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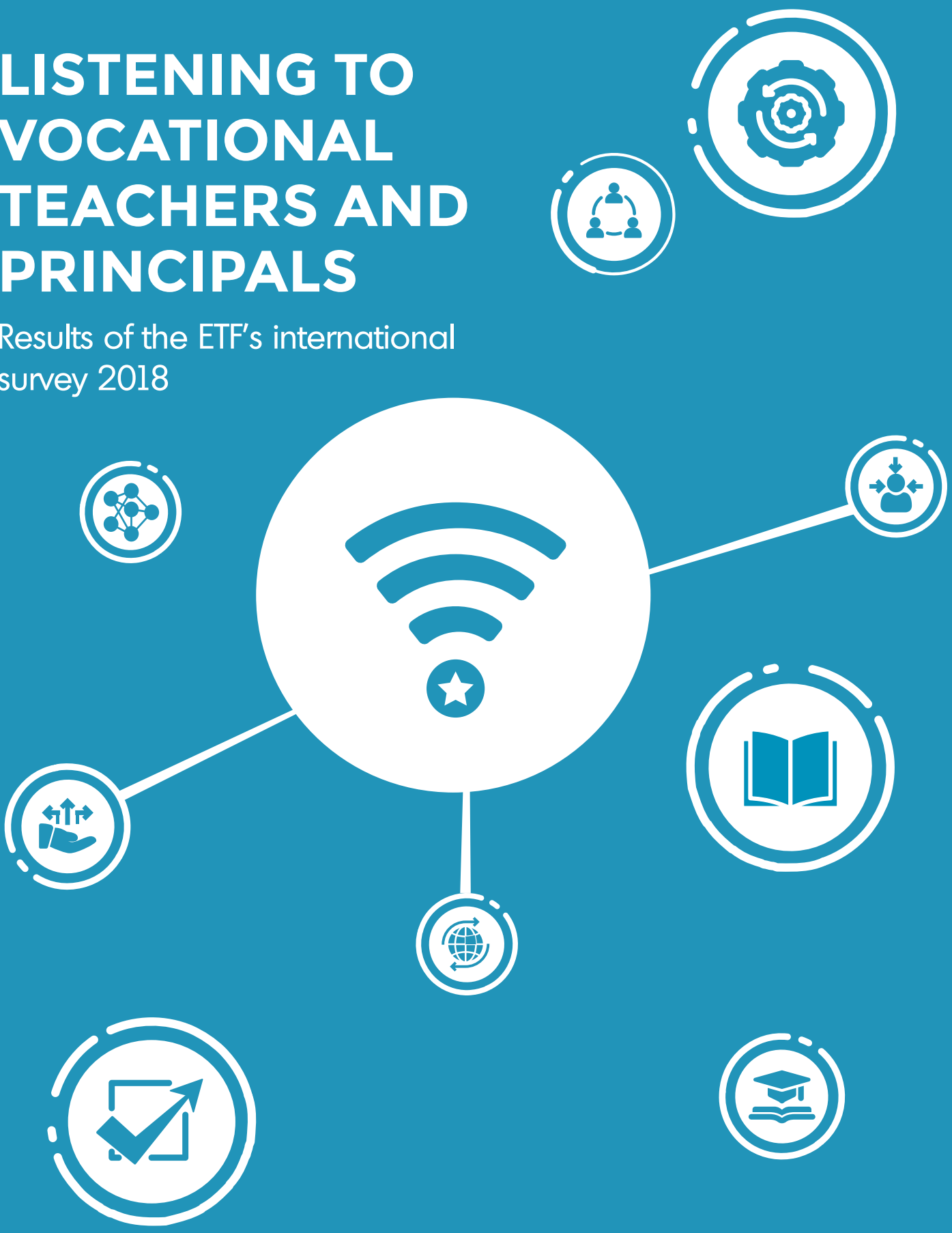
European Training Foundation

LISTENING TO VOCATIONAL TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Results of the ETF's international survey 2018



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PREFACE

This report provides an international analysis of the findings of nine national research projects that were conducted from 2018 to 2019. At the heart of the research were two surveys, one for vocational teachers and the other for principals of vocational schools, which were carried out in Albania, Algeria, Belarus, Kosovo[1], Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, Tunisia and Turkey. The research was intended to give a comparable picture of each workforce in the nine vocational education and training (VET) systems, starting from the point of view of the practitioners themselves. The surveys were complemented by interviews with other stakeholders and documentary research. The country reports aim to inform national discussions. This report aims to inform international policy discussion and to enrich national discussions.

The European Training Foundation (ETF) is extremely grateful to the policy makers and administrators, principals and teachers who supported and participated in this research in all nine countries. They showed enthusiasm and interest in the project and worked hard to make the data as complete and reliable as possible. They have added to their already considerable workload because they hope that this report will provide useful evidence that will help them to make improvements. We hope that they find something of value in this report. The ETF is also grateful to the researchers and experts who carried out the nine national research projects on which this comparative report builds.

The project was led by Julian Stanley, who is also the lead author. Eva Jansova led on the analysis, advised on survey methodology and also wrote the first two chapters. The ETF is grateful to experts Stefan Thomas and Kristien van den Eynde for their advice and comments during the drafting process.

[1] This designation is without prejudice to positions on status, and is in line with UNSCR 1244/1999 and the ICJ Opinion on the Kosovo declaration of independence – hereinafter 'Kosovo'.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The purpose of this study is to examine and compare the state of provision of continuing professional development (CPD) for vocational teachers and trainers across nine different countries: Albania, Algeria, Belarus, Kosovo, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, Tunisia and Turkey. However, rather than simply investigating CPD, the study examines CPD in the context of the working life of vocational teachers, including their pedagogy, their qualifications, their work satisfaction and their careers. It also considers the context of the schools in which they work: their culture, governance, resources and planning.

This report builds upon nine separate national studies, each of which included a literature review, interviews with selected stakeholders, and two surveys, one for teachers and trainers and the other for principals. This methodological approach gives particular attention to the perceptions of vocational teachers and their principals, and it makes it possible to interpret their views in the context of normative frameworks and policy developments. Highlighting the perceptions of practitioners reveals the gaps between what the norms require (and what policy intends) and what practitioners experience. Of course, the views expressed by teachers must be interpreted. However, it is vital to understand and take on board the perspective of practitioners, as we cannot expect teachers to become highly motivated, highly skilled, innovative, autonomous professionals if they have little voice in the development of their own profession.

It is anticipated that this report will be of particular interest to policy makers because it tries to clarify the current condition and professional development of vocational teachers, taking into account policy objectives. The report shows how certain indicators can be used to audit policy making and policy implementation in relation to teachers. The report also helps policy makers to make comparisons over time and between countries, which may help them to make more informed decisions in relation to goal setting and prioritisation.

The surveys targeted, for the most part, public schools providing initial upper secondary education, at the levels of International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 3 and 4. In four of the countries, some private schools were included where this was possible and desired by stakeholders. In four smaller countries, all vocational schools were included in the surveys, while in larger countries a stratified random sample of schools was selected. All teachers and principals in the selected schools were then invited to participate in the two online surveys. Across the nine countries, 745 principals and 10 631 vocational teachers and trainers responded. The ETF surveys provide representative samples of all vocational teachers and principals working in the nine countries included in the study.

Findings

Most vocational teachers are female but most principals are male. The vocational teaching workforce is relatively old in Serbia, Kosovo and Montenegro. In Albania, Algeria, Moldova, Tunisia and Belarus, 60% or more of principals identify a lack of qualified or well-performing vocational teachers as a barrier to good-quality instruction in their schools. Shortages of teachers with competence in teaching students with special needs and instructors for practical sessions are important constraints in most countries. A significant minority of vocational teachers do not

have any initial pedagogical training and, in some countries, the pedagogical training of many vocational teachers takes place after they have started teaching.

School boards make relatively little contribution to school governance outside of the Western Balkans. In Albania, Algeria and Tunisia, more than 25% of vocational schools lack representation from employers, rising to 46% in Belarus. Inadequate budget and resources are seen as a constraint on managerial effectiveness by 70% or more of principals in all countries. Government and regulation are also rated as constraints to effectiveness in most countries.

The majority of vocational teachers across the nine countries say that they practise both traditional and modern pedagogical methods. However, in most countries traditional methods, such as the teacher summarising learning and class-wide repetition of tasks, are more popular than more modern approaches, such as differentiated tasks and group work. Most vocational teachers seek to make connections between classroom learning and the world of work, but they are constrained by their physical environments and timetables. Frequent visits to the workplace or by employers to schools are not common, and students do not usually have frequent contact with employers or with enterprises. The majority of teachers are using digital technology to find or create instructional material, although they are less likely to make use of digital technologies in teaching. This can be largely explained by shortages in hardware and software and insufficient internet access.

In most of the countries, only a minority of vocational teachers believe that their profession is valued in their societies. This is a widespread problem in teaching and it represents a challenge for policy makers and leadership.

Across the nine countries, regulative frameworks serve to set minimum standards, mobilise resources and ensure consistency in the provision of CPD. However, the particular needs of vocational teachers are neglected because the norms are, for the most part, designed for all teachers.

In most of the countries, there are clear, current, strategic objectives addressing CPD for teachers, including vocational teachers. However, the particular issues relating to vocational teachers and trainers, for example the need to renew their knowledge of the workplace, are sometimes neglected in policy statements. In Montenegro, Albania, Kosovo, Serbia and Turkey, there is evidence that some policies on CPD for vocational teachers are being implemented. However, in Tunisia and Algeria there are currently no clear strategic policy statements for CPD, while in Belarus and Moldova it is difficult to judge progress in implementation because monitoring of action plans has not been published.

Policy making in some countries is led by relatively large national VET agencies or specialised ministerial departments. If national VET agencies are relatively small, it is difficult for them to uphold the distinctive needs of vocational teachers and trainers. Regular and transparent monitoring of implementation is underdeveloped across all nine countries. Where strategic decision making does not involve and engage practitioners and stakeholders, policies are less likely to be responsive and less likely to be implemented successfully.

We can distinguish two different models of CPD provision. Algeria, Belarus and, to some degree, Tunisia have VET agencies that function as *national VET CPD providers* that define training needs, and design and deliver CPD for vocational trainers. In contrast, for the most part, national agencies in Serbia, Montenegro, Moldova and Albania *commission* CPD from outside providers.

Where there is no mechanism to make national training providers responsive, and where they lack knowledge of needs, national providers are less likely to renew their training offer to match changing needs. None of the nine central authorities has a comprehensive system to gather and analyse the needs of their vocational teachers. If commissioning systems are underfunded, slow and bureaucratic, they will not bring in new providers. Turkey has been able to increase the variety of suppliers and programmes by supporting multiple channels for CPD: central provision, partnerships, donor programmes and local provision. In a few countries – Serbia, Belarus, Turkey and Algeria – some decisions are delegated to regional or provincial authorities. There are some initiatives, such as the establishment of centres of vocational excellence (CoVEs), for example in Moldova and Turkey, which help to decentralise decision making and spending on CPD.

Moldova, Serbia, Kosovo and Albania operate independent bodies that evaluate training proposals from independent providers, but sometimes these bodies do not include representatives with relevant expertise. Feedback from CPD participants is collected in most systems, but decisions about spending and accreditation on CPD are not usually informed by evidence on impact.

In all countries there is a lack of resources to develop and sustain high-quality, vocationally relevant CPD for vocational teachers. International development aid and projects make a significant contribution to the funding and design of CPD, but sometimes this provision is not well integrated into national provision.

Across all nine countries, 64% of vocational teachers have participated in some kind of CPD over the previous 12 months. Serbia, Montenegro, Albania and Moldova all have participation rates of 80% or higher, while Algeria, Tunisia and Kosovo have participation rates of less than 50%.

However, only 38% of all vocational teachers have participated in CPD that addressed their vocational specialism and only 48% have participated in CPD (including study visits) that took place on business premises. In 2018, two years before the arrival of Covid-19, participation in online CPD averaged 34% across all nine countries.

Around 31% of all teachers in the sample have obtained 30 hours or more CPD over 12 months. In Serbia, Moldova and Montenegro, more than 50% of vocational teachers have reached this benchmark. In two of the countries that participated in the 2015 survey, Albania and Montenegro, the percentage of teachers meeting the benchmark has risen, while in Kosovo and Turkey it has fallen.

Overall, around a third of all principals have participated in at least 30 hours of courses or conferences over the previous 12 months. Participation is particularly high in Montenegro, Belarus and Albania.

In most countries, vocational schools or training centres are expected to carry out needs analysis and to plan CPD. Although in general they lack budget and capacity dedicated to CPD, they do make some provision, in which about 50% of all teachers in the survey participate.

Mentoring is offered to new teachers in 71% of schools and to experienced teachers in 26% of schools in the survey. About 60% say they collaborate informally, but only about 40% say that they have had any planned discussion with their managers or pedagogic advisers over the past month and only 52% have had planned discussions with their colleagues over the same period.

In Turkey, Albania, Serbia and Montenegro, 60% or more of teachers say they have received feedback from their managers after lesson observation. However, feedback is unusual in Algeria and Tunisia. Currently it is unusual for trained, specialised mentors to provide feedback after classroom observation for teachers in these countries.

There is some evidence to suggest that the processes for matching the training offer to teachers are not very efficient, either at the level of design or at the level of allocation. Around 45% of those teachers who did not access particular kinds of training report high or moderate need for that training. Some 55% of vocational teachers report that the lack of relevance of CPD is a barrier to their participation in CPD.

Most participants report that training has moderate to high impact on their teaching. However, around one third of teachers have participated in training events that, according to them, have had only low or no impact. Moreover, none of the countries carry out a follow-up of teachers who have been trained to see whether their teaching has changed or improved.

Most countries do not operate information management systems that permit them to monitor and analyse consumption of CPD over time. National providers of training generally keep a record of the provision they make, but it is usually not aggregated and not analysed. In some countries, both schools and teachers are expected to keep a record of participation. Participation in CPD is required for both promotion and relicensing in most, though not all, countries. However, there are inconsistencies about which CPD is recognised. Around 58% of vocational teachers in the survey say the absence of incentives is a barrier to their participation in CPD.

Recommendations

Setting an aspirational strategy and establishing an ambitious regulatory framework

1. Ensure that all vocational teachers receive initial pedagogical training and that their pedagogical skills are updated to keep up with new learning needs, methods and technologies.
2. Set realistic minimum requirements (in terms of days or hours) for CPD for vocational teachers and, in addition, set aspirational targets against which progress can be measured.
3. Help teachers to strengthen the relationship between vocational learning in school and the workplace, for example by supporting work-based learning, visits to the workplace and employer engagement with vocational learning. Invest in the learning environment and technology (including educational technology) with the goal of making vocational learning as authentic as possible.
4. Consult to explore how the social status of teachers can be raised so that able and innovative individuals are recruited and retained. Give consideration to how salaries and career structures can support professionalisation.
5. Consult about whether specific norms and regulations should be developed to define the requirements and entitlements with respect to professional development for vocational teachers and trainers (as opposed to other kinds of teachers)
6. Develop and publish, on a regular basis, an authoritative and comprehensive strategic policy statement that addresses CPD for vocational teachers and

trainers. This should be complemented with an action plan, appropriate resources and a transparent monitoring process.

7. Clarify leadership in policy making and set up channels of communication and processes for unblocking obstacles, particularly where many organisations or departments are involved.
8. Inform strategic decision making with reliable evidence of current practice and performance of CPD, and provide feedback on implementation. Publish data and monitoring information in order to engage stakeholders, such as teachers and employers, and provide opportunities for consultation in relation to policy making.

Empowering and coordinating diverse actors

9. Develop school autonomy, particularly in relation to professional development, as this helps school managers to make well-informed, responsive and efficient decisions that link the development of individual teachers and trainers to organisational development.
10. Coordinate and mobilise actors across different public, private and third-sector institutions to support CPD for vocational teachers. Do this at multiple levels, for example national vocational councils, sector skills councils, regional development agencies and education–business joint working groups.
11. Facilitate the emergence of competent and diverse providers of CPD for vocational teachers and principals. Review commissioning and quality assurance processes to make sure that they do not deter new providers, and innovative new training offers.
12. Engage and mobilise enterprises to extend the offer of work-based CPD for vocational teachers, for example with industry placements and work-based training workshops.
13. Enhance the contribution made by universities to CPD for vocational teachers, for example through the provision of post-graduate programmes in new technologies and new pedagogies and/or by supporting partnerships between researchers and experts in universities and vocational schools.
14. Develop the capacity of schools and training centres to programme, provide and evaluate their own CPD. This may be done by offering training and support to CPD coordinators in each school, by providing dedicated funding and tools, and by supporting collaboration through networks and clusters, for example led by Centres of Vocational Excellence(CoVEs).
15. Improve the availability and quality of mentoring, for example by ensuring that mentors are trained and have the skills and time necessary to mentor. Increase the opportunities for teachers to receive feedback from trained observers and develop opportunities for extended professional development that build upon such feedback.
16. Encourage and support teacher collaboration, at the level of schools and also through local and professional networks, for example by providing working time for joint lesson planning and networking.

Ensuring that the continuing professional development is relevant and impactful

17. Devise ways to take account of impact when planning CPD, for example through research or through self-evaluation at the level of schools.
18. Help teachers to access those training programmes that are most relevant to their development needs, for example by allowing for advanced booking and expanding programmes that are oversubscribed.

19. Make better use of professional standards to support the identification of training needs and to shape the design of training programmes.
20. Develop CPD that prepares and qualifies teachers to take on specialised roles, for example coordinators, or leadership roles, for example subject leaders. In this way, CPD will connect to professional growth and career advancement.
21. Improve the processes through which the development needs of teachers and schools are identified and make better use of this information to inform decisions about planning, matching and designing the offer, for example by empowering schools to commission tailored CPD from trusted providers.
22. Improve the way that CPD participation is recorded, analysed and monitored, for example by making better use of information systems.

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine and compare the state of provision of CPD for vocational teachers and trainers across nine different countries: Albania, Algeria, Belarus, Kosovo, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, Tunisia and Turkey. However, rather than simply investigating CPD, the study examines CPD in the context of the working life of vocational teachers, including their pedagogy, their qualifications, their work satisfaction and their careers. It also considers the context of the schools in which they work: their culture, governance, resources and planning.

Policy makers and researchers have agreed for many years that professional development is a key tool for improving teaching and learning and, in general, for implementing any kind of educational reform. However, recently policy documents tend to position professional development as part of a raft of measures that can serve to enhance the contribution and the role of teachers, along with improvements in their salaries, their careers, their status and changes in their work responsibilities. This study confirms this line of thinking: CPD should be regarded as part of an integrated strategy for developing not only the competence of teachers, but also their commitment, ambition and capacity to meet the needs of learners and respond to current challenges.

This report builds upon nine separate national studies, each of which includes a literature review, interviews with selected stakeholders and two surveys, one for teachers and trainers and the other for principals. The ETF's international surveys of vocational teachers and principals were conducted in all nine countries from 2018 to 2019. This methodological approach gives particular attention to the perceptions of vocational teachers and their principals, and it makes it possible to interpret their views in the context of normative frameworks and policy developments. Highlighting the perceptions of practitioners reveals that sometimes there are gaps between what the norms require and the intentions set out in policy and what practitioners experience. Of course, there are different ways of explaining this gap: the perceptions of teachers and principals must be interpreted. If, however, we regard CPD as part of the process by which vocational teachers become autonomous, well-motivated, highly skilled, innovative and flexible professionals, then it is clear that their perspective must be understood and given considerable importance. The desired trajectory of development implies that vocational teachers should have an ever-growing voice in shaping their own CPD, along with the rest of their work.

The ETF surveys build upon the legacy and the ongoing work of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) (OECD, 2019). However, TALIS is targeted largely at general teachers in lower schools, while the ETF surveys are targeted at vocational teachers and trainers in upper school initial VET. Furthermore, the ETF approach includes more qualitative research, with a view to relating the survey findings to the policy goals.

It is anticipated that this report will be of particular interest to policy makers because it tries to clarify the current state of affairs in relation to policy decision making. The report suggests that there are a number of indicators that can be used to audit policy making in relation to teachers and also in relation to the performance of systems of provision. By making comparisons between countries, policy makers can make more informed decisions when it comes to goal setting and monitoring. The research shows that countries sometimes have very different institutional

approaches to CPD, and they clearly have access to different resources and face different levels of need. However, some international comparisons will remain fair. Some of the nine countries participated in the previous cycle of research in 2015, so it is possible to make comparisons over time (Stanley, 2016).

This comparative report focuses on general findings from across the nine countries. The following chapter briefly sets out the methodology. Part 1 then describes the workforce of teachers, trainers and principals before giving details of their approach to teaching and a description of the culture and governance of schools. Part 2 focuses on the key functions of any CPD system: policy and regulation; training providers and regulators; design and quality assurance; participation; needs analysis and planning at school level; relevance and impact; recognition and incentivisation.

The report ends with 22 recommendations. These distil general learning points that have emerged from the study.

2. METHODOLOGY

The study aims to explore the practice and conditions of vocational teachers in nine countries. In particular, it sheds light on how principals and teachers perceive their own work, the conditions in which they work and the factors that affect their success. The perspective of teachers and principals is particularly important, as they are the primary actors. This is not to say that the views of others, for example employers, elected policy makers, parents and learners, are not important, and it is certainly not to claim that the teachers and principals are correct in their views. The views of the educational workforce are critical because if we do not understand them, we cannot hope to bring about improvement in educational performance.

The study used the following methods to respond to the study objectives: desk research, semi-structured qualitative interviews with selected stakeholders, and online surveys of teachers and principals in vocational schools.

Desk research focused on the analysis of existing legislation, standards and rules relating to vocational education and training (VET) as well as existing research and analysis.

Semi-structured qualitative interviews were limited to approximately 10 interviews in each country. The interviews targeted key stakeholders, including representatives of ministries, agencies, principals, trade unions, training organisations and professional organisations.

The online survey focused on two groups of respondents: teachers in vocational schools, irrespective of subjects taught and contract type; and principals of vocational schools. For each group, a separate questionnaire was used. The survey was conducted in the national language(s). In each country the surveys were carried out over a period of about eight weeks, although the timing of the surveys depended on local factors. The surveys were therefore spread out from spring 2018 to spring 2019.

The survey targeted both public and private institutions providing initial VET, that is, VET carried out in the initial education system, usually before entering working life and restricted to the ISCED 3 and 4 levels.

The selection of respondents reflected the structure of vocational schools in each country. First, in some countries only public schools were targeted because initial VET is restricted to public education or because there was limited or no access to the registry of private providers. Second, for countries with a limited number of VET schools, all relevant schools were included in the survey. In other countries, schools were randomly selected.

At the level of schools, all teachers were targeted. This strategy was chosen mainly because there was limited or no access to the list of teachers for each school, based on which a sampling of teachers could have been performed.

The data were collected through the online survey tool SurveyGizmo. In some countries, for example Algeria, the online survey was accompanied by the administration of paper-based questionnaires because of the limited internet access in some regions. The fieldwork consisted of several phases, including testing, the main fieldwork, quality assurance and the consolidation of national databases[2].

[2] See country method reports for more detailed information relating to the fieldwork and the challenges faced.

Table 2.1: Overview of survey characteristics in nine countries

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY
Coverage of schools	Public	Public + private	Public	Public + private	Public + private	Public + private	Public	Public	Public
Total number of VET teachers	1 114	MD	18 401	3 149	4 366	1 159	14 139	4 205	139 869
Total number of VET schools	34	1 612	242	71	88	40	209	179	4 227
Sampling design	Census	Stratified cluster sample	Stratified cluster sample	Census	Census	Census	Stratified cluster sample	Census	Stratified cluster sample
Timing	May–August 2018	February–May 2019	September–October 2018	May–June 2018	May–July 2018	May–June 2018	May–July 2018	August–November 2018	December 2018–February 2019
VET TEACHERS									
Number of respondents targeted	1 114	MD	6 200	3 149	4 366	1 159	8 324	4 205	2 703
Number of responses	701	1 988	1 934	828	661	393	1 769	384	1 973
Response rate	63%	NA	31%	26%	15%	34%	21%	9%	73%
VET PRINCIPALS									
Number of respondents targeted	34	198	108	71	88	40	110	179	145
Number of responses	25	179	74	49	63	37	82	117	119
Response rate	74%	90%	69%	69%	72%	93%	75%	65%	82%

Note: MD – missing data; NA – not applicable.

It is clear from Table 2.1 that the response rates varied between countries. It seems that communication barriers and motivation issues were both factors behind the differing response rates. Access to the internet plays an important role and limited access impacted on the final number of respondents. In addition, incomplete information about schools, teachers, and teachers' contact information conditioned both the sampling strategies and the possible follow-up of the targeted respondents.

PART 1
VOCATIONAL TEACHERS, PRINCIPALS AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

3. THE WORKFORCE

This chapter provides a description of the teachers and principals as captured by the survey. The focus is on key demographic characteristics, teaching profile, work experience and working conditions of the respondents[3].

3.1 Teachers

Age of teachers

Around a third of the teaching workforce is aged 50 years or older. The average age ranges from 40.1 years in Turkey to 44.6 years in Serbia.

In some countries there are relatively few young teachers. For example, the share of respondents below 30 years of age is 7% in Algeria and Montenegro, 6% in Serbia and 1% in Tunisia. Interestingly, with the exception of Belarus and Serbia, the share of female respondents is usually higher among the younger cohorts, pointing to more female teachers entering the education system recently.

In some countries, there are relatively few young teachers. For example, the share of respondents below 30 years of age is 7% in Algeria and Montenegro, 6% in Serbia and 1% in Tunisia.

Figure 3.1: Age composition of the vocational teacher workforce (%)

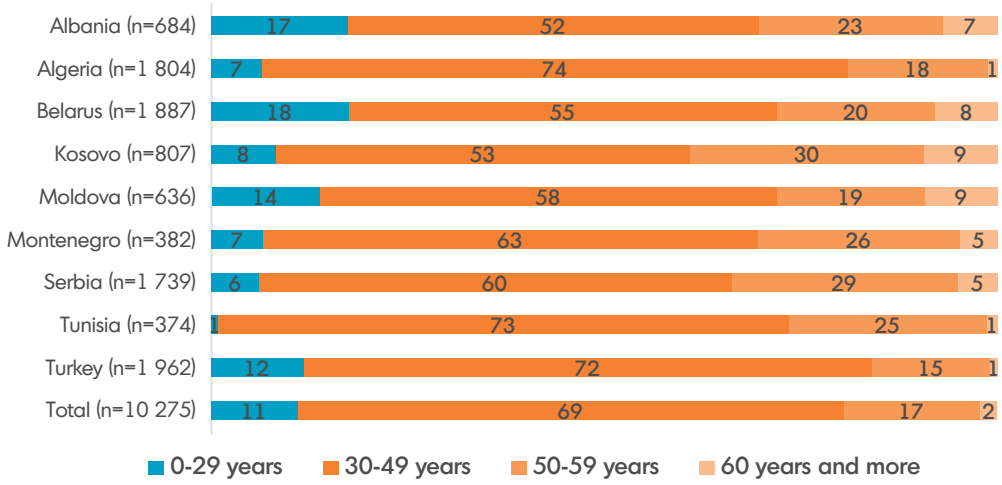
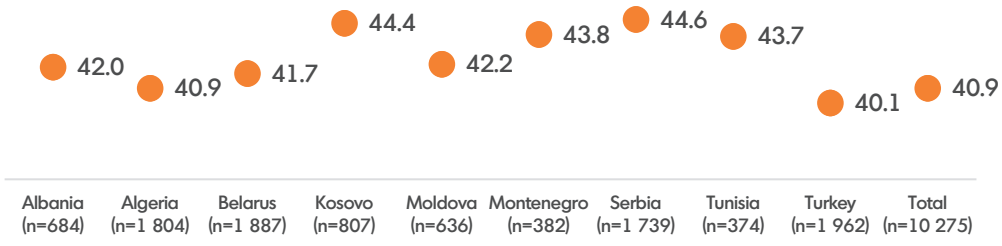


Figure 3.2: Average age of the vocational teacher workforce (years)

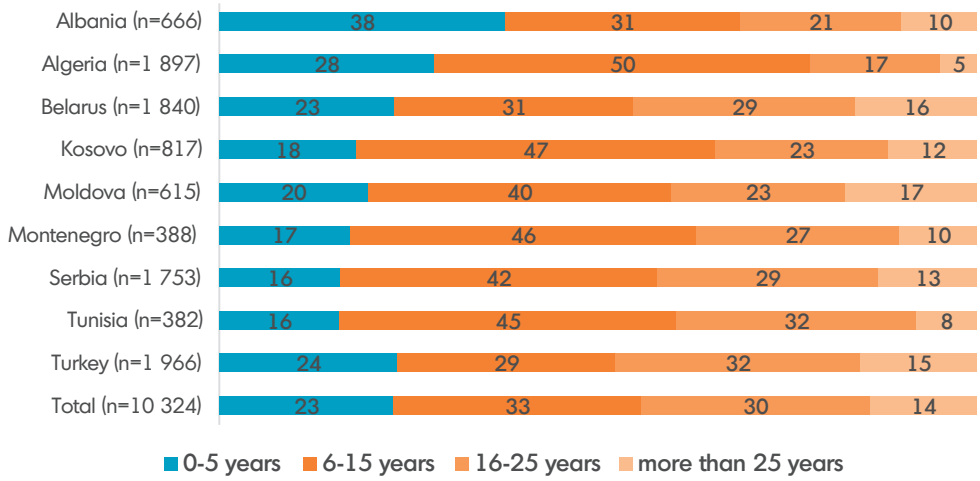


Length of teaching experience

The length of teaching experience mirrors the age composition of the teaching workforce. The share of teachers with more than 25 years of experience in teaching is highest in Moldova (17%), Belarus (16%) and Turkey (15%).

[3] The results presented exclude missing values (i.e. refusals). The samples were calibrated by the sex distribution of the teacher workforce and regional distribution of schools in the surveyed countries (with the exception of Algeria for school-level data). The totals refer to a weighted average across the whole sample, taking into account the number of teachers and schools in the participating countries.

Figure 3.3: Composition of the workforce by years of teaching (%)



Teaching experience in current school

Experience in different schools and environments can be a source of learning for teachers. Teachers in Albania and Turkey are less likely to have more than 15 years of experience in their current school than the teachers in other surveyed countries. In the case of Albania, this can be explained largely by the relatively young teaching workforce, while in the case of Turkey teacher mobility seems to be a factor as well as youth. In other surveyed countries, the teachers tend to stay longer in one institution.

Figure 3.4: Composition of the workforce by years of work in current school (%)

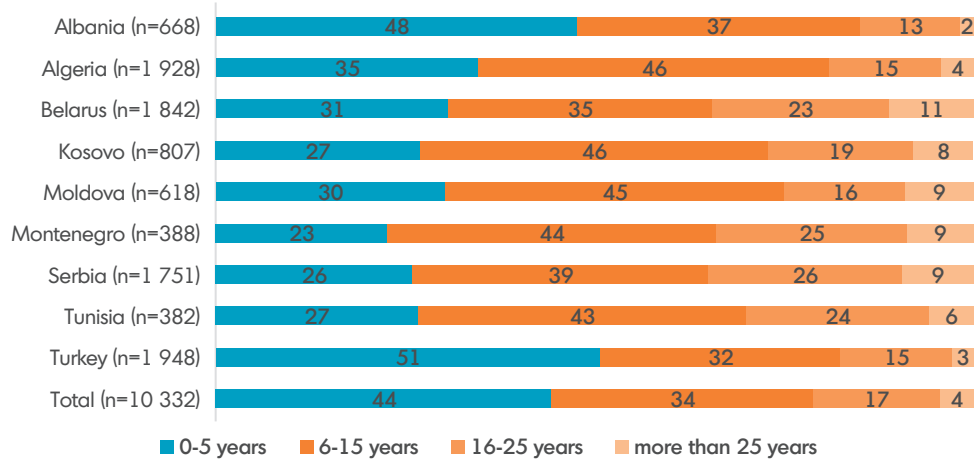
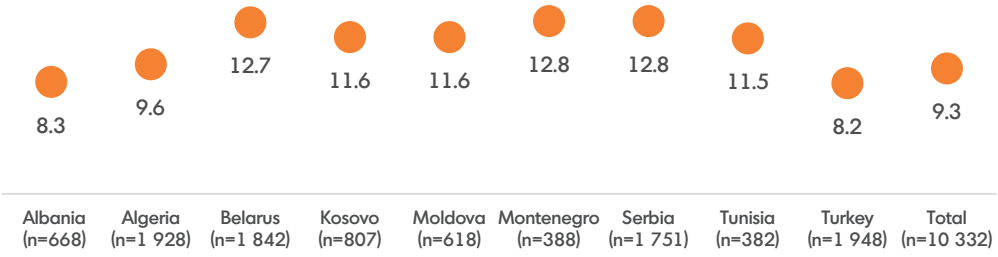


Figure 3.5: Average number of years of work in current school (%)

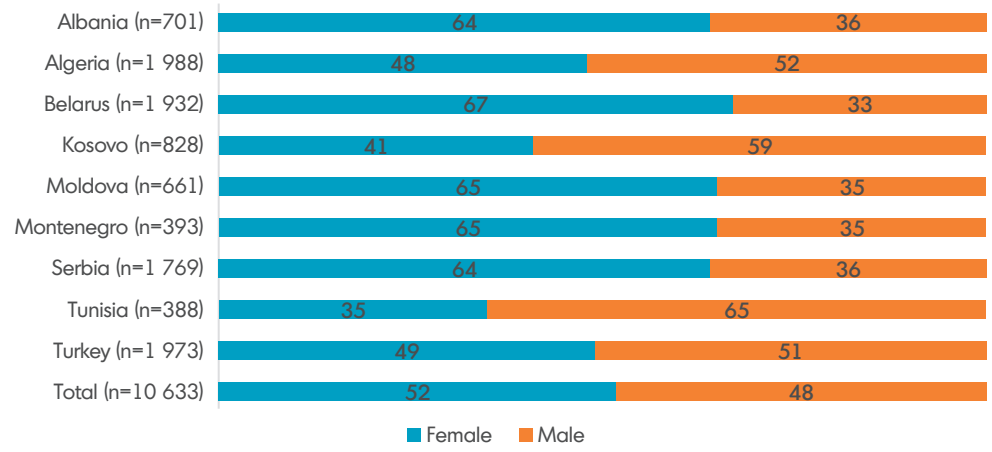


Gender

In the Balkan countries and the countries of Eastern Europe, women make up the majority of the teaching workforce. The opposite is true for Algeria, Kosovo, Tunisia and Turkey. Overall, there are more female than male teachers.

The share of men is higher among instructors involved in the coordination or organisation of practical education than among regular teachers across most of the countries.

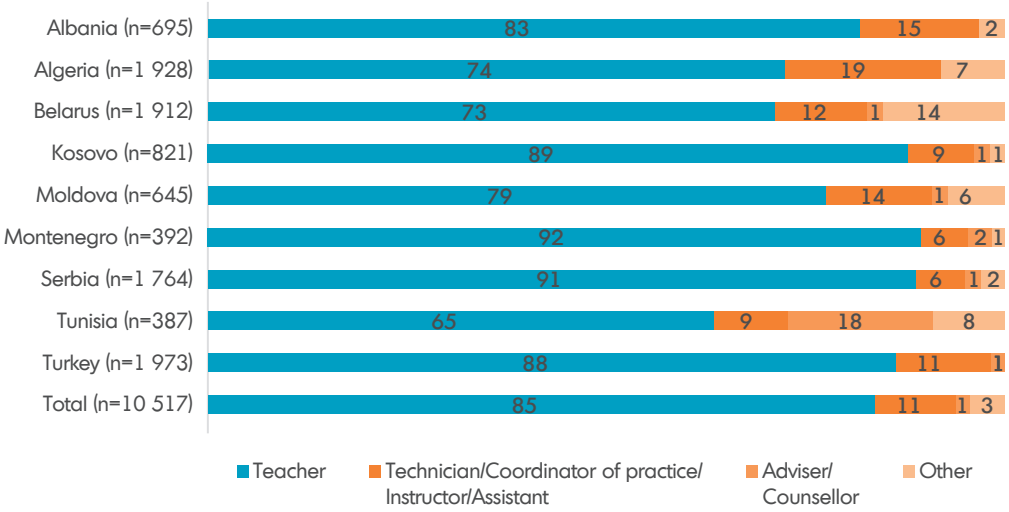
Figure 3.6: Gender composition of the teaching workforce (%)



Role in the school

Overall, the majority of respondents describe themselves as teachers or trainers[4]. However, in all countries some respondents choose to describe themselves as 'instructors or coordinators of practice', in particular in Algeria (19%) and Albania (15%). In Tunisia, 18% of respondents describe themselves as advisers and counsellors.

Figure 3.7: Teachers by their role in school (%)



In terms of vocational profile or subject, teachers are most likely to specialise in engineering (21%), information technology (12%), business/law (10%), manufacturing (6%), hospitality (5%) and agriculture (3%). Around 7% of

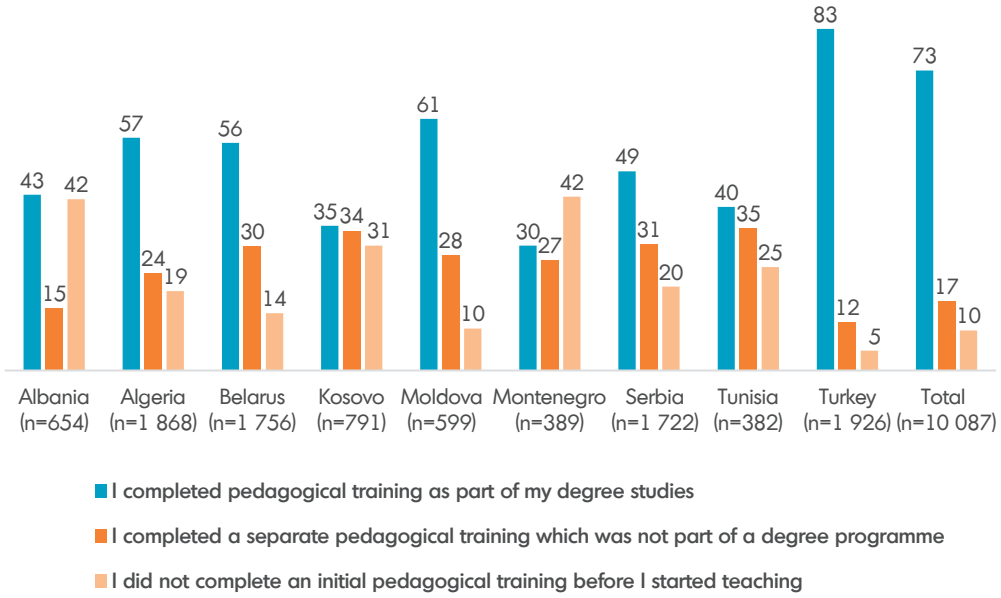
[4] Or the equivalent term in the national language.

respondents report that they teach general subjects, such as mathematics or languages.

Initial training

On average, 95% of all vocational teachers in the sample say they obtained initial training in relation to some or all of the subjects or content that they teach. In addition, on average, 90% say they have completed some kind of initial pedagogical training either during their degree (73%) or separately (17%). The share of respondents who have completed any initial pedagogical training varies from 58% in Montenegro and Albania to 95% in Turkey. The data do not reveal the extent or quality of the pedagogical training. However, in Albania, Montenegro and Kosovo, 30–40% of vocational teachers say they had no initial pedagogical training. In Albania, over the past two years, vocational teachers without pedagogical training have been able to participate in a 24-day in-service programme in order to remedy this gap.

Figure 3.8: Teachers by initial pedagogical training (%)



Qualifications

Highly qualified teachers are regarded as an indicator of an effective teaching workforce (Darling-Hammond and Burns, 2017). In all of the surveyed countries, the main route into vocational teaching is now through a university degree: 72% of all respondents report that they have a bachelor's degree and 17% that they have a master's degree. However, there are also highly successful systems in which not all teachers are university graduates. Thus, requiring a master's qualification for all teachers, as in Finland, is not necessarily the right strategy for all systems, as vocational teachers require a wide range of competences to be qualified to start teaching: technical, theoretical and pedagogical knowledge as well as skills and experience of the vocational sector they serve. In Tunisia and Belarus, vocational teachers are less likely to have degrees, while in Albania, Kosovo, Algeria, and Moldova there are more teachers with higher degrees.

Around 81% of surveyed teachers are formally qualified or licensed as teachers. In most countries, licensing not only depends on obtaining academic diplomas but also requires a probationary period or a separate exam. Some 13% of respondents report that they are qualified as instructors or coordinators of practice. In Serbia, Kosovo

and Albania, more than 10% of respondents are without qualifications; these are most likely to be teachers on fixed-term contracts, for whom formal qualifications are not a requirement.

Figure 3.9: Teachers by highest level of formal education completed (%)

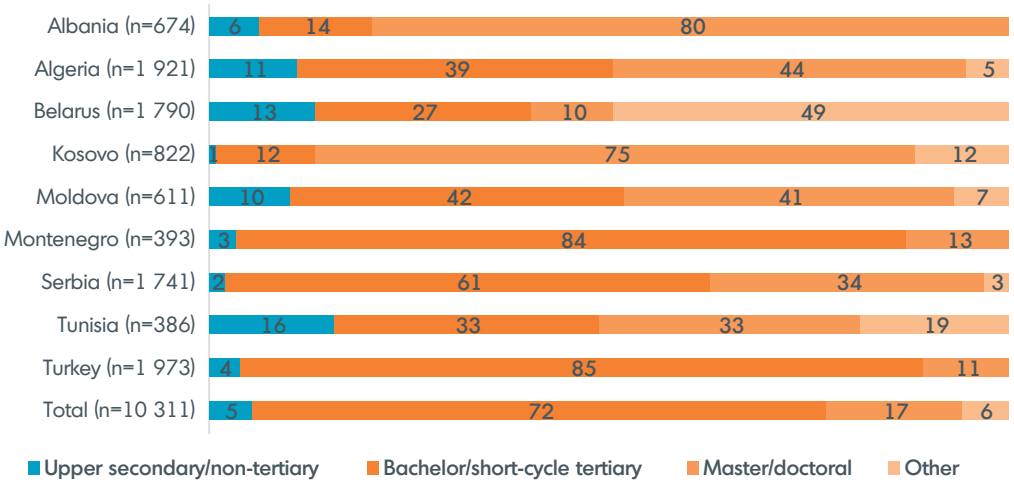
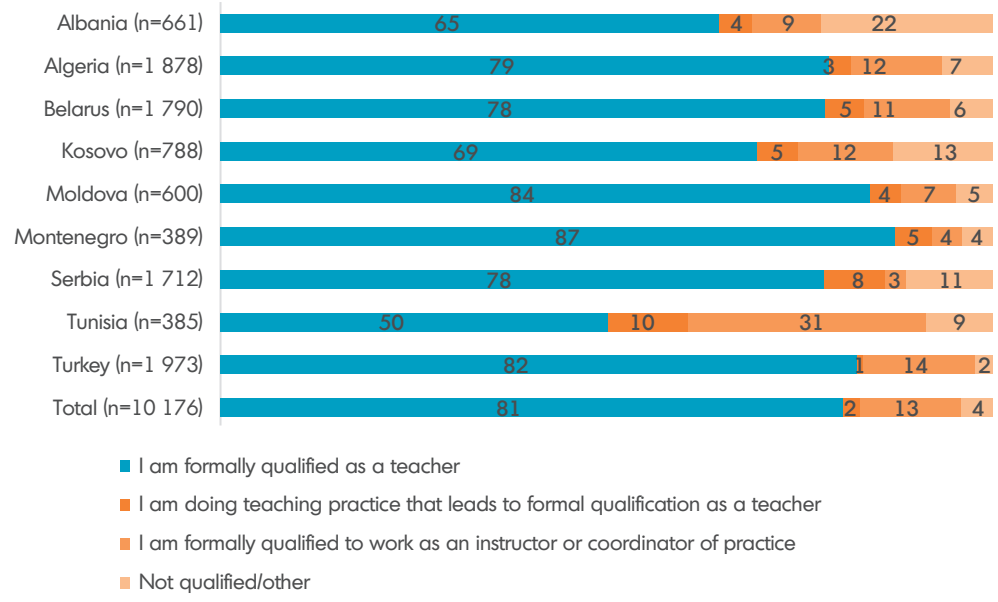


Figure 3.10: Teachers by formal qualification as a teacher (%)

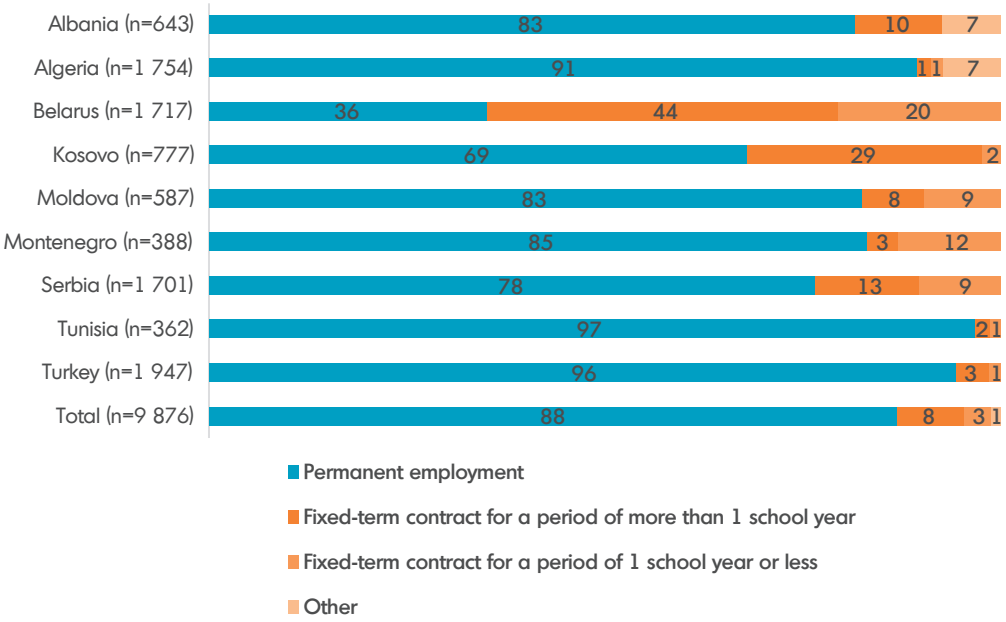


Employment status

Around 88% of teachers in the sample have permanent contracts and 86% work full-time. A relatively large proportion of teachers have fixed-term contracts in Belarus (where 44% of teachers have multiyear fixed contracts), Kosovo (31%) and Serbia (22%). Most vocational teachers benefit from 'traditional' contracts that provide protection and a professional identity for employees. However, such contracts may limit teachers' mobility between schools and thus make it difficult to restructure the workforce as the demand for vocational education changes[5].

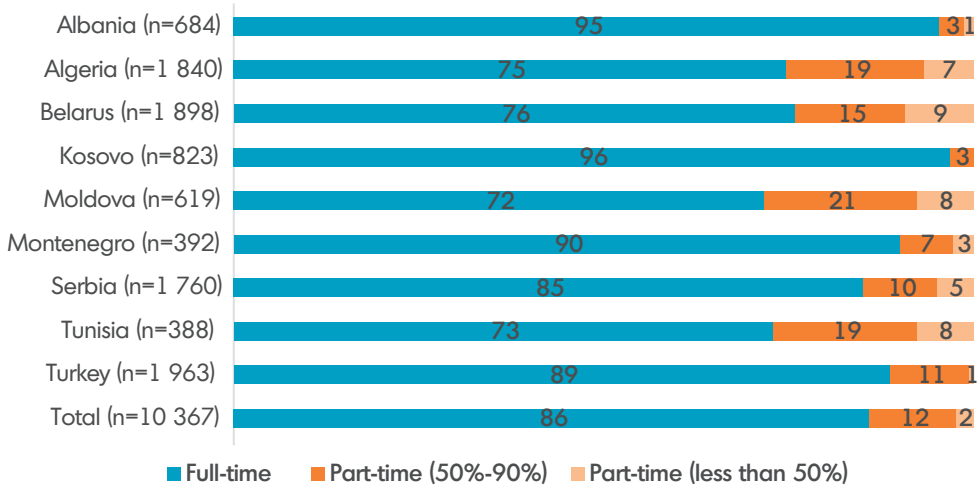
[5] Trainers are less likely to have permanent contracts. An additional survey of trainers working in Adult Training Centres in Albania revealed that only 33% of the workforce had permanent contracts and 39% had fixed-term contracts for one year or less (Rama, 2020).

Figure 3.11: Teaching workforce by employment status (%)



The highest shares of part-time employees can be found in Moldova (29%), Tunisia (27%) and Algeria (26%). To some extent this can be explained by the type of contract as well as the role in the school: teaching staff with fixed-term contracts and coordinators of practice seem to be more likely to work part-time, according the collected data.

Figure 3.12: Teaching workforce by working hours (%)



Membership of trade unions and professional associations

Teachers, as public sector workers, are relatively highly unionised. The highest level of membership of teachers in trade unions can be found in Belarus (97%), Kosovo (81%), Moldova (78%) and Montenegro (70%). In contrast, only 18% of respondents in Algeria are members of a trade union. Membership of professional associations is strongest in Montenegro (42%) and Serbia (37%).

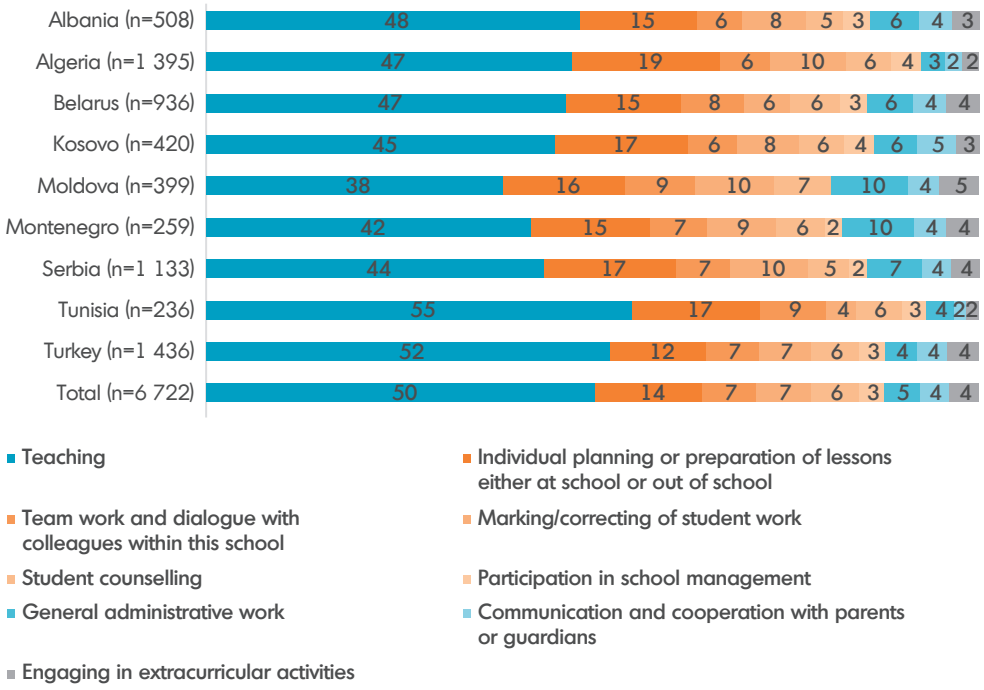
With the exception of Belarus, the level of participation in both trade unions and professional associations increases with age, which suggests that membership may be declining.

Working hours

Research into what makes for successful education systems suggests that fewer hours of teaching can leave room for training, collaboration and feedback, which generate better teaching. The vocational teachers in the sample spend an average of 50% of their time on teaching plus an average of 14% on preparation and 7% on marking. Teachers in Tunisia (55%) and Turkey (52%) spend relatively more time teaching, teachers in Moldova less (38%). Overall, vocational teachers in the survey spend two thirds of their working time on teaching, preparation and extracurricular activities. The remaining time is divided evenly between administrative tasks, on the one hand, and working/communicating with other teachers, students or parents, on the other.

These data need to be interpreted with caution, as many vocational teachers in the sample have additional work. For example, in Moldova it is considered normal for teachers to work an additional or half of an additional 'shift' in order to increase their income, while many teachers are known to provide additional tuition or work in secondary jobs.

Figure 3.13: Teachers by the structure of their working time (%, average)



3.2 Principals

The survey of principals provides a picture of vocational school leadership across the nine countries. Most of the respondents are principals, but some are vice-principals.

Gender

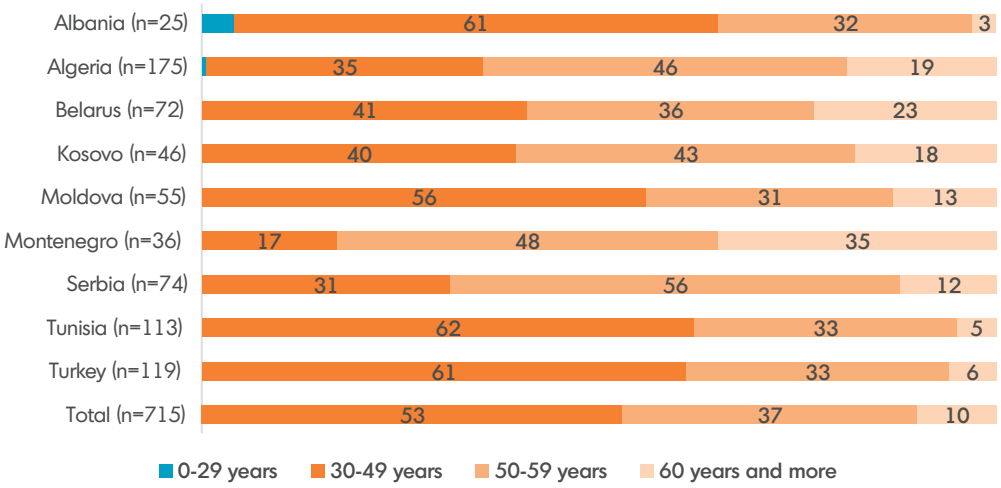
Unlike in the case of the teachers, the vast majority of principals are men. With the exception of Albania and Moldova (where 54% and 62%, respectively, of principals are women), the share of female respondents among the principals ranges between 15% in Turkey and 35% in Serbia. Given the predominance of female teachers, this suggests that there are difficulties or constraints that prevent women from progressing to leadership. This is an issue not only of equity but also of providing role models for young people, and girls in particular.

The vast majority of vocational school principals are male; for example, the proportions are 85% in Turkey and 65% in Serbia. However, in Albania and Moldova, more than 50% of principals are women. This is not only an issue of equity: a predominantly male leadership may also help to make vocational education less attractive to girls.

Age

On average, principals are generally older than teachers, as might be expected. Principals in Montenegro are relatively old compared to those in other countries, while those in Albania are relatively young.

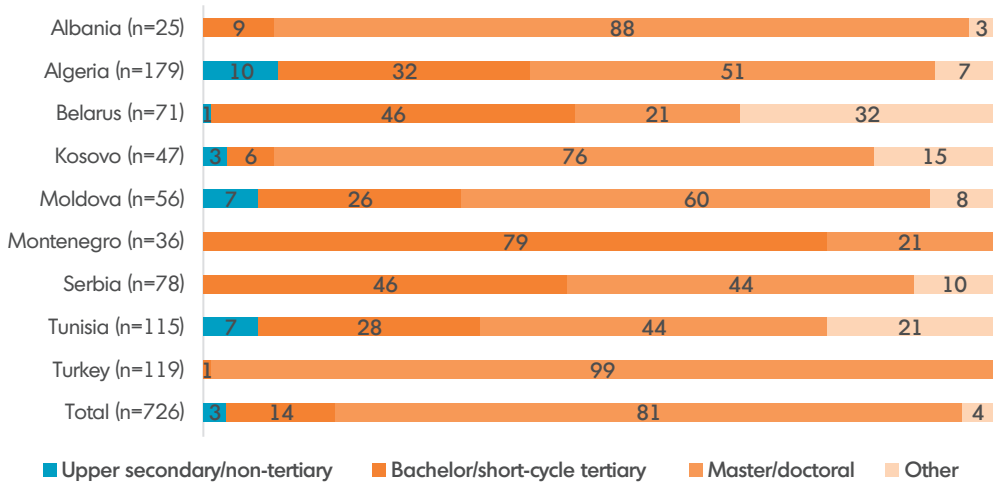
Figure 3.14: Age composition of vocational school principals (%)



Formal education

Most school principals have master's degrees or doctorates (81%) or bachelor's/tertiary degrees (13%). In Turkey, Albania and Kosovo, the vast majority of principals have at least a master's degree. Meanwhile, in Algeria and Tunisia, 10% and 7% of respondents, respectively, have only non-tertiary or upper secondary education.

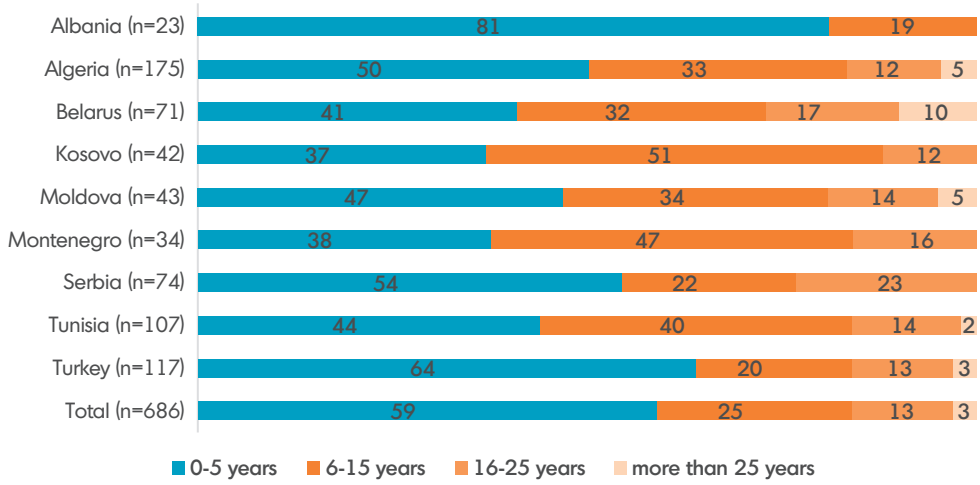
Figure 3.15: Principals by highest level of formal education completed (%)



Years of experience

Some 59% of principals have 5 years or less of experience, while another 25% have up to 15 years. This suggests that most principals have held just one fixed-term appointment, but a significant minority have completed two appointments. Principals in Albania and Turkey are least likely to have long experience of leadership. It remains the norm in the schools in this survey for teachers to serve short-term appointments as principals, which may work against the professionalisation of school leadership.

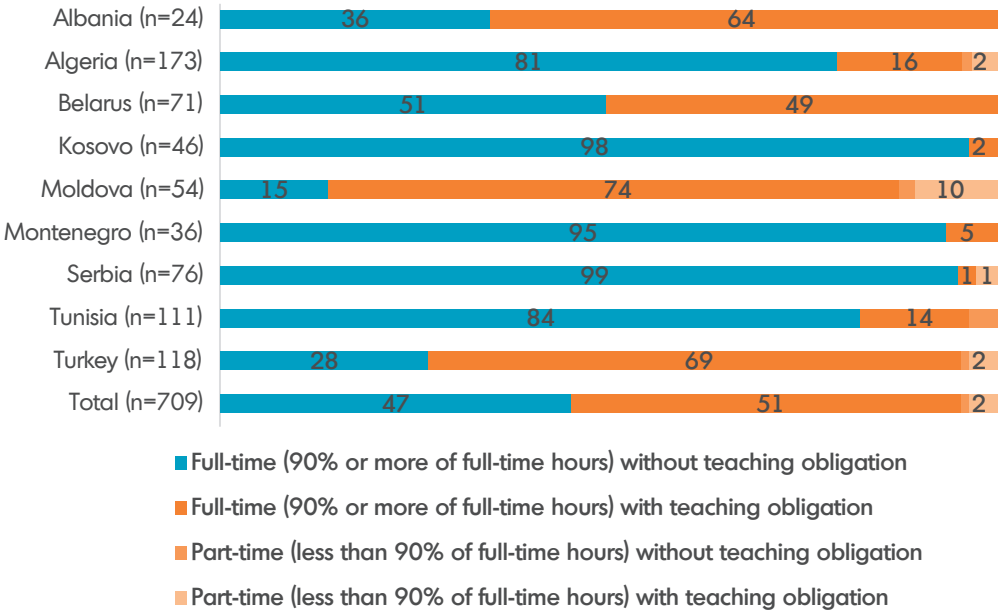
Figure 3.16: Principals by years of experience in the role (%)



Current employment status

Around 47% of principals work full time without any teaching commitment, while 51% work full time but are expected to teach. In Moldova, Albania and Turkey, most principals spend some time teaching. This could suggest that in these countries, the roles of teacher and principal are less differentiated and that principals are not just 'managers'.

Figure 3.17: Principals by employment status (%)



3.3 Summary

The teaching workforce is relatively old in Serbia, Kosovo and Montenegro. As these teachers retire they will need to be replaced. In addition, there is a need for professional development of such teachers to enable them to keep up with new developments relating to teaching, as well as new technologies and demands at the workplace. Furthermore, in some countries there is a low level of mobility of teachers between schools. In combination with the low level of membership of professional associations, especially among young teachers, this limits the exchange of experiences and practices among the teaching workforce.

In most of the surveyed countries, women are over-represented among teachers. However, this is not the case among principals, where men dominate, pointing to barriers and constraints for women seeking to be school leaders. The only exceptions to this picture are Albania and Moldova.

Finally, most teachers and principals have completed higher education. However, a significant minority of vocational teachers do not have initial pedagogical training and are not formally qualified as teachers.

4. SCHOOL GOVERNANCE

Studies of educational improvement and change place considerable emphasis on the role of the school as one of the factors that explain improved educational outcomes. Different models of improvement have placed emphasis on one or more characteristics of schools: leadership, vision, culture, modes of teaching and learning (Kools and Stoll, 2016). Policy makers in many countries accept this reasoning and in all of the countries included in this study there are already a number of declared policies that are intended to enhance the effectiveness of schools as agents of improvement, such as CoVEs and leadership training. The survey of principals sheds light on how school leaders perceive their current situation and reveals their understanding of what would make their schools more effective.

4.1 Who is involved in school governance?

The breadth of representation in the formal school management team is a crude indicator of the extent to which key stakeholders are represented in decision making. In most schools in most of the sampled countries, teachers, parents, employers and students are represented on the school management team. However, there are some exceptions: according to principals, parents are not usually represented in Algeria and Tunisia and learners are not represented in more than half of Tunisian vocational training centres.

Principals were asked about who takes which decisions. In Turkey, principals judge that the national or local political authorities are highly influential in school decision making. Principals in Kosovo, Albania and Tunisia also rate the influence of external political decisions makers relatively highly. In contrast, principals in Serbia, Moldova and Algeria see external political bodies as being less influential.

It is a democratic principle that school management should be accountable to a formally constituted school board or governing body. Table 4.2 shows that school boards appear to be relatively influential in Albania (for example in relation to hiring and budgeting) and to make relatively little contribution to school governance outside of the Western Balkans. This represents a missed opportunity, as school boards can help to engage enterprises, parents and other stakeholders in governance.

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Table 4.1: Share of principals reporting different participants in school management teams (%)

	YOU, AS PRINCIPAL	DEPUTY PRINCIPAL	FINANCIAL MANAGER	DEPARTMENT HEADS	TEACHERS	REPRESENTATIVE(S) FROM SCHOOL	PARENTS OR GUARDIANS	STUDENTS	OTHER
Albania	100	91	92	97	97	75	90	81	51
Algeria	97	74	74	41	78	77	20	70	32
Belarus	100	100	78	74	84	54	77	85	61
Kosovo	100	52	46	95	96	91	93	96	60
Moldova	88	92	71	78	92	81	91	97	72
Montenegro	100	72	66	95	95	86	85	79	47
Serbia	100	63	83	97	71	98	88	82	34
Tunisia	94	73	73	74	88	74	21	46	44
Turkey	100	100	4	65	95	86	88	86	56
Total	100	92	31	63	90	83	70	82	50
n	*582*	*564*	*509*	*534*	*552*	*526*	*538*	*540*	*446*

Table 4.2: Share of principals attributing main responsibilities to different agents (%)

		YOU, AS PRINCIPAL	OTHER MEMBERS OF THE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAM	TEACHERS	SCHOOL (GOVERNING BOARD)	LOCAL AUTHORITY
Albania (n=25)	Appointing and hiring teachers	68	19	24	57	26
	Deciding on budget allocations	22	19	9	54	30
	Determining which courses are offered	6	12	6	3	70
Algeria (n=179)	Appointing and hiring teachers	55	24	6	15	12
	Deciding on budget allocations	32	15	2	41	24
	Determining which courses are offered	20	30	38	6	25
Belarus (n=74)	Appointing and hiring teachers	86	39	0	7	7
	Deciding on budget allocations	73	50	5	32	36
	Determining which courses are offered	54	61	34	35	39
Kosovo (n=49)	Appointing and hiring teachers	21	5	5	5	90
	Deciding on budget allocations	22	12	0	35	56
	Determining which courses are offered	19	11	16	14	55
Moldova (n=63)	Appointing and hiring teachers	52	17	1	14	3
	Deciding on budget allocations	25	14	4	28	22
	Determining which courses are offered	16	24	11	37	38
Montenegro (n=37)	Appointing and hiring teachers	87	24	24	14	12
	Deciding on budget allocations	71	25	17	67	28
	Determining which courses are offered	35	26	30	31	80
Serbia (n=82)	Appointing and hiring teachers	81	27	12	27	11
	Deciding on budget allocations	56	29	5	72	24
	Determining which courses are offered	17	33	28	4	48
Tunisia (n=117)	Appointing and hiring teachers	23	9	5	7	76
	Deciding on budget allocations	77	33	5	20	27
	Determining which courses are offered	18	18	61	26	35
Turkey (n=119)	Appointing and hiring teachers	2	2	2	3	97
	Deciding on budget allocations	16	12	5	19	72
	Determining which courses are offered	15	23	17	14	87

Note: The highlighted cells identify those actors deemed largely responsible for specific decision making according to most principals.

4.2 How are other stakeholders engaged?

Most principals believe that staff, parents and students have opportunities to contribute to school decision making and that their schools possess a collaborative culture. However, in Belarus, Moldova and Turkey, more than 45% of principals report that they take the most important decisions alone. Parents, students and staff are less engaged in decision making in Algeria and Tunisia than they are in the other countries.

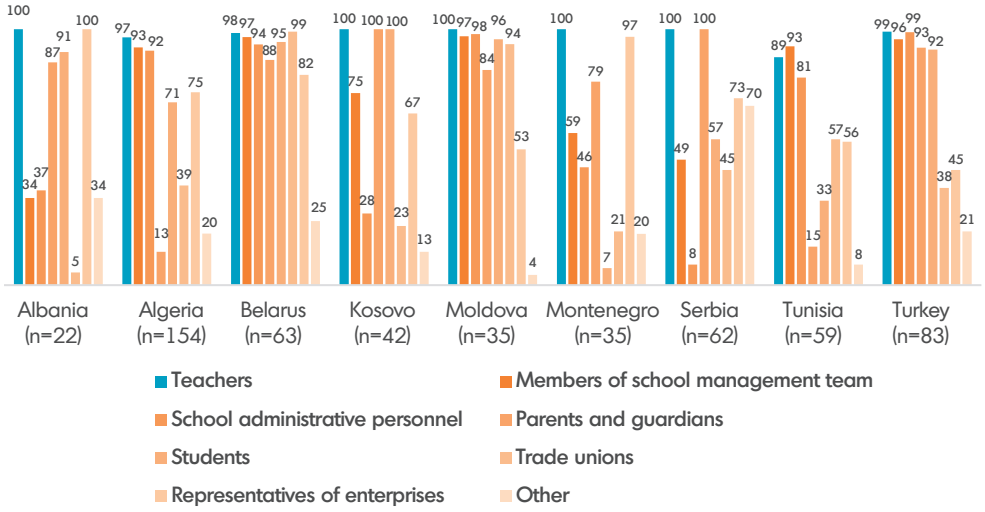
In Tunisia, Kosovo and Moldova, more than 30% of vocational schools lack representation from employers, and this share is more than 50% in Turkey.

Table 4.3: Share of principals agreeing with these statements as applied to their school (% responding 'agree/strongly agree')

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY	TOTAL	*N*
This school provides staff with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions	100	93	98	100	100	100	98	95	100	99	*655*
This school provides parents or guardians with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions	100	44	92	89	98	98	100	49	92	80	*651*
This school provides students with opportunities to actively participate in school decisions	100	68	98	88	100	100	98	61	94	88	*647*
I make the important decisions on my own	3	23	81	32	47	17	39	33	49	43	*655*
There is a collaborative school culture which is characterised by mutual support	100	93	100	100	100	100	100	85	95	96	*645*

Formal membership of the school or centre governing body can be taken as an indicator of stakeholder participation in school governance. Teachers are well represented in all countries, but in Turkey, Tunisia, Kosovo and Moldova less than 70% of principals report representation of enterprises (Figure 4.4). Formal representation of enterprises in the governance of vocational and professional schools is regarded as one way to help make VET responsive and relevant.

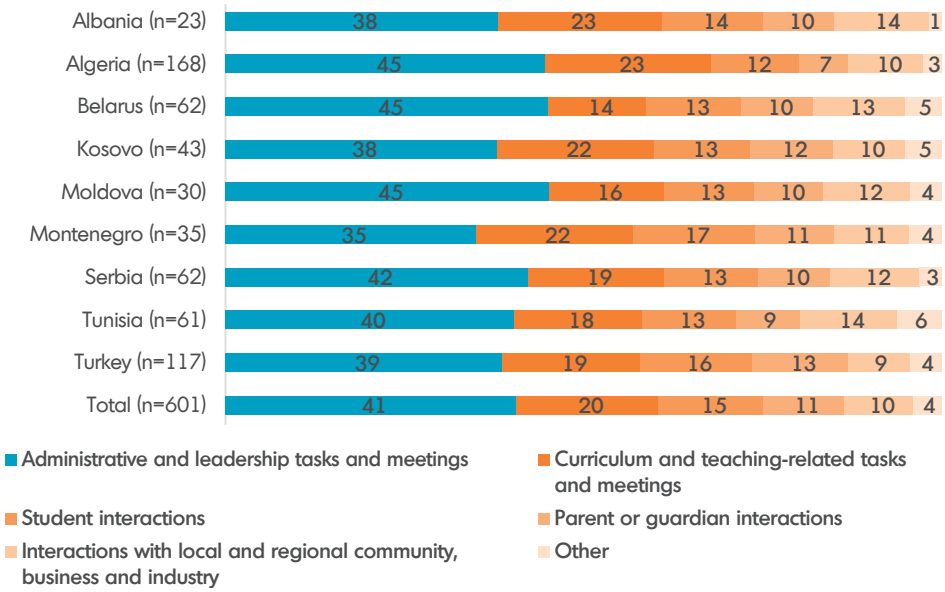
Figure 4.1: School governing board composition (%)



4.3 Role of principals

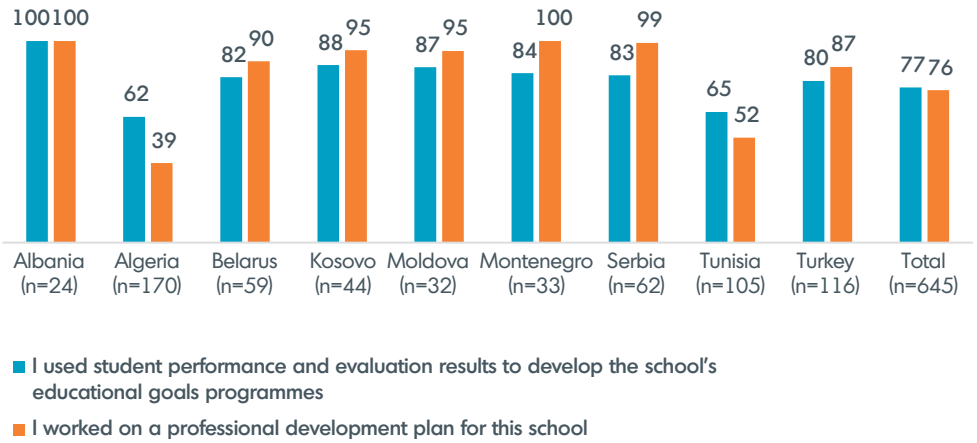
It appears that the way that principals distribute their working time is similar across all nine countries. Some researchers argue that principals should be seeking to exercise leadership by shaping teaching and the curriculum because this is the domain where they have scope to make constructive changes. Principals report that they devote between 14% and 23% of their time to teaching and the curriculum. A relatively small proportion of time, 9–14%, is spent on interactions with the local community and industry.

Figure 4.2: Share of principals' working time allocated to different tasks (%)



Most principals are involved in planning and strategic development for their schools. For example, the majority of principals in all nine countries claim to have used the results of student evaluations to formulate the institutional development plan and also to have worked on a plan for the professional development of school staff who are engaged in specific strategy and planning tasks. Principals are less active in this kind of activity in Algeria and Tunisia than they are elsewhere.

Figure 4.3: Share of principals engaging in selected planning and strategy tasks over the past 12 months (%)



4.4 How do managers understand constraints on their effectiveness and on quality instruction in their schools?

The survey shows which factors, according to principals, work against their effectiveness as managers. Inadequate budget and resources is seen as a constraint by 70% or more of principals in every country. Government and regulation are also cited as constraints to effectiveness in most countries, though less so in Kosovo, Tunisia and Montenegro.

In Albania, Algeria, Moldova and Tunisia, at least 60% of principals identify a lack of qualified or well-performing vocational teachers as a constraint. Shortages of teachers with competence in teaching students with special needs and practice instructors are judged to be significant constraints in most countries. Shortages of computer hardware, software, access to the internet and instructional materials are seen to limit the quality of instruction by the majority of principals in most countries, though not in Serbia and Turkey (which are relatively well resourced in this respect) and only partially in Montenegro.

Inadequate budget and resources is seen as a constraint by at least 70% of principals in every country.

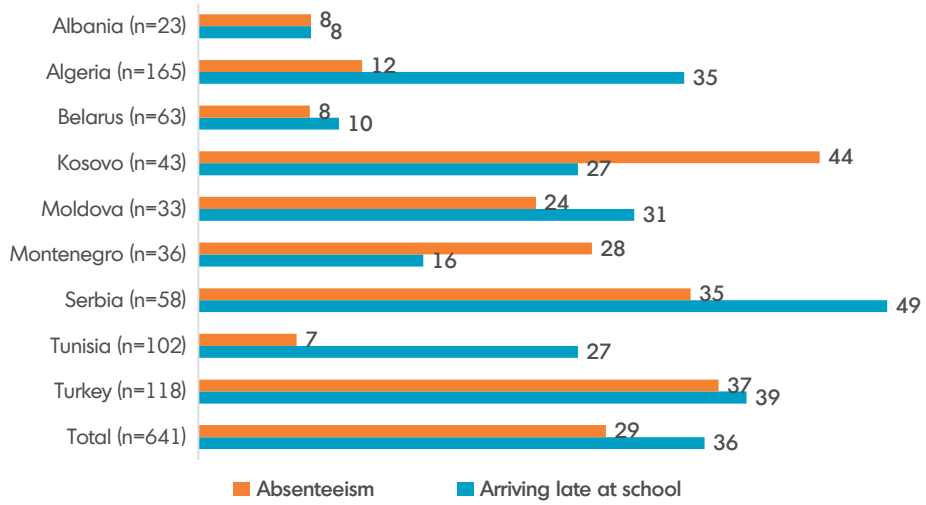
Table 4.4: Share of principals reporting that their school's capacity to provide quality instruction is currently hindered by different issues (% responding 'to some extent/a lot')

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY
Shortage of qualified and/or well-performing vocational teachers	100	77	58	41	94	17	29	68	59
Shortage of teachers with competence in teaching students with special needs	79	68	47	48	56	28	56	66	62
Shortage of general subject teachers	58	45	34	15	74	10	24	53	42
Short of practice instructors	79	60	45	42	68	16	6	65	46
Shortage or inadequacy of instructional materials (e.g. textbooks)	87	61	52	93	86	45	52	75	38
Shortage or inadequacy of computers for instruction	94	61	55	81	89	64	44	66	33
Insufficient internet access	68	64	51	78	65	41	29	63	24

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY
Shortage or inadequacy of computer software for instruction	78	70	54	77	75	58	44	66	30
Shortage or inadequacy of library materials	87	64	49	88	81	42	24	68	32
Shortage of support personnel	61	63	31	59	74	35	21	69	60
n	*23*	*164*	*63*	*44*	*34*	*36*	*60*	*102*	*117*

Daily pupil absenteeism is reported by at least a third of principals in Algeria, Kosovo, Serbia and Turkey. Daily student lateness is quite common, as might be expected, but relatively low in Albania and Belarus. Principals do not report significant problems in terms of poor student behaviour or staff absenteeism.

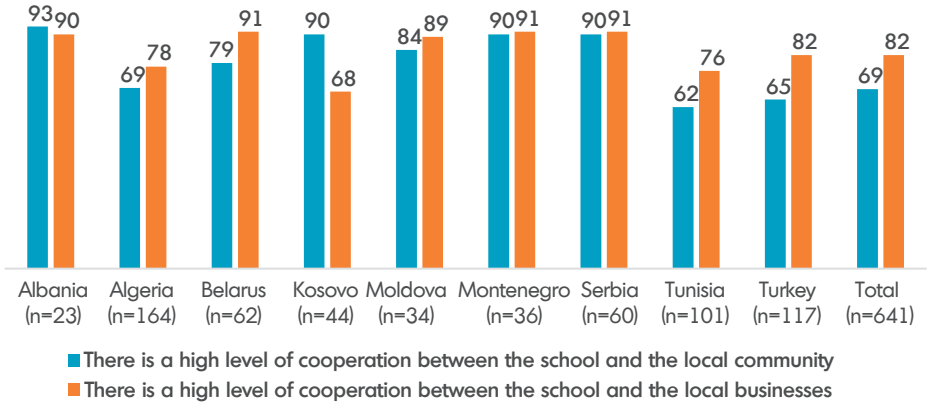
Figure 4.4: Share of principals reporting daily occurrence of absenteeism and late arrival of students (%)



4.5 School culture

Schools are better able to provide high-quality instruction and take on challenges and change if internal and external cooperation and communications are strong. Almost all principals report that there is mutual respect between colleagues in their schools, and most say that their schools share a common set of beliefs about learning (less so in Turkey). The majority of principals report good cooperation with employers and their communities.

Figure 4.5: Share of principals who believe there is cooperation between their school and the local community and businesses (% answering 'agree/strongly agree')



4.6 Summary

In most schools in most of the surveyed countries, teachers, parents, employers and students are represented on the school management team. However, parents are not usually represented in Tunisia and Algeria, and students are not usually represented in Tunisia. Formal school boards, to which school management is accountable, are judged by principals to be relatively influential in Albania, though they make relatively little contribution to school governance outside of the Western Balkans. In Tunisia, Kosovo and Moldova, more than 30% of vocational schools lack representation from employers, a share that is even higher in Turkey, at more than 50%. This represents a missed opportunity, as school boards can help to engage enterprises, parents and other stakeholders in governance.

Inadequate budget and resources is seen as a constraint on managerial effectiveness by 70% or more of principals in every country. Government and regulation are also cited as constraints on effectiveness in most countries, though less so in Kosovo, Tunisia and Montenegro.

In Albania, Algeria, Moldova and Tunisia, 60% or more of principals identify a lack of qualified or well-performing vocational teachers as a barrier to quality instruction in their schools. Shortages of teachers with competence in teaching students with special needs and practice instructors are significant constraints in most countries. Shortages of computer hardware, software, access to the internet and instructional materials are seen to limit the quality of instruction by the majority of principals in most countries, though not in Serbia and Turkey (which are relatively well resourced in this respect), and to a lesser degree in Montenegro.

It is difficult to draw firm conclusions from the surveys about the nature of school governance. However, it appears that while in all countries, autonomy is perceived to be limited with respect to key decisions, the influence of external political authorities is perceived to be particularly great in Turkey, Kosovo and Tunisia, and somewhat less so in Serbia, Albania, Moldova and Algeria. It is desirable to increase autonomy, as this helps school managers to make well-informed, responsive and efficient decisions. However, successful implementation of autonomy depends on a range of factors, including the establishment of accountability, such as through schools boards, distributed leadership, the competences of principals, and resourcing.

5. APPROACHES TO TEACHING AND LINKS TO THE WORKPLACE

The manner in which vocational teachers teach will influence the experience of learning and the motivation and achievement of learners. This research focuses on three major dimensions of vocational teaching and learning: (1) general pedagogical behaviours; (2) the relation between school learning and the workplace; and (3) the use of digital technology. Items in the survey were designed to generate indicators for different teaching behaviours. Some of these teaching behaviours are more traditional, for example demonstrating a skill and then asking students to repeat it, while others are more modern, for example small group work. Teachers were asked to describe their actual practice, rather than to describe how they believe they should teach.

5.1 Teaching

In all countries the majority of teachers declare that they frequently or very frequently make use of pedagogies that are commonly regarded as traditional as well as those regarded as modern. This appears to contradict the common view that pedagogical behaviours in transitional economies are old fashioned, or at least to show that teachers themselves believe that they have a mix of traditional and modern pedagogies. Nevertheless, in every country the percentage of teachers who say they frequently practise identified traditional pedagogies is greater than the percentage who practise modern pedagogies.

Table 5.1: Use of different teaching methods by teachers (% answering 'frequently/in all or nearly all lessons')

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY	TOTAL	*N*
I present a summary of recently learned content	93	65	36	76	70	76	78	62	84	77	*8 684*
Students work in small groups to come up with a joint solution to a problem or task	89	49	61	75	74	59	59	63	54	55	*8 724*
I give different work to the students who have difficulties learning and/or to those who can advance	74	41	75	70	80	63	77	38	64	64	*8 710*
I refer to a problem from work to show how knowledge or skills can be applied	91	60	66	88	75	61	76	64	77	74	*8 659*
I let students practise similar tasks until I know that every student has understood the subject matter	91	67	58	76	78	78	80	70	85	80	*8 688*

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY	TOTAL	*N*
I check my students' exercise books or homework	92	68	73	85	73	69	72	64	78	76	*8 675*
Students use ICT (information and communication technology) for projects or class work	72	40	56	58	68	48	48	34	73	65	*8 661*
I demonstrate practical tasks to students, who then carry out the same practical tasks	92	59	70	90	86	79	71	75	88	83	*8 656*
Students learn theory and also use that knowledge to solve practical problems within one lesson	90	75	78	87	86	81	77	69	85	82	*8 661*
I plan lessons so that when students learn new theory or knowledge, they also apply that theory or knowledge to work-like tasks (work practice)	89	75	84	93	92	83	76	84	82	82	*8 656*
I use digital technology to prepare or find instructional material	75	56	73	79	81	73	76	51	84	79	*8 654*
I use video in my teaching	57	32	64	45	60	43	41	41	62	57	*8 684*

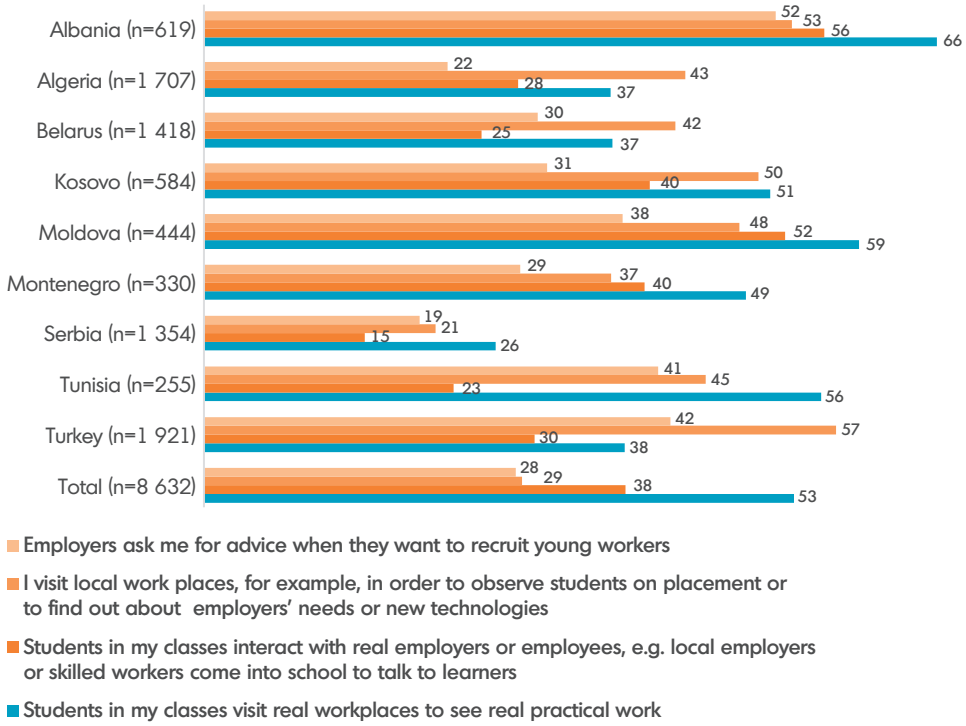
5.2 Links to the workplace

To keep school-based vocational learning relevant and to motivate learners, learning should be connected to the workplace and to real work. About three quarters of all vocational teachers claim that they frequently or always make connections between the world of work and classroom learning by referring to real work problems, by combining practice and theory within a single lesson and by learning from authentic work tasks (see Table 5.1). However, in all nine countries practical lessons in workshops are usually timetabled separately from theory lessons in classrooms. Only a few schools have adjacent or multifunctional workshops and classrooms that permit students to move between theory and practice within a single lesson. This suggests that each lesson is currently either a theory lesson or predominantly a practical lesson, that teaching staff usually specialise in teaching theory or in teaching skills, and that students alternate between theory and skills practice. Most teachers, it seems, do seek to make connections between classroom learning and the world of work, but they do so in a way that is constrained by the physical environment and the programme of learning in their institutions.

Frequent direct contact with employers and with the workplace is reported by around 50% of teachers in Turkey, Albania, Kosovo and Tunisia, and these are also the countries where teachers are more likely to be consulted by employers looking to recruit young workers. However, only in Moldova and Albania do at least half of teachers say that students 'frequently' have contact with employers.

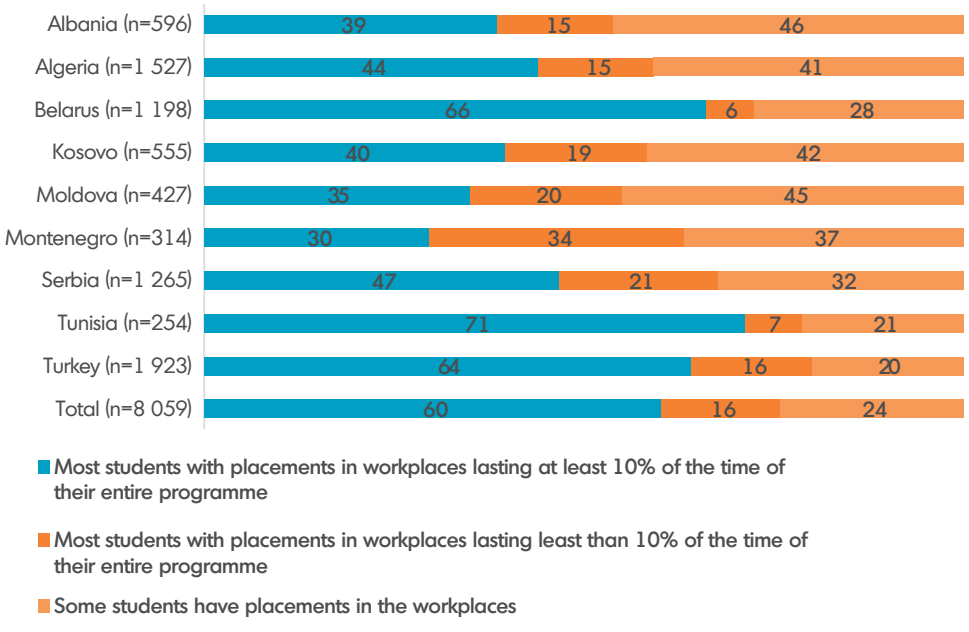
Frequent direct contact with employers and with the workplace is reported by around 50% of teachers in Turkey, Albania, Kosovo and Tunisia. These are also the countries where teachers are more likely to be consulted by employers looking to recruit young workers.

Figure 5.1: Relation between school learning and the workplace (% of teachers who responded 'frequently/always or almost always')



The survey invited teachers to estimate the share of their students that had access to placements in workplaces. Their responses provide an indicator of the importance of work-based learning in the nine countries. Vocational students in Turkey, Belarus and Tunisia benefit from relatively extensive work-based learning. The data suggest, however, that even in those countries where placements are compulsory, such as Turkey, a significant minority of students do not achieve the benchmark of 10% of learning in the workplace.

Figure 5.2: Share of teachers reporting different levels of participation of their students in placements organised through the school (%)

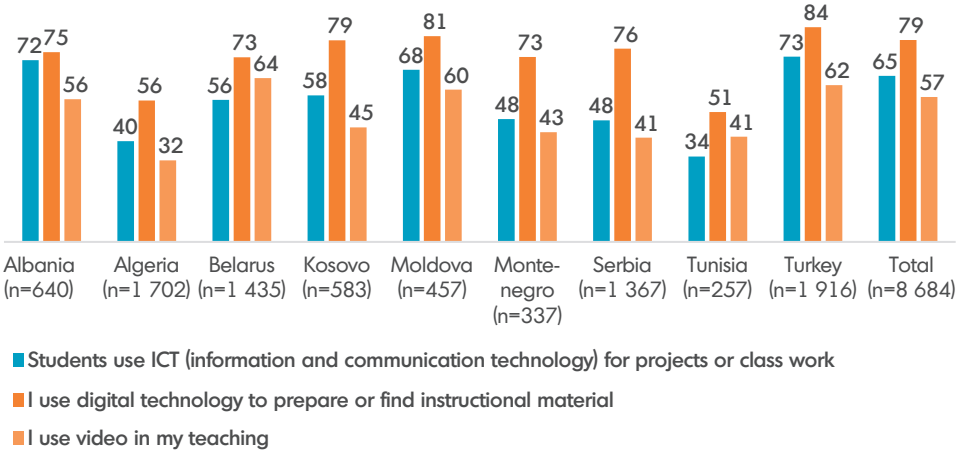


Learning of enterprise skills during the course of vocational education varies considerably according to teachers, and is particularly frequent in Albania and Moldova.

5.3 Digital and online learning

Around 73% of vocational teachers in Turkey, which has invested heavily in computer equipment and software, say they facilitate their students' learning with ICT in projects or classwork (73% frequently or more often), while 72% of teachers in Albania and 68% in Moldova make the same claim. In all countries, the large majority of teachers make frequent use of digital technology to prepare or find instructional material, particularly in Turkey and Moldova. In Belarus, Turkey and Moldova, more than 60% of vocational teachers say they frequently make use of video in their teaching.

Figure 5.3: Use of different teaching methods (% of teachers responding 'frequently/in all or nearly all lessons')

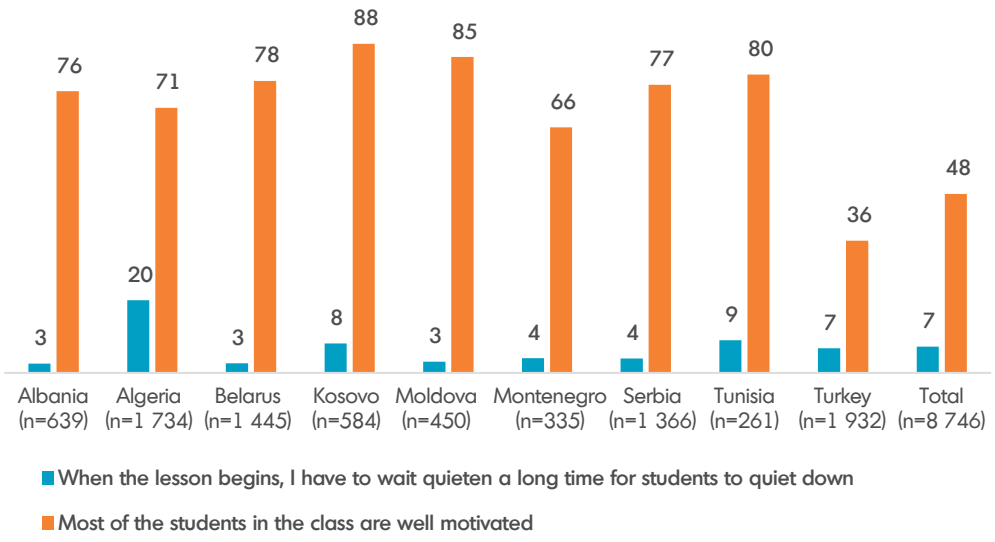


5.4 Behaviour and motivation of students

Across the nine countries, the vast majority of teachers report that most students are attentive. The principals' survey confirms that verbal abuse of staff, vandalism of school property and cheating are virtually non-existent in all nine countries. More than 65% of teachers report that their students are mostly well motivated, except in Turkey, where two thirds of teachers say that most students are not motivated. These data only report the perspective of teachers; however, the drop-out rate for learners is about 30% in Turkey[6], and vocational education is widely perceived as a second-best option, which seems to confirm teachers' views. Higher levels of disaffection among learners are confirmed by the responses of principals, who were more likely to report high levels of absenteeism and lateness among vocational students in Turkey than in the other countries.

[6] www.etf.europa.eu/en/news-and-events/news/school-drop-out-rewarding-job-vocational-education-counts

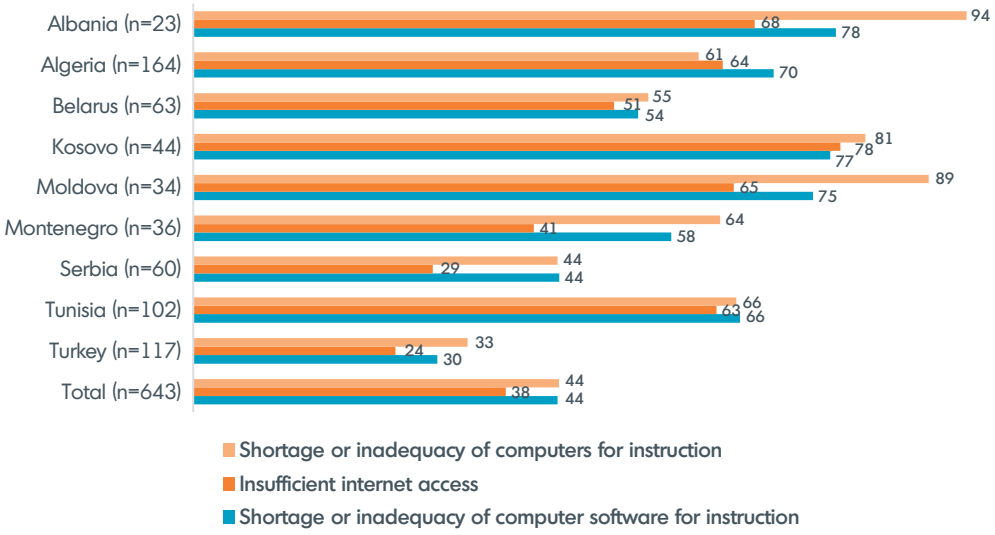
Figure 5.4: Experience with challenges in terms of student motivation and behaviour (% responding 'most/all or almost all classes')



5.5 Educational resources

The survey of principals reveals that lack of ICT equipment and infrastructure is commonly seen as one of the main factors holding back the quality of instruction. Shortage or inadequacy of computers and shortage of computer software are seen as a hindrance by 60% of principals in all countries except Turkey and Serbia. Insufficient internet access is said by most principals to hinder quality instruction to some extent; Turkey and Serbia are exceptions, confirming that vocational education in these two countries has benefited from recent investments in digital technology in schools.

Figure 5.5: Share of principals reporting issues hindering their school's capacity to provide quality instruction (% responding 'to some extent/a lot')



Evidently, the behaviour of teachers is shaped by resources. Most vocational teachers – with the exception of those in Algeria and Tunisia – report that they usually

have sufficient, good-quality instructional materials and appropriate, up-to-date tools to learn practical skills. However, only in Turkey, Belarus and Moldova do a substantial majority believe that they have sufficient consumables and sufficient IT equipment and internet access for most classes. A relatively high proportion of teachers in these countries also say that their students frequently use ICT for projects and classwork (Table 5.2). Student learning within a learning management system or digital environment is common only for only about 25% of teachers in the survey.

Table 5.2: Share of teachers reporting the availability of educational resources (% responding 'frequently/in all or nearly all lessons')

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY	TOTAL	*N*
Students have access to appropriate, good-quality instructional materials	79	32	89	62	75	69	77	30	70	69	*8 623*
Students have access to appropriate and up-to-date tools and equipment in order to learn practical skills	75	40	84	62	78	63	58	46	68	66	*8 550*
Students have access to sufficient and appropriate consumables so that they can develop practical skills	72	37	82	53	68	52	57	49	65	63	*8 474*
Students have access to reliable and appropriate computer hardware and software to let them use digital technology in my subject	52	36	74	51	57	44	44	31	63	59	*8 522*
Students have adequate access to the internet to enable them to support learning in my subject	52	31	66	50	67	52	49	25	64	59	*8 516*
Students use a digital learning environment	23	15	34	20	18	19	16	15	26	24	*8 368*

5.6 Curriculum and assessment

Around 90% of teachers say that they are guided by the national curriculum or qualification standards and a very high percentage say that they prepare yearly plans and individual lesson plans.

When it comes to assessment, the most popular method is for teachers to design and administer their own assessment tools. Standardised assessment tools are used less frequently, particularly in Algeria, Serbia, Tunisia and Turkey, even though the sharing of such assessment tools can be a way of sharing workload and raising the quality of assessment. Only in some countries, such as Belarus and, to a lesser degree, Moldova and Kosovo, do teachers frequently use data from assessment to assign particular learning tasks to students[7].

[7] This practice is an example of formative learning.

Figure 5.6: Share of teachers reporting how their teaching is guided in different ways (% responding 'frequently/always or nearly always')

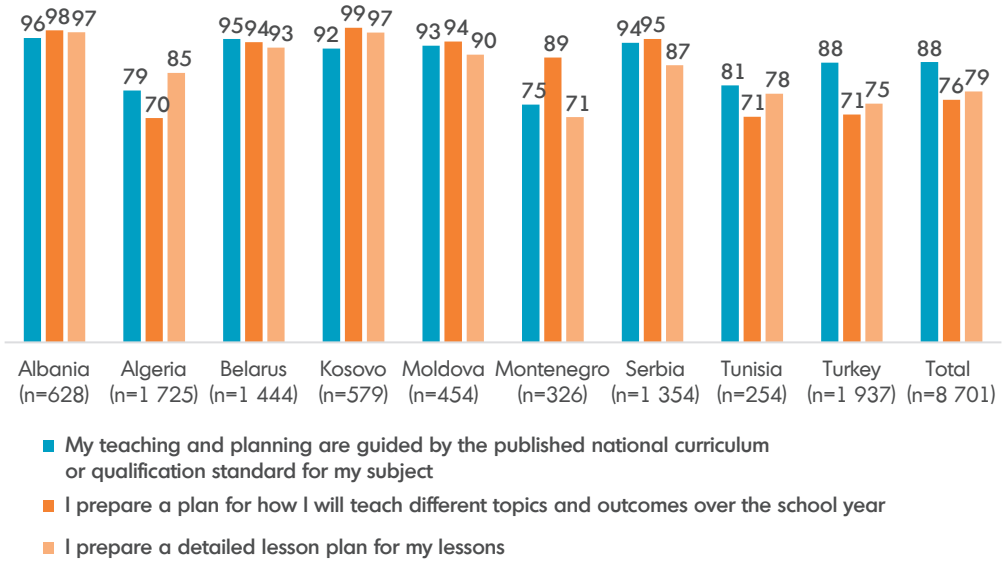
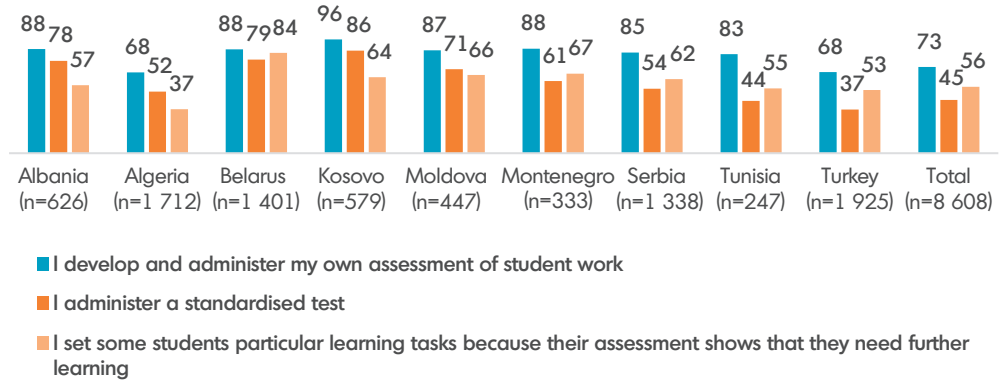


Figure 5.7: Share of teachers using the different methods of student assessment (% responding 'frequently/in all or nearly all lessons')



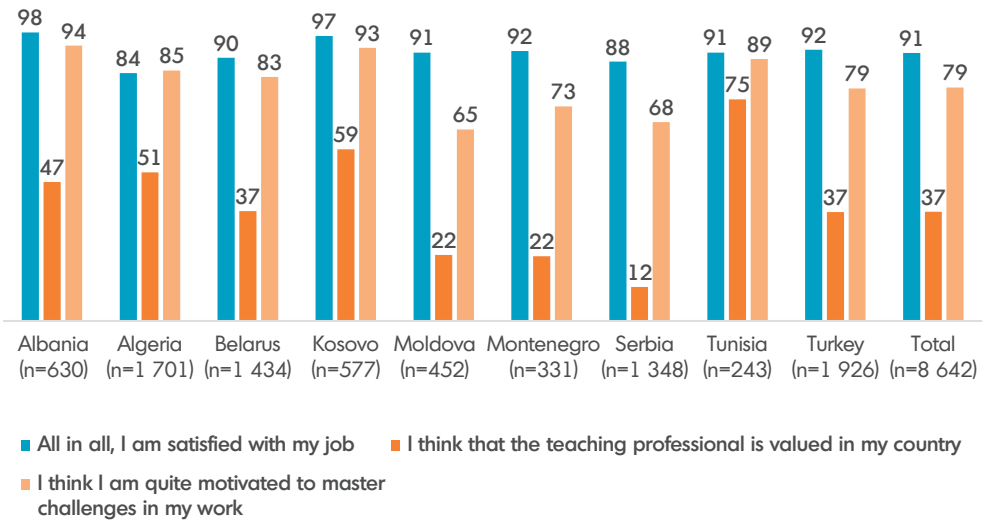
5.7 Career and job satisfaction

The vast majority of vocational teachers say that they enjoy teaching most or all of their classes, although in Montenegro only a slight majority (60%) report this. With regard to satisfaction, Figure 5.8 shows that the vast majority are satisfied. However, in most countries only a minority believe that the profession is valued. This is a significant finding, as in countries such as Finland, Australia and Canada the social status, self-image and financial rewards of teachers are relatively high and policies to raise the esteem of teachers have formed part of the general strategy to improve teaching and learning (Darling-Hammond, 2017).

The share of teachers who declare that they are motivated to master challenges in their work is generally high, although it is relatively low in those countries where teachers perceive that they have relatively low social status, namely Serbia, Moldova and Montenegro.

The share of teachers who declare that they are motivated to master challenges in their work is generally high, although it is relatively low in those countries where teachers perceive that they have relatively low social status, namely Serbia, Moldova and Montenegro.

Figure 5.8: Share of teachers who agree or disagree with statements about their career and job satisfaction (% who agree/strongly agree)



5.8 Summary

The majority of vocational teachers across the nine countries say that they practise both traditional and modern pedagogical methods. However, in most countries traditional methods, such as the teacher summarising learning and class-wide repetition of tasks, are more popular than more modern approaches, such as differentiated tasks and group work. However, particular pedagogical approaches are more popular in some countries than in others, suggesting that modern pedagogy in these countries is not a single holistic practice but consists of different methods that may or may not develop together.

About three quarters of all vocational teachers claim that they frequently or always make connections between the world of work and classroom learning: by referring to real work problems, by combining practice and theory within a single lesson, and by learning from authentic work tasks. However, their capacity to integrate theory and practice is limited, in most cases, by the fact that learning spaces are equipped for either teaching theory or skills practice, and that lessons are programmed accordingly. Most teachers, it seems, do seek to make connections between classroom learning and the world of work, but they do so in a way that is constrained by the physical environment and the way that lessons are programmed in their institutions.

Frequent visits to the workplace or by employers to school are not common and students do not usually have frequent contact with employers or with enterprises. Only in Turkey and Tunisia do teachers report that most of their students profit from work-based learning for at least 10% of their learning time.

The majority of teachers say they use digital technology to find or create instructional material, although fewer report that they make use of digital technologies in teaching. This can be largely explained by shortages in hardware and software and insufficient internet access. Around 60% of principals regard ICT shortages as a major constraint on the quality of instruction, except in Turkey and

Serbia, which are countries where there have recently been significant investments in ICT. In Algeria and Tunisia, teachers also report a lack of good-quality instructional materials and up-to-date tools for practical skills. Only in Turkey, Belarus and Moldova do a substantial majority of teachers believe that they have sufficient consumables for most classes.

In general, most vocational teachers say they enjoy teaching most of their classes and are satisfied with their jobs. However, in most countries only a minority believe that their professional is valued in their countries. This is a concern because relatively high status and rewards for teachers are associated with high performance internationally. Teachers are more likely to be motivated to master new challenges in those countries where their social status is relatively high.

PART 2
CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

The second part of the report focuses on professional development at national and institutional levels.

6. POLICY AND IMPLEMENTATION

6.1 Legislative frameworks for CPD for vocational teachers

In seven of the nine countries, vocational teachers have an entitlement to CPD enshrined in legislation or ministerial decree. In Turkey the right of teachers to training is set out in a strategic plan, while in Tunisia there is no formal entitlement. Of the seven countries where there is an entitlement, only in Algeria and Moldova is there no specification in terms of days or hours. In Turkey the formal requirement is very low – 3 hours per annum – but it is reported that there is an informal 'norm' setting a minimum of 30 hours per annum. Formal requirements are not universal: according to the TALIS survey of teachers, CPD was not compulsory for teachers, either to maintain employment or for promotion or salary increases, in approximately one third of participating countries (OECD, 2019. Furthermore, participation of teachers in CPD is high in some countries, such as Finland and Singapore, where there is no formal requirement.

However, a formal minimum requirement can serve as a tool to help establish a minimum level of participation; it may be particularly useful if the resources available for education and training are limited, as it can help to ensure that CPD is not neglected. In general, non-participation in CPD is relatively high in Tunisia (57%), Algeria (72%) and Turkey (36%), where there is no formal legislative minimum, although it is low (19%) in Moldova, and also in Belarus, where the minimum is very low (72 hours over 5 years). Clearly, minimum requirements are neither necessary nor sufficient to ensure equitable or sufficient participation, but they can help to increase participation in countries that are starting from a very low base.

Meanwhile, Kosovo, Serbia and Albania have set requirements – respectively 100 hours every 5 years, 120 hours every 5 years, and 18 hours per year – that, on current data, they will struggle to meet. There is also the danger that formal requirements, particularly if combined with a shortage of CPD availability or funding, can lead to teachers doing any CPD purely to meet formal requirements without expecting to gain any additional skills.

> **Minimum requirements for CPD are neither necessary nor sufficient to ensure equitable or sufficient participation, but they can help to increase participation in countries that are starting from very low participation levels.**

Table 6.1: Legislative requirements for CPD of vocational teachers in nine countries

COUNTRY	NORM	REQUIREMENT
Albania	Guidelines published by the Ministry of Education and Science (2015) provide for a range of professional development programmes	Three days (18 hours) of training for all teachers is compulsory and rewarded with one credit. The credits are linked to advancement through professional titles but not to salary. In practice, the requirement for three days' training is not enforced and teachers who are not seeking promotion are not expected to meet this minimum.
Algeria	Executive Decree 09-93, 22 February 2009	Teachers and trainers working in public training institutions have the right to professional development throughout their career. During the initial one-year induction phase, beginning teachers should receive pedagogical training. All teachers and trainers should follow CPD aimed at improvement, or at updating skills or gaining new ones. However, neither the extent nor the frequency of CPD is specified.
Belarus	Resolution of the Council of Ministers, 15 July 2011, No 954	Professional development of all VET teachers should take place at least once every 5 years (the duration of training shall be at least 72 hours).
Kosovo	Laws and Administrative Instructions require CPD Providers of CPD must be accredited	All teachers younger than 51 years are obliged to participate in CPD as part of the licensing system. Each of these teachers should complete 100 training hours of training every 5 years, at least 70 hours of which are 'basic programmes'.

COUNTRY	NORM	REQUIREMENT
Moldova	Education of Republic of Moldova 2014	There is no requirement that VET teachers complete a certain volume of CPD or certain kinds of CPD. It is not clear how the professional career of a teacher or their status or salary benefits from CPD.
Montenegro	Legal obligation for CPD CPD is a requirement for relicensing	Every VET teacher should obtain 40 hours of training over 5 years, by attending at least 16 hours of training from priority areas, 8 hours of elective training and 16 hours of training relating to PPM (pedagogic-psychological-methodical competences), for those teachers who did not gain a qualification for PPM during initial teacher (tertiary) education.
Serbia	Legal obligation (Law on Foundations of Education System) Regulation (2017) makes CPD mandatory Competence standards (2011) for all teachers	Teachers must undertake CPD in order to acquire the points necessary to meet relicensing requirements: • 120 hours of CPD every 5 years; • competences defined (4 types); • defines advancement through title acquisition; • traineeship and mentorship.
Tunisia	Tasks and training of trainers are regulated through Law 93-12 of 17 February 1993	The legal framework for CPD defines responsibilities. However, it does not provide a formal requirement or an entitlement for trainers to develop their competences, to improve their teaching performance or to extend their professional responsibilities. In particular, the regulatory framework does not connect CPD for vocational trainers with career development to enable a clear link between professional development and career advancement or particular additional responsibilities.
Turkey	Ministry of National Education (MoNE) Strategic Plan 2015–2019 Performance Criteria 3.1.2	Annual CPD hours for each member of MoNE staff and personnel (including teachers) was 1.2 hours in 2012, 2.3 hours in 2013, 1.6 hours in 2014, and 3 hours in 2019. However, according to the MoNE, there is a norm that requires an annual CPD standard of 30 hours for VET teachers.

Source: National reports.

Generally, there is a lack of normative requirement relating specifically to the CPD of vocational teachers. Vocational teachers are governed by general teacher norms, despite the fact that vocational teachers and trainers have a distinctive mission and, in many countries, their faculty-based pre-service education does not include pedagogical training. This results in some anomalies. For example, vocational teachers in Montenegro and Kosovo are not formally required to obtain any pedagogical training, even though this is not included in their faculty-based pre-service training. In Serbia, vocational teachers are formally expected to have a master's degree, including 36 European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) credits in psychological, pedagogical and methodological disciplines, even though most of them do not have any opportunity to obtain this.

6.2 Strategies and implementation

Tracking the achievements of professional development at policy level is not easy. The documentary research and interviews conducted in the nine countries reveal that professional development has, in most countries, been a priority area for policy makers. Table 6.2 suggests that some countries, such as Montenegro, Albania and Turkey, have been relatively successful in formulating and then implementing policies. However, in Algeria and Tunisia there has been relatively little setting of strategic goals, while in other countries, such as Belarus and Moldova, it is difficult to judge progress in implementation because detailed monitoring of action plans has not been published.

Table 6.2: CPD national strategies and implementation

COUNTRY	STRATEGY	IMPLEMENTATION
Albania	National Strategy for Employment and Skills 2014–2020 addresses: 1. new policy for recruitment and professional development of VET teachers and instructors to ensure quality of teaching and learning; 2. assessment of competences of VET teachers in VET institutions and analysis of the demand for VET teachers and instructors, nationwide and by profile; 3. review of the VET teachers' preparation model; 4. organisation and delivery of training for all VET teachers (in-service), including on gender equality and social inclusion/diversity issues; 5. organisation and delivery of training for managers of public VET human resources.	Road Map for Human Resources 2015–2020 (2016) has been implemented. 24-Day Basic Pedagogy Programme provided pedagogical training to about half of all teachers and instructors between 2016 and 2019. Legislative framework established for national regulation (NAVETQ) and for school-based CPD function (2019). Preparatory study for training of managers completed. Some training programmes for teachers and managers provided by donors.
Algeria	Strategy for Training and Professional Instruction (2015) addresses the development of the initial and continuing training system.	Annual objectives not published.
Belarus	Programme of the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Belarus (Personnel 2018–2025), approved by the Decree of the Minister of Education of the Republic of Belarus of 29 November 2017 No 754, includes: • creation of a sectoral qualification framework and a sectoral qualification council; • development and implementation of a professional standard for vocational teachers; • updating of the content of educational programmes for training VET teachers; • implementation of joint training programmes for teachers with client organisations; • internships for teaching staff abroad; • introduction of modern educational technologies.	Monitoring of actions not available.
Kosovo	Kosovo Education Strategic Plan (2017–2021) covers: • sustainable teacher professional development; • teacher performance assessment process; • fully functional teacher licensing system; • quality preparation for pre-service teacher training. National Development Strategy 2016–2021 addresses: • optimisation of teacher numbers; • completion of licensing; • more CPD addressing STEM.	96% of teachers have gained a career licence. Teacher performance assessment was piloted by 217 teachers in 2018. Centres for CPD have been developed by municipalities. Teams have been trained to develop teacher development plans in schools. A Strategic Teacher Development Framework sets out standards and competences for four stages of teachers' careers.
Moldova	Action plan on Restructuring the TVET network for the period 2015–20 (dated 4 May 2015) includes 'Capacity building of technical vocational education institutions'. This objective is addressed by Action 9, 'Increasing the quality of human resources in technical vocational education'. Planned actions: 9.1. Training of directors and deputy directors of centres of excellence 9.2. Analysis of training needs for specialist teachers and master instructors 9.3. Development of a training programme for the organisation of continuous vocational training courses for teachers/master instructors for different professions/specialities	Not known.
Montenegro	VET Strategy 2015–2020 identifies training of teachers and staff and in-company trainers as priorities. It includes: • CPD modules for subject-related skills; • training of in-company trainers and teachers to update their knowledge; • sustainable financing system for CPD; • encouraging company-based training; • encouraging school-based training; • encouraging the establishment of teachers' associations. Teacher Strategy 2017–2024 (2016) calls for improved funding, monitoring, business links, school-level coordination and responsiveness to needs. VET Strategy 2020–2024, Action Plan for 2020 and 2021 covers: • analysis of impact of CPD; • establishment of a network of CPD coordinators; • training to support professional empowerment of teachers; • training addressing digital and other key competences.	National industrial placement for teachers operational (2016–18); 300 VET teachers trained in developing standards and 400 in delivery of new curriculum. Sector teacher associations and network for CPD school coordinators have been piloted. Initiation of network for school CPD coordinators.

COUNTRY	STRATEGY	IMPLEMENTATION
Serbia	Strategy for the Development of Education in Serbia 2020+ (2012) and Action Plan. This includes: • CPD through accredited programmes; • professional advancement based on evaluation of teaching quality; • scientific and professional research in didactics through interdisciplinary research centres for skills development, including practical work by teachers in their original vocations, organised in companies or institutions; • training all teachers to use ICT in their teaching or in their preparation for teaching; • teacher qualifications to be included in the national qualifications framework.	According to the Action Plan, the following will be achieved (by May 2020): • CPD to support key competences; • analysis of impact of CPD; • establishment of sustainable models of financing CPD. There are plans to review salary classes.
Tunisia	There are some policy statements regarding CPD for vocational trainers but there is not yet an authoritative policy statement nor an action plan to guide improvements or reform. The Agence tunisienne de la formation professionnelle (ATFP) does not have a national CPD strategy. The Agence de formation dans les métiers du tourisme (AFMT) is a new provider of VET programmes in the tourism sector: it is currently developing a strategy in relation to the CPD it will provide.	There are plans to improve regulations relating to career development under the 2025 National Strategy for Vocational Education.
Turkey	Teacher Strategy Paper (2017–2023) has a focus on: • recruitment to initial teacher training; • performance evaluation and competence testing; • school-based coordination of CPD. Turkish Education Vision 2023 (MoNE) covers: • development of efficient and effective mechanisms to ensure personal and professional development of VET teachers in collaboration with industry; • accreditation of post-graduate programmes for teachers by universities, enabling horizontal and vertical career progress; • new legal framework for teachers; • CPD to improve the opportunities for inclusive education. Action Plan within the Education Vision 2023 includes transforming educational practice, supporting and empowering teachers, transforming the school environment, and structuring efficient and open governance.	Establishment of mandatory six-month induction for all new teachers. The Turkish MoNE, together with the EU, has launched actions to enable sector representatives to set up sectoral centres for VET competence development and also create sectoral centres of excellence with a coordinated CPD function for vocational teachers.

Source: National reports.

In those countries that participated in the research exercise in 2015, some of the policies relating to CPD set out in 2015 had not been implemented by 2018. There are many reasons for delay or non-implementation. However, in all countries it was difficult to gain access to detailed monitoring reports in relation to action plans. Either monitoring has not taken place or the reports are not made public.

6.3 Participation of stakeholders in the policy process

For the countries in South Eastern Europe and Turkey, the national reports show that representatives of social partners, trades unions and professional bodies have opportunities to be consulted in the development of policies and strategies. There is evidence that trade unions can sometimes influence policy development on CPD. Membership of teacher trade unions is relatively high and trade unions are often consulted, for example in Turkey, Serbia and Tunisia. In Turkey, for example, it appears that trade unions were influential in delaying the adoption of a Teacher Policy that would have included a universal requirement for CPD. In most countries, there is some evidence of wider involvement of stakeholders – such as employers, teacher training providers, researchers and local authorities – in policy making, although this is not systematic and there is uncertainty about the extent of its influence.

Apart from trade unions, representative organisations, where they exist, are either not very engaged in the issue of CPD for vocational teachers or not routinely consulted. For example, in none of the nine countries is there an association of school principals or a professional association of vocational teachers (as opposed to a trade union) that can expect to be consulted in policy development with regard to CPD. As a consequence, policy development consultations may involve

Apart from trade unions, representative organisations, where they exist, are either not very engaged in the issue of CPD for vocational teachers or not routinely consulted. For example, in none of the nine countries is there an association of school principals or a professional association of vocational teachers (as opposed to a trade union) that can expect to be consulted in policy development with regard to CPD.

prominent individual principals and teachers, representatives from different levels of government and, in some countries, NGOs and researchers. Without associations, principals of vocational schools and vocational teachers find it difficult to communicate, in an organised and sustained manner, their experiences and suggestions.

In Montenegro and Serbia, there are national councils for vocational education, which include representatives of employers, government, local authorities and trade unions[8]. However, these councils do not contribute to policy making on professional development, although Montenegro's National Council for Education has a formal role in accrediting CPD programmes. It was proposed that stakeholders should be permanently represented in a coordination body proposed in Montenegro in 2016 and in a working group that was to be set up in Turkey in 2017. However, these initiatives failed. Since 2019, provincial vocational committees have been established in Turkey, where educational and industrial representatives address shared issues, which could include CPD.

Box 6.1: Council for VET and Adult Education (VET Council) – Serbia

The Council for VET and Adult Education (VET Council) is a national consultative body appointed by the Serbian government. The council has 17 members, representatives from the Chamber of Commerce, crafts and employers' associations, experts in the fields of vocational and adult education, the economy, employment, work sector, social and youth policy, teachers from schools' associations and members from representative teachers' trade unions. The VET Council participates in consultation processes and in all the key functions except management of VET providers and evaluation and review of policy. According to the changes of the law from 2017, the VET Council does not have the role of authorised proposer, but rather is the body that provides opinions, proposals and suggestions and should also participate in the preparation of developmental strategies.

Source: Beara (2019).

In none of the countries is there a formal working group for professional development. Such a body could recruit representatives from the key stakeholders on a rolling basis; it could consult experts, researchers or experienced practitioners, as needed. It could be tasked to promote and shape new policies, champion and communicate new approaches, review and monitor implementation, engage actors and mobilise resources.

6.4 Summary

A regulative framework that defines the entitlement and minimum requirements for CPD can help to mobilise financial and human resources and shape behaviours in order to deliver professional development systemically. Non-participation of teachers in CDP is relatively high in Tunisia (57%), Algeria (72%) and Turkey (36%), where there is no formal legislative minimum. International evidence suggests that minimum requirements are neither necessary nor sufficient to ensure equitable or sufficient participation, but they can help countries that are starting from a very low base.

[8] In Serbia, the Council for Vocational and Adult Education and in Montenegro the National Education Council.

Regulative requirements often address the professional development requirements of all teachers. This means that vocational teachers are expected to meet norms that do not fit well with their professional needs and do not support the development that is most appropriate for them. Sometimes norms leave loopholes; for example, in Montenegro and Kosovo there is no formal requirement that vocational teachers have pedagogical training.

Analysis suggests that some countries, such as Montenegro, Albania and Turkey, have been relatively successful in formulating and then implementing policies. However, in Algeria and Tunisia there is a lack of clear, strategic objectives for CPD, while in other countries, such as Belarus and Moldova, it is difficult to judge progress in implementation because detailed monitoring of action plans has not been published.

In South Eastern Europe and Turkey, the national reports show that representatives of social partners, trades unions and professional bodies do have opportunities to be consulted in the development of policies and strategies. There is evidence that trade unions can sometimes influence policy development on CPD. However, if strategic decision making is the preserve of central authorities, it can lose touch with reality and become difficult to implement successfully.

Regular, transparent monitoring of action plans is generally underdeveloped in all nine countries.

7. ORGANISATIONS AND INSTITUTIONS GOVERNING CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

7.1 Ministries and national agencies

In Serbia, Montenegro, Kosovo, Moldova, Belarus and Turkey, responsibility for policy development and strategy is situated in the Ministry of Education; in Albania this responsibility sits with the Ministry for Finance and the Economy. In Tunisia there is a Ministry for Vocational Training and Employment and in Algeria a Ministry for Training and Professional Education. In all countries, with the exception of Turkey and Kosovo, coordination, provision and regulation of CPD for vocational teachers is delegated by the responsible ministry to a national agency. In Turkey and Kosovo, coordination and regulation are the responsibility of a Ministerial Division for Teacher Training. In Kosovo, there is, in addition, a national VET agency, which provides some training nationally and some training for a special category of schools known as Centres of Competence. In Tunisia, training of trainers that work in specialist tourism or agricultural training centres is the responsibility of agencies situated in those ministries. Where responsibilities for professional development for vocational teachers are distributed across a number of ministerial departments or divisions, as in Turkey, Kosovo and Tunisia, this may sometimes result in information not being shared or actions not being coordinated.

In Serbia, Montenegro and Albania, national agencies provide only limited training activities, focusing rather on commissioning and quality assurance. In contrast, in Belarus, Moldova, Tunisia and Algeria, the national vocational agencies employ teacher trainers: they are the main providers of CPD for vocational teachers.

In most countries there is a dedicated national agency with authority, defined by legislation, to provide CPD for VET teachers, including: training provision; quality assurance and regulation; design; planning and research. In Serbia, Montenegro and Albania, national agencies provide only limited training activities, focusing rather on commissioning and quality assurance. In contrast, in Belarus, Moldova, Tunisia and Algeria, the national vocational agencies employ teacher trainers: they are the main providers of CPD for vocational teachers. In Tunisia there is a National Centre for Teacher Education and Training (Centre national de formation de formateurs et d'ingénierie de formation (CENAFFIF)), which provides training, while the planning, administration and management of the trainer workforce is the responsibility of different national agencies that correspond to different economic sectors (general, agriculture and tourism). In all countries the national agency also provides advice to the ministry with respect to policy development, for example in relation to reform and national training priorities. In Turkey, where there is no national agency, the Directorate General (DG) for Teacher Training is the main training provider but is complemented by the DG for TVET which commissions specialised CPD for vocational teachers.

In Belarus, Moldova, Tunisia and Algeria, the national vocational agencies are relatively large, each employing more than 100 trainers, experts and assistants. They operate their own training facilities and receive a significant budget from their ministry. They combine expertise in pedagogy, qualifications, CPD and quality assurance. Consequently, these agencies exercise considerable authority and influence. In these countries, most of the national resources budgeted to support CPD for vocational teachers are absorbed by the national agency to pay for the costs of the programmes that they offer – usually without charge – to vocational teachers and trainers. These national VET agencies can develop and provide high-quality

CPD for vocational teachers and trainers, benefiting from experience, expertise and economies of scale. However, the national reports suggest that such national teacher training agencies may sometimes be slow to provide new training programmes in response to new technologies and new skills needs, and to form partnerships with other institutions in order to extend and innovate the CPD offer.

In Algeria, in addition to the national VET centre (Institut national de formation et d'enseignement professionnel (INFEP)), which combines responsibilities for sectoral research, professional development, curriculum and methodology, there are six institutes (instituts de formation et d'enseignement professionnels (IFEP)), each of which has professional development and methodological responsibility in relation to several branches (Hammadi, 2020).

In Serbia, Albania[9] and Montenegro, the national vocational agencies are relatively small and their main responsibility with respect to CPD is quality assurance. However, from time to time they may be commissioned by their ministries or enter into partnership with international organisations to provide or coordinate CPD. These national agencies have some influence on the development of policy and strategy – they can expect to be consulted and they have certain formal powers (for example, to formally accredit CPD) – but their capacity to shape policy or strategy is limited. Furthermore, with few staff and limited resources and with a focus on quality assurance, small national vocational education agencies do not aspire to provide leadership and vision for CPD for vocational teachers.

Responsibilities for the CPD of general and vocational teachers are institutionalised in different ways. In Kosovo and Turkey, responsibility for professional development for all teachers is unified within a ministerial department but supplemented by the work of other departments and agencies. In Albania, Tunisia and Algeria, the different agencies dealing with vocational and general teachers report to separate ministries. In Serbia and Moldova, the VET centres are part of larger institutes which include units that address the professional development of general teachers. In Montenegro and Belarus, there are specialised, unified VET centres. It appears that there are advantages and disadvantages in all systems: without a specialist agency the needs of vocational teachers may be neglected, but a very small vocational agency with a low budget and few staff will lack political influence and may be too small to build an effective system. Whatever the institutional arrangements, there can be benefits in collaboration and complementarity; in Turkey, for example, CPD programmes that are developed by the DG TVET are communicated and administered through the digital catalogue of the DG Teacher Training (DG TT).

7.2 Regional and local government

In Belarus, Serbia, Algeria and Turkey, there are regional organisations or institutes that have responsibility and capacity for CPD. For example, in Belarus the Regional Methodological Centres for Vocational Education have a responsibility for methodology and pedagogical innovation, training needs identification and, together with the national VET agency, implementation of CPD programmes. In Turkey there are provincial and sub-provincial directorates of the Ministry of National Education that have responsibility for preparing an annual CPD plan for educational staff. Provinces and sub-provinces command a budget for CPD and are responsible for about half of the CPD provided.

[9] NAVETQ, the agency of vocational and adult education, was formally assigned responsibility for the regulation and provision of CPD only in 2020.

A recent development in Turkey has been to establish Vocational and Technical Education School Boards (VTESBs), which bring together representatives from provincial and district national education offices, sectors, professional organisations, universities, municipal offices and other public and private entities to strength cooperation between education and business. One of the goals of these organisations is to increase in-service work-based training opportunities for vocational teachers (Akyildrim and Durgun, 2019).

In Kosovo, Municipal Education Directorates have formal responsibilities to supervise, coordinate and finance CPD for their schools, in cooperation with the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. In practice, however, they do not have resources at their disposal to fulfil these responsibilities (Likaj, 2019).

7.3 Department or agency of educational quality assurance

In Belarus, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia and Kosovo, there is a separate, independent regulatory body that operates the compliance system in relation to qualification requirements for teachers and principals. Elsewhere, this system is operated through the general or VET teacher agency or the appropriate ministerial department. Independent quality agencies are often tasked with developing the processes and culture for quality assurance. They are usually assigned independence and authority, for example to regulate recruitment and to accredit teacher training providers. However, there is evidence that these processes, while they may serve quality assurance, may sometimes work against responsiveness in the provision of CPD, as they slow down the introduction of new programmes, adding costs and red tape, and discouraging providers from making new offers of teacher training.

7.4 Universities

Universities are important in initial vocational teacher education, although in some countries, such as Montenegro and Albania, universities provide no pedagogical or methodological training for undergraduates or graduates aiming to become vocational teachers. The national reports show that universities make relatively little contribution to CPD for teachers.

There are a few exceptions. In Belarus, the Republican Institute for Vocational Education (RIPO) commissions 4 higher education faculties to provide 2-year programmes (including master's programmes) for more than 500 teachers per annum. This can lead to a research-based or a practice-based Educational Master's, the practice-based route being tailored for potential principals. In Moldova there are CPD centres for teachers and educational managers at some universities. The CONSEPT programme, supported by Liechtenstein Development Services, has enabled the Centre for Continuing Training at the Technical University of Moldova to provide innovative CPD (making use of video) to support pedagogical learning for VET teachers and instructors (Antonov, 2018). In Kosovo the University of Pristina offers a Master's in Vocational Education. In Algeria the École nationale supérieure du tourisme has collaborated with the Ministry of Training and Professional Education to provide CPD.

In Montenegro and Turkey, there are currently plans to extend the involvement of universities in CPD for vocational teachers.

Universities are important in initial vocational teacher education. However, the national reports show that, with the exception of Belarus, and to some extent Moldova, universities make relatively little contribution to CPD for teachers.

7.5 Centres of vocational excellence

A recent development has been to task leading vocational schools or centres with the responsibility for the CPD of vocational teachers in other schools or centres. In Moldova and Belarus, CoVEs with sectoral specialisms have been identified. Some of them benefit from additional staffing and funding and enhanced support from industry and donors. So far there seems to have been little provision of CPD that has reached teachers outside of these centres. In Turkey, 20 CoVEs are to be established, with support from EU funding, serving important vocational sectors. These CoVEs will have a particular responsibility to develop and deliver CPD for teachers who are training for these sectors. For example, within the pilot it is anticipated that 3 250 vocational teachers will receive CPD to help them to improve training and skills in relation to the emergence of Industry 4.0 (ETF, 2019).

7.6 Enterprises and business associations

In Moldova the Chamber of Commerce and Industry organises training for work-based master instructors. In Montenegro the Chamber of the Economy has encouraged employers to offer placements for vocational teachers. In principle, it is possible that Industry Sector Committees, which commonly contribute to the development of occupational standards, might contribute to the development of vocational teacher CPD. However, this survey found no evidence that this is taking place in those countries that do have such committees.

In Montenegro and Belarus, schools and industry cooperate to provide teachers with industrial placements. In Algeria, work-based placements for vocational teachers are organised at regional (*wilaya*) level. The value of specialist work-based occupational training and skills refreshment for vocational teachers is recognised in these countries. However, finding and organising placements is largely the responsibility of schools, who find it difficult to find suitable and sufficient places. It is particularly difficult to find enterprises where vocational teachers can carry out placements that extend their knowledge of innovative technologies. In Turkey, the DG TT, DG TVET and the Department of Social Partners and Projects work with industry in order to offer work-based training for vocational teachers. In 2018 it is estimated that there were 92 different work-based training opportunities in Turkey. Participation of teachers is limited to 20 per training event and new training topics are regularly introduced, such as renewable energy systems, fashion design, Industry 4.0, aircraft maintenance and tractor technologies.

“In Montenegro and Belarus, schools and industry cooperate to provide teachers with industrial placements. In Algeria, work-based placements for vocational teachers are organised at regional (wilaya) level. The value of specialist work-based occupational training and skills refreshment for vocational teachers is recognised in these countries.”

Protocols with businesses, foundations and NGOs that include a component of teacher training are well established in Turkey, where they are organised by the DG TVET's Department of Social Partners and Projects. It was reported that in 2019, a total of 109 protocols with 121 organisations were in force. Typically, these projects are sector-based, and they often include industry-based training for students and teachers. The protocols usually include some kind of incentive or fee for the business or NGO that is providing training. This approach has done much to increase and sustain the involvement of Turkish industry in CPD: it has encouraged the development of intermediary organisations and also helped businesses to make a sustained contribution to skills provision (Akyildrim and Durgun, 2019).

In Turkey, it is also common for larger municipalities or provinces to enter into protocols with businesses, NGOs or charitable foundations to provide CPD for teachers.

There are examples of the involvement of businesses in CPD in other countries, such as Serbia and Algeria. However, only in Turkey is there a government

department dedicated to building partnerships, and consequently, the volume of work-based CPD for teachers is far higher in Turkey than in the other eight countries.

7.7 National and international NGOs and donors

In all nine countries, international and national NGOs make important contributions to the design, funding and delivery of CPD for vocational teachers and trainers. In Montenegro, Kosovo and Albania, international NGOs are involved to some degree in a considerable part of the CPD offered to vocational teachers and trainers; their contribution is also important in Turkey and Moldova, though to a lesser extent.

The EU has funded large-scale, multi-annual educational reforms, particularly in Eastern and South Eastern Europe and Turkey, which very often include a component addressing CPD of teachers, including vocational teachers. The ETF has provided expertise and supported research targeted at CPD, particularly in Turkey and the Western Balkans. Development agencies, in particular GIZ, SwissContact, Austrian Development, KulturKontakt, Lux Development, Danida, United Nations Development Programme and Liechtenstein Development Services, have run development projects that have included sustained, specialised CPD for vocational teachers, particularly in the Western Balkans. Over the past five years there has been a particular focus on CPD to support the development of work-based learning, for example in Serbia, Moldova, Albania and Montenegro[10]. In Tunisia and Algeria, the French, Canadian and Spanish Development Agencies and ministries have supported some CPD. The World Bank has provided finance for projects including CPD, for example in Tunisia and Kosovo.

International development agencies have funded and supported national VET centres, associations of schools, chambers, ministries and local NGOs and consultancies within these nine countries, helping them to increase their capacity to plan, research and deliver CPD. Through long-term projects and partnerships, there has been a considerable transfer of expertise and know-how, so that, for example, in Albania, Turkey, Moldova and Montenegro there are CPD programmes that follow standard European methodologies and practice.

7.8 Summary

Development of good policy requires vision, expertise, evidence, openness and cooperation between actors at different levels. Some countries benefit from having substantial expertise in the form of a large national VET agency or a large ministerial department. However, strategic decision making needs to be informed by current performance. Information on the character, volume, provision and impact of training should be gathered systematically; practitioners and stakeholders should have access to this evidence and should contribute to decision making.

National VET agencies are sometimes relatively small, with limited responsibilities, so it is difficult for them to influence policy. As a result, at policy level, the distinctive needs and priorities of vocational teachers and trainers are not heard.

Donors are evidently important in policy making because they support modernising policies and help to finance them. In some countries, innovation and reform in CPD are often driven in partnership with donors. In practice, much of the CPD provided by vocational teachers in the Western Balkans, for example, has been paid for and

[10] For further details see the nine national reports listed in the References.

designed through donor projects. These interventions have added to the quality and quantity of the CPD offer and have helped to build capacity for teacher training, although donor-driven developments may sometimes have led to intermittent and compartmentalised CPD provision.

Engagement of industry and the private sector in the professional development of vocational teachers is underdeveloped. The exception is Turkey, where employers and intermediaries are engaged at many levels: nationally through protocols and projects; sectorally through sectoral organisations; locally through chambers and organised industrial zones and, perhaps in the future, through VTESBs.

8. DESIGN, QUALITY ASSURANCE AND FUNDING

This chapter explores how CPD is designed in the nine systems and how it is quality assured and formally regulated.

8.1 Commissioning and design of CPD

In all countries it is the central national authorities that decide the priorities for CPD – they determine what kinds of CPD will be provided and funded – in the light of their own strategies and action plans, and their knowledge of teachers' training needs. However, none of the central authorities have comprehensive systems to gather and analyse the needs of their teachers. Countries collect information on training needs through different channels: reports from inspectors (Algeria), external evaluations of schools (Montenegro), school's workforce development plans and advice from teacher trainers (Algeria), applications from teachers to take courses (Turkey), surveys (Albania, Montenegro, Algeria), and informal communication with training centres (Tunisia).

In Kosovo, Serbia, Moldova and Montenegro, there is a commissioning system for CPD. The ministry or national agency announces the national priorities for CPD for teachers, and eligible providers are then invited to submit proposals for training programmes for approval. The rationale for a commissioning system is that it makes it possible for any competent provider to offer high-quality and relevant training, while keeping the responsibility for defining purpose and quality assurance with the appropriate national authorities. In Kosovo, Moldova and Albania, only accredited providers may submit proposals. In addition, employees of national agencies may not themselves offer CPD programmes.

In Algeria and Belarus it is, for the most part, the national training provider that decides which CPD programmes to provide and then designs the programmes and makes the provision. Universities, NGOs, enterprises and private training providers cannot propose training. However, the national training provider may invite them to contribute to projects. This research suggests that in these systems, the national providers lacked systematic, up-to-date information on needs and that there are gaps in their know-how in relation to new technologies and current work practices. Furthermore, these national providers do not easily enter into new partnerships and have been slow to take on new modes of working, such as online CPD provision.

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Box 8.1: Accreditation in Serbia

CPD providers in Serbia must be registered. Once registered, they may then submit offers of training, which, if accredited by the Institute for the Improvement of Education (IEE), can then be implemented and will be recognised in relation to professional careers. However, the catalogue is refreshed only every three years, although skills needs for vocational teachers are changing rapidly.

Source: Beara (2019).

In Tunisia there is a single national provider of CPD for VET teachers: CENAFFIF. However, CENAFFIF does not originate all training proposals. It may design and propose a particular programme because it judges that there is a need for it, based on contact with training centres and its own research. Alternatively, it may design a training programme in response to a specific request from training centres or from the ministry. However, if CENAFFIF is commissioned, it then plays a lead role in design: it conducts a study to research needs and it validates the programme.

In Turkey, CPD programmes are either initiated and designed by the DG TT or are originated through partnerships with other organisations through the DG TVET's Department of Social Partners and Projects. It is these latter programmes that are most likely to address the current needs of the country's vocational teachers because they are initiated in partnership with industry and third-sector organisations, and because they are designed and delivered by appropriate specialists.

Box 8.2: Republican Institute for Vocational Education (RIPO) – Belarus

RIPO is the provider of CPD for vocational teachers and instructors in Belarus. It provides advanced training and retraining, as well as pedagogical training for candidate teachers who have only technical or vocational training. RIPO employs approximately 250 staff, of which 172 are trainers or experts.

National priorities for professional development are agreed at meetings of the Board of the Ministry of Education. RIPO then develops proposals for the CPD of teachers and instructors. RIPO provides a list of CPD programmes that it has designed in the light of national priorities. Every year, it offers over 40 different CPD courses for VET principals and teachers. In the 2018/19 academic year, taking into account the development priorities and requests of teachers, six new programmes (15%) were developed and other popular courses were updated. In addition, the scientific and methodological units within each region and in the city of Minsk develop training activities in line with national priorities.

Source: Kasyanik et al. (2020).

There is some evidence that in most countries the CPD offer is constrained because of lack of suitable expertise. CENAFFIF sometimes contracts external trainers to carry out CPD, but it is reported that some programmes cannot be offered because CENAFFIF cannot find suitable expertise. In Tunisia and Turkey, it is reported that fees for external trainers are relatively low and that this makes it difficult to attract high-quality trainers, particularly in advanced fields. For example, in Turkey it is estimated that the cost of training one teacher for five days is capped at around TL 1 000[11].

Although, in principle, the commissioning model should encourage the supply of CPD providers, in practice there are challenges. In Kosovo, Albania and Serbia, it is reported that the process of obtaining approval is slow and relatively costly, which acts as a deterrent to potential providers. Generally it is reported that national authorities do not have up-to-date knowledge of the diverse needs that vocational teachers have and that national priorities focus on the government's own aims and on the most general needs for teacher development. As a result, the specialised training needs of vocational teachers are effectively deprioritised by commissioning systems. In some countries, such as Kosovo, there is no specialist VET expertise

[11] Approximately EUR 130.

on the accreditation body, which limits its capacity to evaluate specialist vocational CPD. In none of the countries are employers included in the review of proposals for CPD for specialist vocational teachers. This deficiency can be compensated for by a VET agency or government department authorised to independently commission CPD dedicated to vocational teachers. This happens in Turkey and, to a lesser extent, in Albania, Serbia and Montenegro.

This alternative approval process can be relatively quick and flexible and is sometimes used to accredit international or national projects. However, sometimes CPD that is accredited in this manner is not fully recognised; for example, it may not fulfil CPD requirements for teacher promotion or relicensing[12].

In all countries, new CPD programmes also originate from large national reform projects, usually funded through international development partnerships, which may be associated with changes in the curriculum (for example in Montenegro) or assessment (for example in Serbia). These programmes are sometimes designed and delivered in partnership with international consultancies and the projects often have their own quality assurance processes.

8.2 Regulation, monitoring and accreditation

In Moldova, Serbia, Kosovo, Montenegro and Albania, there are independent bodies charged with powers to grant or refuse accreditation for training proposals. In Montenegro, for example, the VET centre evaluates proposals in relation to the regulations and then proposes to the ministry and the National Council for Regulation those that are judged to be satisfactory. Once proposals have been accredited, they can be included in the official catalogue of CPD. The research identified some concerns about the way these bodies work: sometimes there are no published criteria against which proposals are evaluated; the evaluation, for the most part, addresses formal requirements rather than evaluating the substance and relevance of the training proposal; and the evaluating body does not include experts, teachers or employers who have up-to-date knowledge of skills needs and work practices.

In Tunisia and Belarus, there is no independent quality assurance body that accredits training programmes designed and delivered by the national providers. These bodies are expected to quality assure their own programmes.

Where universities are involved in the provision of CPD, as in Moldova, they usually bring their own systems of quality assurance. If universities are experienced at developing and quality assuring programmes, which they often are, this may assist them to develop high-quality CPD responsively and rapidly.

In Albania, the Ministry of Education, Social Affairs and Youth operates a Commission for Accreditation that manages the accreditation of organisations and training programmes for teachers. During the course of training, trainers may be visited as part of quality assurance.

It is usual practice in all countries to collect feedback from participants at the end of training. Turkey's online teacher training information system (MEBBIS) records key information about each training event and also collects feedback, which is used to score the events. Training events with very low scores are not repeated. However, there is generally an absence of arrangements to measure the impact of CPD on the quality of teaching. In theory, it is possible that the impact of CPD can be

[12] This has been identified as a concern in Kosovo (Likaj, 2020).

reviewed through the appraisal of teachers and self-evaluation processes in schools. However, this research did not find evidence that this happens. Furthermore, if such evaluation of CPD does take place in schools and training centres, there is no mechanism by which it is fed back to the central agencies that make decisions about the funding and accreditation of CPD.

The use of international standards is relatively rare. However, CENAFFIF in Tunisia has quality assured two of its training programmes by obtaining ISO 9001 Certification for them. Some schools make use of international training programmes. At Maribor Maritime School in Montenegro, for example, the school uses its own income to ensure that teachers have the international qualifications that are essential for teaching internationally accredited programmes.

8.3 Funding

Funding constrains the availability and range of CPD offered in all countries. The research suggests that relatively few new CPD programmes make their way into catalogues each year. Even when CPD is accredited and included within the catalogue, it may not actually be offered, or may offer only limited training places. National authorities limit the number of training programmes that they accredit because they are aware that funding is limited. For example, in Montenegro the VET centre can only offer CPD to the value of EUR 6 000 per annum.

Accredited CPD programmes in the catalogue are usually provided to teachers without any cost for participation. If a teacher is accepted onto a course then the ministry or national agency pays. However, courses may be offered at a cost to schools. For example, in Montenegro some programmes are offered by the Bureau of Professional Development with a requirement that the school should contribute EUR 15–25 per day, per teacher. In Belarus, places on national and regional training programmes are free, but schools are expected to cover travel, accommodation and other expenses.

In all countries, limited central funding for CPD is regarded as a constraint on the volume and range of provision. Indeed, it has been noted that cuts in public spending have, in some years, led to reductions in the CPD offer.

International development partners are reported to contribute the greater part of the funding for CPD of vocational teachers in some countries, particularly in the Western Balkans, for example in Kosovo, Serbia, Albania and Montenegro.

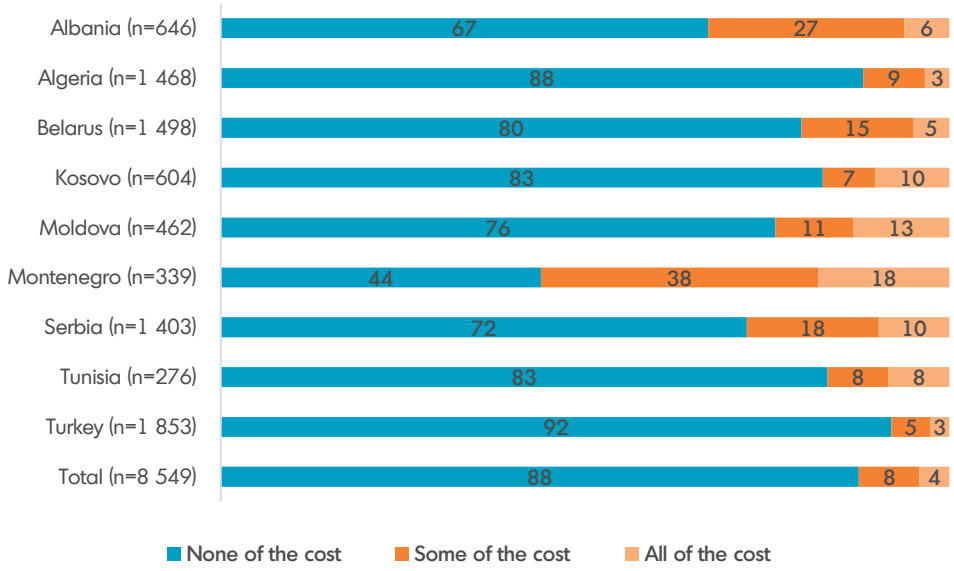
In countries where the national VET agency is also the main provider of CPD – Tunisia, Algeria, Belarus and Moldova – funding for CPD is assigned to this national provider, who then makes spending decisions. Where the commissioning system operates, spending decisions remain in the hands of national authorities, although provision is outsourced. Where international development organisations contribute, they work with national authorities to determine the priorities and modes for CPD. In all cases, the voice of vocational teachers, schools and local authorities in shaping the supply of CPD is relatively weak. It is rare for vocational schools to possess their own budgets that they can use to develop their own training or buy training from providers. There are some projects in which particular schools work closely with international development organisations (as, for example, in the Skills for Jobs (S4J) project in Albania) or partners (such as in Erasmus projects in Turkey), where schools can shape CPD provision. Some public sector schools have some independent income, for example from the sale of services, and they choose to use this to pay for CPD. Centres of Excellence in Moldova have some additional staffing, which has permitted them to develop additional school-based CPD.

“It is not uncommon for programmes to be designed and accredited, but then not to be offered because of lack of funds.

A major problem in Turkey is the limited budget for CPD relative to the high demand. There are about 140 000 VET teachers, and it is estimated that the DG TT and DG TVET can reach only around 5 000 teachers a year through central CPD provision.”

In Turkey and Algeria, regional and local authorities have some resources that enable them to coordinate the needs of many schools in order to organise CPD for teachers. Local authorities are also expected to play this role in Kosovo and Serbia, but this research suggests that they often lack resources to perform this role, particularly for vocational teachers. Meanwhile, regional methodological centres in Serbia and Belarus have staff and facilities that enable them to offer some CPD.

Figure 8.1: Share of teachers contributing to the cost of CPD (%)



In general, teachers are not expected to contribute substantially to the costs of their CPD. However, the survey suggests that in Montenegro, Serbia, Moldova and Albania, a significant minority of teachers do contribute. Furthermore, in many countries, CPD routinely takes place at the weekend or during holidays: teachers are expected to contribute non-working time. The fact that so many teachers are willing to contribute to the cost of their CPD, or at least to give their time, suggests that teachers personally benefit from CPD, for example by advancing their careers or increasing their own satisfaction from their work. Where teachers are required to participate in CPD in order to meet relicensing conditions, as in the Western Balkans, teachers may regard some spending on CPD as a necessary investment. By choosing to contribute financially, they may be able to obtain CPD that they find particularly relevant. Interviews suggest that some teachers are willing to spend their own money on training, rather than making do with what is offered to them for free, if this means they obtain training that they really want.

The voice of vocational teachers, schools and local authorities in shaping the supply of CPD is relatively weak. It is rare for vocational schools to possess their own budgets that they can use to develop their own training or buy training from providers.

8.4 Summary

Algeria, Belarus and, to some degree, Tunisia have large national VET agencies that define training needs and design and deliver CPD for trainers and vocational teachers. In Tunisia, the national training agency is sometimes asked to respond to requests for CPD expressed by the agencies that run training centres. In Belarus, the national training provider authorises regional methodological centres to organise some CPD. In contrast, for the most part the national agencies in Serbia, Montenegro, Moldova and Albania commission CPD from outside providers. Neither of these two approaches ensures responsiveness and sufficiency of provision.

Where there is no mechanism to make national training providers responsive and where they lack knowledge of needs, national providers are less likely to renew their training offer to match changing needs. None of the nine central authorities

has a comprehensive system to survey and analyse the needs of their vocational teachers. If commissioning systems are underfunded, slow and bureaucratic, they will not deliver the expected CPD provision. The case of Turkey shows how the variety and volume of providers can be extended by multiplying channels: central provision, partnerships, donor programmes, local provision.

Independent evaluation of the quality of CPD is one way to raise quality. Moldova, Serbia, Kosovo and Albania operate independent bodies that evaluate training proposals. It is important that such bodies include representatives with relevant expertise. Most systems collect feedback from participants, but nowhere is there any systematic process through which knowledge about the impact of CPD on teaching and learning informs CPD accreditation or spending.

In all countries there is a lack of public resources to develop and sustain high-quality, vocationally relevant, nationally provided CPD for vocational teachers. International development aid and projects make a significant contribution to CPD. Given their importance, consideration could be given to how better to integrate CPD that arises through international projects within national systems of quality assurance, accreditation, needs analysis, etc.

In general, spending decisions about CPD are made by national authorities. In a few countries – Serbia, Belarus, Turkey and Algeria – some decisions are delegated to regional or provincial authorities. Schools, teachers and employers have little say in shaping CPD. In Turkey, a longstanding system of partnership with industry and NGOs provides an exception to this pattern. There are some initiatives, such as the establishment of CoVEs, for example in Moldova and Turkey, and of joint employer–education provincial councils, also in Turkey, which help to decentralise decision making and spending on CPD. This is to be welcomed, as decentralisation should help to make CPD responsive to demand and better connected to impact.

9. VOLUME, MODE AND CHARACTER OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROVISION

This chapter summarises what is known about the participation and character of CPD. The European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training (EQAVET) project makes participation in CPD a key indicator of VET quality[13]. Participation in CPD has been identified as an indicator for the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals as a way to monitor Goal 4c: 'By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States' (United Nations, 2015, p. 17). Following the OECD's TALIS survey, the ETF's survey provides data that help countries to assess their performance in relation to this goal (OECD, 2019, p. 154).

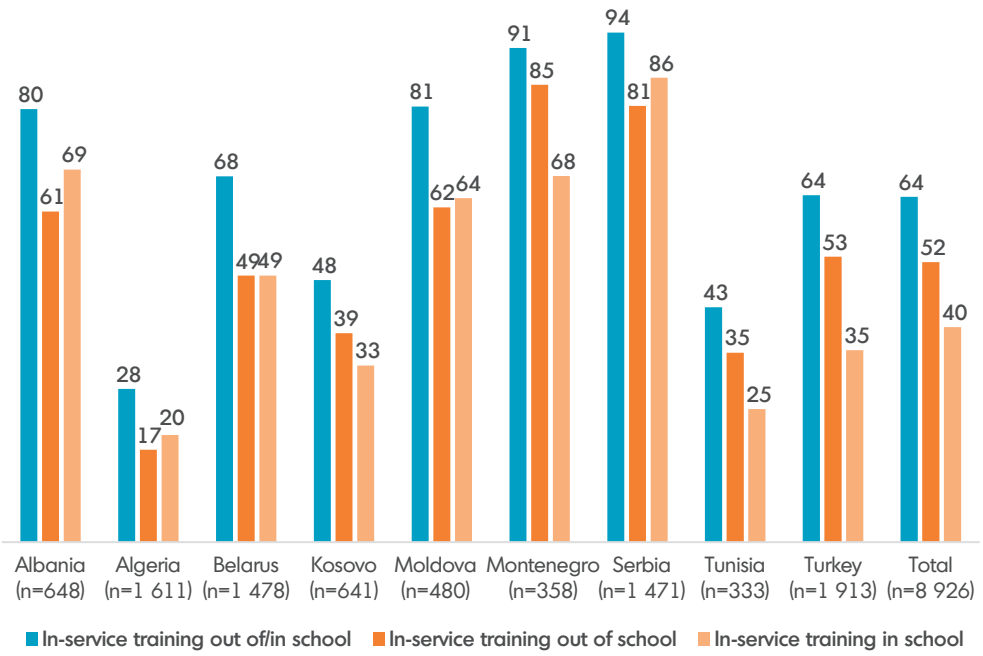
It is possible to measure and analyse the volume of CPD using either administrative data collected by CPD providers or a survey asking teachers to report their participation. Administrative data are likely to be reasonably reliable, but they are not complete. Ministries and national agencies usually publish data on participation for those training programmes they offer, but they do not usually identify which kinds of teachers participate and they seldom measure participation in CPD provided by donors, local government or schools. The administrative data are reported in the nine national reports, while in this report we focus on data from the survey, which are internationally comparable.

9.1 Participation

Figure 9.1 provides a comparison of participation rates in the nine countries. In Albania, Moldova, Montenegro and Serbia, 80% or more of vocational teachers say they have participated in some kind of CPD over the 12 months prior to the survey. Serbia's participation rate of 90% matches the OECD average[14]. Kosovo and Belarus achieved participation rates of between 50% and 70%, while in Tunisia and Algeria the majority of vocational teachers report no CPD in the past 12 months. In all countries, participation in CPD organised in schools is at a similar level to participation that takes place out of schools.

[13] www.eqavet.eu/What-We-Do/European-Quality-Assurance-Reference-Framework/Indicators
[14] Average participation across the TALIS 2018 survey was 94% (OECD, 2019).

Figure 9.1: Share of vocational teachers who participated in any CPD, by type, over the 12 months prior to the survey (%)



It is possible to make comparisons over time for the five countries that participated in the first round of ETF surveys in 2015. Participation in any kind of CPD rose in Albania (from 56% to 80%), Montenegro (76% to 91%), Serbia (92% to 94%) and Turkey (63% to 64%), but it fell slightly in Kosovo (56% to 48%) (Stanley, 2016).

9.2 Character of CPD

Figure 9.2 reveals the character or focus of CPD. Vocational teachers are particularly in need of training that addresses their knowledge and skills in relation to the professions they teach. While 64% of all vocational teachers in the survey say they have participated in some kind of CPD, only 38% report participating in CPD that directly addressed their vocational specialism (as opposed to CPD that concerned general pedagogic or administrative issues). On average, only 48% of vocational teachers in the survey say they have participated in CPD (including study visits) that took place on business premises. Exceptionally, 59% of vocational teachers in Turkey report participating in CPD on business premises: the business and education communities in Turkey collaborate extensively at many levels to achieve this work-based CPD. Participation in work-based CPD by teachers is below 20% in Moldova and Belarus.

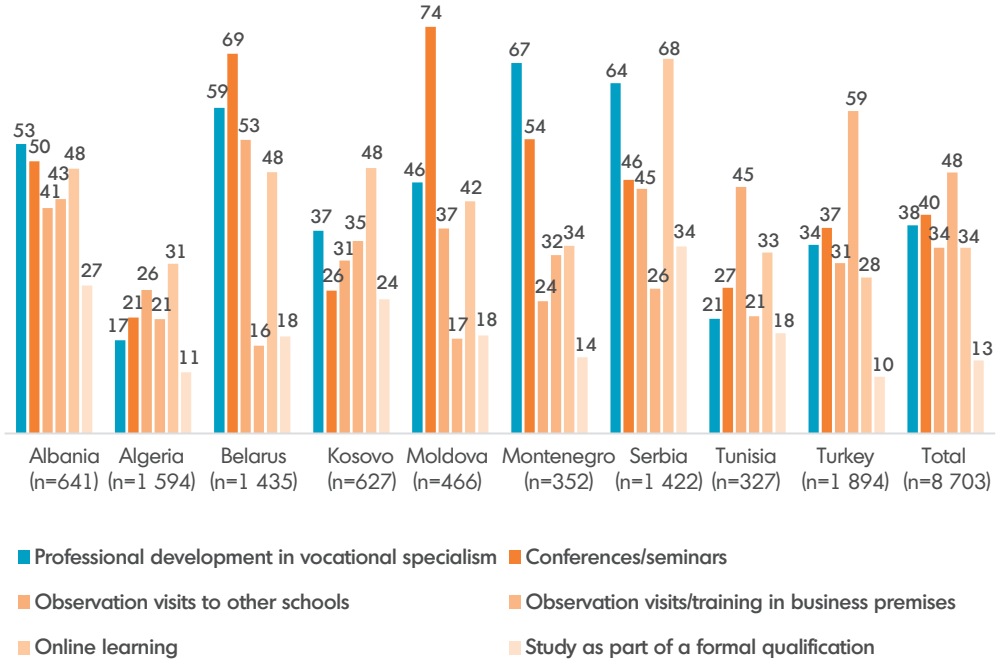
Conferences and seminars are the form of CPD that attracted the highest level of participation (40%), reflecting the fact that this type of CPD receives the most funding and recognition from national authorities. Dependence on formal training events is particularly high in Belarus and Moldova. Around 34% of vocational teachers report participation in online CPD. In Serbia, which during this period ran a blended CPD programme for all secondary school teachers, participation in online CPD is at 68%.

Research suggests that conferences and workshops, though sometimes effective in transmitting knowledge, are less effective in relation to teaching practice than CPD that is closely tied to the immediate tasks of teachers and the priorities of their schools (Jayaram et al., 2012). This suggests that teachers will benefit from participation in multiple forms of CPD and that CPD should be 'instructionally

Exceptionally, 59% of vocational teachers in Turkey report participating in CPD on business premises: the business and education communities in Turkey collaborate extensively at many levels to achieve this work-based CPD. Participation in work-based CPD by teachers is below 20% in Moldova and Belarus.

related'. Given the potential of online CPD to facilitate participation, it seems likely that this will increasingly be part of the CPD offer, even after the effects of Covid-19 are mitigated.

Figure 9.2: Participation in different kinds of CPD over the 12 months prior to the survey (%)



9.3 Volume of CPD

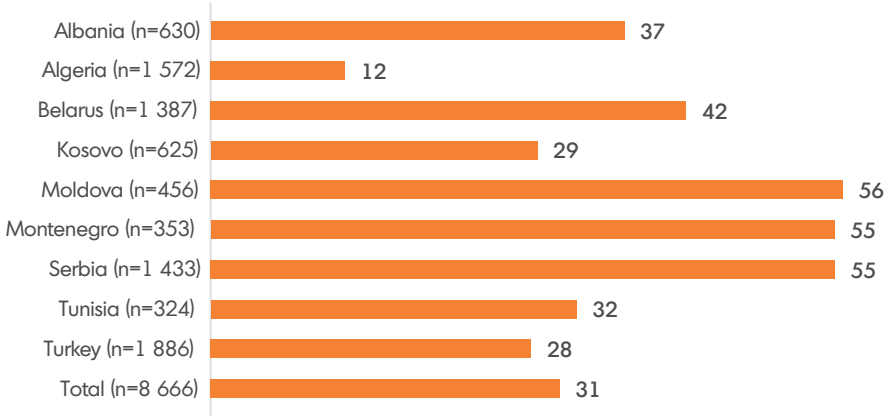
It is generally accepted that the teacher workforce will not be professional unless all of the teachers obtain regular and appropriate amounts of CPD. It is useful to construct some kind of benchmark, as measuring only participation does not take any account of how much CPD teachers obtain. This survey uses the benchmark of 30 hours per annum in order to explore whether an adequate level of CPD is being provided systematically to the whole profession. Although this benchmark is, in the last analysis, arbitrary, it may be described as an aspirational standard for an EU Member State. Since 2017, all teachers working in the Netherlands are required to obtain a minimum of 160 hours every 4 years of service[15].

Around 49% of all vocational teachers who participated in some kind of CPD report obtaining at least 30 hours of CPD. In other words, half of those receiving any kind of training may be said to have reached the benchmark. However, if we take into account those teachers who did not do any CPD, we find that only 31% of all the vocational teachers in the sample have obtained 30 hours or more. In Serbia, Moldova and Montenegro, more than 50% of vocational teachers have reached the benchmark. In contrast, in Algeria (12%), Turkey (28%), Kosovo (29%) and Tunisia (32%), as many as two thirds of teachers have not met the benchmark for participation.

Only 31% of all the vocational teachers in the sample say they have obtained 30 hours or more of CPD. In Serbia, Moldova and Montenegro, more than 50% of vocational teachers report reaching the benchmark. In contrast, in Algeria (12%), Turkey (28%), Kosovo (29%) and Tunisia (32%), as many as two thirds of teachers have not met the benchmark for participation.

[15] https://ncee.org/netherlands-teacher-and-principal-quality/#:~:text=Teacher%20Professional%20Development,over%20every%20four%2Dyear%20period

Figure 9.3: Share of vocational teachers that obtained at least 30 hours of CPD during the 12 months prior to the survey (%)



Comparing these results with the survey conducted in 2015, the research indicates that the percentage of teachers reaching the benchmark of at least 30 hours over the past 12 months rose in Montenegro (from 29% to 55%) and Albania (from 33% to 37%), remained unchanged in Serbia (at 55%) and fell in Turkey (from 47% to 28%) and Kosovo (48% to 29%) (Stanley, 2016).

Table 9.1 shows that, on average, vocational teachers who have participated in training receive 15 days of training over 12 months. The table reveals that in Tunisia, Algeria and Moldova, a small share of teachers say they have obtained a relatively large volume of training. This reflects the fact that in these countries, much of the training offer is dedicated to achieving the formal qualification requirement for beginning teachers. In other countries, vocational teachers average from 7 to 12 days' training.

Table 9.1: Average number of days of training obtained by teachers who participated in CPD in the 12 months prior to survey (1 day = 6 hours)

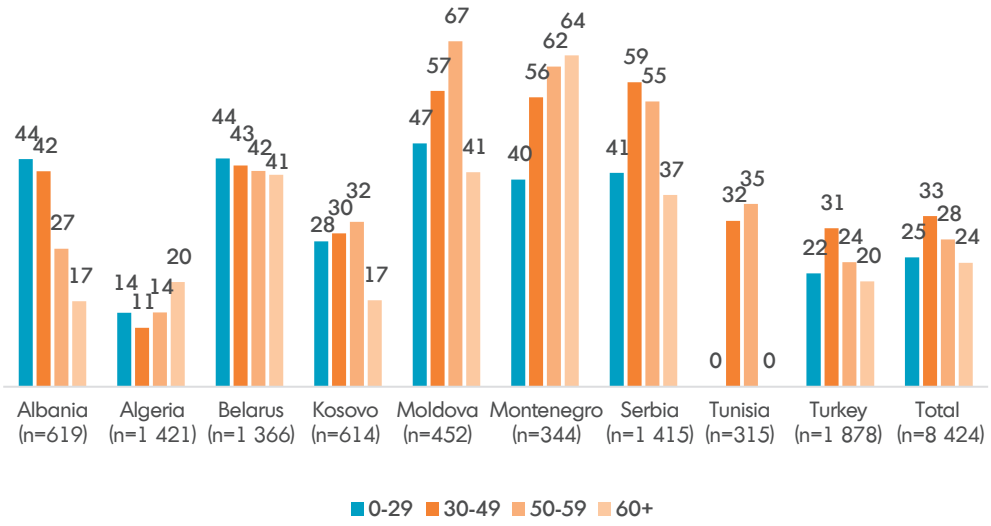
	IN-SERVICE TRAINING OUT OF/IN SCHOOL	PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN VOCATIONAL SPECIALISM	CONFERENCES/ SEMINARS	OBSERVATION VISITS TO OTHER SCHOOLS	OBSERVATION VISITS/TRAINING IN BUSINESS PREMISES	ONLINE LEARNING	STUDY AS PART OF A FORMAL QUALIFICATION
Albania	12	4	3	2	5	4	18
Algeria	20	11	2	4	4	16	23
Belarus	10	12	3	3	5	6	14
Kosovo	11	6	3	2	7	7	9
Moldova	27	19	5	3	7	16	38
Montenegro	7	3	3	2	4	5	6
Serbia	7	3	2	2	3	6	5
Tunisia	32	14	4	7	3	13	30
Turkey	7	5	2	4	9	3	7
Total (average)	9	6	2	4	8	5	10

9.4 Distribution of CPD

Distribution of CPD in relation to age

In Moldova, Serbia and Montenegro, considerably more middle-aged teachers report accessing training than teachers aged under 30 or over 60.

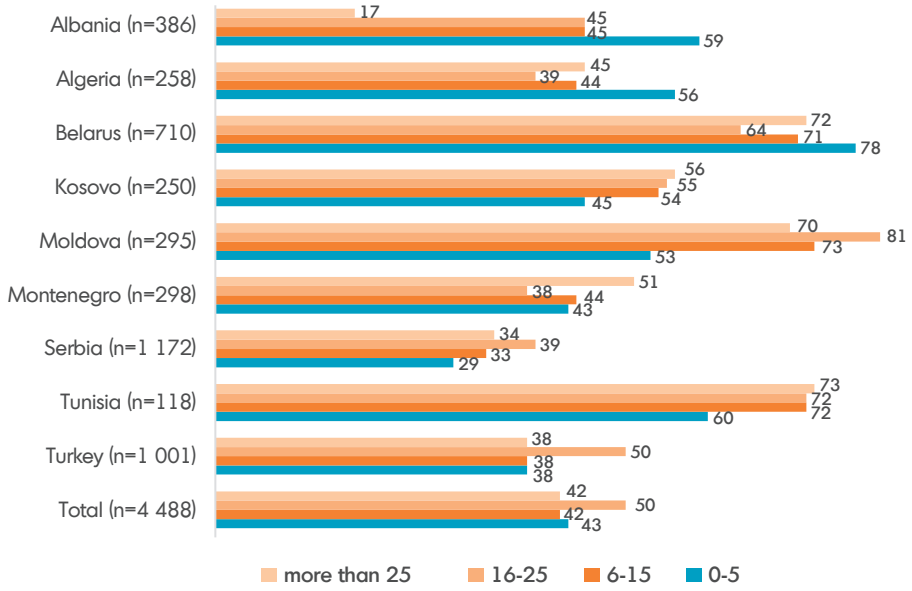
Figure 9.4: Participation in any kind of CPD over the past 12 months by age (%)



Distribution of CPD in relation to years of teaching experience

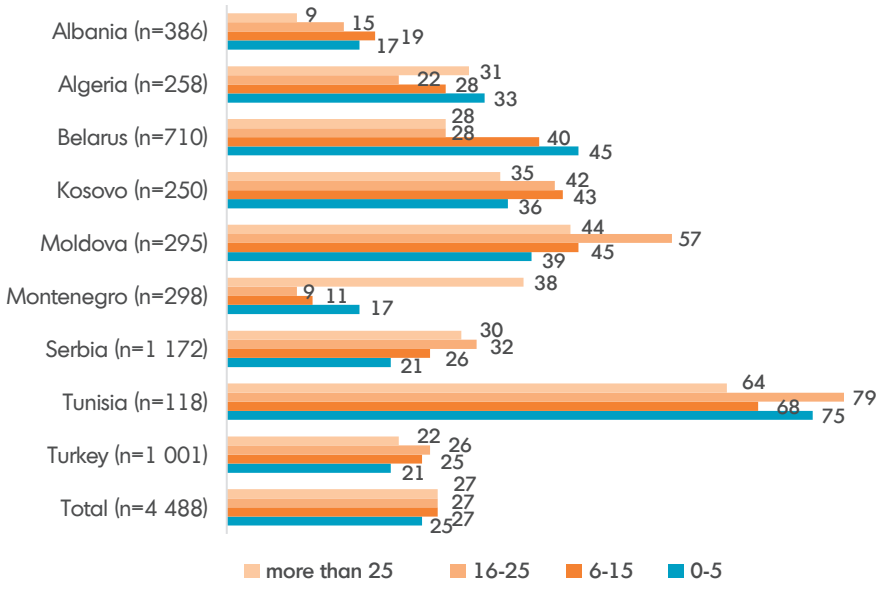
In Belarus, Tunisia and Algeria, less experienced teachers are most likely to report receiving 30 hours of in-service training outside of their schools. However, in many other countries, more experienced teachers are more likely than less experienced teachers to say they have received 30 hours of training. This could be because CPD might serve to support promotion. However, it raises the question of how decisions are made about who gets to participate in CPD. Similar patterns emerged with respect to school-based in-service training. In some countries, long-serving teachers may be privileged in their access to CPD.

Figure 9.5: Share of teachers participating in at least 30 hours of CPD (out of school) over the past 12 months, by years of teaching experience (%)



Note: Limited to those who have participated in a given type of CPD.

Figure 9.6: Share of teachers participating in at least 30 hours of CPD (within school) over the past 12 months, by years of teaching experience (%)

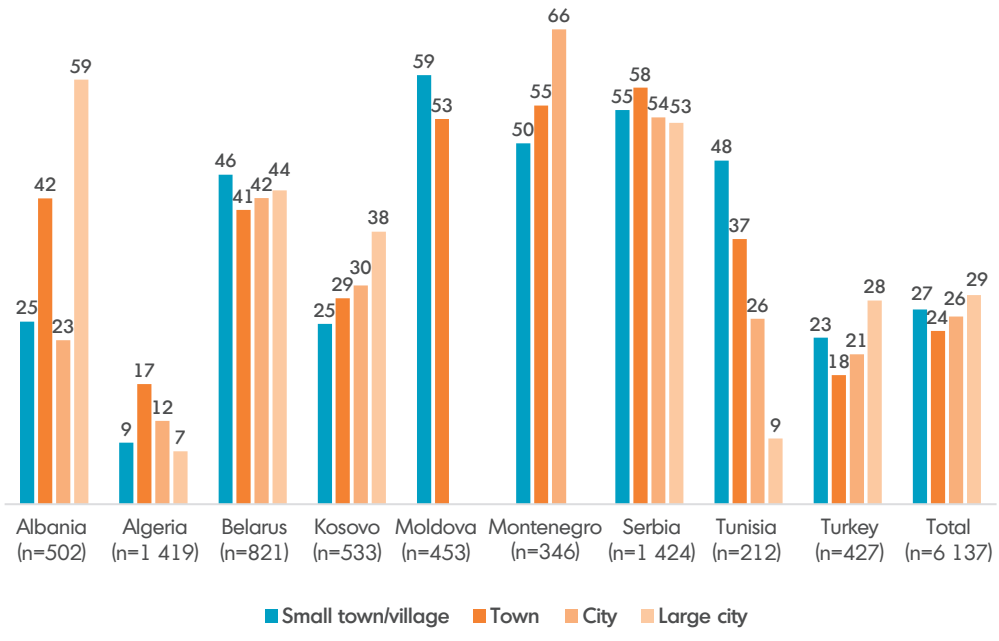


Note: Limited to those who have participated in a given type of CPD.

Distribution of CPD between rural and urban areas

Figure 9.7 shows that in some countries, participation in CPD varies with the kind of place in which the school is located. In Albania and Turkey, more teachers working in large cities say they have obtained at least 30 hours of CPD over 12 months, probably because there is a greater offer of training in such locations. In Tunisia, in contrast, more teachers in small towns report obtaining 30 hours, perhaps because this is where many teachers begin their teaching careers and obtain the training that forms part of their induction year. In Belarus, Serbia and Moldova, the geographical location of the school does not affect CPD participation.

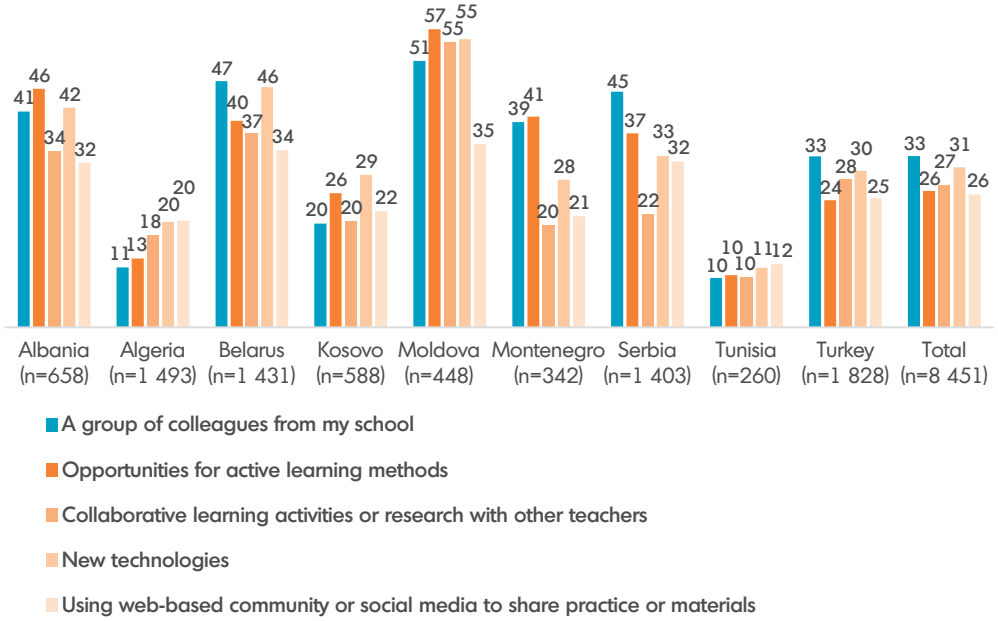
Figure 9.7: Share of teachers participating in at least 30 hours of CPD, of any kind, over the past 12 months, by geographical location of the school (%)



9.5 Mode of CPD

Much of the CPD takes the form of formal seminars or lectures: teacher trainers make formal presentations in order to communicate knowledge, such as the requirements of a new curriculum, or details of a new procedure, for example for administrative reporting. However, research into CPD shows that in-service training is much more likely to impact on teaching behaviour if it makes use of methods that engage and motivate teachers to learn and to apply new skills in their teaching (Darling-Hammond and Richardson, 2009). The survey shows that in-service training in Albania, Belarus, Moldova and Serbia is more likely to employ a variety of non-formal modes, such as active and collaborative learning or the use of new technologies, and is therefore more likely to be effective. In Tunisia and Algeria, not only is participation in CPD low, but the mode of delivery is formal and narrow. On average, about 30% of all vocational teachers in the survey report that they have participated in CPD that includes these modalities.

Figure 9.8: Share of teachers participating in different modes of CPD over the past 12 months (% answering 'yes, in most/all activities')

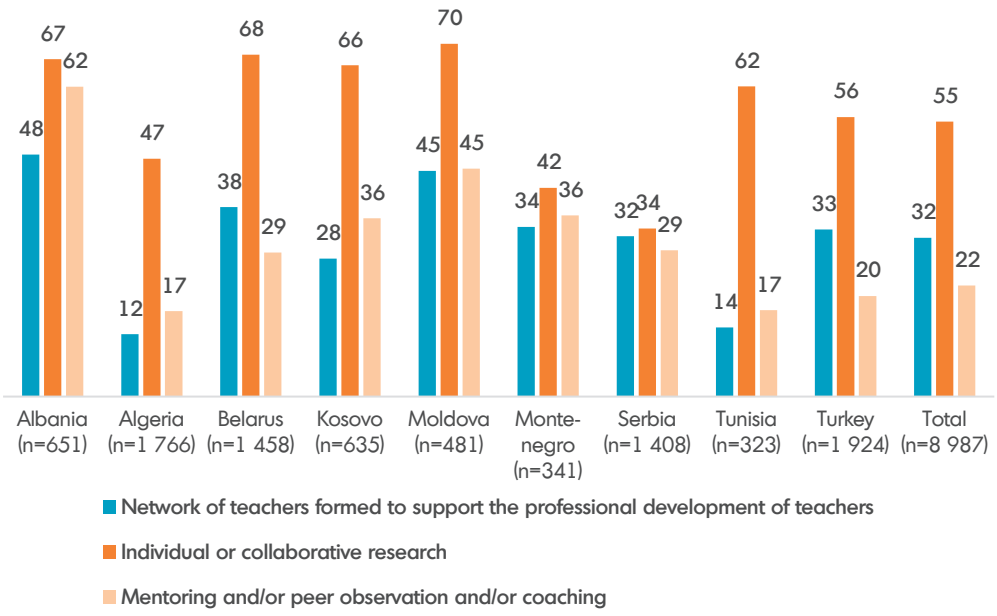


9.6 Teacher networks and teacher research

New teaching practices can be communicated and their take-up supported by networks of teachers. (OECD, 2019). Albania shows relatively high rates of participation in networks; this may be because network development has been supported by donors[16] and these networks have been sustained by Albanian teachers. Figure 9.9 shows participation rates in teacher networks. Comparison with the survey conducted in 2015 shows that participation by vocational teachers in networks in Albania rose from 22% in 2015 to 48% in 2018 and in Turkey from 26% to 33%. There were small falls in teacher network participation in Serbia, Kosovo and Montenegro (Stanley, 2016). Participation in networks is relatively modest in Tunisia and Algeria.

[16] The S4J Network, supported by SwissContact, has developed an extensive network: http://skillsforjobs.al/al/

Figure 9.9: Share of teachers participating in different forms of CPD during the past 12 months (%)



Around 55% of vocational teachers report involvement in individual or collaborative research across the survey. Participation is particularly high in Moldova and Belarus, where formal recognition is given to teacher research. Teacher research is increasingly recognised as a form of teacher development and an engine for improvement in teaching. In Alberta (Canada), Shanghai and Singapore, for example, teachers carry out research projects aimed at studying the effects of changed teaching on student learning, and there is evidence (particularly in the case of Alberta) that this has led to improvements in teacher behaviour (Parsons and Beauchamp, 2012). Further research is required to understand what kinds of research vocational teachers in the ETF's partner countries are doing, and with what effects. However, the fact that there is a tradition of teacher research and formal recognition in many of the ETF's partner countries offers a considerable opportunity.

9.7 CPD for principals

The principals' survey suggests that, in general, vocational principals are more like to participate in CPD than vocational teachers. Only in Tunisia and Algeria do more than 20% of principals not participate in any courses or conferences. In Belarus, Moldova, Montenegro and Albania, at least 60% of principals say they have received more than 30 hours of these kinds of CPD, and only in Algeria do most principals fail to reach this benchmark.

School leaders need to understand how other schools are developing, innovating and solving problems. Networking with other principals provides opportunities to learn from peers and work with them. Effective and inclusive professional networks for leaders offer a vital tool for sharing good practice and high standards across all skills providers in the system. On average, 24% of all vocational principals say they

On average, 24% of all vocational principals say they have participated in professional networks for more than 30 hours over the past 12 months. Participation in professional networks is particularly high in Tunisia and Kosovo, but relatively low in Algeria, Turkey and Moldova.

have participated in professional networks for more than 30 hours over the past 12 months. Participation in professional networks is particularly high in Tunisia and Kosovo, but relatively low in Algeria, Turkey and Moldova[17].

Figure 9.10: Share of principals participating in courses or conferences over the past 12 months, by number of hours (%)

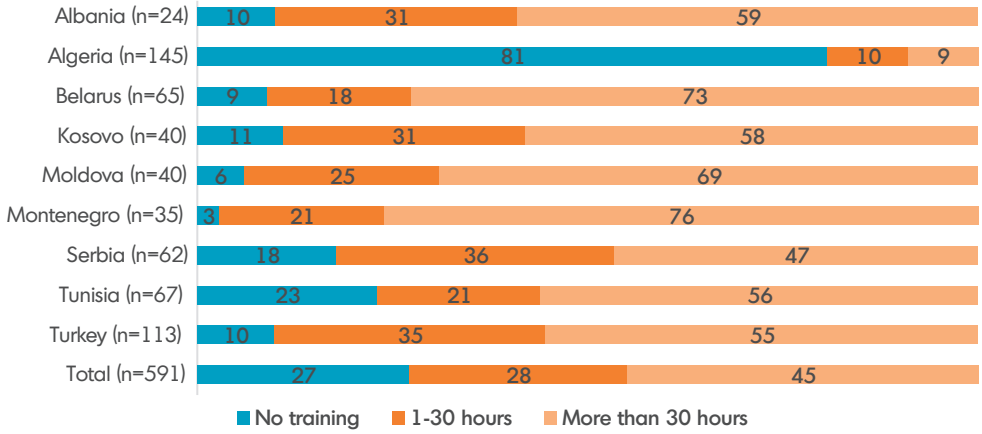
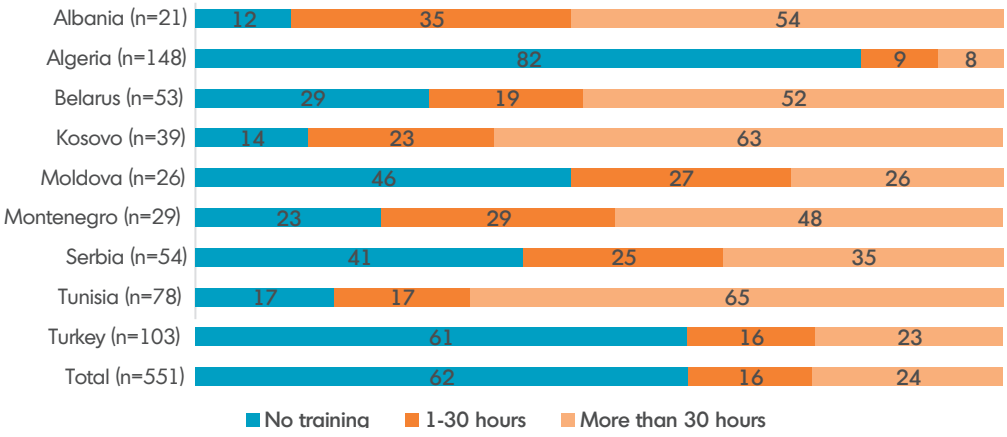


Figure 9.11: Share of principals participating in professional networks over the past 12 months, by number of hours (%)

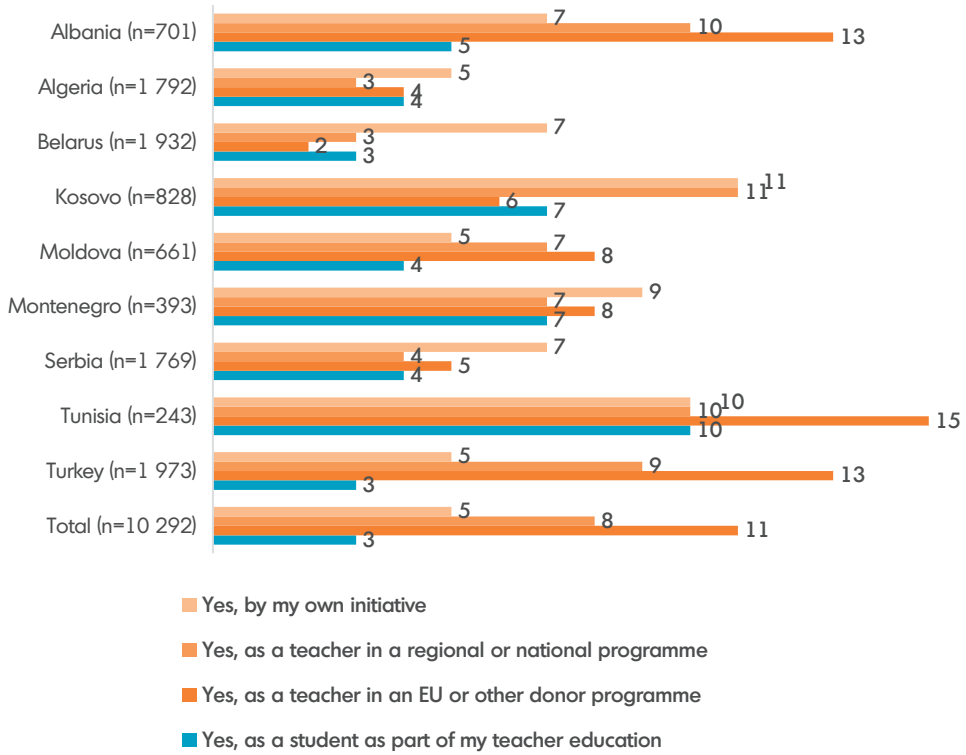


9.8 International mobility

Figure 9.12 shows that many teachers have the opportunity to visit and observe practice in other schools. In Belarus, Tunisia and Serbia, more than 40% of teachers report that they have had this experience over the previous 12 months. Opportunities to work and study abroad or to work on international projects also offer professional learning for teachers. In Turkey, the DG TVET supports participation in Erasmus+ projects and sends teachers abroad through Erasmus+ and also on language training programmes. The survey shows that Tunisian, Albanian and Turkish teachers enjoy relatively high international mobility.

[17] Turkey and Moldova are currently developing CoVEs, which may serve to intensify networking.

Figure 9.12: Share of vocational teachers participating in different forms of international mobility (%)



From 2020, the EU will offer enhanced opportunities for international mobility to teachers in candidate countries through Erasmus+. It can be anticipated that mobility will rise in participating countries. The survey suggests that consideration should be given to exploring why vocational teachers in some countries are more likely than those in other countries to participate in international mobility. There may be issues of equity to be addressed.

9.9 Summary

Across all 9 countries, 64% of vocational teachers say they have participated in some kind of CPD over the previous 12 months compared to 94% reported in the last OECD TALIS survey[18] (OECD, 2019). Serbia, Montenegro, Albania and Moldova have participation rates of 80% or higher, while Algeria, Tunisia and Kosovo have rates below 50%. In all countries, participation in CPD organised in school is at a similar level to participation that takes place out of school.

Only 38% of vocational teachers report participating in CPD that addresses their vocational specialism and only 48% say they have participated in CPD (including study visits) that took place on business premises. Participation in conferences and seminars, traditional forms of CPD, averages 40% across all nine countries. In 2018, two years before the arrival of Covid-19, participation in online CPD averaged 34% across all nine countries.

Around 31% of all teachers in the survey say they obtained 30 hours or more CPD over 12 months. In Serbia, Moldova and Montenegro, more than 50% of vocational teachers report reaching this benchmark. In two of the countries that participated in the 2015 survey, Albania and Montenegro, the percentage of teachers meeting the benchmark has risen, while in Kosovo and Turkey it has fallen.

[18] TALIS focuses on teachers in general, lower secondary schools.

Research shows that in-service training is more likely to impact on teacher behaviour if it uses methods that engage and motivate teachers. Such methods are practised to a greater degree in Albania, Belarus, Moldova and Serbia than they are in Tunisia and Algeria.

Overall, around a third of all principals say they have participated in at least 30 hours of courses or conferences over the previous 12 months. Participation is particularly high in Montenegro, Belarus and Albania.

10. SCHOOL-BASED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

10.1 Responsibilities of the school

A successful system of CPD implies an active role for schools. Even in those systems where the provision of teacher training is, by and large, assigned to a national agency or to universities, it is understood that schools play some role in helping to identify and communicate training needs, in confirming which teachers should receive which training, and in recording training. Despite these expectations, none of the systems studied assigns a dedicated budget for teacher training to schools, although some schools do manage to buy training for their teachers from time to time. In all nine countries, vocational schools or training centres are formally required to research training needs and to plan and even implement training. Some of the countries in this study, for example Albania, Montenegro, Turkey and Moldova, currently have policies that are intended to enhance the functions of the school within the CPD system. In Montenegro and Albania, work is under way to enhance the role of school CPD coordinators. In Moldova and Turkey, reforms are taking place that will empower some schools, designated as CoVEs, to provide professional development for teachers.

Table 10.1 provides an indication of the extent to which responsibilities for CPD have been assigned to schools.

Most principals report that they do produce a staff training plan (see Figure 10.10). However, most schools lack a budget with which to implement their training plans. Although there is usually one or more member of staff with responsibility for CPD in the school, this is often combined with many other responsibilities; for example, it may be assigned to the principal or the pedagogue.

10.2 Induction

The purpose of induction is to prepare newly appointed staff to carry out their responsibilities. Induction should explain the organisational rules and procedures, and clarify roles and responsibilities. If the newly recruited teacher is at the start of their teaching career (i.e. they are a 'beginning teacher'), induction would also be expected to include support and training in relation to pedagogical activities, such as instruction, class management and assessment. Induction helps to harmonise practices and ensure common standards and shared goals. It is usually a form of peer or intra-professional learning in which inexperienced teachers learn from more experienced teachers.

The survey shows that not all beginning teachers (those in their first teaching job) report receiving a formal induction, although most do in most of the countries. Around 73% of beginning teachers in the sample say that they received formal induction when they commenced their careers[19].

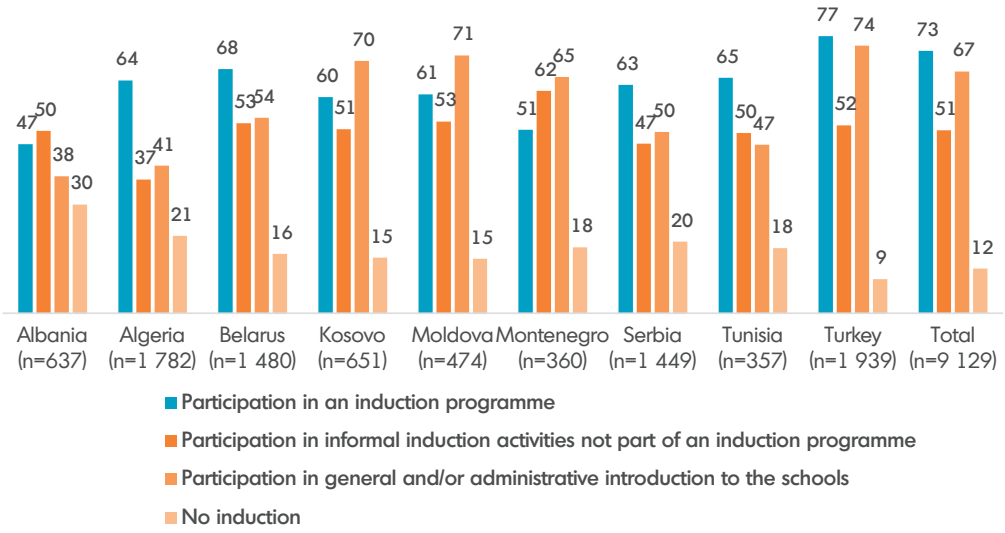
[19] TALIS 2013 reported an average of 51.7% for lower secondary teachers during the first three years of their career (OECD, 2020).

Table 10.1: CPD responsibilities assigned to vocational schools in nine countries

RESPONSIBILITY	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY
Support training for beginning teachers	Some mentoring but formal induction not a requirement	Yes	Mentoring is normal but not a legal requirement	Some mentoring but formal induction not a requirement	Mentoring team in each school to support induction	School provides mentor to support 12-month induction	Formal requirement	Yes	Yes
Develop a school plan for professional development	Part of institutional development plan	No	Part of institutional development plan	Schools should produce a plan and report on implementation	No	Formal requirement	Yes	Yes	OTMG Model exists but not fully rolled out
Coordinator for CPD in school	Legislation requirement but not yet appointed Currently delegated by principal to experienced teacher	Responsibilities shared by principal and pedagogue	Usually a deputy principal	School management responsible for producing a plan	No, except in 12 schools that are CoVEs	Yes	Sometimes responsibility of principal, sometimes there is a team, including a pedagogue	No	Not known
Dedicated budget for CPD in schools	No	No	No	No School may apply to ministry for funds for accredited training	No, except in 12 schools that are CoVEs	No	No	No	No

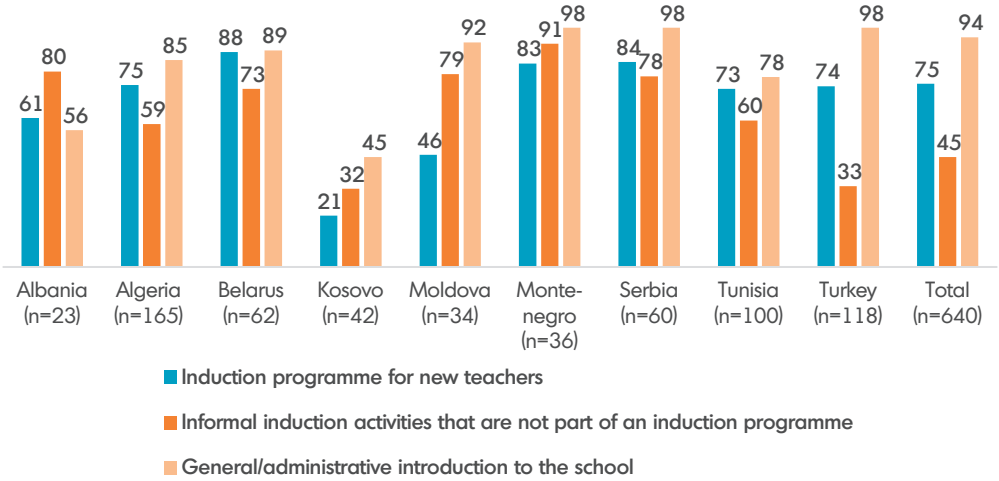
Source: National reports.

Figure 10.1: Share of teachers participating in different kinds of induction in their first regular appointment (%)



Principals were asked whether their schools offered different kinds of induction programme to new teachers. The responses provide an indicator of the extent of current provision, rather than of practice in the past: 75% of schools/training centres in the survey provide formal induction to new teachers. In seven countries the percentage of schools offering formal induction today exceeds the percentage of teachers who say they have participated in formal induction in the past. However, in Kosovo, Moldova and Turkey, the data suggest that formal induction may be on the decline.

Figure 10.2: Share of principals whose vocational schools or training centres offer different forms of induction (%)



In Moldova, Belarus and, to a lesser extent, Albania, Serbia and Montenegro, it is common practice for schools to offer formal induction programmes to all new recruits, not just those who are beginning their careers as teachers. This is less common in other countries. Low provision of induction may reflect the fact that teachers' inter-school mobility is relatively low in many of these countries: teachers do not, as a rule, develop their careers by moving from school to school.

Figure 10.3: Share of principals whose schools offer induction to different kinds of recruits (%)

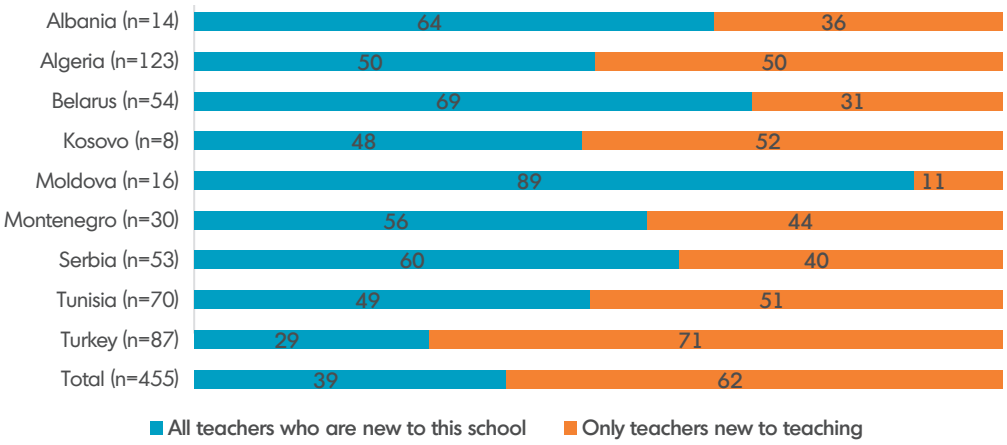
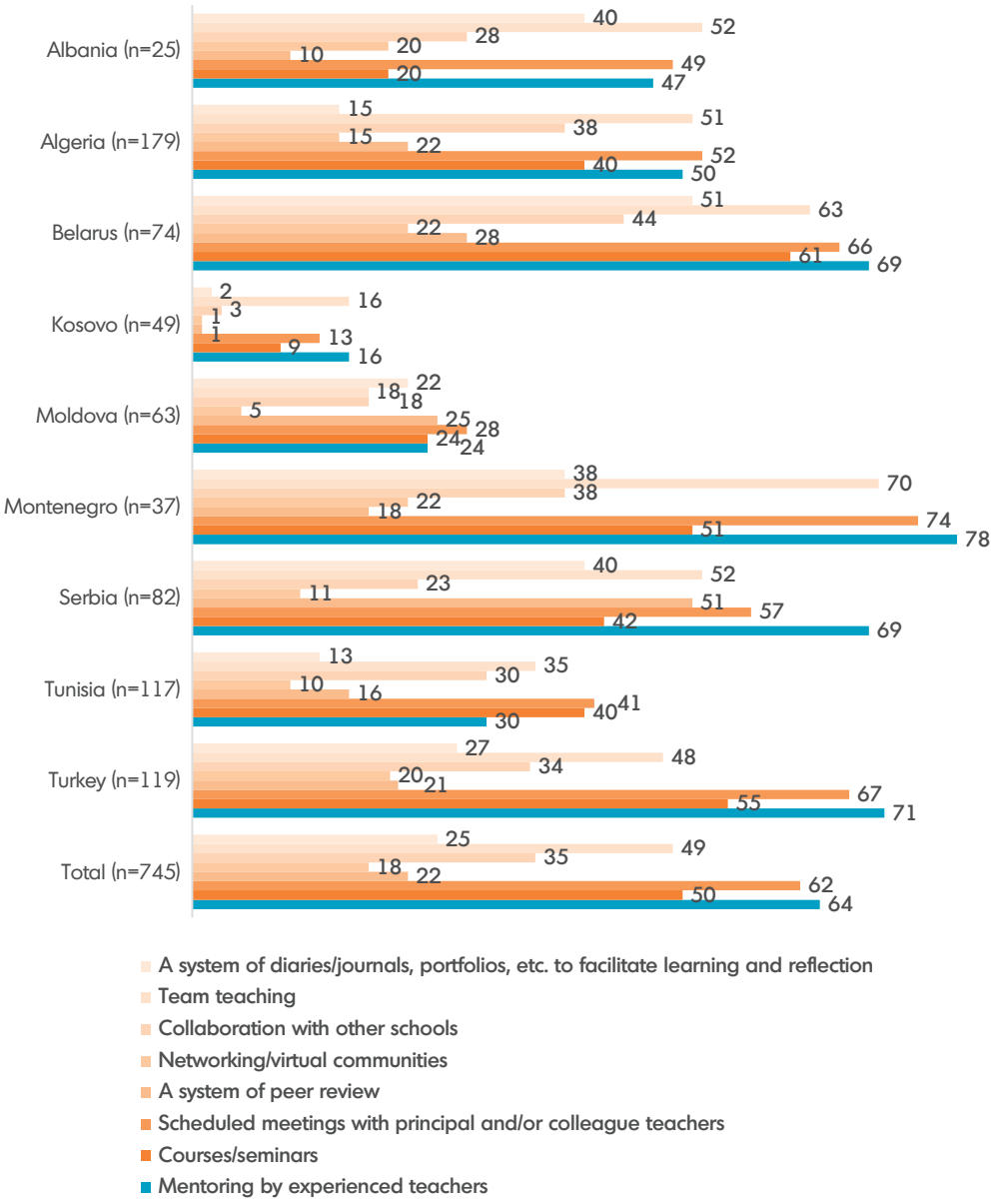


Figure 10.4: Share of principals reporting that different kinds of support are provided within the framework of induction for beginning teachers (%)



Principals were asked to identify the components of induction programmes. Their responses confirm that Kosovo and Moldova make modest provision for induction when compared to other countries. Across the survey, 'mentoring by experienced teachers' is the most common component of induction (64% of all schools in the sample), followed by 'scheduled meetings with principal or colleagues' (62%). Team teaching (49%) and courses/seminars (50%) are relatively popular, at least in some countries.

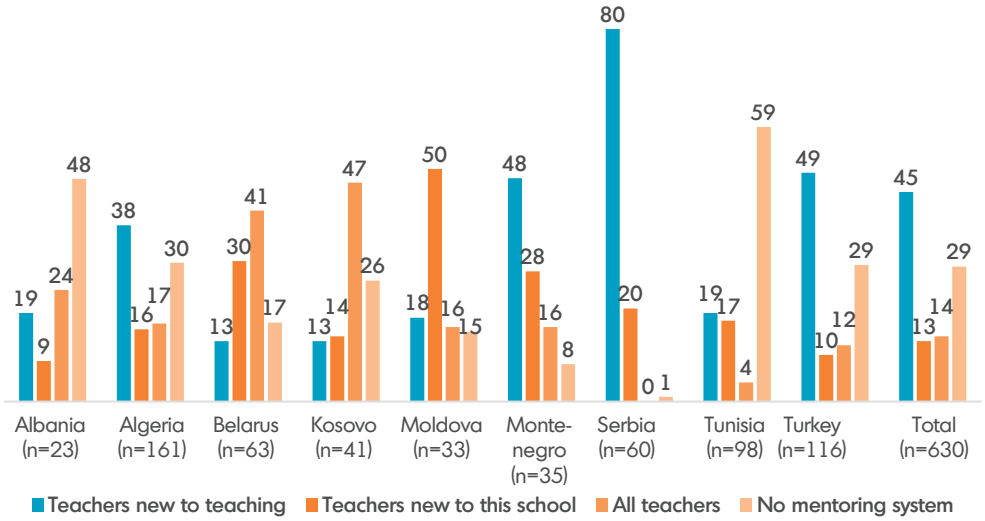
10.3 Mentoring

Mentoring has been shown to be an effective way of improving the practice of teachers: support and training can be adapted to the needs of the individual teacher and connected to their daily teaching practice (Ingersoll and Strong, 2011). In systems that are celebrated for the high quality of their teaching, such as Shanghai and Singapore, mentoring systems are highly developed: mentors and mentees have a substantial time allowance for mentoring, and mentors are trained and obtain professional recognition for their role (Darling-Hammond and Burns, 2017).

According to principals, mentoring is offered to new recruits and beginning teachers in 45% of schools across the sample, but there is no mentoring for any teachers in 29% of schools. Only 26% of schools offer mentoring to experienced teachers as well as new recruits, for example as part of staff development. Figure 10.5 shows that any kind of mentoring is relatively rare in Albania and Tunisia.

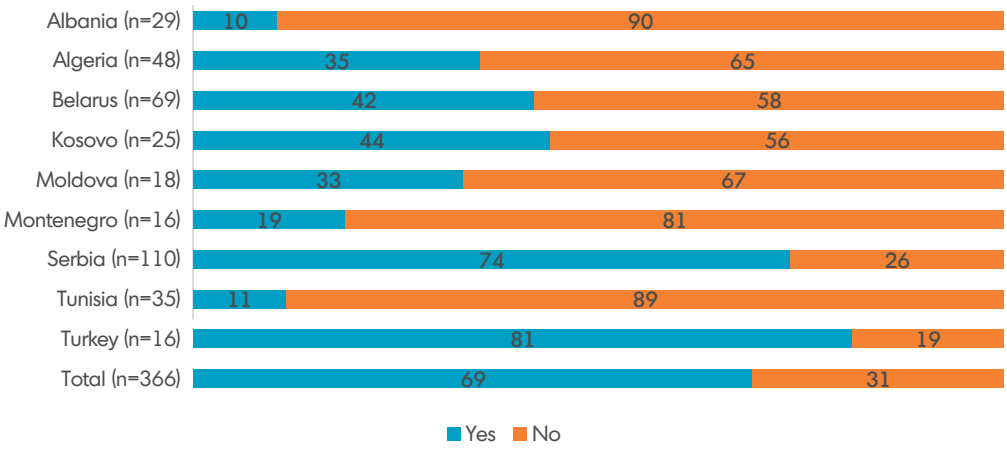
Mentoring is offered to new recruits and beginning teachers in 71% of schools. In 14% of schools across the sample it may be offered to any teacher. However, mentoring is relatively rare in Tunisia and Albania.

Figure 10.5: Share of principals reporting which teachers are offered a formal induction programme (%)



Across the whole survey, 69% of teachers who are currently undertaking a 'practice period' as beginning teachers report that they have an assigned mentor. As can be seen in Figure 10.6, most beginning teachers in Turkey and Serbia have mentors.

Figure 10.6: Share of beginning teachers currently undertaking teaching practice who do or do not have a mentor (%)



Overall, 10% of all surveyed teachers report that they currently have an assigned mentor, the figure being more than 20% in Belarus, Kosovo and Moldova. Around 31% of teachers report that they have served as mentors to others at one time, while in Montenegro, Moldova and Serbia the proportion is 40%. In Belarus and Kosovo, 40% or more of principals report that mentoring is sometimes available for all teachers in their schools, not just new recruits or beginning teachers. These comparisons suggest that there is potential for some countries to give more teachers and trainers the opportunity to participate in mentoring. The experience of countries like Singapore and Shanghai demonstrates not only that there are benefits for mentees but also that mentors benefit by obtaining recognition and satisfaction (Darling-Hammond and Lieberman, 2012).

The responses also reveal that in most of the nine countries surveyed, some teachers are fulfilling the role of a mentor without any training. In Montenegro and Serbia, for example, where a relatively large proportion of teachers contribute to mentoring, more than a third of mentors say that they are untrained.

Figure 10.7: Share of teachers reporting their experience of mentoring and training to be a mentor (%)

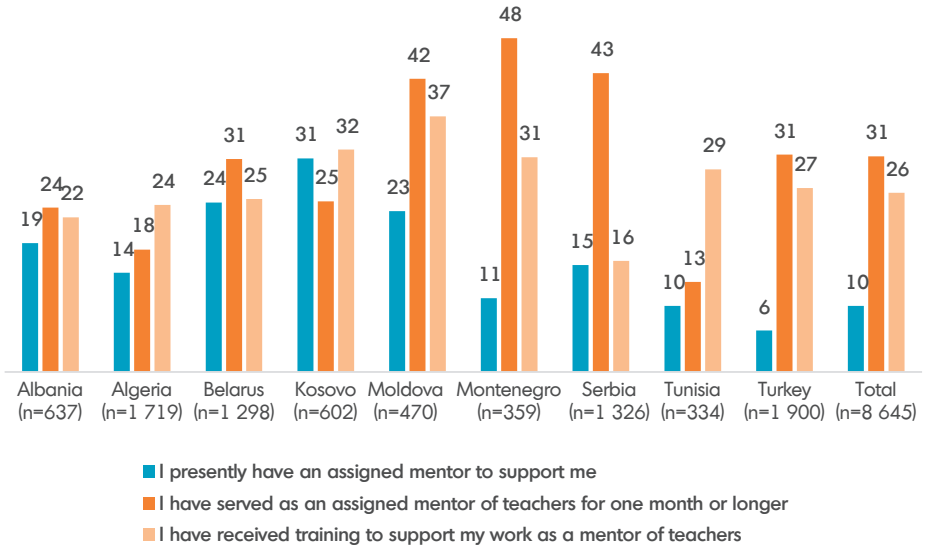
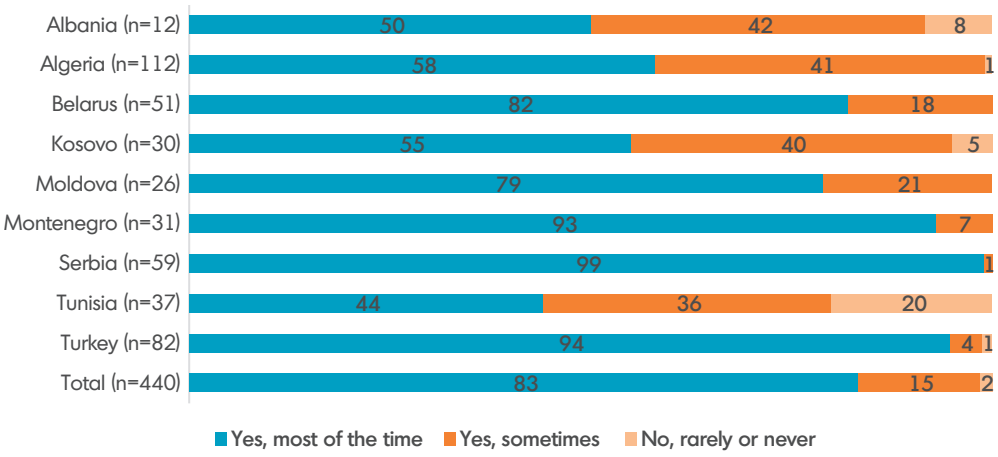


Figure 10.8 gives an indication of whether mentors are likely to be able to provide subject-specific expertise and guidance. Principals in Serbia, Montenegro, Turkey, Belarus, and Moldova believe that the great majority of mentors are able to provide subject-related rather than general support to their mentees.

Figure 10.8: Share of principals reporting that mentors share the same main subject specialism as mentees (%)



Mentoring features as an issue for improvement in every national report: it is seen everywhere as an ongoing area for development.

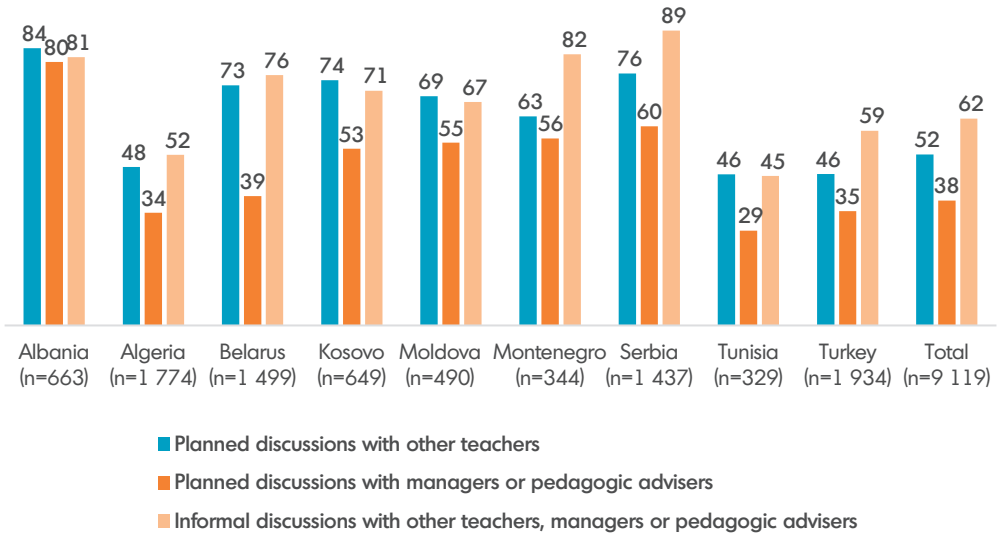
10.4 Collaboration and peer learning

Research into professional development and teacher improvement has shown how peer learning, collaboration and professional communities can contribute to improvements in instructional behaviour (Cordingley et al., 2003; OECD, 2019; Kraft et al., 2018; Darling-Hammond and Burns, 2017). Peer learning has certain advantages: it is likely to come from a trusted person; it will often be directly related to a teacher's daily decisions and tasks; it can be continuous over time; and it can support self-review and learning from experience.

Teachers were invited to report on whether or not they had formally or informally discussed their teaching or preparation with colleagues at least once during the past month. It can be seen that planned collaboration with peers or with managers is not currently universal. Across the sample, 48% of teachers report that they did had not have any planned discussions with their peers over the past month, while 62% have

Across the survey, 52% of vocational teachers report that they have had planned discussions with their peers, but 62% have had no planned discussions with their managers or pedagogic advisers over the previous month before the survey. Some 62% of all teachers collaborate informally.

Figure 10.9: Share of teachers reporting either planned or informal discussions with peers or managers over the past month (%)



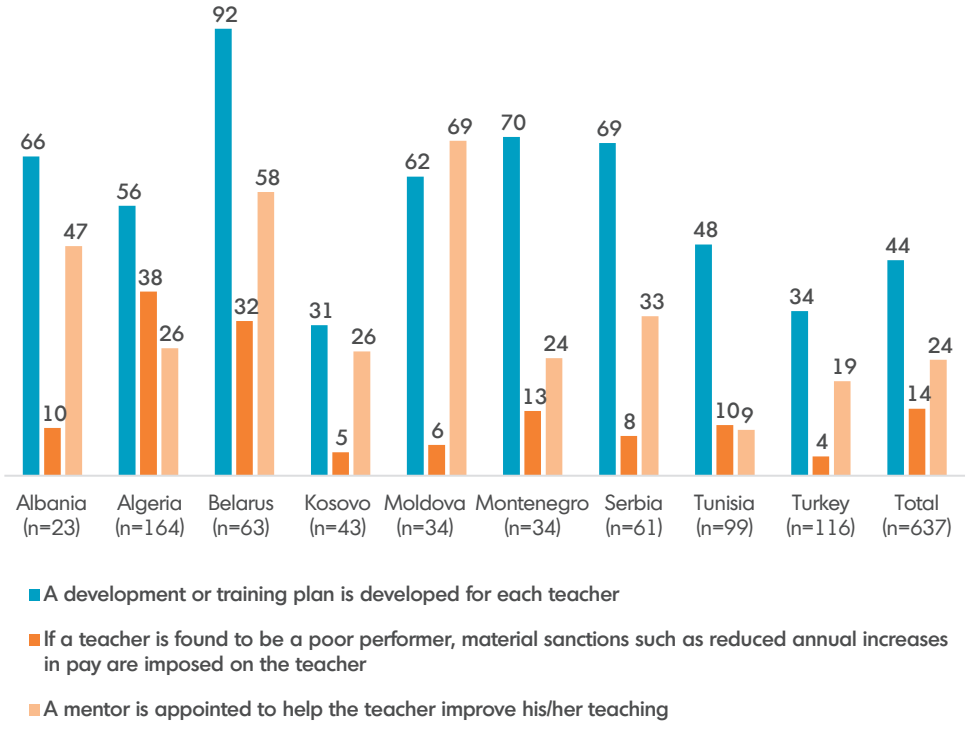
had no planned discussions with their managers or pedagogic advisers in the same period. In general, as might be expected, there is a relatively high level of informal discussion: 62% of all teachers collaborate informally. The survey suggests that Albanian teachers work in a more collaborative manner than those in other countries, while in Tunisia and Algeria (and to a lesser extent, Turkey) teachers work in a relatively isolated manner, often planning, problem solving and evaluating their work alone.

10.5 Appraisal and feedback for teachers

Research suggests that feedback from trained and skilled observers, when combined with professional development, is an effective method of developing the competences of teachers and improving instruction (Shaha et al., 2015; Van den Hurk, 2016). According to principals, the performance of teachers is formally appraised mostly by senior school managers or by the principals themselves. Observation of teaching is reported to be a common method of appraisal. Perhaps surprising, external inspectors do not normally play a large role in observing teaching. Exceptionally, in Montenegro, 68% of principals say that external inspectors observe teachers.

Almost all principals report that teacher appraisal is followed up with discussions to explore how weaknesses in teaching can be remedied. After appraisal, individual training plans are developed for teachers in around two thirds of schools in most countries, though not in Turkey, Kosovo and Tunisia. However, mentoring to support improvements in teaching is common only in Moldova (62% of schools) and Belarus (57% of schools). Sanctions following negative outcomes of appraisal, such as changes in responsibilities or career, or dismissal, are reported to be rare, even in countries that have formally adopted a policy of relicensing.

Figure 10.10: Share of principals reporting various types of follow-up to teacher appraisal (%)



Teachers report that in so far as they receive any feedback from classroom observation, it is most likely to come from their principal or another school manager. In Turkey, Albania, Serbia and Montenegro, 60% or more of teachers report this kind of feedback. Such feedback is unusual in Algeria and Tunisia. The survey suggests that it is unusual for trained and specialised mentors to give such feedback, but that other teachers are engaged in teaching observation in Moldova, Belarus and Montenegro.

Figure 10.11: Share of teachers reporting feedback from different sources following direct observation of their classroom teaching (%)

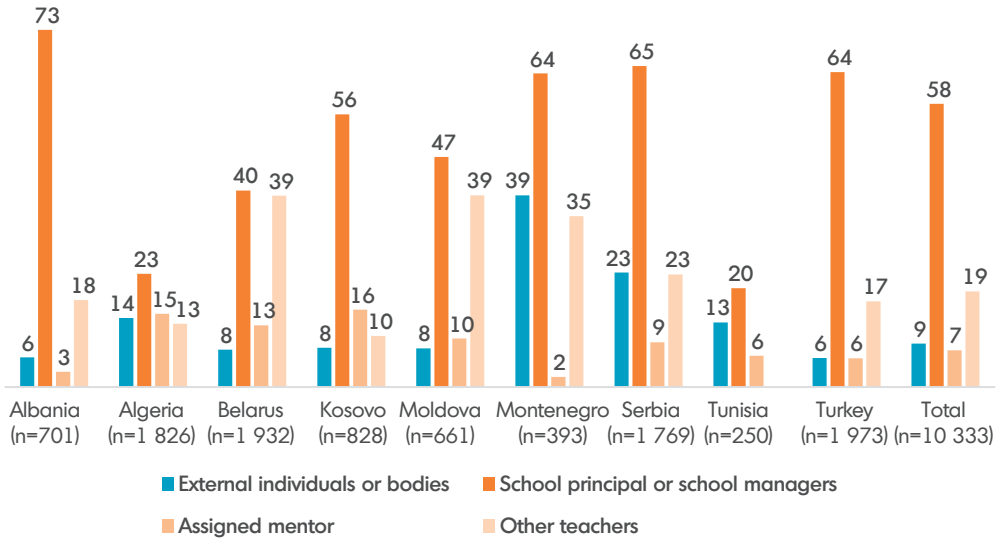
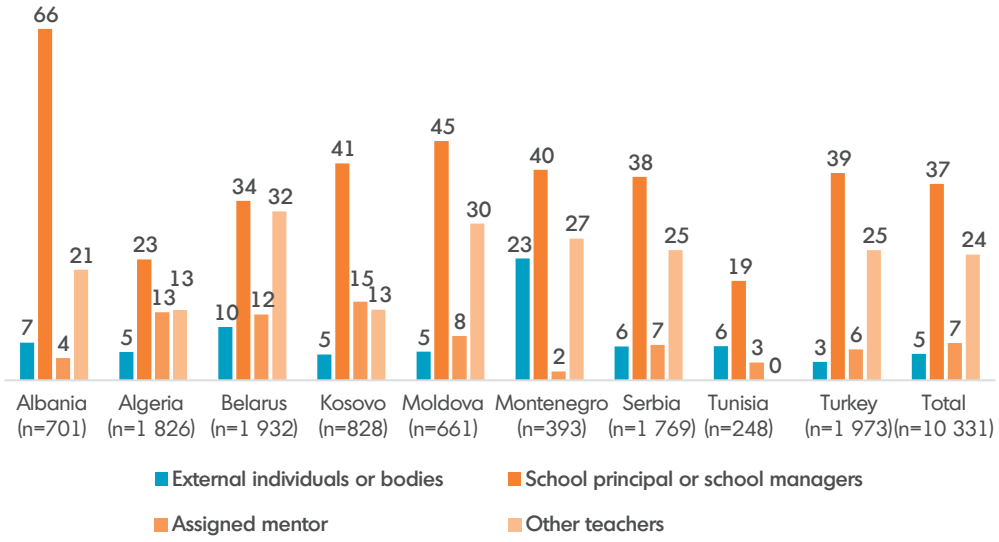


Figure 10.12 shows that in every country except Albania, many teachers say they do not receive feedback following an analysis of student test scores. This missed opportunity may arise because there is a lack of standard assessments or because there is no requirement for this kind of feedback.

Figure 10.12: Share of teachers reporting feedback from different sources following an analysis of their students' test scores (%)



10.6 Summary

In most countries, schools are expected to carry out training needs analysis, to produce a training plan and to organise school-based in-service training. However, in general, schools lack the budget and have only limited institutional capacity to organise school-based training. Despite this lack of resources, school-based in-service training is as important in terms of participation as out-of-school in-service training, with a participation rate of about 50%.

The majority of new teachers in all countries except Albania receive a formal induction (73% of all vocational teachers). According to principals, 74% of vocational schools offer formal induction to new teachers.

Mentoring is an effective way of providing support and training that is adapted to the development needs of particular teachers. Mentoring is offered to new teachers in 71% of schools in the survey. Around 26% of schools offer mentoring to experienced teachers as well as new recruits. There is no mentoring for any teachers in 29% of schools. Mentoring is relatively rare in Albania and Tunisia. The majority of mentors have received training, but in most countries some teachers are fulfilling the role of a mentor without any training. In Montenegro and Serbia, for example, where a relatively large proportion of teachers contribute to mentoring, there is a significant lack of training.

Across the survey, 52% of vocational teachers report that they have had planned discussions with their peers, but 62% say they have had no planned discussions with their managers or pedagogic advisers over the month prior to the survey. Some 62% of all teachers say they collaborate informally. More Albanian teachers work in a collaborative manner than in the other educational systems, while in Tunisia and Algeria more teachers work in an isolated manner, planning, problem solving and evaluating their work alone.

Most teachers say that their performance is formally appraised by senior school managers or by the principals. In Turkey, Albania, Serbia and Montenegro, 60% or more of teachers say they receive feedback from their managers after lesson observation. However, feedback is unusual in Algeria and Tunisia. Currently it is unusual for trained, specialised mentors to provide feedback after classroom observation for teachers. More than a third of teachers in Moldova, Belarus and Montenegro say they have received feedback from peer observation.

11. THE RELEVANCE AND IMPACT OF CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

New training needs can arise because of changed aspirations on the part of a country's education ministry, such as the introduction of a new curriculum. Alternatively, it may be the school that sets itself a development objective, for example to use a new educational technology. Lastly, it could be teachers themselves who originate a desire to learn new skills and to change their own teaching. It is also possible that vocational teachers' continuing training needs are best understood in relation to their initial training and recruitment. If, as in Albania, Kosovo and Montenegro, most vocational teachers do not receive any pedagogical training as part of their higher education, they are likely to need pedagogical in-service training once they start teaching. If vocational teachers have little experience of work in the professions corresponding to the profiles that they teach, they will need to learn about relevant workplaces and the exercise of skills in these workplaces. However, even if teachers have some work experience in their occupational profile, over time that experience will need to be refreshed and updated. Furthermore, education systems are subject to external shocks, such as the invention of new educational technologies and the arrival of Covid-19, which demand changes in the organisation and practice of teaching.

11.1 How relevant is the CPD offer?

The survey examined teachers' needs in relation to particular CPD topics. Those teachers that did not participate in CPD addressing particular topics were asked to evaluate their need for relevant training. Table 11.1 reveals that more than one third of teachers in the survey express a high or moderate need for training topics but had not accessed training in these topics. It is inevitable that there will be some kind of training gap; it is normal that teachers will want more training than is offered or than they can find time to undertake. However, more than 50% of teachers across most of the countries express high or moderate unmet need for training in four areas: teaching students with special needs, ICT skills, new technologies in the workplace, and updating professional knowledge and skills in relation to the workplace. The training gap for vocational teachers is particularly great with respect to digital competences and work-related or professional competences.

There are also differences in the training gap between countries. For example, the average training gap measured in this way for all training topics is greater than 50% for Algeria, Tunisia and Moldova.

More than 50% of all vocational teachers express high or moderate unmet need for training in four topics: teaching students with special needs, ICT skills, new technologies in the workplace, and updating professional knowledge and skills in relation to the workplace. The training gap for vocational teachers is particularly great with respect to digital competences and work-related or professional competences.

Table 11.1: Share of teachers who did not participate in specific training by their need for that particular training (% reporting moderate/high need)

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY	TOTAL (AVERAGE)	*N*
Knowledge and understanding in my subject field	36	56	33	19	52	23	24	63	27	31	*5 214*
Pedagogical competences in teaching my subject field	40	45	32	33	47	47	36	59	17	24	*5 586*
Knowledge of the curriculum	43	43	16	54	47	16	12	47	15	19	*5 289*
Student evaluation and assessment practices	31	36	27	39	45	40	32	53	13	20	*5 512*
ICT skills for teaching	44	61	54	34	67	53	46	78	23	33	*5 291*
Student behaviour and classroom management	32	34	23	27	47	41	45	44	14	20	*5 061*
Approaches to individualised learning	42	46	36	32	57	41	52	52	28	33	*4 904*
Teaching students with special needs	52	54	32	55	57	66	56	63	46	47	*4 227*
Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting	48	56	32	45	54	39	28	70	47	46	*3 279*
Teaching cross-curricular skills	52	54	35	41	57	39	45	64	27	33	*4 544*
Approaches to developing cross-occupational competences	50	66	34	47	60	42	44	70	36	40	*4 185*
New technologies in the workplace	59	78	58	59	68	57	54	88	42	49	*4 670*
Student career guidance and counselling	46	48	33	32	52	48	41	57	36	38	*4 307*
Updating my professional knowledge and skills in relation to current practice in the workplace	35	71	30	44	64	55	46	83	25	33	*4 732*
Addressing the issues of learners at risk of early leaving and learner drop out	42	58	23	49	62	54	40	63	33	36	*4 191*

The training gap may partly result from an overall undersupply of training in relation to demand. It may also result from a mismatch between the training on offer and the training needed. However, the evidence above suggests that significant numbers of teachers are attending training that they do not regard as a priority. They might do this because they are required by licensing regulations to carry out a minimum number of hours of training, and they cannot obtain the particular training they want. In six of the countries, 50% or more of vocational teachers say that the lack of a relevant offer is a barrier to their participation in CPD.

Table 11.2: Share of teachers identifying barriers to participation in CPD (%)

	THERE IS A LACK OF SUPPORT FROM MY EMPLOYER (SCHOOL)	THERE IS NO RELEVANT PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OFFERED
Albania (n=651)	16	36
Algeria (n=1 615)	46	60
Belarus (n=1 423)	16	18
Kosovo (n=595)	43	53
Moldova (n=459)	22	35
Montenegro (n=341)	11	50
Serbia (n=1 386)	18	57
Tunisia (n=263)	53	66
Turkey (n=1 916)	49	59
Total (n=8 649)	42	55

The demand for CPD addressing specialised vocational domains generally exceeds supply, although there are some CPD programmes that are not very popular with teachers. As a result, CPD has to be rationed. In Turkey, for example, teachers can apply for up to five activities a year, excluding distance-learning activities. As a rule, they can only attend one centrally provided CPD activity a year. Some courses are extremely popular. For example, DG TVET recently organised a course on microcontrollers: there were 500 applicants, of whom 20 were selected (Akyildrim and Durgun, 2019).

11.2 Matching teachers to programmes

To achieve a good match between the training offer and training need, the development of the national offer must be informed by an up-to-date understanding of teachers' training needs. However, it is also necessary that the allocation process works, so that teachers and schools with particular needs can access a relevant training offer. In many countries, teachers are invited to make applications for CPD workshops that will take place outside of their schools, but they need support from their principals to make this application. This system of approval should help to bring about an alignment between the needs of individual teachers and their schools. However, the survey shows that some teachers – more than a third in Turkey, Albanian and Tunisia – regard lack of support by school management as a barrier to participation (see Figure 12.2).

Table 11.3 reveals that in some countries, participation in CPD is associated with geography. However, there is no overall imbalance. Only in Albania does there appear to be a bias towards the capital. Elsewhere, for example in Tunisia, the distribution may reflect the location of new teachers who receive relatively large allocations of CPD.

Table 11.3: Share of (all) teachers with organised CPD of at least 30 hours by school location (%)

	SMALL TOWN/ VILLAGE	TOWN	CITY	LARGE CITY	*N*
Albania	25	42	23	59	*502*
Algeria	9	17	12	8	*1 419*
Belarus	45	42	43	44	*821*
Kosovo	25	28	30	37	*533*
Moldova	60	54	–	–	*453*
Montenegro	51	55	66	–	*346*
Serbia	54	58	52	52	*1 424*
Tunisia	46	33	28	8	*212*
Turkey	22	17	21	29	*427*
Total (average)	27	24	26	29	*6 137*

11.3 What impact did training have?

Despite the considerable volume and cost of CPD, relatively little is known in the countries surveyed about its impact on teaching and learning. It is usual to collect feedback after training events, and in some countries, observation of selected training events takes place. However, nowhere is there follow-up of teachers who have been trained to see whether their teaching has changed or improved. The survey invited teachers to report on the impact on teaching of the training that they had received. This cannot be considered a reliable measure of impact, but it provides at least some indication of the extent to which teachers regarded training as useful. According to the survey, most teachers who participated in CPD report that the training had either moderate or high impact on their teaching. As Table 11.4 shows, there are differences between countries and across countries. For example, in general, CPD aimed at addressing special needs or teaching in a multilingual or multicultural setting is rated as less impactful than other types.

11.4 Professional standards

Some of the countries involved in this survey are making use of teacher professional standards in order to try to align teacher professional development with teachers' training needs. These standards formally define the competences that teachers require to do their job. In Montenegro, for example, an updated version of Standards of Competence for Teachers and Principals was published in 2016: there are eight clusters of competences structured at four levels. Standards have also existed in Kosovo since 2014.

In Serbia there are professional standards for teachers, and these are used to code training programmes to be included in the catalogue; teachers are required to undertake professional development that addresses all four broad classes of competence defined in the professional standards.

Tunisia and Moldova do not have professional standards that define the competences of teachers. In Albania it is reported that a national standard was developed in the past but is not currently used.

Table 11.4: Share of teachers reporting perceived impact of specific training (% reporting moderate/high impact)

	ALBANIA	ALGERIA	BELARUS	KOSOVO	MOLDOVA	MONTENEGRO	SERBIA	TUNISIA	TURKEY	TOTAL (AVERAGE)	N
Knowledge and understanding in my subject field	81	61	74	73	76	44	80	69	62	65	*5 214*
Pedagogical competences in teaching my subject field	83	63	75	66	71	42	75	67	56	60	*5 586*
Knowledge of the curriculum	84	62	79	74	76	48	74	64	56	61	*5 289*
Student evaluation and assessment practices	82	63	77	77	76	44	76	60	58	62	*5 512*
ICT skills for teaching	79	59	75	79	77	47	75	63	60	63	*5 291*
Student behaviour and classroom management	82	64	71	71	68	39	71	67	59	61	*5 061*
Approaches to individualised learning	78	57	75	67	68	36	68	55	58	60	*4 904*
Teaching students with special needs	66	52	62	50	54	32	68	51	54	55	*4 227*
Teaching in a multicultural or multilingual setting	60	46	50	45	57	43	53	45	45	47	*3 279*
Teaching cross-curricular skills	74	53	67	67	70	37	71	56	51	54	*4 544*
Approaches to developing cross-occupational competences	78	47	54	66	63	38	67	52	52	53	*4 185*
New technologies in the workplace	79	49	74	70	74	44	72	57	57	59	*4 670*
Student career guidance and counselling	83	55	65	62	66	42	63	54	53	55	*4 307*
Updating my professional knowledge and skills in relation to current practice in the workplace	80	55	76	70	72	45	66	69	67	66	*4 732*
Addressing the issues of learners at risk of early leaving and learner drop out	70	54	69	61	62	43	59	65	53	55	*4 191*

Note: Values calculated only for those who participated in the specific training.

Professional standards are currently in development in Belarus; the standards are planned for approval in 2020. In Turkey, generic professional standards for teachers and specialist professional standards for different types of vocational teachers are in development. None of the other countries have special professional standards for vocational teachers.

Professional standards can, in principle, be used to inform teacher self-assessment and appraisal. They could help to identify training needs and inform the design of programmes. So far, it seems that the use made of professional standards is relatively limited in all nine countries.

11.5 Summary

There is some evidence to suggest that the processes for matching the training offer to teachers are not very efficient, either at the level of design or at the level of allocation. Around 45% of those teachers who did not access particular kinds of training report high or moderate need for that training. Those who did access training did not always need it. Where teachers and schools find it difficult to access centrally provided training or to fund their own training, this encourages them to access training even if that does not meet their priority needs.

It is not easy for national planners, with limited resources, to closely match the needs of teachers with their different levels of experience and different vocational profiles. Understandably, those making decisions at national level may therefore focus on 'national' training needs that are connected to national priorities, such as the introduction of a new curriculum or a new legal responsibility. However, unless training is made relevant and engaging for teachers and schools, it is unlikely to have a great impact. The majority of teachers in most countries report that the lack of relevance of CPD is a barrier to their participation in CPD.

Most participants report that training has had moderate to high impact on their teaching, although around a third of teachers have participated in training events that, according to them, had only low or no impact.

12. RECOGNITION AND INCENTIVISATION

12.1 How is the training offer communicated?

In Turkey, teachers can apply online for CPD through the MEBBIS teacher training information system. This portal communicates the training offer and records participation. It also includes monitoring and evaluation of training activity. The information gathered is also analysed to better understand needs. In Albania, a training portal communicates the calendar of CPD offered by accredited providers, and general teachers can enrol digitally; however, vocational teachers and trainers do not participate.

In Serbia, Montenegro and Kosovo, digital calendars of accredited CPD offers are posted by ministries or by national VET and general teacher agencies. The catalogues usually provide details of the CPD offer – outcomes, dates, methodology, certification – along with details of the provider. In Moldova and Albania, there is currently no catalogue for vocational CPD.

12.2 How is CPD recorded?

In Belarus, RIPO is responsible for maintaining a national database of the vocational teacher and instructor workforce. This database records information about qualifications, education, CPD and work experience. In Albania, an online information system with this functionality does exist, but it is not currently used for this purpose. However, a database has been developed to monitor and record participation in the most important national programme for vocational teachers, which addresses basic pedagogy. In Tunisia, the main CPD provider, CENAFFIF, keep records of participation in the training programmes it offers, but there is no comprehensive, cumulative record at training centre or national level. Similarly, in Montenegro, the two agencies with responsibility for the CPD of vocational and general teachers record participation in the training events they organise; however, there is no systematic recording or analysis of training participation.

In Montenegro, Moldova and Belarus, schools are required to record participation in CPD, and staff development is evaluated as part of the school evaluation process.

In Albania, Montenegro and Serbia, teachers are required to keep an individual training portfolio that records all their CPD and evidences their achievements.

Most countries do not operate information management systems that permit them to monitor and analyse consumption of CPD over time. National providers of training generally keep a record of the provision they make, but it is usually not aggregated and not analysed.

12.3 Relicensing

In Montenegro, Serbia and Kosovo, teachers must accumulate a certain volume of CPD to meet the conditions of relicensing, that is, to retain their qualification to teach. Only certain programmes are recognised for the purposes of relicensing. In Serbia, the rulebook recognises educational programmes that are provided in the catalogue, but also includes professional gatherings, conferences, roundtables and international conferences. The requirement for relicensing implies a heavy sanction for those teachers who fail to meet minimum requirements. This arrangement does motivate some teachers to participate in CPD, so long as it is recognised for relicensing. The survey suggests that in Serbia and Kosovo, some teachers may be at risk of not meeting formal requirements.

12.4 Career ladder

In Albania, Montenegro, Serbia, Belarus and Algeria, all teachers are required to participate in a minimum number of training hours as one of the requirements for career progress. For example, teachers in Albania are expected to record one credit (equivalent to 18 hours) each year. The CPD must be taken from the list of accredited providers published by the Institute of Education. The career scale allows for promotion after 3 years, 10 years and 15 years. Eligible teachers must present their portfolios and pass a general methodological written test.

These arrangements ensure that some participation in CPD is a condition of career progression. Teachers are generally willing to give their time and sometimes contribute to the cost. In Tunisia, Moldova, and Turkey[20], there is no formal requirement for CPD, while in Algeria there is no specification of minimum hours of CPD, either for promotion or for relicensing. It is difficult to generalise about the effect of an absence of a minimum requirement on the motivation of teachers to participate in CPD. However, Figure 12.2 suggests that teachers in Tunisia, Algeria and Turkey, where there is no formal requirement, are more likely to say that there is no incentive for participation in CPD. In contrast, participation in formal training for beginning teachers in these three countries, which is a formal requirement, is relatively high.

However, where there is only limited CPD on offer, these arrangements can distort demand. In order to meet annual requirements for CPD, teachers are compelled to take whatever CPD is available, even if this does not match their needs or they have done the training once already.

Furthermore, these arrangements are often not well tailored to *vocational* teachers. For the most part, specialised vocational CPD that has been provided by international development agencies is not recognised for the purposes of promotion. Much of the CPD that is accredited does not address the particular needs of vocational teachers.

There is some training that is associated with particular responsibilities. For example, international development partners have provided training for work-based training coordinators (PASOs) in Albania and for mentors in Kosovo. However, it is relatively unusual for CPD to be provided that helps to prepare vocational teachers to undertake enhanced, specialised or leadership roles (except for the role of principal). It is true that the career structure in these countries normally reflects status, seniority and salary, and does not usually provide for much differentiation in function. However, some countries, such as Montenegro, have created differentiated career structures. Furthermore, in practice some teachers do take on particular responsibilities, such as training their colleagues, developing instructional materials, liaising with industry and course planning. If the CPD offer prepares and qualifies teachers to take on enhanced responsibilities or leadership, it becomes more worthwhile for individuals and more effective as a tool for developing the workforce.

For the most part, specialist CPD that has been provided by international development agencies is not recognised for the purposes of promotion. Most of the CPD that is accredited does not address the particular needs of vocational teachers and may add little to their teaching.

12.5 Certification and qualification

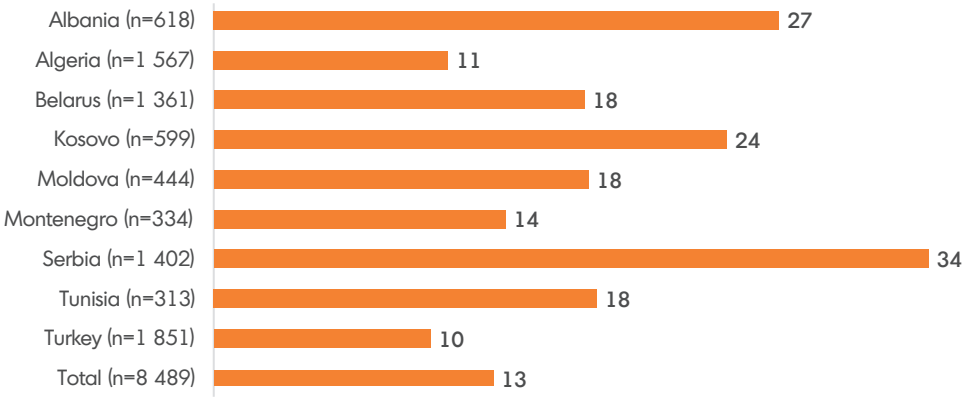
In some countries, for example Turkey and Algeria, participation in training during the first year of teaching by beginning teachers is a condition of gaining a teaching qualification. In most countries, participation in other accredited CPD programmes leads to a certificate of attendance rather than a diploma. In some countries, such

[20] In Turkey there is a formal requirement for all civil servants but it is very low: just three hours per annum.

as Moldova and Albania, some accredited CPD programmes do lead to formal diplomas. A significant minority of vocational teachers in the survey report that they have participated in CPD leading to a formal qualification, such as a post-graduate degree.

The survey suggests that a significant minority of vocational teachers are independently pursuing lifelong learning that results in formal qualifications. Some of this learning may complement their teaching careers, while some may be intended to open up alternative careers. It is important to recognise that CPD for vocational teachers is not a closed system that is entirely subordinated to the needs of the education system. It can also be considered as part of the larger world of lifelong learning. The involvement of vocational teachers in lifelong learning may have effects outside of the education system; for example, it may equip teachers to undertake new employment or increase their well-being.

Figure 12.1: Share of vocational teachers who report participation in continuing learning leading to a formal qualification, such as a higher degree (%)

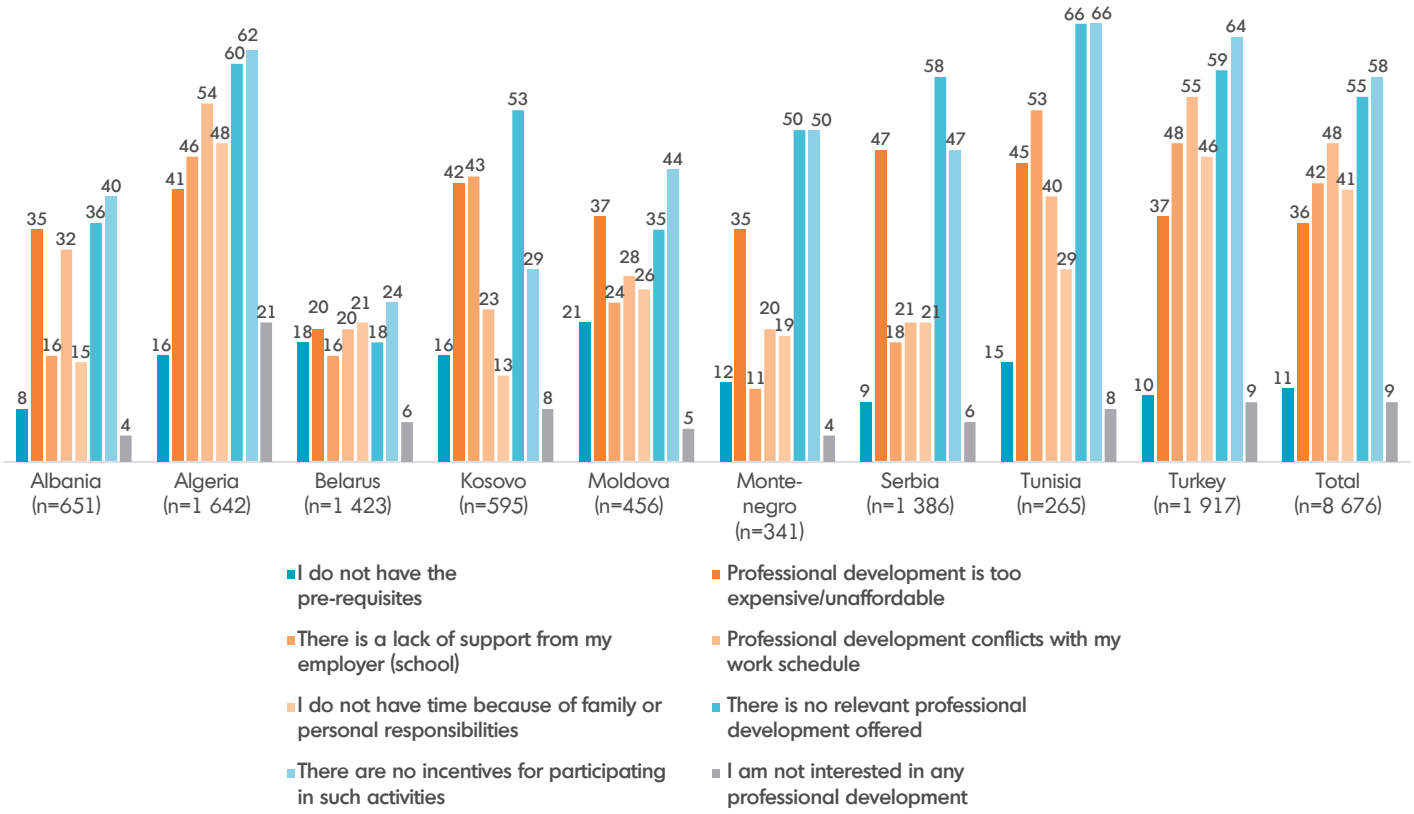


12.6 Barriers to the take-up of CPD

Vocational teachers report a number of significant barriers to participation in CPD. Absence of incentives is a barrier for 58%, while lack of a relevant offer is a barrier for 55%. Of course, the relative importance of factors varies between countries: for example, lack of a relevant offer is particularly high in Algeria and Tunisia. Lack of time due to work (48%) and to family commitments (41%) are also significant factors for many. Around 42% of teachers regard lack of support from their managers as a barrier, while 36% see cost as a barrier.

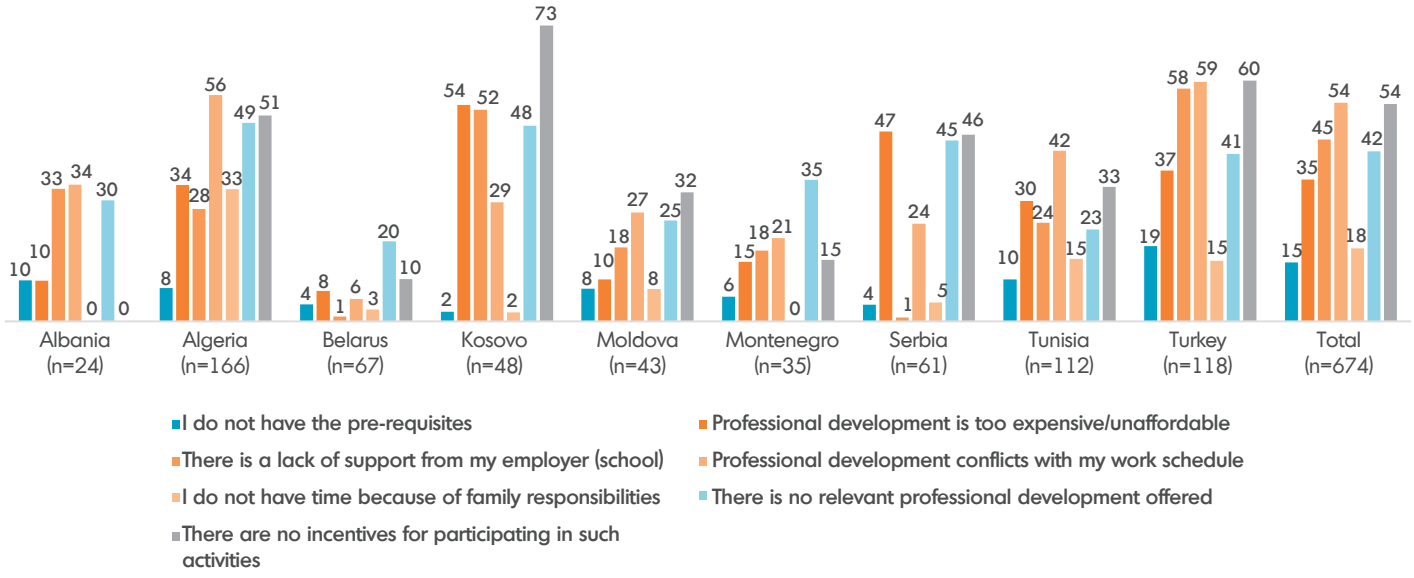
Around 58% of vocational teachers report that absence of incentives is a barrier to participation in CPD, while 55% say that lack of a relevant offer is a barrier.

Figure 12.2: Share of teachers agreeing (or strongly agreeing) that specific issues present barriers to their participation in professional development (%)



Principals are less likely than vocational teachers to agree that these issues constitute barriers to their professional development. Lack of incentives (54%) and conflicts with work schedule (54%) are the most important factors across the survey. Principals in Turkey, Kosovo and Algeria are more likely than those in the other countries to agree that there are barriers.

Figure 12.3: Share of principals who agree (or strongly agree) that specific issues present barriers to their participation in professional development (%)



12.7 Summary

Most countries do not operate information management systems that permit them to monitor and analyse consumption of CPD over time. National providers of training generally keep a record of the provision they make, but it is usually not aggregated and not analysed. In some countries, both schools and teachers are expected to keep a record of participation.

In some countries, CPD is neither formally required for either promotion or relicensing, nor is it linked in a significant way to career progress. This removes a possible incentive for some teachers.

In most countries, CPD does not prepare or qualify teachers to carry out enhanced or leadership functions, except by formally giving them 'credits'. This means that teachers do not see CPD as professional growth, that is, as extending their competences and advancing their careers.

Some kinds of CPD are recognised for the purposes of promotion but not for relicensing. Sometimes CPD that is generally valued by vocational teachers, for example that which comes through participation in projects, is not formally recognised at all. CPD that does not take the form of traditional seminars is often not recognised.

Around 55% of vocational teachers in the survey report that the absence of a relevant offer is a barrier to their participation in CPD; 58% of vocational teachers think that that the absence of incentives is a barrier to their participation.

A significant minority of vocational teachers are participating independently in continuing learning leading to formal qualifications.

13. RECOMMENDATIONS

Setting an aspirational strategy and establishing an ambitious regulatory framework

1. Ensure that all vocational teachers receive initial pedagogical training and that their pedagogical skills are updated to keep up with new learning needs, methods and technologies.
2. Set realistic minimum requirements (in terms of days or hours) for CPD for vocational teachers and, in addition, set aspirational targets against which progress can be measured.
3. Help teachers to strengthen the relationship between vocational learning in school and the workplace, for example by supporting work-based learning, visits to the workplace and employer engagement with vocational learning. Invest in the learning environment and technology (including educational technology) with the goal of making vocational learning as authentic as possible.
4. Consult to explore how the social status of teachers can be raised so that able and innovative individuals are recruited and retained. Give consideration to how salaries and career structure can support professionalisation.
5. Consult about whether specific norms and regulations should be developed to define the requirements and entitlements with respect to professional development for vocational teachers and trainers (in contrast to other kinds of teachers).
6. Develop and publish, on a regular basis, an authoritative and comprehensive strategic policy statement that addresses CPD for vocational teachers and trainers. This should be complemented with an action plan, appropriate resources and a transparent monitoring process.
7. Clarify leadership in policy making and set up channels of communication and processes for unblocking obstacles, particularly where many organisations or departments are involved.
8. Inform strategic decision making with reliable evidence of current practice and performance of CPD, and provide feedback on implementation. Publish data and monitoring information in order to engage stakeholders, such as teachers and employers, and provide opportunities for consultation in relation to policy making.

Empowering and coordinating diverse actors

9. Develop school autonomy, particularly in relation to professional development, as this helps school managers to make well-informed, responsive and efficient decisions that link the development of individual teachers and trainers to organisational development.
10. Coordinate and mobilise actors across different public, private and third-sector institutions to support CPD for vocational teachers. Do this at multiple levels, for example national vocational councils, sector skills councils, regional development agencies and education–business joint working groups.
11. Facilitate the emergence of competent and diverse providers of CPD for vocational teachers and principals. Review commissioning and quality assurance processes to make sure that they do not deter new providers, and innovative new training offers.

12. Engage and mobilise enterprises to extend the offer of work-based CPD for vocational teachers, for example with industry placements and work-based training workshops.
13. Enhance the contribution made by universities to CPD for vocational teachers, for example through the provision of post-graduate programmes in new technologies and new pedagogies and/or by supporting partnerships between researchers and experts in universities and vocational schools.
14. Develop the capacity of schools and training centres to programme, provide and evaluate their own CPD. This may be done by offering training and support to CPD coordinators in each school, by providing dedicated funding and tools, and by supporting collaboration through networks and clusters, for example, led by CoVEs.
15. Improve the availability and quality of mentoring, for example by ensuring that mentors are trained and have the skills and time necessary to mentor. Increase the opportunities for teachers to receive feedback from trained observers and develop opportunities for extended professional development that build upon such feedback.
16. Encourage and support teacher collaboration, at the level of schools and also through local and professional networks, for example by providing working time for joint lesson planning and networking.

Ensuring that the continuing professional development is relevant and impactful

17. Devise ways to take account of impact when planning CPD, for example through research or through self-evaluation at the level of schools.
18. Help teachers to access those training programmes that are most relevant to their development needs, for example by allowing for advance booking and expanding programmes that are oversubscribed.
19. Make better use of professional standards to support the identification of training needs and to shape the design of training programmes.
20. Develop CPD that prepares and qualifies teachers to take on specialised roles, for example coordinators, or leadership roles, for example subject leaders. In this way, CPD will connect to professional growth and career advancement.
21. Improve the processes through which the development needs of teachers and schools are identified, and make better use of this information to inform decisions about planning, matching and designing the offer, for example by empowering schools to commission tailored CPD from trusted providers.
22. Improve the way that CPD participation is recorded, analysed and monitored, for example by making better use of information systems.

ACRONYMS

CENAFFIF	Centre national de formation de formateurs et d'ingénierie de formation (National Centre for Training of Trainers and Training Engineering – Tunisia)
CoVE	Centre of vocational excellence
CPD	Continuing professional development
DG TT	Directorate General for Teacher Training (Turkey)
DG TVET	Directorate General for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (Turkey)
ECTS	European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System
EQAVET	European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training
ETF	European Training Foundation
EU	European Union
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (formerly GTZ)
ICT	Information and communication technology
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
MEBBIS	Teacher training information system (Turkey)
NAVETQ	National Agency for Vocational Education and Training and Qualifications
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
RIPO	Republican Institute for Vocational Education (Belarus)
TALIS	Teaching and Learning International Survey (OECD)
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
VET	Vocational education and training
VTESB	Vocational and Technical Education School Board (Turkey)

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