the discretion of the school head. Salary progression may be considered every three years provided the teacher has had a positive appraisal. Rewards may also be linked to exceptional performance on a monthly basis. Promotion on the other hand is a more formal procedure with positive appraisal being one of the criteria together with years of experience, in-service training and having performed additional tasks.

In **Sweden**, top-level authority regulations on in-service teacher appraisal require school leaders to carry-out teacher appraisal annually under the format of developmental talks, linked to professional development needs and decisions on salary. Apart from the length of professional experience, the criteria for granting promotion are not centrally regulated and school leaders have autonomy in this area.

In the **United Kingdom (England and Wales)**, there are different pay ranges linked to each career level. Every year, the body in charge of the school must consider if a teacher is entitled to receive a salary increase within a pre-determined pay range. In addition, teachers can apply for a promotion which, if granted, entitles them to access a higher pay range.

In countries with autonomy at local or school level, evidence on the use of these incentives is scarce, but their use is theoretically possible. In some of these countries, school leaders or governing boards, as employers, have some leeway to increase teachers' salaries following a positive evaluation.

In-service teacher appraisal for the purpose of promotion follows a different process to that carried out for other purposes, at least in the majority of countries where it exists. Usually, in addition to a satisfactory assessment of performance, appraisal for promotion takes other elements into account such as years of experience and participation in professional development activities. Appraisal for promotion is therefore a more comprehensive process than other forms; it is moreover, usually a voluntary process as teachers request to be evaluated for promotion purposes.

The voluntary dimension and the more articulated process of appraisal for promotion can be found in 12 education systems (Germany, Croatia, France, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania, the United Kingdom (England and Wales), Albania, Montenegro and Serbia).

Romania has a particularly elaborate process for promoting teachers. The 'Teaching Level II' (*Profesor gradul II*) and the 'Teaching Level I' (*Profesor gradul I*) grades, which constitute the core of the career structure, are based on exams certifying the various levels of competence achieved by teachers. For Level II, teachers need to pass a written and oral test on the subject they teach, as well as on teaching methodologies and pedagogy. In addition, teachers need to accumulate a minimum number of years' working experience, 90 credits in professional development activities, and should have been inspected a number of times. For Level I, in addition to having the required years of experience, and passed the necessary inspections, teachers must take an exam on topics decided by the Ministry of Education, and undertake research work under the supervision of a higher education mentor after which they must present their findings to a specific committee. The teaching qualifications are granted by the Ministry of Education, Research, Youth, and Sports.

In **Bulgaria** and **Cyprus**, promotion is one of the possible outcomes of the regular appraisal exercise, while in **Slovenia**, although the decision-making is taken on the basis of a specific procedure, teachers do not need to initiate the process.

In **Slovenia**, teachers accumulate points on the basis of their professional development activities and additional professional work (e.g. writing articles, being a mentor, organising pupil performances or events). They must also have a number of years of experience

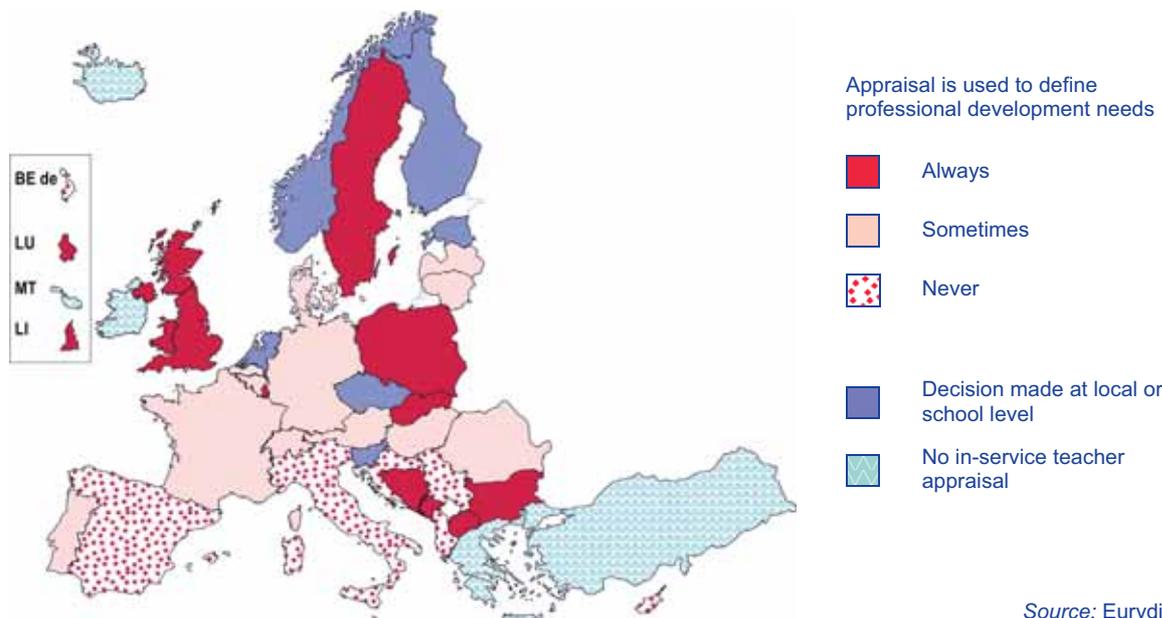
and be positively evaluated by the school leader and school teachers' assembly. When a teacher reaches a certain threshold, the school leader can put the teacher forward for promotion; the ministry takes the final decision on which teachers will be promoted.

It is also worth noting that in Estonia, Slovakia and the United Kingdom (Scotland) teacher appraisal does not contribute to the promotion process although multi-level career structures exist in these countries (see Figure 4.3).

Appraisal and professional development needs

As seen above, teacher appraisal can have both a formative and summative dimension. While promotion, rewards and salary increases are based on a summative evaluation of teacher performance, feedback can have a dual dimension. Appraisal aimed at providing feedback on performance can be intended as an instrument to look back at classroom practice and contribution to wider school activities and reflect on areas of improvement. However, it can also be limited to a summative purpose, providing teachers with an overall judgement on their performance with no further action expected. Further investigation will be needed to fully understand the summative and formative dimensions of teacher appraisal in the different education systems and how they relate to better teacher performance. Nevertheless, one clear formative dimension of teacher appraisal is its contribution to defining teachers' professional development needs.

Figure 5.6: Use of in-service teacher appraisal to determine professional development needs, in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific note

Greece: Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

Figure 5.6 displays information on the use of appraisal results to define teachers' professional development needs. In most countries, a link between teacher appraisal and professional development exists. In 13 education systems, appraisal is always used to define professional development needs and activities, while in another 12 this happens in specific circumstances.

In **Sweden**, in-service teacher appraisal is always used to identify professional development needs and activities, and a professional development plan is drawn up during the annual development talks between the teacher and the school leader. This plan is evaluated at the following year's talks and influences decisions on salary progression.

In the countries where teacher appraisal is not always linked to professional development the most common reason reported is that appraisers are free to decide whether any CPD is necessary.

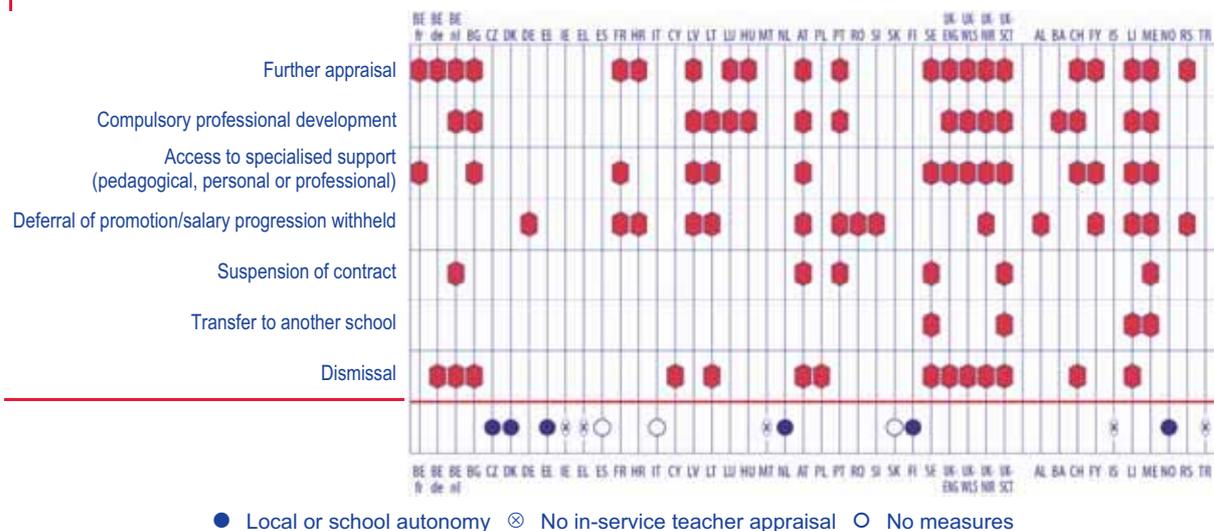
In **Belgium (Flemish community)**, the evaluator decides whether any specific professional development activities are needed for an individual teacher. The evaluator and the teacher discuss the needs and agree on a plan which is then recorded in the job description of the individual teacher and taken into account during the following appraisal exercise.

Only seven countries do not use the appraisal process to determine teachers' professional development needs, while in six systems the decisions is taken at local or school level.

Appraisal and underperformance

In addition to identifying professional development needs, in-service teacher appraisal is sometimes used to detect and manage underperformance. This is the declared intention in many European education systems, and in some appraisal is triggered and used mainly with this objective in mind. As seen in Figure 5.5, a positive evaluation can lead to promotion or salary progression. Equally, a negative evaluation can have consequences for teachers' careers. Figure 5.7 shows the measures available in European countries to deal with underperforming teachers.

Figure 5.7: Possible outcomes of a negative appraisal for in-service teachers in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the possible outcomes deriving from the normal appraisal procedures. Inspections carried out in exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct are not covered.

Country-specific notes

Greece: Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

Spain, Italy and Slovakia: Top-level authority legislation does not contain any specific measures to deal with in-service underperforming teachers.

Across Europe, if a teacher is found to be under-performing as a result of the appraisal process the first action taken is to schedule a follow-up appraisal. This is often accompanied by a number of remedial and supportive measures such as compulsory participation in professional development activities or access to specialised support. The appointment of a mentor is among the options, as in Bulgaria and France.

In **Bulgaria**, where a teacher is deemed to be under-performing following an appraisal, the evaluation committee in discussion with the school leader will develop a support plan which includes teaching and organisational support, a mentor will also be appointed. The appraisal results are reported to the regional division of education. A new appraisal takes place after one year, with more serious consequences such as dismissal if the teacher is still not performing to the required standard.

In addition to remedial actions, such as training and support measures, a negative appraisal can, under specific circumstances, have negative consequences on a teacher's career. Where the appraisal exercise is linked to promotion or salary increases, for example, the negative results can mean a deferral of these benefits.

In **France**, for example, salary progression will be slower in cases of negative evaluation. In addition, appraisers can request further meetings with the teacher concerned in order to monitor progress or to follow up on recommendations.

The temporary suspension of a teacher from his or her post, or the transfer to another school is among the possibilities in a handful of countries, although these are usually adopted only in exceptional circumstances.

The most serious consequence of a negative evaluation is, of course, ending the career of the teacher altogether. Although dismissal is a possibility in one third of European countries, this decision is taken only after careful consideration.

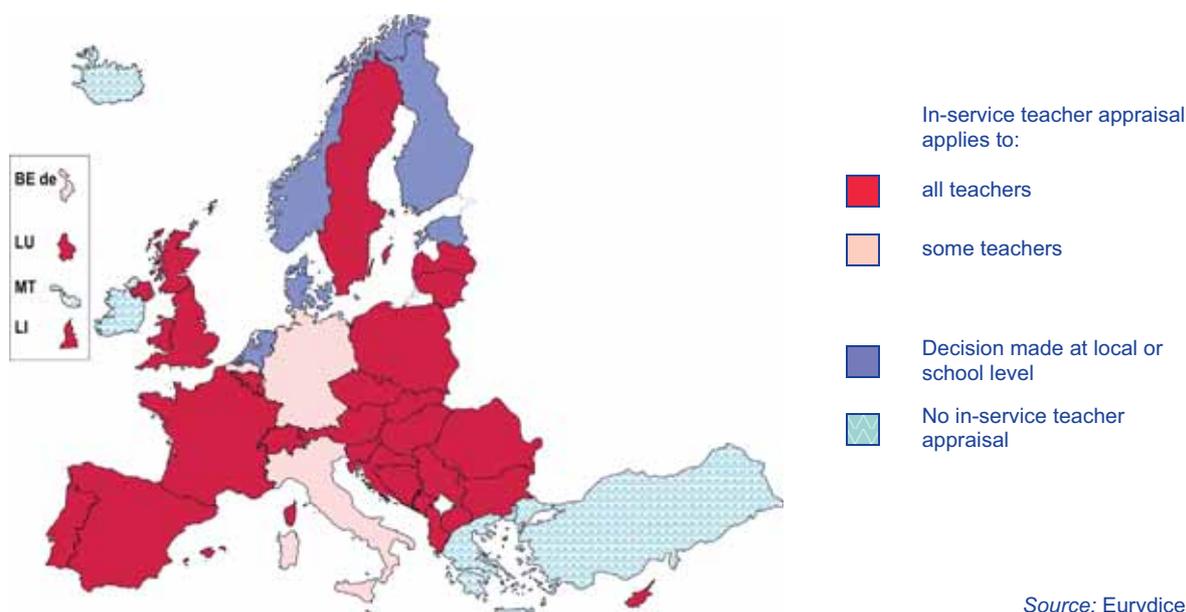
In **Belgium (Flemish Community)**, teachers with indefinite contracts and teachers on a permanent assignment must have received the lowest marks twice in a row in their appraisal before dismissal is considered. Teachers with a fixed-term contract can be dismissed after the first negative evaluation.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, teachers considered to be underperforming are subject to what is known as the 'Capability Procedure' in England and Wales, and 'Supporting Effective Teaching in Schools' in Northern Ireland. The main purpose of this process is to identify the best possible support and training for a teacher who is considered to be underperforming. The length of the process varies according to circumstances and must allow sufficient time for improvements to take place. However, ultimately, if improvements are not made, the process leads to dismissal.

Teachers subject to in-service appraisal

As shown in Figure 5.8, in most European countries where it is regulated, all teachers are subject to in-service teacher appraisal.

Figure 5.8: Teachers subject to in-service appraisal in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific note

Greece: Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

However, in four countries, there are differences depending on teachers' employment conditions or contractual status. For example:

In **Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish communities)**, appraisal is only mandatory for teachers with a permanent assignment and those with an assignment of at least 104 days per school year in the Flemish Community, and 15 weeks in the German-speaking Community.

In **Germany**, legislation varies between *Länder*. Moreover, teachers not employed as civil servants are not regularly appraised. These represent around one quarter of the entire teacher population at all levels of education (ISCED 1-3).

In **Italy**, all teachers with an indefinite contract are subject to appraisal for reward purposes, while teachers with a fixed-term contract are not evaluated.

Among the countries where in-service teacher appraisal is determined at local or school level, Estonia and the Netherlands report that there is no difference between teachers based on their contractual status and that all teachers may be subject to teacher appraisal.

5.2. Implementation of teacher appraisal

The aims of appraisal usually influence the way the process is designed and carried-out. This section seeks to analyse the practical aspects of teacher appraisal looking at four dimensions: the staff involved, the frameworks at disposal of evaluators, the methods and evaluation instruments used, and the existence of rating systems. The section deals with appraisal for both new and serving teachers.

5.2.1. Appraisers

Teacher performance is generally assessed by one or more appraisers who are, therefore, key players in the system. Understanding how appraisal is designed and ultimately works means investigating who the appraisers are, where they come from, and finally how well they are trained.

The first part of this section investigates who is responsible for conducting appraisals – whether it involves school leaders or other staff within the school, or whether external staff from top- or local-level authorities or their representatives are brought in. It also looks at the cases where different combinations of internal and external staff are involved depending on the aim of the evaluation. Last but not least, it examines whether training programmes for appraisers exist and whether or not they are mandatory.

Figure 5.9 shows whether teacher appraisal is an internal process taking place within the school or whether it involves external stakeholders. Teacher appraisal is considered an internal process when it is conducted by stakeholders from within the school where the appraisee works (e.g., by the school leader). It is considered external when it involves stakeholders from outside the school (e.g., the inspectorate or ministry representatives). In addition, teacher appraisal can be conducted by both internal and external stakeholders either as two separate processes or as one process that sees both types of stakeholder working together as members of a committee.

In 12 education systems, teacher appraisal is conducted only within the school, usually by school leaders, mentors, and/or members of the school board (see also Figure 5.10). On the other hand, it is

conducted only by external stakeholders, such as inspectors or representatives of top- or local-level authorities, for primary teachers in Ireland and France.

In 23 education systems, teachers are evaluated both internally and externally. This may be a single process with the input of both external and internal stakeholders or the stakeholders may vary depending on the purpose of the appraisal. For example:

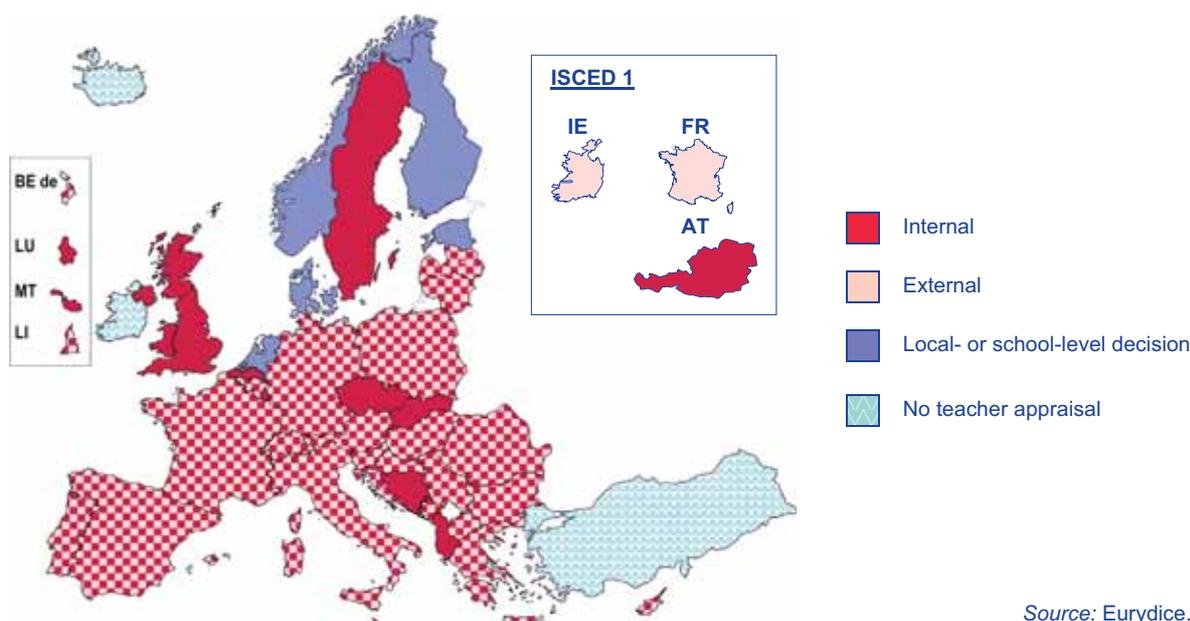
In **Bulgaria**, in-service teacher appraisal is carried out as a single process every four years by a committee composed of the employer – i.e. the school director, representatives of the top-level authority (through the regional division of education) and members of the Staff Council, an organisation representing teachers.

In **Croatia**, where teacher appraisal is carried out only at the end of the probationary/induction period and for promotion, the evaluation committees are composed of representatives from the school and the top-level authority, as well as external experts, all contributing to a single appraisal process.

In **Hungary**, on the other hand, different processes are carried out at different times in a teacher's career. External appraisers regularly carry-out the appraisal of teachers for promotion and during inspections. On the other hand, every five years, teachers go through a self-evaluation process that is then benchmarked against an evaluation from parents, colleagues and the school head.

Similarly, in **Slovenia**, different approaches exist depending on the purpose of appraisal. At the end of the probationary period, for example, the evaluation is carried out by an internal committee of three teachers. These are the same teachers that have assisted and supervised the candidate. Accreditation, on the other hand, is based on the evaluation of a mentor and the school leader, as well as an examination committee composed of external appraisers appointed by the ministry.

Figure 5.9: Teacher appraisal as an internal and/or external process, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17



Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct. In these cases, external evaluators from the inspectorate or the responsible authority are usually brought in. Therefore, in countries where appraisal is carried out internally, there can still be specific circumstances in which a teacher's performance might be assessed by an external evaluator.

Country-specific note

Greece: The Figure refers only to appraisal of new teachers. Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

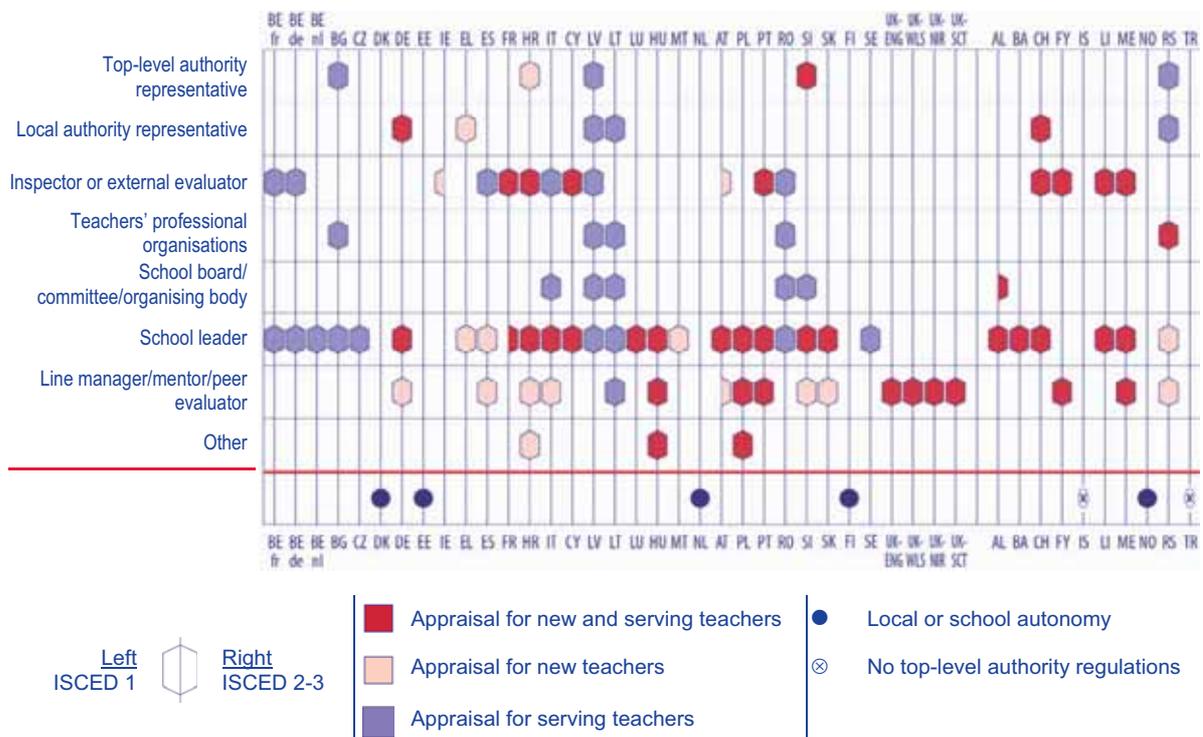
Figure 5.10 shows the different categories of staff – both internal and external – involved in teacher appraisal and, where differences exist, the types of appraisal in which they participate.

The professional most frequently involved in teacher appraisal is the school leader. This happens in three quarters of European education systems. Evidence indicates that among the countries where teacher appraisal is determined at local or school level, it is also common practice that school leaders are fully responsible for the process.

Shewbridge et al. (2011), for example, report that in **Denmark**, the *Folkeskole* Act entrusts the responsibility of the administrative and pedagogical management of the school to school leaders, including the professional development of teachers. School leaders are therefore expected to design, organise and carry out discussions with teachers in order to provide them with feedback on their performance as well as identify any professional development needs and opportunities.

The two other groups of professionals commonly involved in teacher appraisal are (although much less frequently than the school leader): mentors, line managers and peers on the one hand, and inspectors or external appraisers on the other. The former participate in teacher appraisal in almost half of European education systems, although in many of these countries, their input is limited to the appraisal taking place at the end of the probationary period.

Figure 5.10: Appraisers and forms of teacher appraisal in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific notes

- Belgium (BE nl):** In secondary education, the appraiser can be a member of the management staff, such as the deputy-head.
- Greece:** Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.
- Latvia:** In-service teacher appraisal is carried-out by evaluation committees composed by various appraisers. If a teacher applies for the 4th and 5th grade, the appraisal is carried-out and confirmed by local (municipality) and top-level authorities.
- Hungary:** Teacher appraisal has three different forms: internal self-evaluation, appraisal for promotion and teacher inspection. School leaders do not take part in inspections. Peer evaluators only take part in internal self-evaluation. Master teachers only participate in appraisal for promotion and inspection.
- Portugal:** The external evaluator is involved in the appraisal of teachers who hope to obtain the highest mark (Excellent).
- Slovakia:** Teacher appraisal is normally delegated to the deputy head-teacher.
- United Kingdom:** A teacher's line manager may be the school head or another teacher within the school. The school head remains responsible for the appraisal process.

Much less frequent is the involvement of other evaluators. Staff from the top-level authority are involved in Bulgaria, Croatia, Latvia and Slovenia, while staff from authorities at local level take part in teacher appraisal in Germany, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, and Switzerland. In Serbia, staff from both top-level and local authorities can be involved. School boards, teachers' professional organisations, parents and other evaluators are rarely involved.

In **Italy**, the school committee charged with teacher appraisal linked to rewards comprises: the school head, three teachers, an external appraiser (a teacher or school leader from another school or an inspector), two parents (for primary and lower secondary schools) or one parent representative and one pupil representative (in upper secondary schools).

In the vast majority of countries, teacher appraisal is carried out with the input of more than one appraiser. The combination of school leader and mentors carrying out appraisal at the end of the probationary period is quite common in Europe with almost half of the education systems where new teachers are appraised requiring this dual input.

It is not usual that teacher appraisal is based on the opinion of only one type of appraiser. This does however happen in 14 education systems. In seven of them, school leaders are the only appraiser (Belgium (Flemish Community), the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Malta, Sweden and Bosnia and Herzegovina). In Austria, this is the case only for serving teachers in primary education. Inspectors carry out teacher appraisal alone in Ireland – only for new teachers in primary education, in Spain – only for serving teachers, and France – only in primary education. In the United Kingdom, it is the teacher's line manager.

In three countries, appraisers other than the ones listed in Figure 5.10 participate in teacher appraisal.

In **Croatia**, for example, a Croatian language teacher is part of the committee that accredits new teachers.

'Master Teachers' are a key feature of the **Hungarian** appraisal system. This role is a specific step in a teacher's career. Once they reach the level of 'Master Teacher', they can decide to either be counsellors, providing professional support services to other teachers, or inspectors. The 'Master Teacher' status reduces the teaching obligation to four days a week, in order to dedicate the fifth working day to the additional role of inspector or counsellor.

In **Poland**, performance appraisal is completed with the input of a non-binding opinion of the parents' council.

Whoever the appraisers are, whether it is the school leader on their own or a team of professionals, their role is key to ensuring a fair, consistent, transparent, and widely accepted appraisal system. Training is therefore crucial to making the system work.

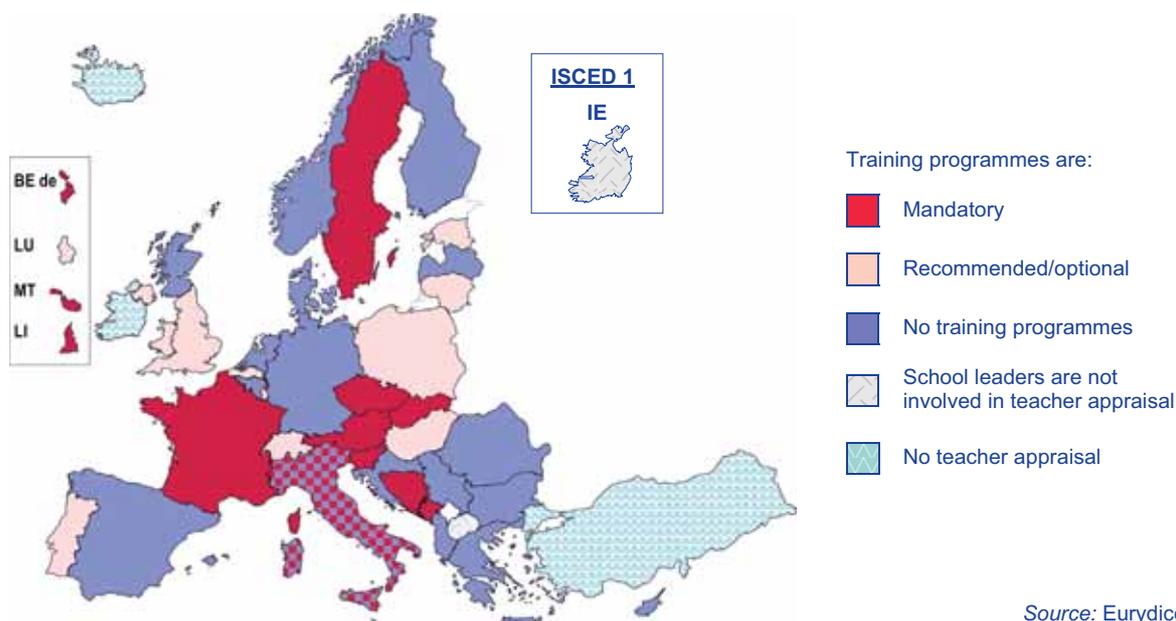
As shown above, school leaders play a central role in teacher appraisal in most of the education systems under analysis. Figure 5.11 displays information on the existence of training programmes on teacher evaluation addressed to school leaders. The focus of the Figure is training programmes established by top-level authorities. It emerges that in Europe, less than one third of education systems where school leaders are involved in appraisal have dedicated mandatory appraiser training programmes.

In 11 education systems, training is optional.

In **Portugal**, the top-level education authority develops its own workshops for school leaders. However these are optional.

In the **United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland)**, guidance recommends training to be available to appraisers, but delegates the responsibility of providing it to the local or school level.

Figure 5.11: Appraiser training programmes for school leaders in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Country-specific notes

Greece: The Figure refers only to appraisal of new teachers. Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

Italy: School leaders receive training from the regional offices of the Ministry of Education for the annual appraisal linked to the reward programme. There are no training programmes for appraising teachers at the end of the probationary period.

United Kingdom: School heads can be the line managers, but more often they will delegate this role to another teacher. They however remain responsible for the appraisal process within the school.

Training for appraisers can be delivered in different ways: it can be embedded in the training programmes for aspiring school leaders, such as for example in the Czech Republic, France, Malta, Austria, Slovenia, Slovakia and Sweden, or it may be delivered as a separate, dedicated course, as in Estonia, Italy, Lithuania and Hungary.

In **Hungary**, as regular appraisal is carried-out within the school, school leaders receive a specific 10-hour long training course on how to evaluate teachers, and teachers themselves can follow non-compulsory, specific professional development programmes on self-evaluation.

Finally, in 17 education systems school leaders are not trained to carry out teacher appraisal, a deficiency that can jeopardise the consistency, fairness and usefulness of the appraisal system as a whole.

5.2.2. Frameworks and other evaluation instruments

In any form of appraisal, formative or summative, transparency is beneficial. Both the appraiser and the appraisee should have a common understanding of what is being evaluated, what the minimum standards are, and how the appraisal is carried out.

Appraisals are generally based on a set of performance criteria that indicate the areas of work to be assessed and a definition of what constitutes satisfactory or outstanding performance. Analysis shows that across Europe appraisal frameworks take different forms. These may include specific frameworks developed by top-level education authorities or the inspectorate, or in-house systems developed by schools and linked to the school development plan. Other types of framework may also be used for the purpose of appraisal such as teacher competence frameworks designed by the top level authority, or at a more basic level, the competences set out in teachers' job descriptions.

Explanatory note

The 'specific appraisal framework' and 'teacher competence framework' are designed by the top-level authority/inspectorate or equivalent body. The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific notes

Greece: The Figure refers only to appraisal of new teachers. Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

Italy and Luxembourg: The use of the teacher competence framework is limited to appraisal of new teachers.

Netherlands: The evaluation framework is developed by the top-level authority. Schools, however, have no obligation to use it and full autonomy in the way they use it.

Switzerland: Frameworks used for teacher appraisal vary between Cantons.

As seen above, the analysis shows that in Europe appraisal is usually based on a combination of frameworks and/or other instruments. This may be due to the fact that, as seen previously, appraisal takes different forms and can have different aims. It may also be because education systems benefit from combining top-level approaches that can provide a degree of consistency, with local- or school-level input that reflect local needs.

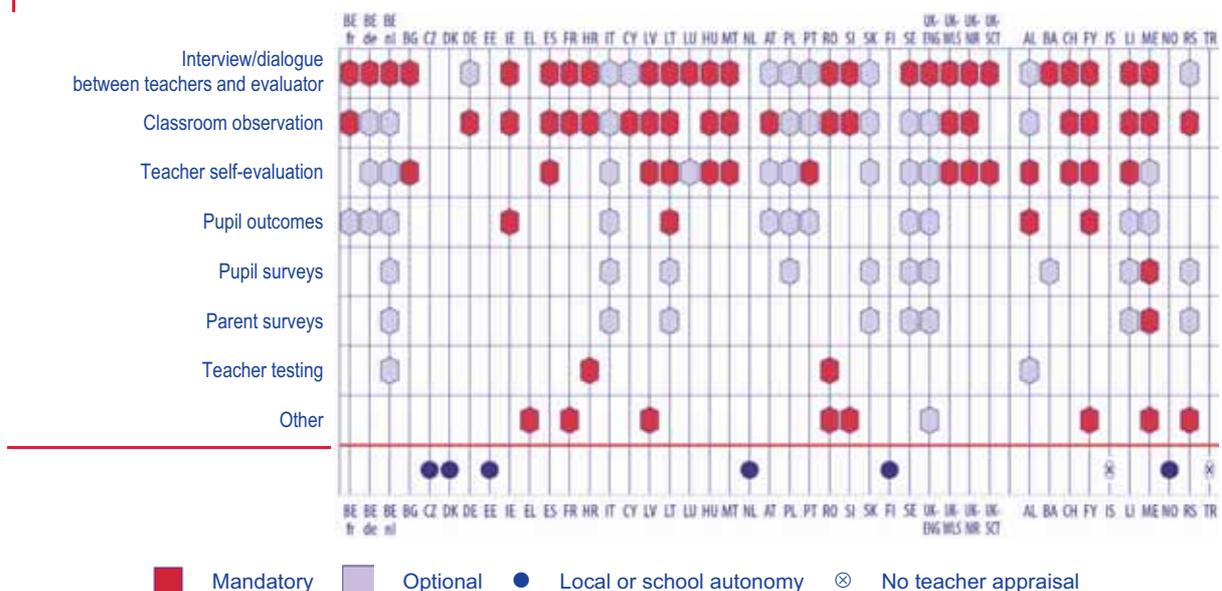
In the countries where teacher appraisal is generally determined at local or school level (see Figure 5.1), Estonia is the only one reporting the use of particular frameworks or instruments. In contrast, in the Czech Republic, despite the obligation for employers to carry out teacher appraisal, there is no common framework used for evaluation.

5.2.3. Methods of appraisal and sources of information

Teachers may be appraised using a variety of different methods and sources of information. Figure 5.13 shows those most commonly used, and distinguishes between those that are mandatory and those that can be used at the discretion of the appraiser(s).

Holding a discussion or interview between the appraiser(s) and the appraisee, classroom observation and teacher self-evaluation are the most common methods for conducting teacher appraisal. In most cases it is mandatory to use at least one of them and in 10 countries all three are requested by regulations.

Figure 5.13: Methods and sources of information used in teacher appraisal in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note (Figure 5.13)

Mandatory means that legislation or other official documents require the method or source of information to be used as part of teacher appraisal. Optional means that it is left to the discretion of the appraiser(s) as to whether they use the particular method or source or that despite not being in the legislations there is evidence that these methods are used by appraisers. The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific notes

Greece: The Figure refers only to appraisal of new teachers. Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

Italy: Teacher self-evaluation, classroom observation and an interview with the evaluation committee are mandatory for appraisal at the end of the probationary period.

Portugal: Classroom observation is compulsory for appraisal of teachers whose performance was deemed to be below the acceptable level in a previous evaluation, and for teachers who hope to obtain the highest mark (Excellent).

Less frequent is the use of pupil outcomes and pupil or parent surveys. Moreover, in most cases where these methods are used, they are indicated as optional. The use of pupil outcomes is mandatory only in four countries (Ireland, Lithuania, Albania and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), while parents' and pupils' opinions are regularly sought only in Montenegro.

Teacher testing is equally rare. It is a possibility in Belgium (Flemish Community) and Albania, and an obligation in Croatia (limited to appraisal of new teachers) and Romania. Finally, in a small number of countries, other instruments or sources of information might be taken into account including pedagogical material (lesson plans, etc.), portfolios or written records, or evidence of additional achievements. For example:

In **Greece**, the school head prepares a report on the teacher's performance during the two years probationary period and submits it to the relevant Regional Service Council. Unless the performance is estimated as insufficient, following the Council's positive proposal the new teacher acquires the status of a permanent teacher.

In **Serbia**, in addition to observing teachers during their classes, appraisers assess the quality of pedagogical documentation such as lesson plans and teaching diaries.

Among the countries where appraisal is determined at local or school level, the discussion with the school leader appears to be the most common approach. However, there is some evidence that other methods are also used.

According to Nusche et al. (2011), for example, in **Norway**, where teacher appraisal is determined at local or school level, pupil feedback plays an important role. Teachers themselves, schools and municipalities gather feedback on the learning environment in classrooms through their own pupil surveys.

A requirement to use a combination of instruments or sources of information for teacher appraisal is also common. In most cases, the discussion with the appraiser is paired with classroom observation and in a few cases with teacher self-evaluation. However, in 10 countries requirements are limited to one approach only, leaving appraisers free to decide on the use of other approaches. In six of these, the only requirement is an interview or discussion between the teacher and the appraiser (Belgium (German-speaking and Flemish Communities), Luxembourg, Sweden, the United Kingdom (England) and Bosnia and Herzegovina); in Germany, Cyprus and Austria, it is classroom observation; and in Portugal, it is teacher self-evaluation. In Greece, the only mandatory element is the preparation of an evaluation report by the school head. While in most countries at least one method is mandatory, in Italy (appraisal for granting rewards), Poland and Slovakia, appraisers have complete freedom to decide how to conduct the appraisal.

5.2.4. Rating systems

One final point regarding the implementation of teacher appraisal is whether teachers are graded at the end of the process using a formal alpha-numeric or descriptive system. This type of rating system is not usually used for appraisal at the end of the probationary period/induction programme. At this stage of their career, teachers usually receive a positive or negative evaluation without any further quantitative or qualitative marking. In-service teacher appraisal, on the other hand, can result in a final grading within a rating system that goes beyond a simple confirmation of competency to teach, but instead seeks to establish different levels of teacher performance.

Figure 5.14, which deals only with in-service teacher appraisal, shows that formal rating systems exist in less than half of European education systems. Approaches vary, however, and ratings can be expressed in different ways.

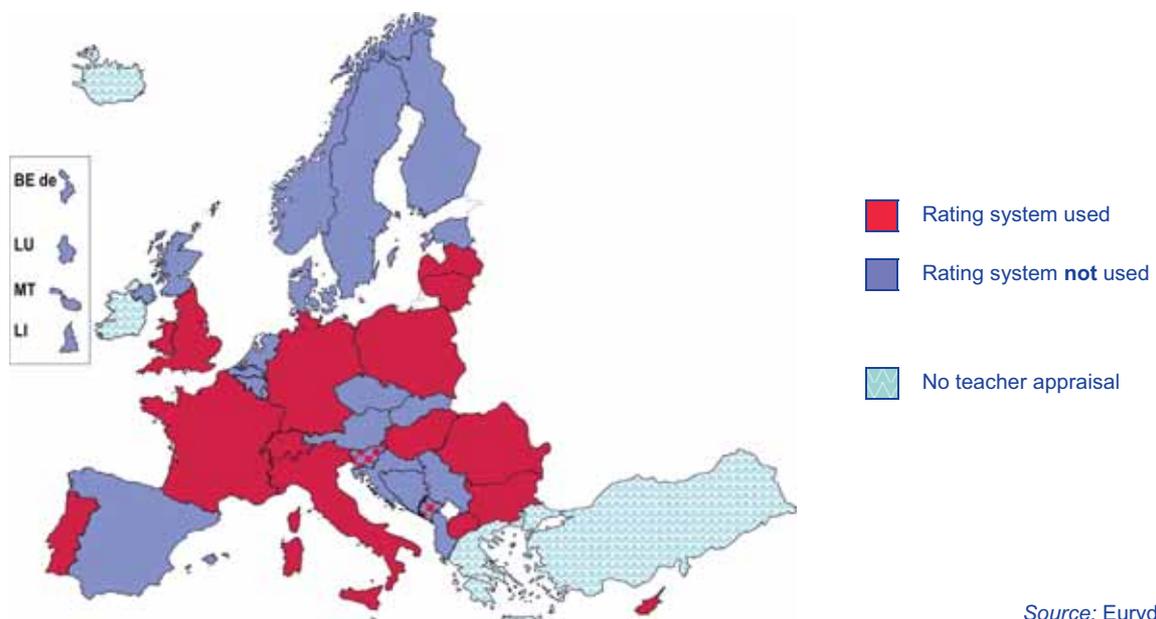
If **France**, for example, secondary school teachers are marked on a scale of 100 of which, 40 % is awarded by the school leader and 60 % by the inspector.

In **Poland**, the 'performance assessment' is given in writing and concludes with one of the following descriptive grades: 'outstanding'; 'positive'; or 'negative'.

In **Slovenia**, the scale for regular appraisal is out of five, while in **Montenegro** it is out of 10.

In the **United Kingdom (England and Wales)**, appraisal does not result in an alpha-numeric grade, or a ranking of teachers; however, a judgment is formulated indicating if the teacher's salary should progress, and if so, by what amount.

Figure 5.14: Use of formal rating systems for in-service teacher appraisal in primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3) according to top-level authority regulations, 2016/17



Source: Eurydice.

Explanatory note

The Figure shows only the normal appraisal procedures; it does not cover exceptional circumstances such as cases of serious underperformance or misconduct.

Country-specific notes

Belgium (BE nl): The only grading foreseen in legislation is 'Insufficient', which then has potential consequences on the teacher employment.

Greece: Legislation on in-service teacher appraisal exists but its implementation is currently suspended pending a review.

Slovenia: Rating system is used only for regular appraisal.

Montenegro: A rating system is used for the external evaluation.

ANNEXES

Annexe 1 – Levels in the teacher career structure and their impact on salaries

Levels in the teacher career structure and their impact on salaries, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17 (Data to Figures 4.1 and 4.2)

	Career levels	Career progression and salary
BE fr	Flat career structure	(-)
BE de	Flat career structure	(-)
BE nl	Flat career structure	(-)
BG	1. Teacher (<i>uchitel</i>); 2. Senior Teacher (<i>starshi uchitel</i>); 3. Chief Teacher (<i>glaven uchitel</i>).	In Bulgaria, the 2016 Collective Agreement for Public Education specifies the basic monthly salaries for each position: BNG 660 for a 'Teacher' (<i>uchitel</i>), BGN 688 for a 'Senior Teacher' (<i>starshi uchitel</i>) and BGN 726 for a 'Chief Teacher' (<i>glaven uchitel</i>).
CZ	Flat career structure	(-)
DK	Flat career structure	(-)
DE	Only for teachers qualified to teach at ISCED 3: 1. Teacher (<i>Studienrat</i>); 2. Senior Teacher (<i>Oberstudienrat</i>); 3. Study Chief (<i>Studiendirektor</i>).	In Germany, the multi-level career system only applies to teachers qualified to teach at ISCED 3. These 'Teachers' (<i>Studienrat</i>) usually start at salary group A12, move to salary group A13 when they become a 'Senior Teacher' (<i>Oberstudienrat</i>) before reaching salary group A14 as a 'Study Chief' (<i>Studiendirektor</i>).
EE	1. Teacher (<i>õpetaja</i>); 2. Senior Teacher (<i>vanemõpetaja</i>); 3. Master Teacher (<i>meisterõpetaja</i>).	No salary impact.
IE	1. Teacher; 2. Assistant Principal II (ISCED 1)/Special Duties Teacher (ISCED 2-3); 3. Assistant Principal I (ISCED 1)/Assistant Principal (ISCED 2-3); 4. Deputy Principal; 5. Principal.	In Ireland, teachers receive varying allowances on top of incremental salary depending on the promotion. The minimum allowances by career level are as follows: € 3 769 for the second level, € 8 520 for the third level, € 3 769 for the fourth and € 9 310 for the fifth.
EL	Flat career structure	(-)
ES	Flat career structure	(-)
FR	1. Teacher (<i>professeur</i>); 2a. Teacher Trainer (<i>maître-formateur</i> (ISCED 1)/ <i>professeur formateur académique</i> (ISCED 2-3)); OR 2b. Pedagogical Counsellor (<i>conseiller pédagogique</i> (ISCED 1)/ <i>tuteur des professeurs stagiaires</i> (ISCED 2-3)).	Teachers receive varying allowances on top of their incremental salary depending on the promotion. At ISCED 1, the annual allowance corresponds to € 1 250 for a 'Teacher Trainer' (<i>maître-formateur</i>) and € 1 000 for a 'Pedagogical Counsellor' (<i>conseiller pédagogique</i>). At ISCED 2-3, the annual allowance corresponds to € 834 for a 'Teacher Trainer' (<i>professeur formateur académique</i>) and € 1 250 per trainee for a 'Pedagogical Counsellor' (<i>tuteur des professeurs stagiaires</i>).
HR	1. Trainee Teacher (<i>učitelj</i> (ISCED 1)/ <i>professor</i> (ISCED 2-3) – <i>početnik</i>); 2. Teacher (<i>učitelj</i> (ISCED 1)/ <i>professor</i> (ISCED 2-3)); 3. Teacher Mentor (<i>učitelj</i> (ISCED 1)/ <i>professor</i> (ISCED 2-3) – <i>mentor</i>); 4. Teacher Advisor (<i>učitelj</i> (ISCED 1)/ <i>professor</i> (ISCED 2-3) – <i>savjetnik</i>).	In Croatia, the nominal salary ratios of the four-level scale are 1.0 for a 'Trainee Teacher' (<i>učitelj/professor – početnik</i>), 1.1 for a 'Teacher' (<i>učitelj/professor</i>), 1.12 for a 'Teacher Mentor' (<i>učitelj/professor – mentor</i>) and 1.18 for a 'Teacher Advisor' (<i>učitelj/professor – savjetnik</i>). However these values do not include the difference in salary due to the number of years in service.
IT	Flat career structure	(-)
CY	1. Teacher (<i>daskalos</i> (ISCED 1)/ <i>kathigitis</i> (ISCED 2-3)); 2. Deputy Head Teacher (<i>boithos diefhintis</i>); 3. Principal (<i>diefhintis</i>) (ISCED 1)/ Deputy Head Teacher A' (<i>boithos diefhintis A'</i>) (ISCED 2-3)).	In Cyprus, each career level follows a different salary scale. At ISCED 1, the salary for a 'Teacher' (<i>daskalos</i>) is between € 23 885 and € 51 345, for a 'Deputy Head Teacher' (<i>boithos diefhintis</i>) between € 39 508 and € 61 659, for a 'Principal' (<i>diefhintis</i>) between € 43 850 and € 69 220. At ISCED 2-3, the salary for a 'Teacher' (<i>kathigitis</i>) is between € 23 885 and € 58 107, for a 'Deputy Head Teacher' (<i>boithos diefhintis</i>) between € 43 851 and € 64 666, for a 'Deputy Head Teacher A' (<i>boithos diefhintis A'</i>) between € 43 851 and € 69 220.
LV	1. Teacher (<i>skolotājs</i>); 2. Teacher Quality Level 1 (<i>skolotājs – 1. kvalitātes pakāpe</i>); 3. Teacher Quality Level 2 (<i>skolotājs – 2. kvalitātes pakāpe</i>); 4. Teacher Quality Level 3 (<i>skolotājs – 3. kvalitātes pakāpe</i>); 5. Teacher Quality Level 4 (<i>skolotājs – 4. kvalitātes pakāpe</i>); 6. Teacher Quality Level 5 (<i>skolotājs – 5. kvalitātes pakāpe</i>).	In Latvia, there is no specific allowance for 'Quality Levels' 1 and 2. However, teachers promoted to 'Quality Levels' 3, 4 or 5 receive a specific allowance on top of their salary depending on the promotion. It is of € 45 for 'Quality Level 3', € 114 for 'Quality Level 4' and € 140 for 'Quality Level 5'.

	Career levels	Career progression and salary
LT	1. Teacher (<i>mokytojas</i>); 2. Senior Teacher (<i>vyresnysis mokytojas</i>); 3. Methodology Teacher (<i>mokytojas metodininkas</i>); 4. Expert Teacher (<i>mokytojas ekspertas</i>).	In Lithuania, the nominal salary ratios of the five-level scale range between 3.18 and 3.30 for a 'Teacher' (<i>mokytojas</i>), between 3.46 and 3.70 for a 'Senior Teacher' (<i>vyresnysis mokytojas</i>), between 3.70 and 3.96 for a 'Methodology Teacher' (<i>mokytojas metodininkas</i>), between 4.20 and 4.47 for an 'Expert Teacher' (<i>mokytojas ekspertas</i>).
LU	Flat career structure	(-)
HU	1. Trainee Teacher (<i>gyakornok</i>); 2. Teacher I (<i>pedagógus I</i>); 3. Teacher II (<i>pedagógus II</i>); 4. Master Teacher (<i>mester pedagógus</i>).	In Hungary, the nominal minimum salary ratios are 1.0 for a 'Trainee Teacher' (<i>gyakornok</i>), 1.2 for a 'Teacher I' (<i>pedagógus I</i>), 1.5 for a 'Teacher II' (<i>pedagógus II</i>), 2.0 for a 'Master Teacher' (<i>mester pedagógus</i>). For the temporary five-year 'Teacher Researcher' status (<i>kutatótanár</i>), the nominal minimum salary ratio is 2.2.
MT	1. Teacher; 2. Head of Department.	The starting salary of a 'Head of Department' is the same as the salary for a 'Teacher' with 16 years of service in the profession.
NL	No top-level regulations	(-)
AT	Flat career structure	(-)
PL	1. Trainee Teacher (<i>nauczyciel stażysta</i>); 2. Contract Teacher (<i>nauczyciel kontraktowy</i>); 3. Appointed Teacher (<i>nauczyciel mianowany</i>); 4. Chartered Teacher (<i>nauczyciel dyplomowany</i>).	In Poland, the average salary of teachers on a specific career level should be equal to the following percentage of the reference amount defined annually for teachers in the Budgetary Act: 100 % for a 'Trainee Teacher' (<i>nauczyciel stażysta</i>); 111 % for a 'Contract Teacher' (<i>nauczyciel kontraktowy</i>); 144 % for an 'Appointed Teacher' (<i>nauczyciel mianowany</i>) and 184 % for a 'Chartered Teacher' (<i>nauczyciel dyplomowany</i>).
PT	Flat career structure	(-)
RO	1. Beginner Teacher (<i>profesor debutant</i>); 2. Teacher (<i>profesor cu definitivare în învățământ</i>); 3. Teacher with Teaching Level II (<i>profesor gradul II</i>); 4. Teacher with Teaching Level I (<i>profesor gradul I</i>).	The minimum salary for a 'Beginner Teacher' (<i>profesor debutant</i>) is € 440 and for a 'Teacher' (<i>profesor cu definitivare în învățământ</i>), € 480. The information for upper grades is not defined centrally.
SI	1. Teacher (<i>učitelj</i>); 2. Teacher Mentor (<i>učitelj mentor</i>); 3. Teacher Advisor (<i>učitelj svetovalec</i>); 4. Teacher Counsellor (<i>učitelj svetnik</i>).	In Slovenia, there is one common salary scale with 65 grades for all employees in the public sector. The minimum salary grade is 30 for a 'Teacher' (<i>učitelj</i>), 33 for a 'Teacher Mentor' (<i>učitelj mentor</i>), 35 for a 'Teacher Advisor' (<i>učitelj svetovalec</i>) and 38 for a 'Teacher Counsellor' (<i>učitelj svetnik</i>).
SK	1. Beginner Teacher (<i>začínajúci učiteľ</i>); 2. Independent Teacher (<i>samostatný pedagogický zamestnanec</i>); 3. Teacher with First Attestation (<i>pedagogický zamestnanec s prvou atestáciou</i>); 4. Teacher with Second Attestation (<i>pedagogický zamestnanec s druhou atestáciou</i>).	In Slovakia, the minimum statutory gross salary for a 'Beginner Teacher' (<i>začínajúci učiteľ</i>) is € 690. It is a minimum salary of € 753 for an 'Independent Teacher' (<i>samostatný pedagogický zamestnanec</i>), € 843 for a 'Teacher with First Attestation' (<i>pedagogický zamestnanec s prvou atestáciou</i>) and € 944 for a 'Teacher with Second Attestation' (<i>pedagogický zamestnanec s druhou atestáciou</i>). However, these values do not include the difference in salary due to the number of years in service.
FI	Flat career structure	(-)
SE	1. Teacher (<i>lärare</i>); 2. First Teacher (<i>förstlärare</i>).	In Sweden, where salaries are negotiated individually within central agreements between employers' organisations and teachers unions, there is no salary scale. Teachers promoted by the school head to the position of 'First Teacher' (<i>förstlärare</i>) usually benefit from a substantial salary increase.
UK- ENG/ WLS	1. Unqualified Teacher Pay Range; 2. Main Pay Range – Upper Pay Range; 3. Leading Practitioner Range.	In England and Wales, the School Teachers' Pay and Conditions Document defines the maximum and minimum points on each of the four existing salary ranges: the Unqualified Teacher Range, the Main Pay Range, the Upper Pay Range and the Pay Range for Leading Practitioners. Schools have autonomy over where within each range they will set the level of pay for any individual post.
UK- NIR	Flat career structure	(-)

	Career levels	Career progression and salary
UK-SCT	1. <i>Main Grade Teacher</i> ; 2. <i>Principal Teacher</i> ; 3. <i>Depute Headteacher</i> ; 4. <i>Headteacher</i> .	In Scotland, the basic salary is GBP 26 895 for a 'Main Grade Teacher', GBP 38 991 for a 'Principal Teacher' and GBP 44 223 for a 'Depute Headteacher'. Promoted posts ('Principal Teacher', 'Depute Headteacher' and 'Headteacher' posts) are job-sized individually and allocated to a point on the appropriate pay range dependent on the management responsibilities of the post.
AL	1. Teacher (<i>mësues</i>); 2. Qualified Teacher (<i>mësues i kualifikuar</i>); 3. Specialist Teacher (<i>mësues specialist</i>); 4. Master Teacher (<i>mësues mjeshtër</i>).	In Albania, a 'Qualified Teacher' (<i>mësues i kualifikuar</i>) receives a salary increase of 5 % compared to a 'Teacher' (<i>mësue</i>). A 'Specialist Teacher' (<i>mësues specialist</i>) receives 10 % more than a 'Qualified Teacher' (<i>mësues i kualifikuar</i>) and a 'Master Teacher' (<i>mësues mjeshtër</i>) receives 10 % more than a 'Specialist Teacher' (<i>mësues specialist</i>).
BA	Flat career structure	(-)
CH	Flat career structure	(-)
FY	Flat career structure	(-)
IS	Flat career structure	(-)
LI	Flat career structure	(-)
ME	1. Trainee Teacher (<i>nastavnik pripravnik</i>); 2. Teacher (<i>nastavnik</i>); 3. Teacher Mentor (<i>nastavnik mentor</i>); 4. Teacher Advisor (<i>nastavnik savjetnik</i>); 5. Senior Teacher Advisor (<i>nastavnik viši savjetnik</i>); 6. Teacher Researcher (<i>nastavnik istraživač</i>).	A 'Trainee Teacher' (<i>nastavnik pripravnik</i>) receives 80 % of a 'Teacher's' (<i>nastavnik</i>) salary. The basic coefficient is increased by 0.3 for a 'Teacher Mentor' (<i>nastavnik mentor</i>), by 0.5 for a 'Teacher Advisor' (<i>nastavnik savjetnik</i>), and by 0.7 for a 'Senior Teacher Advisor' (<i>nastavnik viši savjetnik</i>). A teacher can be nominated as a 'Teacher Researcher' (<i>nastavnik istraživač</i>) without going through the successive levels, provided he/she meets the requirements for this level. The basic coefficient is increased by 0.8.
NO	Flat career structure	(-)
RS	1. Teacher (<i>nastavnik</i>); 2. Pedagogical Advisor (<i>pedagoški savetnik</i>); 3. Independent Pedagogical Advisor (<i>samostalni pedagoški savetnik</i>); 4. Higher Pedagogical Advisor (<i>viši pedagoški savetnik</i>); 5. Senior Pedagogical Advisor (<i>visoki pedagoški savetnik</i>).	No salary impact.
TR	Flat career structure	(-)

Explanatory note

The table mentions the various career levels in multi-level career structures as described in the national legislation. In some cases, the first career level corresponds to the induction period, where the teacher may or may not already be considered as a fully qualified teacher.

The amounts mentioned in the table have not been harmonised and are therefore not comparable across countries. They are intended only to provide an indication of the salary progression across career levels.

Country-specific notes

Latvia: As of 2017/18, the number of 'Quality Levels' has been reduced to three.

Romania: The first career level starts after the *titularizare* examination.

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia: A multi-level career structure should have been introduced in 2016/17 but this reform has not been implemented due to budget constraints. The career levels – according to the non-implemented legislation – are as follows: 1. 'Trainee Teacher' (*nastavnik pripravnik*), 2. 'Teacher' (*nastavnik*), 3. 'Teacher Mentor' (*nastavnik mentor*) and 4. 'Teacher Advisor' (*nastavnik sovetnik*).

Annexe 2 – Teacher competence frameworks

Existing teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17 (Data to Figure 4.7)

	Name	Link
BE fr	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decree of 12/12/2000 on initial training for primary and lower secondary teachers Decree of 21/02/2001 on initial training for upper secondary teachers 	http://www.gallilex.cfwb.be/document/pdf/25501_000.pdf http://www.gallilex.cfwb.be/document/pdf/25595_000.pdf
BE de	(-)	(-)
BE nl	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decision of 5/10/2007 on teachers' basic competences Decision of 5/10/2007 on teachers' professional profile 	http://data-onderwijs.vlaanderen.be/edulex/document.aspx?docid=13952 http://data-onderwijs.vlaanderen.be/edulex/document.aspx?docid=13942
BG	(-)	(-)
CZ	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Government regulation 275/2016 of 24/08/2016 on areas of education in higher education 	http://aplikace.mvcr.cz/sbirka-zakonu/SearchResult.aspx?q=275/2016&typeLaw=zakon&what=Cislo_zakona_smlouvy
DK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Executive order on the education of teachers for basic education (2013, updated 2015) Guidelines for universities for the education of upper secondary teachers (2016) 	https://www.retsinformation.dk/Forms/R0710.aspx?id=174218 https://www.retsinformation.dk/forms/R0710.aspx?id=29265
DE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Standards for teacher training in the educational sciences (2004) Common content requirements for subject-related studies and subject-related didactics in teacher training applying to all <i>Länder</i> (2008; updated in 2017) 	https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/Dateien/veroeffentlichungen_beschluess_e/2004/2004_12_16-Standards-Lehrerbildung-Bildungswissenschaften.pdf https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/Dateien/veroeffentlichungen_beschluess_e/2008/2008_10_16-Fachprofile-Lehrerbildung.pdf
EE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Professional standards for 'Teachers', 'Senior Teachers' (levels 7 EQF) and 'Master Teachers' (level 8 EQF) (2013) 	http://www.kutsekoda.ee/en/kutsesysteem/tutvustus/kutsestandardid_en_g
IE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Code of professional conduct for teachers (2006; updated 2016) 	www.teachingcouncil.ie/en/Publications/Fitness-to-Teach/Code-of-Professional-Conduct-for-Teachers1.pdf
EL	(-)	(-)
ES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Order ECI/3857/2007 of 27/12/2007 on the establishment of the requirements for the accreditation of official higher education diplomas for becoming a professional teacher in primary education Order ECI/3858/2007 of 27/12/2007 on the establishment of the requirements for the accreditation of official higher education diplomas for becoming a professional teacher in secondary education For Castilla y León: Standards of professional competences required of teachers 	https://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/12/29/pdfs/A53747-53750.pdf https://www.boe.es/boe/dias/2007/12/29/pdfs/A53751-53753.pdf ES: http://csfp.centros.educa.jcyl.es/sitio/upload/Modelo_de_Competencias_Profesionales_del_Profesorado_Definitivo_JCYL.pdf EN: http://csfp.centros.educa.jcyl.es/sitio/upload/Modelo%20de%20Competencias%20Profesionales%20del%20Profesorado%20traducido_Def.pdf
FR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Order of 01/07/2013 on the competence framework for education staff 	http://www.education.gouv.fr/pid25535/bulletin_officiel.html?cid_bo=73066
HR	(-)	(-)

	Name	Link
IT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decree nr 249 of 10/09/2010 on the definition, requirements and modalities of initial teacher education for pre-primary, primary and secondary teachers Decree nr 850 of 27/10/2015 on objectives, evaluation, training and evaluation criteria of teachers and other educational staff during induction and probationary period Plan for teacher training 2016-2019 	http://www.miur.it/Documenti/universita/Offerta_formativa/Formazione_iniziale_insegnanti_corsi_uni/DM_10_092010_n.249.pdf http://neoassunti.indire.it/2018/files/DM_850_27_10_2015.pdf http://www.istruzione.it/allegati/2016/Piano_Formazione_3ott.pdf
CY	(-)	(-)
LV	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Procedure for assessing the quality of teachers' professional activity (2014) 	https://m.likumi.lv/doc.php?id=267580
LT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Description of professional teacher competences (2007; currently being updated) 	https://e-seimas.lrs.lt/portal/legalAct/lt/TAD/TAIS.291726
LU	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher competence framework 	https://ssl.education.lu/ifen/documents/10180/730302/Referentiel%20de%20competences.pdf
HU	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decree 326/2013 on the system of promotion for teachers and their status as civil servants 	https://net.jogtar.hu/jr/gen/hjegy_doc.cgi?docid=a1300326.kor
MT	(-)	(-)
NL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decision on the requirements for education staff (2005; updated 2016) 	http://wetten.overheid.nl/BWBR0018692/2016-08-01
AT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Federal law on the organisation of university colleges of teacher education (2005; updated 2017) Teacher professional competences (Proposal of the Development Council, 2013) ⁽¹⁾ 	https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/Dokumente/BqblAuth/BGBLA_2017_I_129/BGBLA_2017_I_129.pdf http://www.qsr.or.at/dokumente/1869-20140529-092429-Professionelle_Kompetenzen_von_PaedagogInnen_Zielperspektive.pdf
PL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regulation of 17/01/2012 on initial teacher training standards 	http://www.dn.uj.edu.pl/documents/1333504/4915309/17.01.2012_Rozp_MNiSW_standardy_ksztalcenia_dla_nauczycieli.pdf
PT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decree-Law 240/2001 on the general profile of professional performance of teachers (ISCED 0-3) Decree-Law 241/2001 – Specific profiles of professional performance for pre-school teachers and primary teachers (ISCED 0-1) 	https://dre.pt/web/quest/pesquisa/-/search/631837/details/normal?q=decreto+lei+240%2F2001 https://dre.pt/web/quest/pesquisa/-/search/631843/details/normal?q=decreto+lei+241%2F2001
RO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Order nr 5.561 of 07/10/2011 on continuing education methodology for pre-university education staff 	https://www.edu.ro/sites/default/files/fi%C8%99iere/Invatamant-Preuniversitar/2016/resurse%20umane/formarea%20continua/OM%205561_2011%20Metodologie%20privind%20formarea%20continua%20C4%83%20a%20personalului%20din%20C3%AEEnv%20preuniv.pdf
SI	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rules on traineeship for professional staff in the field of education (2006) Criteria for the accreditation of study programmes for teacher education (2011) 	http://www.pisrs.si/Pis.web/pregledPredpisa?id=PRAV6697 http://www.pisrs.si/Pis.web/pregledPredpisa?id=MER141
SK	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Description of study fields (2002): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1.1.1. Teaching of academic subjects 1.1.5. Pre-primary and primary pedagogy 	http://www.akredkom.sk/isac/public/odbory/1/1.1/1.1.1.doc http://www.akredkom.sk/isac/public/odbory/1/1.1/1.1.5.doc
FI	(-)	(-)
SE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Higher Education Ordinance (1993) 	http://www.riksdagen.se/sv/dokument-lagar/dokument/svensk-forfattningssamling/hogskoleforordning-1993100_sfs-1993-100

⁽¹⁾ This document has no official status and is mentioned here for information only. It is not taken into account in the report.

	Name	Link
UK-ENG	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teachers' standards (2011) 	https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/teachers-standards
UK-WLS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Becoming a qualified teacher: handbook of guidance (2009) Revised professional standards for education practitioners (2011) 	http://gov.wales/docs/dcells/publications/090915becomingateacheren.pdf http://learning.gov.wales/docs/learningwales/publications/140630-revised-professional-standards-en.pdf
UK-NIR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teaching: the reflective profession – Incorporating the Northern Ireland teacher competences (2007) 	http://www.gtcsi.org.uk/index.cfm/area/information/page/ProfStandard
UK-SCT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The standards for registration (2012) The code of professionalism and conduct (2012) 	http://www.gtcs.org.uk/web/FILES/the-standards/standards-for-registration-1212.pdf http://www.gtcs.org.uk/web/FILES/teacher-regulation/copac-0412.pdf
AL	(-)	(-)
BA	(-)	(-)
CH	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regulation on the recognition of diplomas for pre-school and primary teachers (1999) Regulation on the recognition of diplomas for lower secondary teachers (1999) Regulation on the recognition of diplomas for upper secondary teachers (1998) 	http://edudoc.ch/record/29976/files/Regl_AK_VS_PS_f.pdf http://edudoc.ch/record/29979/files/Regl_Sekl_f.pdf http://edudoc.ch/record/38131/files/AK_Mat_f.pdf
FY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rulebook on teachers' basic competences in primary and secondary schools by area (2015) 	http://bro.gov.mk/docs/pravilnici/Pravilnik%20za%20osnovnite%20profesionalni%20kompetencii%20na%20nastavnicite.pdf
IS	(-)	(-)
LI	(-)	(-)
ME	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Competence framework for teachers and school heads (2016) 	http://www.zzs.gov.me/haslovna/168346/NACIONALNI-SAVJET-ZA-OBRAZOVANJE-USVOJIO-STANDARDE-KOMPETENCIJA-ZA-NASTAVNIKE-I-DIREKTORE-U-VASPITNO-OBRAZOVNIM-USTANOVAMA.html
NO	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regulations relating to the framework plan for primary and lower secondary teacher education for years 1-7 (2016) Regulations relating to the framework plan for primary and lower secondary teacher education for years 5-10 (2016) 	https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/c454dbe313c1438b9a965e84cec47364/forskrift-om-rammeplan-for-grunnskolelærerutdanning-for-trinn-1-7---engelsk-oversettelse-11064431.pdf https://www.regjeringen.no/contentassets/c454dbe313c1438b9a965e84cec47364/forskrift-om-rammeplan-for-grunnskolelærerutdanning-for-trinn-5-10---engelsk-oversettelse.pdf
RS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The standards of competences in the teaching profession and teacher professional development (2011) 	http://www.mpn.gov.rs/wp-content/uploads/2015/08/Правилник-о-стандардима-компетенција-за-професију-наставника-и-њиховог-професионалног-развоја.pdf
TR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> General qualifications for the teaching profession (2010, updated 2017) 	https://oygm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_12/06172441_Yqretmenlik_Meslegi_Genel_Yeterlikleri.pdf

Annexe 3 – Different uses of teacher competence frameworks

Different uses of the teacher competence frameworks issued by top-level authorities, primary and general secondary education (ISCED 1-3), 2016/17 (Data to Figure 4.9)

	ITE				CPD			Other	
	Defining learning outcomes to be acquired by the end of ITE	Teacher accreditation/licensing criteria	Selection/recruitment criteria	Assessing teacher competences at the end of induction	Developing CPD programmes	Preparing individual teachers' CPD plans	Teacher appraisal/evaluation criteria	Teacher promotion	Disciplinary procedures/cases of serious misconduct
BE fr	●								
BE de	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
BE nl	●				●				
BG	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
CZ	●								
DK	●								
DE	●				●				
EE	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	
IE	●	●							●
EL	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
ES	●		●						
FR	●			●	●	●	●		
HR	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
IT	●			●	●	●			
CY	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
LV							●	●	(-)
LT	●				●	●		●	
LU	●			●					
HU	●			●			●	●	
MT	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
NL	●								
AT	●		●		●				
PL	●								
PT	●								
RO	●		●	●	●	●	●	●	●
SI	●	●							
SK	●								
FI	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
SE	●	●							
UK-ENG	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	
UK-WLS	●	●		●	●	●	●	●	
UK-NIR	●			●	●	●	●		
UK-SCT	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
AL	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
BA	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
CH	●								
FY				●	●	●	●	●	
IS	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
LI	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
ME					●	●	●	●	
NO	●								
RS		●		●	●	●	●	●	
TR	●		●		●	●			

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GLOSSARY

I. Definitions

Accreditation: in some countries, this is a mandatory process which teachers must undergo to obtain official certification or a licence to teach. It normally involves an evaluation of the professional competences of teachers and can be a highly formal process. In some cases, appraisal at the end of the induction programme feeds into this process. Accreditation is intended to provide official confirmation of a teacher's ability to do the job. In some education systems, the accreditation must be renewed with teachers being re-evaluated at least once during their career.

Alternative pathways: in the context of the present study, these refer to any routes leading to a teaching qualification apart from the main initial teacher education programmes. Usually, alternative pathways are flexible, shorter than traditional pathways, and mostly employment-based training programmes which target individuals with professional experience gained inside or outside education. They are often introduced to combat teacher shortages and to attract graduates from other professional fields.

Appraisers: the people responsible for forming an evaluative judgement on the basis of selected relevant data.

Basic statutory salary: the salary indicated in official ► **salary scales** excluding allowances and financial benefits.

Candidate list: is a recruitment method in system(s) whereby candidate teachers submit applications for employment to a top- or intermediate-level authority, which then usually ranks the candidates according to defined criteria.

Career: an occupation or profession undertaken for a significant period of a person's life which offers opportunities for progression.

Career guidance: is intended to support individuals in managing and planning their progression within their profession. Guidance for teachers limited to ► **continuing professional development** provision or pedagogical and psychological support is not considered as career guidance.

Career structure: is the recognised progression pathway within a job or profession. Career structures may be flat or multi-level. A ► **salary scale** may be linked to the career structure, but is not its determining feature. See also ► **Flat career structure** and ► **Multi-level career structure**.

Civil servants: teachers in some countries are employed by the public authorities/administration (at central, regional or local level) as civil servants. The employment/appointment is in accordance with legislation regulating the functioning of public administrations, distinct from the one governing contractual relations in the public or private sector. In some countries, teachers may be appointed with the expectation of a lifelong career as a civil servant. Usually, transfers between institutions do not affect their civil servant status. Common synonyms: public official, official, functionary. See also ► **Non-civil servant public employee**.

Classroom observation: an instrument used by evaluators to assess teacher performance in the classroom environment, usually in the context of teacher appraisal.

Continuing professional development (CPD): the in-service training undertaken throughout a teacher's career that allows them to broaden, develop and update their knowledge, skills and attitudes. It may be formal or non-formal and include both subject-based and pedagogical training. Different formats are offered such as courses, seminars, peer observation and support from teacher

networks. In certain cases, ► **continuing professional development** activities may lead to supplementary qualifications.

Contract of indefinite duration: a type of employment contract which is open-ended, i.e. does not specify a definite time period. In some countries, these are known as permanent contracts. See also ► **Fixed-term contract**.

Development needs: the learning and development requirements of a professional or group of professionals. These are usually determined by comparing existing competences with the recognised core competences or skill levels required for a role and then identifying the gaps. Development needs are usually incorporated into a ► **continuing professional development/training plan** which, in addition, defines the strategies, tasks, and methods that will be used to help individuals or groups fulfil their development needs.

Employees with contractual status: teachers generally employed by local or school authorities on a contractual basis in accordance with general employment legislation, with or without central agreements on pay and conditions.

Employer: refers to the body with direct responsibility for appointing teachers, specifying their working conditions (in collaboration with other partners, as appropriate) and ensuring that these conditions are met. This includes ensuring the payment of teachers' salaries, although funds for this purpose may not necessarily derive directly from the budget of the employing authority. This should be distinguished from the responsibility for managing resources within the school itself, which lies (to a greater or lesser extent) with the school head or the school management board. Responsibilities for engaging and remunerating substitute teachers are beyond the scope of the report.

Employment contract: See ► **Fixed-term contract** and ► **Contract of indefinite duration**.

Evaluation framework: guidelines for carrying out evaluations which may be general (e.g. indicating broadly what to evaluate) or detailed (e.g. providing comprehensive guidance on what to evaluate, how to evaluate, which criteria to use, which standards are acceptable, etc.). The ► **teacher competence framework** may be used as a reference point for the evaluation framework).

External school evaluation: is conducted by evaluators who are not directly involved in the activities of the school being evaluated and who report to a local, regional or top-level education authority. It covers a broad range of school activities, including teaching and learning and/or all aspects of school management. Evaluation which is conducted by specialist evaluators or auditors concerned with specific tasks (related to accounting records, health, safety, archives, etc.) is not regarded as external school evaluation. See also ► **Internal school evaluation**.

Financial incentives: monetary benefit offered to employees to compensate for additional workload or to encourage behaviour or actions which otherwise would not take place. In the context of this report, they include extra salary payments and/or additional allowances available to teachers within a particular level of the career structure.

Fixed-term contract: a type of employment contract which expires at the end of a specified period. See also ► **Contract of indefinite duration**.

Flat career structure: a single level career structure that applies to all qualified teachers. A ► **salary scale** may be in use but it usually relates to years spent in service and, possibly, performance. A flat career structure may allow for a teacher to widen their experience or take on additional tasks or responsibilities.

Formal feedback: in the context of teacher appraisal, performance feedback is often presented formally through a written report and a record may be kept in the teacher's or school's file.

Formative evaluation: in the context of teacher appraisal, formative evaluation focuses on the developmental dimension of the process and seeks to improve teachers' professional skills and abilities (e.g. through identifying needs and implementing professional development plans). The process does not normally result in ratings or judgements. See also ► **Summative evaluation**.

Forward planning: is a process used in forecasting the future trends in teacher supply and demand. It is based on observation and identification of the most likely future scenarios. The data examined include demographic projections such as birth rates and migration, as well as variations in the number of trainee teachers and changes within the teaching profession (the number of staff retiring, transfers to non-teaching posts, etc.). The forward planning of teaching staff supply and demand may focus on a long-, medium- and/or short-term basis. Planning policy is developed either at top-level or regional/local level (or both) depending on the relative degree of centralisation (or decentralisation) in the education system concerned.

Fully qualified teacher: a teacher who has completed initial teacher education and has fulfilled all the other official accreditation and certification requirements to be employed as a teacher at the level of education concerned.

General learning difficulties: student learning problems that are not directly related to any specific physical, sensory or intellectual impairment; instead the learning difficulties may be due to external factors such as socio-cultural disadvantage, limited opportunities to learn, a lack of support at home, an inappropriate curriculum, or insufficient teaching in the early years.

Induction: a structured support phase provided for teachers new to the profession or for prospective teachers. It can take place at the start of their first contract as a teacher in school or within the framework of initial teacher education. ► **Professional training** – during the formal initial teacher education programme, and specifically ► **in-school placements** – is not considered as induction, even if remunerated. During induction, teachers new to the profession or prospective teachers carry out wholly or partially the tasks incumbent on experienced teachers, and are remunerated for their activity. Normally, induction includes training and evaluation, and a ► **mentor** providing personal, social and professional support is appointed to help these teachers within a structured system. The phase lasts at least several months, and can occur during the ► **probationary period**.

Internal school evaluation: is undertaken by individuals directly involved in the school (such as the school head or its teaching/administrative staff and pupils). Teaching and/or management tasks may be evaluated. See also ► **External school evaluation**.

Interview/dialogue: in the context of teacher appraisal, this is the direct face-to-face interaction between the teacher and the evaluator, whereby information is exchanged and the teacher is appraised. The interview or discussion can be structured, semi-structured or open, depending on the aim of the appraisal and the evaluation framework.

In-school placement: a placement (remunerated or not) in a real working environment lasting typically not more than a few weeks. It is supervised by a class teacher, with periodic assessment by teachers at the training institution. These placements are an integral part of ► **professional training** which is a part of initial teacher education. In-school placements are distinct from ► **induction**.

Licence: See ► **Accreditation**.

Line manager: a senior teacher or head of department within a school, who has responsibilities for supervising and appraising junior colleagues.

Local authority: the lowest level of territorial government in a nation with a responsibility for education. The local authority may be the education department within a general-purpose local authority or it may be a special-purpose authority whose sole area of responsibility is education. See also ► **Top-level authority** and ► **School level**.

Mentor: a teacher within the same school who is responsible for providing guidance and advice to another colleague. Mentors are not necessarily more senior hierarchically, although they usually have more experience in the specific school or in the job.

Mentoring support: the professional guidance provided to teachers by more experienced colleagues. Mentoring can be part of the ► **induction** phase for teachers new to the profession. Mentoring may also be available to any teachers in need of support.

Multi-level career structure: a ► **career structure** with several formally defined career levels. These levels are usually defined by a set of competences and/or responsibilities. Within a multi-level career structure, different career levels are structured in terms of ascending complexity and greater responsibility.

Non-civil servant public employee: status of a teacher employed by public authorities (at central, regional or local level) in accordance with legislation governing contractual relations in the public sector. Such legislation is distinct from the one governing contractual relations for ► **civil servants**.

Open recruitment: the method of recruitment whereby responsibility for advertising vacant posts, requesting applications and selecting candidates is decentralised. Recruitment is usually the responsibility of the school, sometimes in conjunction with the ► **local authority**.

Peer evaluator: teachers acting as evaluators that are equal in terms of role and hierarchy to the teacher being evaluated.

Permanent contract: see ► **Contract of indefinite duration**.

Portfolio: a collection of evidence that allows teachers to demonstrate the knowledge, skills and experience acquired in their teaching posts. The portfolio may be used when applying for ► **promotion** to a higher level in the ► **career structure** or to justify a salary increase.

Probationary period (or probation period): a temporary appointment in the form of a trial period. Conditions may vary depending on working regulations but it may last from several months to several years. At the end of this period, the teacher may be subject to a final assessment and, if successful, is normally offered a ► **contract of indefinite duration**.

Professional development: see ► **Continuing professional development**.

Professional training: in the context of initial teacher education, it provides prospective teachers with both the theoretical and practical skills needed to be a teacher but does not include the academic knowledge of the subject(s) to be taught. In addition to courses in psychology, teaching methods and methodology, professional training includes ► **in-school placements**.

Promotion: advancement to a higher level in a ► **multi-level career structure**. In the context of this report, only promotion to another teaching role is considered – promotion to the position of school head, teacher educator, inspector or other non-teaching post is excluded if these roles do not involve teaching duties. Salary progression is not considered *per se* as a promotion.

Rating: a classification or ranking based on a comparative assessment of quality, standard, or performance according to a pre-defined scale. In appraisal systems, it is used to synthesise the judgment made on a teacher's performance, and may be described using terms such as excellent, good, satisfactory or inadequate.

Regulations/recommendations (Top-level): two of the main ways by which government authorities seek to influence the behaviour of subordinate bodies. Regulations are rules or orders having the force of law; they are prescribed by a public authority to regulate the conduct of those under the authority's control. Recommendations are suggestions or proposals as to the best course of action to be taken. They are usually published in official documents but are not mandatory. With respect to education, regulations and recommendations prescribe or propose the use of specific tools, methods and/or strategies for teaching and learning.

Reward: something given, financial or otherwise, in recognition of service, effort, or achievement. In the context of teacher appraisal, it is one possible outcomes of the evaluation process.

Ring-fenced: the means by which a budget is protected and only able to be used for particular purposes.

Sabbatical leave: a period of absence which allows teachers the opportunity to dedicate a certain period of time to specific job-related activities. Commonly, teachers' sabbaticals focus on research, but may also concentrate on other activities, such as professional development or working on a specific project.

Salary scale: a graded scale of wages or salaries within a particular organisation or profession. The salary paid to an employee may change according to performance, time spent on the job, etc., but any changes will fall within the allocated salary scale.

School level: referred to in the context of decision-making, where decisions affecting the school are taken by individuals or bodies within a school such as the school head, the school board, the parent committee, etc. See also ► **Top-level authority** and ► **Local authority**.

School leader/head: the person leading a school who, alone or within an administrative body such as a board or council, is responsible for its management/administration. Depending on circumstances, the person concerned may also exercise educational responsibilities which may include a teaching commitment as well as responsibility for the general functioning of the institution. The head's duties in this respect may cover timetabling, implementing the curriculum, deciding what is to be taught and the materials and methods used, as well as teacher performance and appraisal. Some financial responsibilities may also be given to the head but these are often limited to administering the resources allocated to the school.

Standardised test: any form of test that (1) requires all test takers to answer the same questions, or a selection of questions from common bank of questions, in the same way, and that (2) is scored in a 'standard' or consistent manner, which makes it possible to compare the relative performance of individual students or groups of students. While different types of tests and assessments may be 'standardised' in this way, the term is primarily associated with large-scale tests administered to large populations of students, such as a multiple-choice test given to all students in a particular grade.

Student outcomes: are often defined in terms of pass rates, graduation rates, retention rates, etc. These data may be used in the context of teacher appraisal to assess performance and the ability to meet objectives.

Summative evaluation: involves a judgemental dimension of the process of appraisal and its goals. Usually it results in ratings or judgements that allow comparison with peers and is used to determine readiness for career advancement, pay increases, entitlement to rewards, sanctions, professional development activities, and so on. See also ► **Formative evaluation**.

Teacher appraisal: the evaluation of individual teachers with a view to formulating a judgement about their work and performance. It can be both ► **formative evaluation** and/or ► **summative evaluation** and usually results in verbal or written feedback that is intended to guide and help them to improve their teaching. It can lead to individual professional development plans, ► **promotion**, salary progression and other formal and/or informal outcomes.

Teacher competence framework: a collection of statements about what a teacher as a professional should know, understand and be able to do which may be used to support the identification of development needs and improve the skills of the teaching workforce. The level of detail in the description of the knowledge, skills and competences may vary.

Teacher mobility: encompasses any move made by teachers after their initial appointment to a school, including moves to another school either within or between school districts, moves initiated by teachers as well as transfers instigated by education authorities. The moves made by early-career teachers are covered as well as those that occur in the later stages of teachers' careers. Teacher mobility with respect to those leaving the profession, the engagement of substitute teachers and the short-term assignments new teachers may have in a number of schools before gaining a permanent post are not included.

Teacher testing: in the context of teacher appraisal it is an instrument used to assess teachers' competences through written tests or oral examinations.

Top-level authority: refers to the highest level of authority with responsibility for education in a given country, usually located at national (state) level. However, for Belgium, Germany, Spain, the United Kingdom and Switzerland, the *Communautés*, *Länder*, *Comunidades Autónomas*, devolved administrations and Cantons respectively are responsible for all or most areas relating to education. Therefore, these administrations are considered as the top-level authority for the areas where they hold sole responsibility, and for the areas of responsibility shared with the national (state) level, both are considered to be top-level authorities. See also ► **Local authority** and ► **School level**.

Underperformance: term used to describe non-satisfactory performance in the context of teacher appraisal. The characteristics that are considered indicative of unsatisfactory performance, the way such judgments are reached, expressed and formalised, and their consequences depend on the appraisal system in question and vary from one education system to another.

II. ISCED Classification

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) has been developed to facilitate comparisons of education statistics and indicators across countries on the basis of uniform and internationally agreed definitions. The coverage of ISCED extends to all organised and sustained learning opportunities for children, young people and adults, including those with special educational needs, irrespective of the institutions or organisations providing them or the form in which they are delivered. The first statistical data collection based on the new classification (ISCED 2011) took place in 2014 (text and definitions adopted from UNESCO, 1997, UNESCO/OECD/Eurostat, 2013 and UNESCO/UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011).

ISCED 0: Pre-primary education

Programmes at level 0 (pre-primary), defined as the initial stage of organised instruction, are designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment, i.e. to provide a bridge between the home and a school-based atmosphere. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at level 1 (primary education).

ISCED level 0 programmes are usually school-based or otherwise institutionalised for a group of children (e.g. centre-based, community-based, home-based).

Early childhood educational development (ISCED level 010) has educational content designed for younger children (in the age range of 0 to 2 years). Pre-primary education (ISCED level 020) is designed for children aged at least 3 years.

ISCED 1: Primary education

Primary education provides learning and educational activities typically designed to provide students with fundamental skills in reading, writing and mathematics (i.e. literacy and numeracy). It establishes a sound foundation for learning, a solid understanding of core areas of knowledge and fosters personal development, thus preparing students for lower secondary education. It provides basic learning with little specialisation, if any.

This level begins between 5 and 7 years of age, is compulsory in all countries and generally lasts from four to six years.

ISCED 2: Lower secondary education

Programmes at ISCED level 2, or lower secondary education, typically build upon the fundamental teaching and learning processes which begin at ISCED level 1. Usually, the educational aim is to lay the foundation for lifelong learning and personal development that prepares students for further educational opportunities. Programmes at this level are usually organised around a more subject-oriented curriculum, introducing theoretical concepts across a broad range of subjects.

This level typically begins around the age of 11 or 12 and usually ends at age 15 or 16, often coinciding with the end of compulsory education.

ISCED 3: Upper secondary education

Programmes at ISCED level 3, or upper secondary education, are typically designed to complete secondary education in preparation for tertiary or higher education, or to provide skills relevant to employment, or both. Programmes at this level offer students more subject-based, specialist and in-

depth programmes than in lower secondary education (ISCED level 2). They are more differentiated, with an increased range of options and streams available.

This level generally begins at the end of compulsory education. The entry age is typically age 15 or 16. Entry qualifications (e.g. completion of compulsory education) or other minimum requirements are usually needed. The duration of ISCED level 3 varies from two to five years.

ISCED 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education

Post-secondary non-tertiary programmes build on secondary education to provide learning and educational activities to prepare students for entry into the labour market and/or tertiary education. It typically targets students who have completed upper secondary (ISCED level 3) but who want to improve their skills and increase the opportunities available to them. Programmes are often not significantly more advanced than those at upper secondary level as they typically serve to broaden rather than deepen knowledge, skills and competences. They are therefore pitched below the higher level of complexity characteristic of tertiary education.

ISCED 5: Short-cycle tertiary education

Programmes at ISCED level 5 are short-cycle tertiary education, and are often designed to provide participants with professional knowledge, skills and competences. Typically, they are practice-based and occupation-specific, preparing students to enter the labour market. However, these programmes may also provide a pathway to other tertiary education programmes.

Academic tertiary education programmes below the level of a Bachelor's programme or equivalent are also classified as ISCED level 5.

ISCED 6: Bachelor's or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 6 are at Bachelor's or equivalent level, which are often designed to provide participants with intermediate academic and/or professional knowledge, skills and competences, leading to a first degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes at this level are typically theory-based but may include practical elements; they are informed by state of the art research and/or best professional practice. ISCED 6 programmes are traditionally offered by universities and equivalent tertiary educational institutions.

ISCED 7: Master's or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 7 are at Master's or equivalent level, and are often designed to provide participants with advanced academic and/or professional knowledge, skills and competences, leading to a second degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes at this level may have a substantial research component but do not lead to the award of a doctoral qualification. Typically, programmes at this level are theory-based but may include practical components and are informed by state of the art research and/or best professional practice. They are traditionally offered by universities and other tertiary educational institutions.

ISCED 8: Doctoral or equivalent level

Programmes at ISCED level 8 are at doctoral or equivalent level, and are designed primarily to lead to an advanced research qualification. Programmes at this ISCED level are devoted to advanced study and original research and are typically offered only by research-oriented tertiary educational institutions such as universities. Doctoral programmes exist in both academic and professional fields.

For more information on the ISCED classification, see <http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/international-standard-classification-of-education-isced-2011-en.pdf> [accessed March 2017].

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Teaching Careers in Europe: Access, Progression and Support

The report describes the mechanisms and practices that support evidence-based policy-making in the education sector in Europe. It comparatively looks at institutions and practices in evidence-based policy-making, as well as the accessibility, and mediation, of evidence. The report presents more detailed information on each individual country, with specific examples of the use of evidence in policy formulation for each separate country.

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