

Chapter 5

The teaching workforce in Uruguay

This chapter is about policies to improve the effectiveness of the teaching workforce. It deals with teacher preparation, recruitment, career development and use of time. Furthermore, it discusses how teachers are incentivised to perform at a high level. The chapter places particular emphasis on areas of priority for Uruguay such as the unavailability of a competency framework for the teaching profession, the inequitable distribution of teachers across schools, the shortcomings in initial teacher education and the concerns over teacher quality. The chapter also reviews approaches to the selection of teachers and their deployment to schools, the structure of teacher compensation, teacher appraisal processes and the organisation of professional development.

This chapter addresses policies to improve the effectiveness of the teaching workforce. Among other things, it analyses the size of the teaching workforce and its geographical distribution; how teachers are prepared and improve their skills while in the profession (e.g. initial preparation, professional development); how teachers are recruited and distributed across individual schools; how teacher resources and teaching time are allocated to students so that they optimally respond to improvement priorities (e.g. class size, teacher-student ratios, use of teachers' time); and how teachers are incentivised to perform at a high level (e.g. teacher appraisal, recognition and compensation).

The first section presents the main characteristics of the teaching workforce in Uruguay (demographic, preparation, recruitment and deployment) as well as the working conditions of teachers in schools and their career opportunities and incentives. This is followed by an analysis of current strengths in the positioning of teachers as resources in the Uruguayan system, of challenges or problematic situations that need addressing, and finally by a set of recommendations on how to address these.

Context and features

Profile of the teaching workforce

Size of the teaching workforce and its main characteristics

In 2014, 19 671 staff were employed in public primary schools, 15 237 of whom were classroom teachers in mainstream education. These figures grew 26.6% and 14.8% respectively since 2002 (see Table 5.A.1 in Annex 5.A). In 2014, the number of classroom teachers in private primary schools was 8 389, a figure which grew 46.2% since 2006. In early childhood and pre-primary education, the number of classroom teachers in schools either maintained or regulated by ANEP has remained stable in the last decade, reaching 3 968 in 2014. In public secondary education, general programmes, the number of subject-teachers (teachers who teach more than one subject are counted as different teachers), in 2014, were 15 523 and 7 664 at the lower and upper levels respectively (reflecting growths of 21.7% and 43.0% since 2006). In technical-professional programmes, the number of subject-teachers were 6 959 and 14 263 for the same year, in lower and upper secondary education respectively (reflecting growths of 60.5% and 89.3% since 2006) (see Table 5.A.1 in Annex 5.A). According to the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007 and which provides the most rigorous information about teachers, there were 36 851 staff involved in direct teaching in public schools maintained by ANEP (45.1% in early childhood, pre-primary and primary education; 39.0% in general programmes of secondary education; and 18.0% on technical-professional programmes of secondary education) (see Table 5.A.2 in Annex 5.A).

As in other countries, the teaching profession in Uruguay is considerably feminised. According to the latest Teacher Census, the proportion of females in 2007 in public schools maintained by ANEP reached 93.2% in early childhood, pre-primary and primary education, 73.5% in general programmes of secondary education and 56.8% in technical-professional programmes of secondary education (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1. **Gender distribution of teachers, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007**

	Male	Female
Early childhood, pre-primary and primary education (under supervision of CEIP)	6.8	93.2
Secondary education, general programmes (under supervision of CES)	26.5	73.5
Secondary education, technical-professional programmes (under supervision of CETP)	43.2	56.8

Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP).

Source: ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística, Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, Montevideo.

As shown in Table 5.2, in 2007, teachers in public schools maintained by ANEP were evenly distributed across age groups. In general, in 2007, there was no major concern about the ageing of the teaching workforce.

Table 5.2. **Age distribution of teachers, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007**

	29 or less	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 or more
Early Childhood, pre-primary and primary education (under supervision of CEIP)	20.5	29.9	25.8	21.8	2.1
Secondary education, general programmes (under supervision of CES)	22.2	28.9	27.8	17.5	3.6
Secondary education, technical-professional programmes (under supervision of CETP)	14.9	28.8	28.0	22.7	5.6

Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP).

Source: ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística, Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, Montevideo.

Class size and student-teacher ratio

Class size varies across levels of education and types of schools. In public primary education, the average size of classes has decreased over the last decade to 24 students in 2012. This decrease stems from a decline in the school age population as well as a drop in year repetition rates at this level of education (see also Chapter 1) (INEEd, 2015). Classes are smaller than in Brazil (25 students) and Chile (29 students), but still larger than in many OECD countries (OECD average: 21 students) (OECD, 2014, Table D.2.1). *Aprender* schools have smaller classes, which is important considering the socio-economic background of the students attending this type of school. Practice schools have larger classes, but these schools also tend to have the help of student teachers supporting teachers in classrooms.

In public general secondary education, schools that only offer the lower secondary cycle have an average class size of 30 students, irrespective of where schools are located in Uruguay (INEEd, 2015). This is also more than in many OECD countries (OECD average: 24 students), but around the average class size of general lower secondary programmes in Brazil (29 students) and Chile (31 students) (OECD, 2014, Table D.2.1). Schools that only offer the general upper secondary cycle or that offer both cycles of general secondary education have about 35 students per class, and less if the school is located outside of Montevideo or a

departmental capital. Taking into account that not all students in Years 11 and 12 of the general upper secondary cycle are enrolled full-time and that they may decide to only take some subjects, the class size for general upper secondary education decreases to about 27 students per class (INEED, 2015).

Student-teacher ratios, in 2013, stood at 17 in primary education, 11 in secondary education (general programmes), 6 in lower secondary education (technical-professional programmes) and 4 in upper secondary education (technical-professional programmes) (see Table 5.3). As a comparison, in the same year, the average student-teacher ratio within the OECD area was 15, 13 and 13 in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education respectively (OECD, 2015).

Table 5.3. **Student-teacher ratio, by level of education, 2013**

	Students to teachers	Students to full-time teachers
Primary education	17	17
Secondary education (general programmes)	8	11
Lower secondary education (technical-professional programmes)	4	6
Upper secondary education (technical-professional programmes)	3	4

Note: For primary education, classroom teachers as well co-ordination and support staff are taken into account. For secondary education (general programmes), in addition to subject teachers, principals, secretaries, teacher leaders, laboratory staff and other support staff are also taken into account. For secondary education (technical professional programmes), all staff involved in teaching is taken into account. Regarding the calculation of students to full-time teachers, no correction was made for primary education (because the great majority of the teachers work full-time) while for secondary education each teaching staff was weighed according to the number of weekly working hours as provided in the National Household Survey.

Source: INEED (2015), *OECD Review of Policies to Improve the Effectiveness of Resource Use in Schools: Country Background Report for Uruguay*, www.oecd.org/education/schoolresourcesreview.htm.

Qualifications of teachers

In primary education, virtually all teachers meet the required qualifications. According to the latest teacher census (2007), all teachers employed in public pre-primary and primary schools maintained by ANEP had a teaching qualification at the tertiary level (see Table 5.4). This is confirmed by more recent international data. According to data from the Third Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study (TERCE),¹ carried in out in Latin American countries in 2013, an average of 95.9% of Year 3 teachers (in mathematics and language) and 89.6% of Year 6 teachers (in mathematics, language and natural sciences) had a teaching qualification in Uruguay, considerable above the average for the countries participating in the study (between 77% and 82% depending on school year and subject) (UNESCO/OREALC, 2015).

By contrast, there are serious concerns in Uruguay about the qualifications of secondary teachers. As shown in Table 5.4, in 2007, the teacher census revealed that only about 59% and 44% of secondary teachers, in public general and technical-professional programmes respectively had a complete teaching qualification. Figure 5.1, which shows the incidence of the lack of qualifications among public secondary teachers (general programmes) between 2005 and 2014, reveals that little progress has been made in improving the qualifications of teachers at this educational level. These data also show that the situation is more problematic in lower secondary education than in upper secondary education. The lack of sufficient secondary qualified teachers particularly affects the teaching of subjects such as physics, mathematics and English (INEED, 2015).

Table 5.4. **Qualifications of teachers, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007**

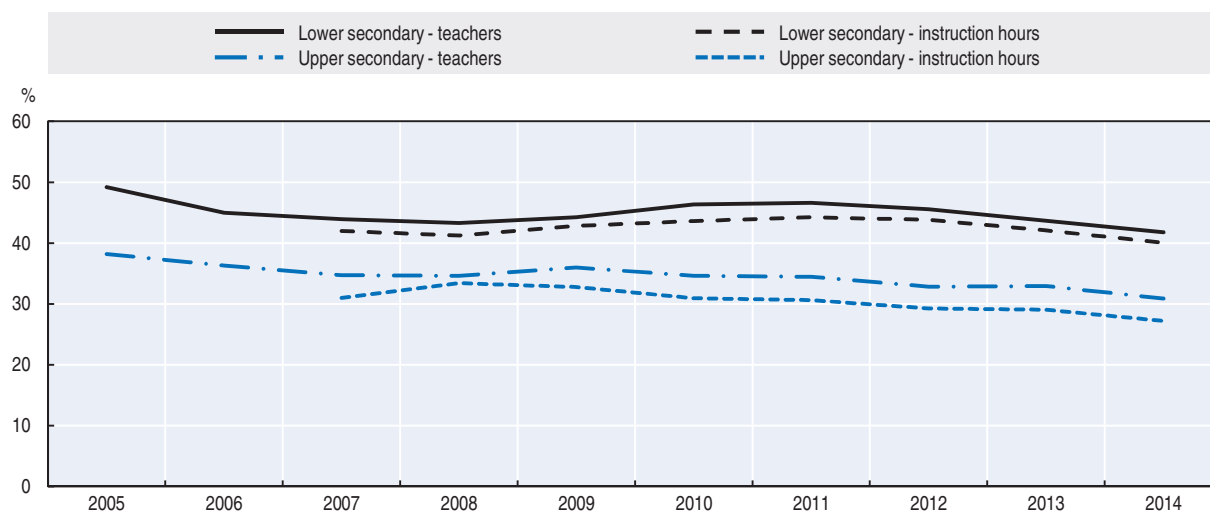
	Teaching tertiary qualification		Other tertiary qualification	
	Complete	Incomplete	Complete	Incomplete
Early childhood education, pre-primary and primary education (under supervision of CEIP)	100	0	7.6	13.4
Secondary education, general programmes (under supervision of CES)	59.0	23.5	17.7	34.0
Secondary education, technical-professional programmes (under supervision of CETP)	44.3	22.1	25.4	25.8
Teacher Education (under supervision of CFE)	89.4	2.7	38.0	28.8
Total	77.1	12.0	15.1	23.0

Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP). "Incomplete" means that the teachers attended, or were attending at the time the Census took place, a tertiary programme but had not completed it.

Source: ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística, Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, Montevideo.

Figure 5.1. **Incidence of the lack of qualifications of teachers, public secondary education, general programmes, 2005-14**

Proportion of teachers not qualified and proportion of instruction hours taught by teachers not qualified

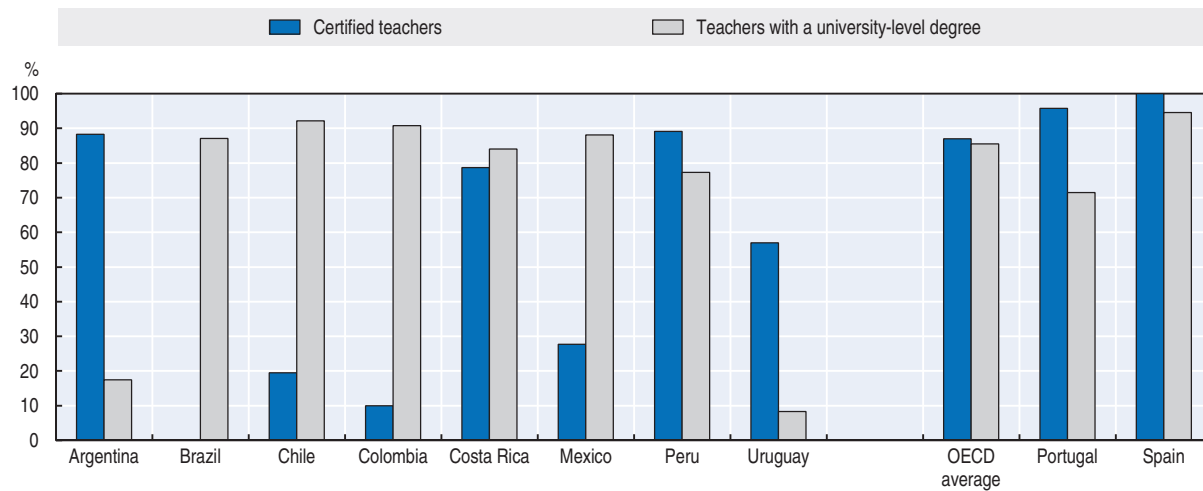


Note: Data on teachers are based on the number of subjects, i.e. teachers who teach more than one subject are counted as different teachers. Source: MEC (2000, 2002, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014), *Anuario Estadístico de Educación* (Education Statistical Yearbook), www.mec.gub.uy/innovaportal/v/11078/5/mecweb/publicaciones_?3colid=927.

International data collected by PISA 2012 confirm the high proportion of teachers who are not certified for the profession at the secondary level. As shown in Figure 5.2, in Uruguay, the percentage of certified teachers according to reports from principals of schools attended by 15-year-olds is 57% against an OECD average of 87%. As shown in Table 5.5, analysis of PISA data reveals that the lack of teacher qualifications is more serious in public schools, technical-professional programmes, outside Montevideo and in very unfavourable to medium schools (compared to favourable and very favourable schools). However, the situation seems to have improved between 2003 and 2012, particularly in very unfavourable schools and technical-professional programmes.

Figure 5.2. **Teacher certification status and educational level based on reports by school principals for PISA 2012, selected countries**

School principals' report on the percentage of:



Note: Data are based on the perceptions of the principals of the schools attended by the 15-year-olds who took the PISA assessment and therefore refer to lower and upper secondary education. Data refer to averages across the PISA 2012 sample.

Source: OECD (2013a), PISA 2012 Results: What Makes Schools Successful: Resources, Policies and Practices (Volume IV), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264201156-en>.

Table 5.5. **Estimates of the proportion of certified teachers based on perceptions by school principals provided as part of questionnaires for PISA, 2003 and 2012**

	2012	2003
By type of school		
Total	0.57	0.53
Public schools	0.55	0.51
Private secondary schools	0.65	0.68
Public secondary schools (general programmes)	0.58	0.54
Public technical schools (technical-professional programmes)	0.45	0.33
Difference private-public	0.09 ¹	0.18 ¹
Difference technical-professional – general programmes (public)	-0.14 ¹	-0.21 ¹
By region		
Montevideo	0.62	0.61
Rest of the country	0.53	0.46
Difference Montevideo – rest of the country	0.09 ¹	0.14 ¹
By socio-economic context of the school		
Very unfavourable	0.54	0.38
Unfavourable	0.50	0.44
Medium	0.55	0.53
Favourable	0.67	0.56
Very favourable	0.68	0.69
Difference very favourable – very unfavourable	0.14 ¹	0.31 ¹

1. Means that the difference is significant at 95% confidence level. Standard errors of the estimates are available from the original source.

Note: Based on compiled data from OECD PISA, 2003 and 2012. PISA provides information about the performance of 15-year-olds in reading, mathematics and science as well as comparative insights about the students' backgrounds, schools and the learning environment across the participating countries. Estimates are based on the perceptions of the principals of the schools attended by the 15-year-olds who took the PISA assessment and therefore refer to lower and upper secondary education.

Source: INEED (2015), OECD Review of Policies to Improve the Effectiveness of Resource Use in Schools: Country Background Report for Uruguay, www.oecd.org/education/schoolresourcesreview.htm.

Initial preparation

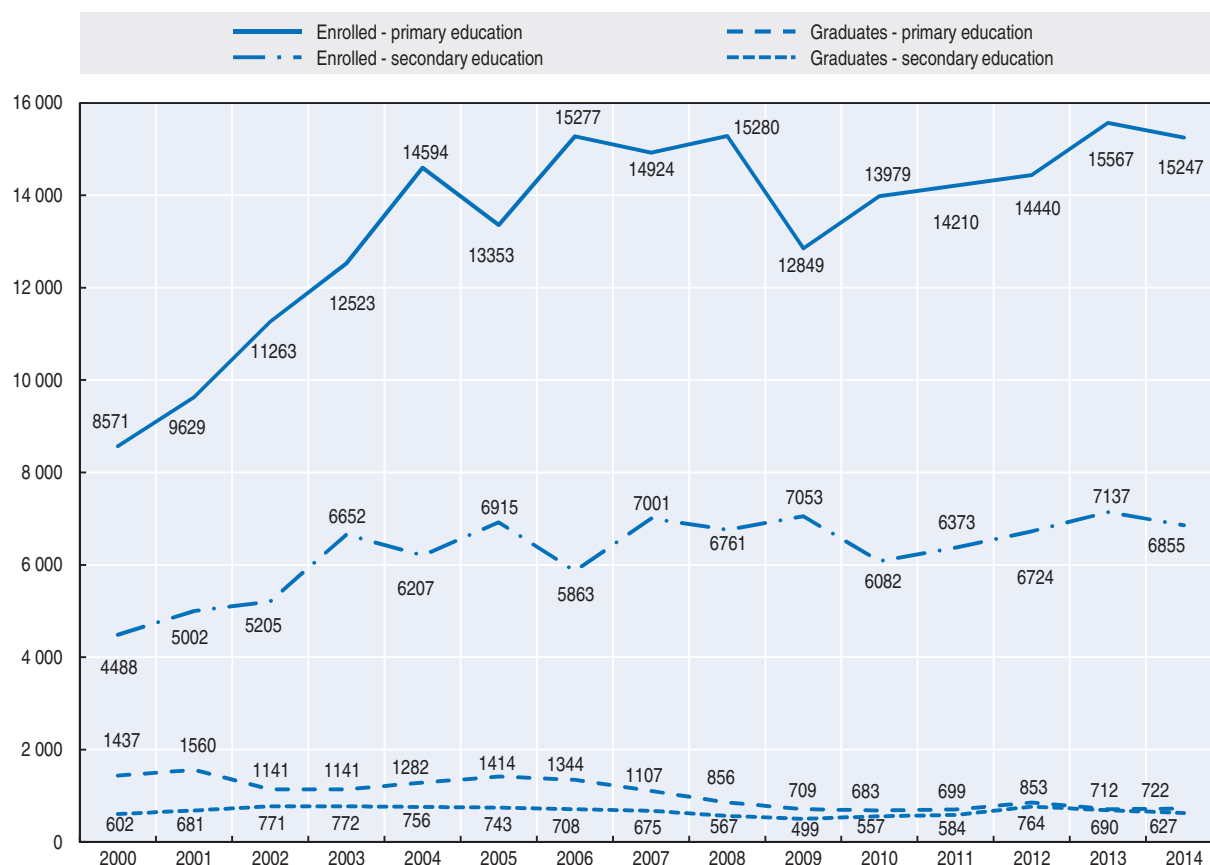
The preparation of teachers for pre-primary and primary education takes place over a four-year programme at the public *Institutos de Formación Docente* (Teacher Education Institutes, IFD) located in the main cities of the country (departments' capitals and a few other cities) and at the *Instituto Normal* in Montevideo (Normal Institute of Montevideo, INM). Until some years ago, secondary teachers were mainly prepared at the *Instituto Profesional Artigas* (Artigas Professional Institute, IPA) in Montevideo. However, beginning in 1997 new teacher education institutions known as *Centros Regionales de Profesores* (Regional Centres for Teachers, CERP) were established in six locations outside of Montevideo, with an innovative structure based on full-time attendance. Besides these institutional offerings, prospective secondary teachers may also qualify through a combination of studies involving the common and pedagogic curriculum courses offered by the primary teacher education institutes (IFD) and the subject specialisation provided by the secondary Artigas Professional Institute (IPA). Secondary teachers for technical-professional programmes, in turn, are prepared at the *Instituto Normal de Enseñanza Técnica* (Normal Institute of Technical Education, INET) in Montevideo. In 2014, enrolments levels were as follows across institutions: IFD (primary education), 3 425; IFD (secondary education), 2 998; IPA, 3 973; CERP, 2 377; INM, 1 039; and INET, 788 (ANEP-CFE, 2015).

The whole of the publicly-funded teacher education is co-ordinated since 2008 under the “National System of Teacher Education” (see ANEP-CFE, 2008). All teacher education institutions now share a common teacher education curriculum. The curriculum stipulates fairly general graduation profiles as well as the list of courses for each education level and type (primary, general secondary, technical-professional secondary) as well as for each specialisation (subjects in general secondary, five areas within technical-professional secondary). The curricular document also defines the practical content for primary education teacher candidates: 40 hours in the whole first year; 12 hours per week in the 2nd and 3rd years; and 16 hours per week in the 4th year. Teacher candidates for secondary education are also supposed to undertake a practicum in schools but the number of hours is not stipulated in the common curriculum. In addition, guidelines for the assessment of teacher candidates are also given (ANEP-CFE, 2008). A significant gap, however, is that there are currently no procedures for the evaluation and accreditation of teacher education programmes (INEEd, 2014).

Given the diversity of teacher education institutions and the fact that they are all tertiary non-university ones, the 2008 General Law of Education approved the establishment of a co-ordinating entity that should take the form of a Pedagogical University Institute (there is general agreement that the term “Institute” should be removed and the new institution should be called “National Pedagogic University”). However, the proposed university has not yet received parliamentary approval and the current government has ruled out its establishment during its term, despite the fact that there were advanced plans to go ahead with it.

As shown in Figure 5.3, enrolment in initial teacher education grew in the early 2000s both for primary and secondary education preparation. As of 2004, enrolment levels have stabilised around 14 000 for primary teacher candidates and 7 000 for secondary teacher candidates, with some fluctuations across consecutive years. This trend, however, has not been the same throughout the country, as increases have favoured locations outside of Montevideo (MEC, 2013). However, in contrast with increases in enrolment, the number

Figure 5.3. **Number of students enrolled in and graduates from initial teacher education programmes, preparation for primary and secondary education, 2000-14**



Note: Data refer to the number of students enrolled in and graduates from initial teacher education programmes preparing students for either primary education or secondary education (general programmes).

Source: MEC (2014), *Anuario Estadístico de Educación 2014* (Education Statistical Yearbook 2014), www.mec.gub.uy/innovaportal/v/11078/5/mecweb/publicaciones_?3colid=927.

of graduates in preparation for primary education has consistently been falling over time from 1 437 new teachers in 2000 to 722 in 2014. In secondary education, the number of graduates over the period 2000-14 has fluctuated between about 500 and 770 graduates.

Compared to other tertiary students, teacher candidates belong to lower socio-economic families. Thus, 36% of first year teacher education students come from families with only primary education as compared to 29% of tertiary education entrants. Conversely, only 20% of first year teacher education students come from families in which at least one parent had complete tertiary studies as compared to 36.8% of other tertiary students (INEED, 2014). Also candidates for teacher education tend to be older than expected at the tertiary level. In 2014, the distribution of initial teacher education students by age brackets was: 18-24: 41.8%; 25-30: 25.3%; and over 30: 32.9%. The proportion of teacher candidates above 30 years of age was 17.8% in preparation for primary education; 40.1% in preparation for secondary general programmes; and 64.3% in preparation for secondary technical-professional programmes (ANEP-CFE, 2015). This also results from the fact that most teacher candidates enter an initial teacher education programme a number of years after they completed secondary education. The average number of years between graduation from secondary education and enrolment in teacher education for students enrolled in teacher

education programmes in 2014 was: IFD (primary education), 2.9; IFD (secondary education), 6.5; IPA, 5.0; CERP, 4.0; INM, 3.6; and INET, 9.3 (ANEP-CFE, 2015).

A major characteristic of teacher candidates in Uruguay is that most of them have a paid occupation while they study. As displayed in Table 5.6, in 2014, only about 11% of students in initial teacher education had no paid occupation and were not looking for one.

Table 5.6. **Proportion of teacher candidates according to their labour condition by teacher education institution, 2014**

	Has a paid occupation	No paid occupation but looking for one	No paid occupation and not looking for one	No data
IFD – primary education	29.4	35.5	23.2	11.8
IFD – secondary education	75.8	16.9	3.4	3.9
IPA	80.2	12.7	4.1	2.9
CERP	48.0	25.6	17.2	9.3
INM	64.6	19.8	10.9	4.6
INET	91.5	5.6	1.3	1.6
Total (average)	61.6	21.1	10.9	6.3

Note: CERP: Centros Regionales de Profesores (Regional Centres for Teachers); INET: Instituto Normal de Enseñanza Técnica (Normal Institute of Technical Education); IPA: Instituto Profesional Artigas (Artigas Professional Institute); IFD: Institutos de Formación Docente (Teacher Education Institutes); INM: Instituto Normal de Montevideo (Normal Institute of Montevideo).

Source: ANEP-CFE (2015), *Los Estudiantes de Formación en Educación: Estudio sobre Datos Aportados por el Censo de Estudiantes del CFE 2014-2015* (Students in Teacher Education: Study of Data Provided by the CFE Student Census of 2014-15), www.anep.edu.uy/anep/phocadownload/Noticias_Doc/2015/estudio%20censo%202014-2015.pdf.

Recruitment into teaching and deployment into schools

The employment framework and working conditions of teachers, including decisions about recruitment, dismissal and salaries, are regulated through the teacher statute (*Ordenanza nr. 45, Estatuto del funcionario docente*), established in 1993 and (slightly) revised in 2015. The 2008 Education Law entrusts the different education councils with the management of the teaching workforce in their respective subsystem in line with the teacher statute under the co-ordination of the CODICEN. The teacher statute applies to “direct teaching” functions (i.e. teachers who have a regular interaction with students in the classroom) and “indirect teaching” functions (i.e. interaction with students but with no regular classes) which includes, for example, teacher leaders (*adscriptos*), pedagogical counsellor teachers, school leaders and inspectors.

Requirements for teaching

In primary education, the main requirement to apply for a job as a teacher is to hold a teaching degree for primary education (Teacher statute; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015). By contrast, in secondary education, as a result of the insufficient number of qualified teachers, holding a teaching degree is not a requirement to teach. Individuals with other tertiary qualifications or with secondary qualifications can access the teaching profession if positions remain vacant as the result of the lack of qualified teachers.

Teacher categories

There are three categories of teachers in the public education system according to the type of appointments they have: tenured (*efectivo*), interim (*interino*) and replacement (*suplente*) teachers. Following a few years of experience and through a public competition

(see below), teachers can obtain tenure. Until they reach this stage, teachers may be hired as “interim”. In this case, the teacher has no acquired rights to keep a given position or set of teaching hours. The third category of teachers includes those who “replace” another teacher for a fixed short period (e.g. sickness of a teacher).

Table 5.7 shows the distribution of teachers across the type of teaching post in public schools maintained by ANEP according to information provided by the 2007 teacher census. It shows that the proportion of tenured teachers is higher in pre-primary and primary education (60.2%) than in secondary education (general programmes: 42.3%; technical-professional programmes: 28.5%). Also, the distribution of teachers’ seniority in schools maintained by ANEP is similar across education levels and types (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7. Distribution of teachers across the type of teaching post and years of seniority, by education level and type, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007

	Early childhood education, pre-primary and primary education	Secondary education, general programmes	Secondary education, technical-professional programmes
Type of teaching post (%)			
Tenured	60.2	42.3	28.5
Interim	16.7	49.9	67.2
Replacement	23.1	7.8	4.3
Seniority as a teacher in schools supervised by ANEP (%)			
0-4 years	19.7	22.6	19.7
5-9 years	22.8	22.6	23.1
10-19 years	27.8	27.4	28.0
20-29 years	20.2	18.1	21.1
30 years or more	7.3	7.4	6.3

Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP).

Source: ANEP-CFE (2008), *Sistema Nacional de Formación Docente 2008: Documento Final* (National System of Teacher Education 2008: Final Document), www.cfe.edu.uy/images/stories/pdfs/plan_nacional/sundf_2008.pdf.

Teacher registry for interim teachers

As they start in the profession, teachers voluntarily join a registry which ranks all teachers who have not yet obtained tenure. Different registries are maintained by level and type of education (early childhood and pre-primary; primary; general secondary; and technical-professional secondary); department; and, in secondary education, by subject area. Specific registries also exist for teacher leaders (primary and secondary levels) and laboratory assistants in secondary education.

Teacher registries are maintained as a ranking of teachers. Within each registry, teachers are ranked according to the most recent score obtained in the “rated seniority”, as long as they score above a given minimum (see below for details on the components of the “rated seniority”). For those new teachers who have no teaching experience or have not undergone a formal appraisal, the rank is defined by the average mark in initial teacher education. The registry ranking defines the order of priority to give teachers access to the available non-tenured posts or set of teaching hours.

Reaching tenure

Access to a tenured post or a promotion (e.g. to positions such as school leader, inspector) in the public education system requires the successful participation in a public competition (*concurso*), i.e. being the top candidate for a given tenured post or a given set of tenured teaching hours. The public competition can be organised on the basis of: i) merits (*méritos*) (involving the analysis of past achievements); ii) merits and an examination (*oposición*) (testing candidates' abilities); or iii) open examination (*oposición libre*). Holding qualifications for teaching is sufficient to be eligible to apply for tenure. However, teachers who are not fully qualified can also be eligible to participate in the public competition for tenure but, in that case, they are required to pass an examination (*oposición*).

Public competitions for tenured posts/hours are announced publicly. Each year, the respective education councils publish a list of available posts and teaching hours. The announcement includes details about the selection process, in particular the basis for the competition (e.g. the nature of the examination, if it is required), the criteria to select among the candidates and other rules for the competition. Decisions are made by a three-person selection committee, typically formed by inspectors. The nature of the examination (*oposición*) differs across years. It may be the presentation of a project for the function one is applying; the observation of a class; a written test; or a combination of these. The ordering of the teachers in the competition considers the examination results (if the competition includes an examination) as well as the assessed merits, which include formal appraisal results (teaching aptitude as part of the formal annual appraisal of teachers), step in the salary scale, years of experience and years in the respective step of the salary scale (Labadie et al., 2006). While public competitions for tenured posts are annually organised in primary education, they may not be as regular in secondary education, depending on the subject and department.

Once the teacher obtains tenure, he or she becomes a public servant. At the primary level, tenure refers to a position in a given school. Their tenure at the school lasts as long as they choose to remain in the school. If they wish to change schools they must go through the same procedure again. By contrast, at the secondary level tenure refers to a “basic teaching unit” (20 hours) for a subject within a department, i.e. the teacher is always guaranteed the 20 basic hours in the same department but not necessarily at the same school. Tenured posts at a given school only exist in secondary education for some indirect teaching positions (e.g. principal, teacher leader) and for teachers in agrarian schools.

Allocation of teachers to schools

Teachers are allocated into schools through a centralised system managed by CODICEN and the respective education councils which takes into account teachers' school preferences. Schools have no say on the teachers they receive. At the primary level, the departmental inspection has, however, a strong influence on the distribution of the number of teaching hours between schools.

In primary education, each year the CEIP publishes the available tenured posts as well as the available non-tenured posts or hours. Public competitions are organised to fill the available tenured posts while teachers are allocated to non-tenured posts from the registry of ranked teachers. In both cases, teachers express preferences for the schools at which they would like to work. As a result, the allocation of teachers depends largely on their choices, particularly those of the candidates better placed in the competitions for tenured posts and in the registry for non-tenured posts.

In secondary education, all teaching hours are open for re-allocation each year. Tenured teachers are guaranteed the 20 hours associated with their tenure (but not necessarily at the same school). Tenured hours which become available are allocated on the basis of a public competition (as explained above) while the remaining hours are allocated on the basis of the registry ranking. As a result, the further down the teacher ranks, the more likely is for a teacher to have his or her hours split between several schools.

Career structure

The teaching profession in Uruguay is characterised by a single-stage career structure with a multi-step salary scale. Advancement in the salary scale is determined essentially by years of service and involves salary increases every four years along seven steps. The transition of steps involves the following rules:

- The teacher remains at the same step level for a minimum of four years.
- Progression into the next step is conditional on obtaining a minimum score on the “rated seniority”, a rating which depends on three factors: teaching aptitude (100 points, the score of the formal annual appraisal of teachers, see below), seniority within the step (20 points) and computed activity (20 points) (for teachers, it refers to attendance, i.e. the proportion of scheduled classes actually given).
- Progression into the next step is conditional on the successful completion of specific training for the position.

The steps in the salary scale are not associated with further responsibilities or new roles in schools. They are purely associated with monetary compensation and step increases do not change the nature of the teacher’s work. The salary scale applies to both tenured and non-tenured teachers. Seniority acquired while on non-tenured posts is taken into account for salary purposes, including when the teacher transitions to a tenured post.

An interesting recent development has been the creation, in primary education by CEIP, of a voluntary system whereby a tenured teacher can apply for an early step increase through an appraisal of his or her skills and knowledge. Such appraisal seeks to assess the teacher holistically across his or her professional practices and typically involves classroom observation and an oral examination on pedagogy and didactics. This system grants opportunities for teachers to accelerate their progression in the salary scale on the basis of demonstrated merit.

As with the registry of non-tenured teachers, tenured teachers are ordered in the hierarchy according to the following factors in order of importance:

- step within the scale
- score on the “rated seniority”, as explained above
- teaching aptitude score associated with the annual appraisal of the teacher (see below)
- seniority within the step.

The order of tenured teachers in the hierarchy is important when a teacher competes to move to another tenured position and when he or she seeks promotion. The teaching career is flat. Promotion for a teacher involves leaving the classroom to become a principal, inspector or having special functions within the school such as teacher leader, pedagogical counsellor teacher or bibliographic counsellor teacher. These positions are accessed through specific competitions.

Teacher remuneration

Remuneration system

The compensation of teachers is defined by the seven-step salary scale established for each education level. As explained above, advancement from one step to another is automatic every four years (except in the rare occasions of assessed underperformance), but salary differences are not even between steps. For example, moving from step 1 to step 4 (involving an additional 12 years of service), results in a salary increase of about 17% as compared to a 42% increase over the following 12-year period (step 4 to step 7). This is mostly due to the 20% increase teachers receive once they complete 25 years of service (see Table 5.8). Teachers receive another 5% increase at 28 years of service and a final 10% increase when they complete 32 years of service.

Table 5.8. **Gross monthly salary of primary and secondary teachers (general programmes) by step in the salary scale, 2005-14**

Step in salary scale	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Primary education teachers										
1	10 581	11 262	12 136	13 536	14 708	14 987	15 583	16 232	17 104	17 894
4	11 950	12 772	13 863	15 617	17 172	17 501	18 196	18 954	19 972	20 893
7	16 636	17 815	19 464	22 123	24 405	24 891	25 900	26 989	28 402	29 783
Lower secondary education teachers (general programmes)										
1	10 581	11 262	12 136	13 536	14 593	14 870	15 461	16 105	16 970	17 754
4	11 950	12 772	13 863	15 617	17 038	17 364	18 054	18 806	19 816	20 730
7	16 636	17 815	19 464	22 123	24 206	24 688	25 689	26 769	28 171	29 541
Upper secondary education teachers (general programmes)										
1	11 339	12 064	12 888	14 191	15 126	15 432	15 762	16 319	17 260	18 053
4	12 648	13 574	14 616	16 165	17 547	17 902	18 290	18 952	20 034	20 954
7	17 423	18 778	20 367	22 742	24 781	25 296	25 871	26 843	28 324	29 693

Note: Figures are in UYU at constant 2013 prices. Salaries concern tenured teachers with teaching qualifications and a 20-hour teaching load. They include the meal allowance. Salaries at step 7 include the additional 20% increase given to teachers for reaching 25 years of seniority.

Source: INEEd (2015), *OECD Review of Policies to Improve the Effectiveness of Resource Use in Schools: Country Background Report for Uruguay*, www.oecd.org/education/schoolresourcesreview.htm.

In Uruguay, it takes 32 years for teachers to reach the top of the salary scale. In lower secondary education, this compares to the average of 24 years in the OECD area, 25 years in Argentina, 30 years in Chile, 13 years in Colombia, 14 years in Mexico and 20 years in Peru (OECD, 2013a). In lower secondary education, the ratio of salary at the top of the scale to starting salary is 1.66 in Uruguay compared to 1.61 in the OECD area (OECD, 2013a).

Regarding the pay levels for non-tenured teachers, there is a distinction between those teachers who have a teaching qualification and those who do not. The former receive the same salary than tenured teachers for the same seniority. However the latter, while they start with the same basic salary at step 1 of the scale, only receive 50% of the pay increases associated with each step transition. In secondary education, there is an extra compensation of 7.5% of the salary for having a teaching qualification. In primary education, this extra 7.5% is given to all teachers involved in direct teaching.

Salary adjustments are also made for teachers who work more than the typical 20-hour teaching load. Generally, a percentage is added to the basic salary depending on the specific

circumstances. For a teacher in a full-time school (40-hour teaching load), a community teacher and a CEIBAL teacher, this percentage reaches 100% of the basic salary (for a 20-hour teaching load). Other cases include teachers in special schools (70% more), teachers in rural schools (30% more) and teachers in rural schools with a single teacher (50% more).

Teachers also receive a meal allowance and there is a bonus for satisfactory attendance which seeks to reduce absenteeism among teachers. Satisfactory attendance grants teachers a bonus of 15% of their salary if there are no non-justified absences and gradually decreases with the number of non-justified absences (10%, 5% and 3% bonuses for 1, 2 and 3 absences respectively).

A major feature of the teaching profession in Uruguay is that teachers are paid essentially on the basis of their teaching hours. Other non-teaching activities such as lesson preparation, marking students' work, collaborative work with colleagues, general administrative communication and paperwork, communication with parents, or providing guidance to students are not recognised in teacher remuneration. As shown in Table 5.9, teachers in Uruguay spend over 20% of their time in non-teaching activities, considerably above the average for other professionals.

Table 5.9. **Paid and non-paid weekly hours of work by type of occupation, 2012**

	All occupations		Pre-primary and primary teachers		Secondary teachers		Other professionals	
	Hours	%	Hours	%	Hours	%	Hours	%
Paid weekly hours	41.1	99.1	30.4	75.7	33.2	78.9	41.5	98.8
Non-paid weekly hours	0.4	0.9	9.8	24.3	8.9	21.1	0.5	1.2
Total hours of work in a week	41.5	100	40.1	100	42.0	100	42.0	100

Source: INEEd (2014), *Informe sobre el estado de la educación en Uruguay 2014* (Report on the state of education in Uruguay 2014), <http://ieeuy2014.ineed.edu.uy/>.

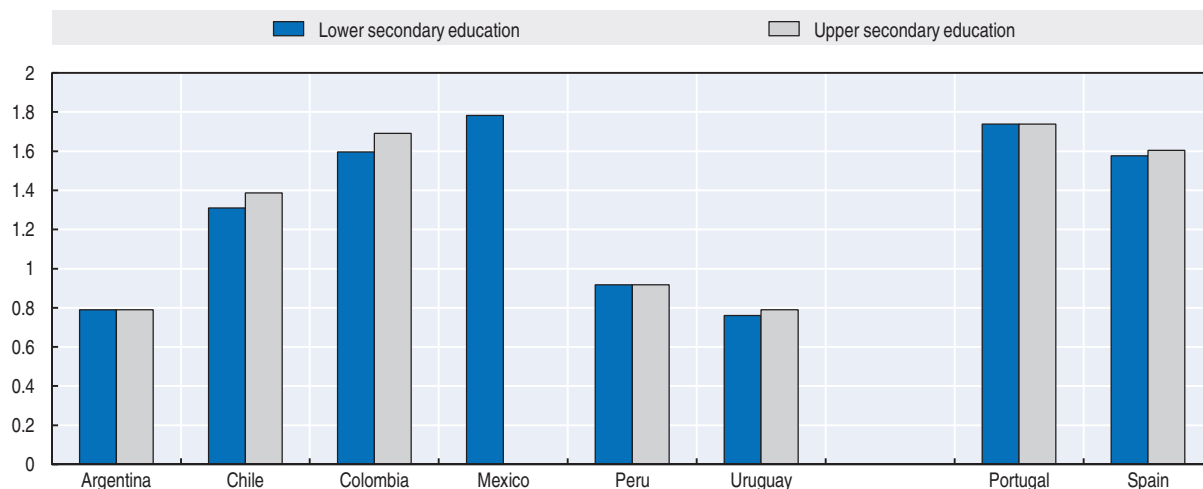
Only a few activities other than teaching itself are actually remunerated. These include hours to participate in co-ordination meetings for teachers working in *Aprender* schools (located in vulnerable contexts) (one meeting a month during the school year), teachers working in full-time schools (2.5 hours per week) and teachers in both strands of secondary education (proportional to the number of teaching hours for the individual teacher). In primary education, there is also a salary allowance for coaching teacher candidates in Practice schools (*Escuela Práctica*), which requires specific training. A special case concerns secondary teachers in agrarian schools whose salary compensates 50% of direct teaching hours and 50% of production activities.

Also, teachers are allowed to work beyond retirement age conditional on the availability of posts/hours and on passing a psychological-physical examination. As long as they have 30 years of service, retirement with a full pension is possible for female teachers at age 55 and for male teachers at age 60.

Relative salary levels

For a long time, teachers in Uruguay were considered to have a reasonable salary. However, after the economic crisis of 2002, the devaluation of the currency meant that in real terms teacher salaries were lowered (IDB, 2015) and despite increases since then, salaries compare unfavourably with those in other Latin American countries as shown in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4. **Teachers' salaries (after 15 years of experience/minimum training) relative to GDP per capita, lower and upper secondary education, selected countries, 2010**



Note: For Chile and Peru, salary data refer to 2010. Data for upper secondary education in Mexico are missing.

Source: OECD (2013a), PISA 2012 Results: What Makes Schools Successful: Resources, Policies and Practices (Volume IV), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264201156-en>.

Other teaching and supporting roles at the school

Besides their core role in providing classroom teaching, some teachers play specialised roles as part of varied forms of assistance and support in schools. These differ for primary and secondary education and are analysed in more detail in Chapter 4.

In primary education, teachers in classrooms may benefit from the assistance of support teachers (*maestros de apoyo*), teacher leaders (*maestros adscriptos*) and social workers (*trabajadores sociales*). Teacher leaders, however, focus on assisting the principal in the management of the school. Full-time schools and extended-time schools have the support of specialised teachers to run the different additional activities. In disadvantaged contexts, community teachers (*maestros comunitarios*) work directly with students and families while teachers from the Teacher + Teacher (*Maestros más Maestros*) Programme provide additional support to the classroom teacher (either inside or outside the classroom). CEIBAL support teachers (*maestro de apoyo CEIBAL*) give support on the use of ICT (INEED, 2015).

In general secondary education, a range of roles may exist in schools:

- Teacher leaders (*profesores adscriptos*) are part of the school leadership team and undertake a range of administrative and pedagogical tasks.
- Pedagogical counsellor teachers (*profesor orientador pedagógico*) have a co-ordination role among staff and liaise with families and communities.
- Bibliographic counsellor teachers (*profesor orientador bibliográfico*) support school libraries and multimedia rooms.
- Lab assistants (*preparador de laboratorio*) manage the lab facilities in schools.
- Technology counsellor teachers (*profesor orientador de tecnología educativa*) help with the use of IT rooms and materials.
- Pedagogical facilitator teachers (*profesor articulador pedagógico*) support the implementation of the Educational Commitment Programme (*Compromiso Educativo*) in schools.
- Tutor teachers (*profesor tutor*) provide additional support for students with learning difficulties.

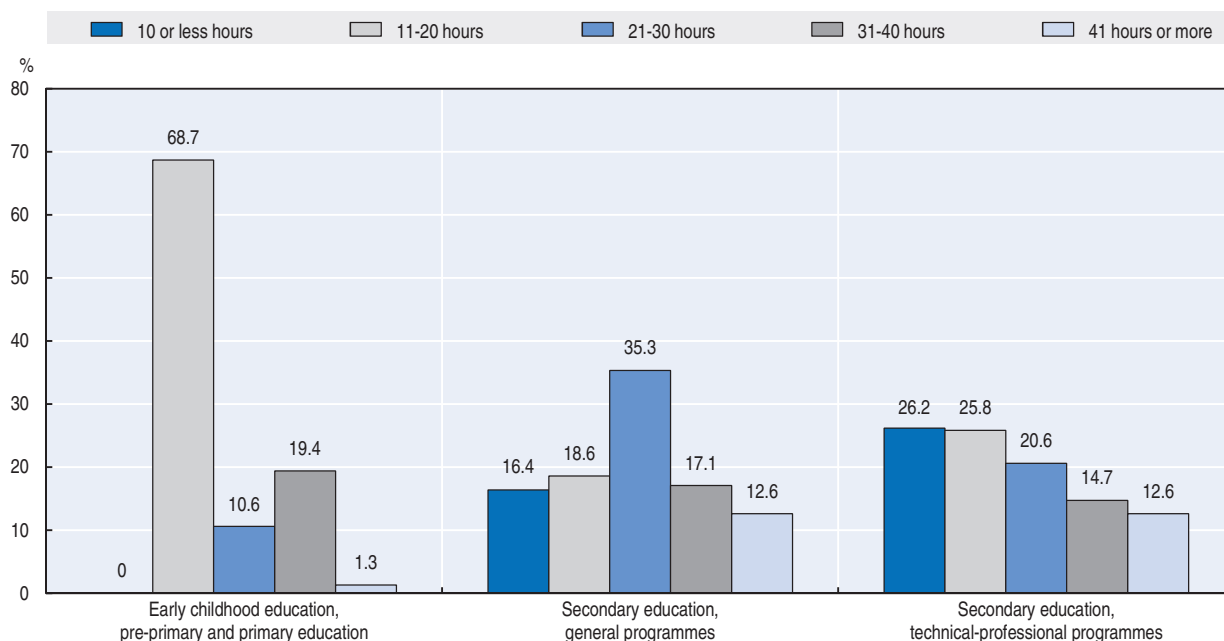
In technical-professional secondary education, schools typically do not have the range of support staff that support teachers in other subsystems. They also have teacher leaders and benefit from a range of support provided by the regional campuses.

Workload and use of teachers' time

All primary teacher contracts are for a specified number of teaching hours, of which the basic teaching unit is 20 hours, or 40 hours for teachers in full-time schools. Secondary teachers on the other hand may have contracts ranging from 20 to 48 hours, which exceptionally may reach up to 60 hours per week. CODICEN might grant authorisation for a teacher to accumulate 60 hours in combined functions of direct and indirect teaching. A teacher can also complement his or her teaching position with other functions in the public sector as long as he or she does not exceed 60 hours per week. Secondary teachers who additionally teach in a non-public school may exceed this maximum of teaching hours per week. Also, in a given school year, if the teacher is not able to have enough hours to complete a single teaching unit (20 hours or 40 hours), he or she can work a few hours in a supporting function (e.g. support teacher, pedagogical counsellor teacher; bibliographic counsellor teacher).

Figure 5.5 provides the distribution of teachers according to the number of contractual hours in public schools maintained by ANEP using information from the 2007 teacher census. It shows the wide variety of teachers' teaching loads in secondary education and

Figure 5.5. **Distribution of teachers according to number of contractual hours, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007**



Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP).

Source: ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística, Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, Montevideo.

the concentration of primary education teachers around the typical 20-hour (in most common schools) and 40-hour teaching load (in full-time schools).

According to information also provided by the 2007 teacher census, teachers in public schools maintained by ANEP had the following amount of teaching hours in the private school sector: early childhood education, pre-primary and primary education: 13.0 (24.1 in Montevideo and 8.4 in other areas); general secondary education: 25.7 (37.3 in Montevideo and 19.6 in other areas); and technical-professional secondary education: 10.0 (13.8 in Montevideo and 8.5 in other areas).

Another characteristic of the teaching profession in Uruguay is that a considerable proportion of teachers work in more than one school. As shown in Table 5.10, in 2007, while the majority of primary teachers worked in a single school, most of secondary teachers worked in more than one school. Over one-fourth of general secondary education teachers and about one-third of teachers in technical-professional secondary programmes were teaching in 3 or 4 schools.

Table 5.10. Distribution of teachers according to the number of schools in which they work, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007

	Single school	2 schools	3 schools	4 schools
Early childhood education, pre-primary and primary education (CEIP)	79.3	19.2	1.4	0.1
Secondary education, general programmes (CES)	33.8	37.9	20.6	7.6
Secondary education, technical-professional programme (CETP)	35.8	32.2	21.4	10.7

Note: Schools in which teachers work may include private schools. Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP).

Source: ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística, Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, Montevideo.

Teacher appraisal

Teachers periodically undergo two processes of appraisal, one conducted by inspectors and the other by school principals. Both processes perform a strong accountability function as they involve scoring the performance of teachers. The teacher's score is used to rank teachers either in the registry or in the hierarchy of tenured teachers.

An inspector should formally appraise all teachers once a year and issue a report based on a 100-point scale of competence. The 100 points are distributed across three main domains: level of seniority (up to 20 points), attendance (up to 20 points) and the assessment of the actual work of teachers. This annual score – the teaching aptitude – is needed for each teacher's record. Scores for teachers need to be approved in an annual meeting at the school level with participation from the school principals, who have a voice but no vote. Inspectors are supposed to express their views about the performance of each teacher to the school principal. The 100-point scale of competence is associated with the following judgment (Article 37, Teacher statute; ANEP-CODICEN, 2015):

- 1-30: serious shortcomings
- 31-50: observed
- 51-70: acceptable

- 71-80: good
- 81-90: very good
- 91-100: excellent.

In primary education, each school is assigned an inspector (see Chapter 4) who appraises each teacher in the school as well as the school principal. Primary teachers are regularly appraised once a year on the basis of two or three visits to the school by the inspector, which include classroom observations. Inspectors typically provide guidance in the first half of the semester while they appraise during the second half of the semester.

In general secondary education, subject inspectors also play a double function, guiding and appraising teachers. While inspectors are supposed to annually score each teacher, this does not occur at this educational level as a result of the insufficient number of inspectors. In 2015, there were only 48 subject inspectors in general secondary education who are supposed to cover all schools and subjects. On average, there were about 225 teachers per subject inspectors which makes it very challenging for each teacher to be annually appraised. In mathematics there were only four inspectors for 2 200 teachers. The OECD review team met teachers with 20 years of experience who had been appraised once or twice in their career. As in primary education, appraisals by inspectors typically involve classroom observation. Similarly, the technical inspection of the Technical and Professional Education Council (CETP) is supposed to appraise (and score) each teacher annually. However, as in general secondary education, the lack of inspectors makes reaching this objective a serious challenge. In case a teacher is not formally appraised by the inspection in a given year (as a result of the lack of inspectors), the retained annual score for the teacher is the best of his or her two most recent actual scores given by an inspector.

Schools principals are required to assess their teachers' performance on a continuous basis and must do so formally at least once a year. They are also required to give each teacher an annual score on a 100-point scale. This score is used as an input to the teaching aptitude score given by the school inspector. The approach to teacher appraisal conducted by school principals can differ considerably across schools. In some instances, it might involve classroom observation while, in others, it does not. However, according to Article 44 of the teacher statute, school principals are required to base their judgment primarily on the following aspects: aptitude and preparation for teaching; initiative for the improvement of practices; work disposition and collaboration within the school; contribution to the development of the education community; attendance and punctuality; human relations; interest in and concern for students and relationship to them; technical research work; contribution to the training of future teachers; and participation in examination committees and evaluation meetings.

There is no common reference (e.g. teaching standards) for teacher appraisal which implies that the appraisal criteria used by inspectors and school principals can differ considerably. However, the teacher statute defines areas or aspects that each appraisal should cover. Article 42 of the teacher statute establishes that the teaching aptitude score for teachers should be based on:

- the assessment of inspectors of the observed teaching
- the annual appraisal of the school principal
- professional development courses passed by the teacher as well as relevant research activities related to teaching

- disciplinary notifications concerning the teacher
- compliance of the teacher with regulations and assessment of the documentation associated with the teaching activities.

In addition, according to Article 43 of the teacher statute, the assessment the inspectors make during their school visits should include the following qualitative aspects:

- technical-pedagogical capacity
- management of the teaching-learning process, particularly its adequacy to the school context
- planning and development of courses
- learning outcomes of students and their motivation to keep learning
- working climate, co-operation and initiative
- respect for students and promotion of their capacity for self-determination
- opportunities for developing creative work.

In terms of its consequences, teacher appraisal has little impact in terms of sanctions or rewards and little influence in defining further teacher professional development opportunities. In the Uruguayan system, it is mostly used to rank teachers in order to allocate tenured positions (and tenured hours) and distribute those available teaching hours not associated with tenured positions. Teachers typically receive a written report from the inspector while engaging in a professional dialogue. However, there is no systematic process and the quality of this interaction differs greatly across inspectors. Similarly, the extent and quality of the professional dialogue with the school principal depends largely on the principal's approach to teacher appraisal.

The teacher statute provides for the possibility of teacher dismissal for poor performance. If a teacher obtains less than 51 points in his or her regular annual appraisal by the school inspector, the case is analysed by an ad hoc committee of inspectors who can decide the dismissal of the teacher. If the teacher is not tenured, he or she is removed from the registry of teachers. In practice, such cases are extremely rare in the Uruguayan school system.

Continuing professional development

In Uruguay, there is no mandatory requirement for teachers to undertake professional development but there are a range of opportunities for teachers to improve their knowledge and practices. There seems not to be a general policy framework for continuing teacher professional development (Alliaud, 2013), but in practice all teachers have a right to continue their education through updating courses that may or may not require a final assessment, improvement courses requiring a final assessment and short term activities such as workshops or professional meetings (Alliaud, 2013). Professional development is provided by a number of different institutions including higher education institutions such as the *Universidad de la República* (UDELAR) and private universities (*Universidad ORT*, *Universidad de Montevideo* and *Universidad Católica*); and the Institute for Advanced and Higher Studies (*Instituto de Perfeccionamiento y Estudios Superiores*, IPES), a public institute dedicated to teacher professional development which offers the courses developed by the ANEP. IPES, located in Montevideo, is the largest provider of professional development and its courses are free of charge. IPES offers a variety of courses more focused on teaching methods and didactics (areas in which it also undertakes research) and proposes some specialised courses (e.g. to teach in full-time schools). Teachers may also enrol in post-graduate courses leading to

diplomas and master's degrees co-ordinated by IPES, although this is subject to their position in the merit scheme (qualifications and experience). Programmes of professional development do not go through a process of accreditation.

Ultimately, teachers choose the professional development activities they undertake. During regular working hours, professional development can be undertaken during “co-ordination” hours, depending largely on approaches developed by the school principal. These are part of the few possibilities for school-based professional collaboration and development. However, teachers report that these are often taken up with administrative matters, and that principals do not have sufficient time to develop pedagogical leadership which would create school-level strategies for professional development. However, in locations outside of Montevideo, teachers report that there are better opportunities for collaborative work such as in planning (INEEd, 2014). Most teacher professional development activities end up being taken outside working hours, generally at IPES.

Teachers in technical-professional secondary programmes are assisted in their professional development by the Regional Units of Continuous Education (UREP), which are part of the five regional campuses of the Technical and Professional Education Council (CETP). This assistance operates through school visits by members of the regional unit who help teachers develop their work plans. A similar support is offered to teachers by the CEIBAL Plan on the use of ICT though there still are shortcomings as far as actual use in classrooms (IDB, 2015).

Professional development courses tend to be largely concentrated on curricular subjects and their teaching methods (Alliaud, 2013). This is illustrated in Table 5.11 which provides the kinds of courses taken by teachers who participated in the 2007 teacher census. About 60% of the latest professional development courses taken by teachers in 2007 covered either subject-specific curricular content or teaching methods.

Table 5.11. Areas covered by professional development courses taken by teachers, by education level and type, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007

Areas covered	Type of professional development of the latest course taken by the teacher		
	Early childhood education, pre-primary and primary education	Secondary education, general programmes	Secondary education, technical-professional programmes
Subject-specific curricular content	30.9	40.3	36.8
Teaching methods and didactics	28.6	22.0	21.5
School organisation and management	11.2	7.8	7.4
Education research methods	0.9	1.9	1.6
Information and communication technologies	10.6	12.0	17.1
Technologies applied to production and/or services	0.5	0.4	3.2
Learning difficulties	4.6	3.6	2.0
Teaching children with disabilities	4.8	1.8	1.8
Dealing with behavioural problems	0.5	0.4	0.4
Social issues (poverty, drugs, sexual education)	3.8	5.9	3.7
Other areas	3.6	3.9	4.7

Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP).

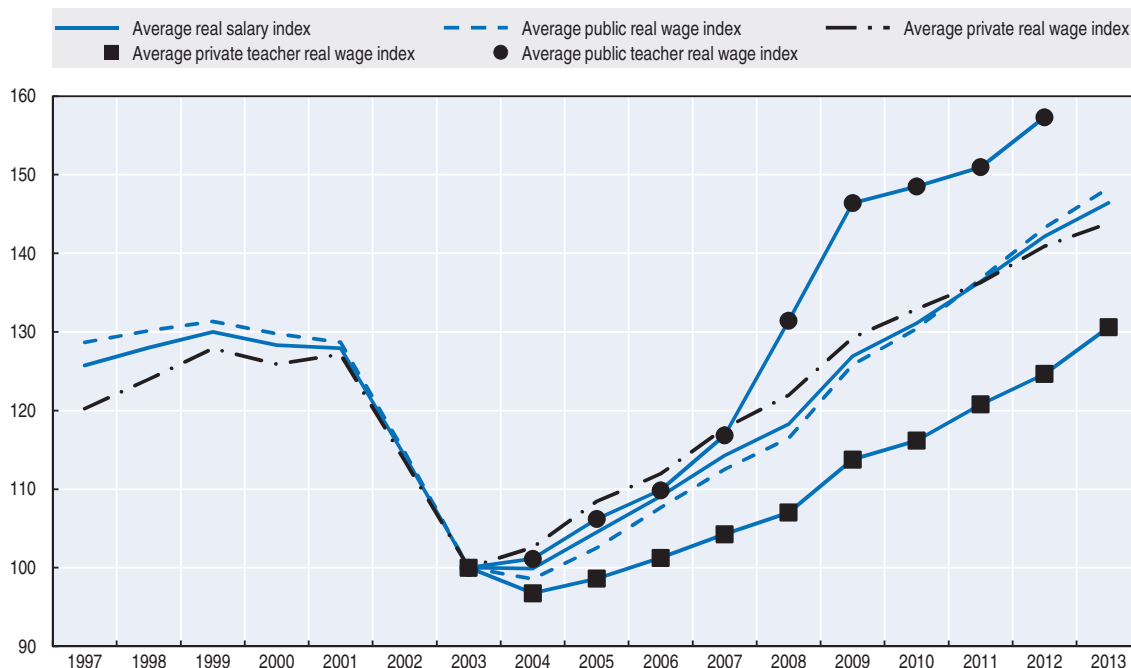
Source: ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística, Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, Montevideo.

Strengths

Efforts made to increase teacher salaries send important signals about the importance of teaching

In recent years, there have been efforts on the part of the Uruguayan government to increase teacher salaries in public schools. Teacher salaries which had decreased in real terms around 18% at the time of the recession in the early 2000s were gradually increased between 2005 and 2012 reaching a 28% increase in relation to the 2000 salaries (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2012 in Rivas, 2015). As displayed in Figure 5.6, since 2003, real salaries of public school teachers have grown above those in the general economy, reflecting a commitment to bring teacher salaries to more adequate levels. Between 2005 and 2013, real salaries of teachers in the public sector grew at the annual average rate of 5.4%, considerably above the 4.3% annual growth of real salaries in the general economy and the 3.4% annual real growth of salaries in the education private sector (INEEd, 2015).

Figure 5.6. **Average real salary index, general and education sector, 1997-2013**



Note: 2003 = 100. Data refer to real salaries in the general economy (average real wage index), in the general public sector (average public real wage index), in the general private sector (average private real wage index), in the public education sector (average public teacher real wage index) and in the private education sector (average private teacher real wage index).

Source: INEEd (2015), *OECD Review of Policies to Improve the Effectiveness of Resource Use in Schools: Country Background Report for Uruguay*, www.oecd.org/education/schoolresourcesreview.htm.

There is a clear awareness that the salaries of Uruguayan teachers remain low, however. As illustrated in Figure 5.4, in Uruguay teacher salaries relative to GDP per capita compare unfavourably to those of other Latin American countries. An analysis undertaken by INEEd, which compares the salaries of teachers in public schools to those of professional and technical workers in Uruguay (both groups “professionals, scientists and intellectuals” and “technicians and associate professionals” of the International Standard Classification of Occupations) indicates that, on average, professionals and technicians had an hourly income 28.8% and 21.8% higher than that of teachers in 2006 and 2012 respectively (INEEd, 2014).

If hours of work outside the workplace are considered (as seen previously, teachers engage more often in non-paid work activities, Table 5.9) as well as working weeks per year (teachers tend to have fewer weeks of work), the gap in favour of professionals and technicians increases to 43% in 2012 (INEEd, 2014). The analysis also shows that teacher salaries are competitive in the early stages of the career but their attractiveness decreases with years of experience.

Hence, while the gap has been reduced in recent years, the relative salaries of public teachers remain low. Low salaries have clear detrimental effects on the motivation levels of teachers and limit considerably the ability of the system to attract high-quality entrants and more males into the profession (OECD, 2005). In Uruguay, they also lead teachers to accumulate a high number of teaching hours and several jobs.

Teacher compensation provides for some differentiated incentives

While the teaching career structure in Uruguay is flat and essentially based on seniority, there are some elements which seek to produce some differentiated incentives. With the objective of addressing the problem of teacher absenteeism, there is a bonus that rewards satisfactory attendance (i.e. not missing a class with no justification), which reaches 15% of the basic salary if there are no non-justified absences in a three-month period. In order to incentivise teachers to obtain teaching qualifications in secondary education, there is an extra compensation of 7.5% of the basic salary for holding such qualifications. Given the little progress with the proportion of qualified teachers in secondary education (see Figure 5.1), however, this incentive might not be strong enough to lead teachers to complete their teaching qualifications.

A number of incentives reward difficult circumstances for teaching. Primary teachers in *Aprender* schools receive an extra compensation for holding a monthly co-ordination meeting but this might also reward the fact that these operate in vulnerable contexts. In primary full-time schools, most of which are located in disadvantaged contexts, teacher compensation for the 40-hour working load takes into account 2.5 hours of co-ordination meetings. There is also an extra compensation for teachers working in special education and rural contexts including agricultural schools who have a workload that exceeds 20 hours. Hourly compensation higher than in common schools is provided to teachers in special education schools, teachers in rural schools, teachers in rural schools with a single teacher and teachers in rural schools in remote and challenging locations. These extra compensations are also made available to teachers in programmes such as the “Community Teachers Programme” and the “CEIBAL Plan”.

Despite the value of providing incentives for different types of responsibilities considered to be more difficult such as working with rural or vulnerable school populations, it is important that these not constitute a form of keeping a low salary base, but instead be inserted in a proper career structure that rewards such extra responsibilities (UNESCO, 2014).

Initial teacher education has a number of positive features

Initial teacher education has a long tradition

In Uruguay, there is a long tradition of initial teacher education. Uruguay together with other Southern Cone countries such as Argentina and Chile developed early on an education system that valued the role of teachers and made it a requirement that at least primary teachers should be fully trained. Thus the first Normal School for the preparation of teachers

was established in the mid-19th century and by the end of the 20th century the country had ensured that all primary teachers were trained at the *Institutos de Formación Docente* (IFD, Teacher Education Institutes, formerly Normal Schools). The preparation of secondary teachers was also institutionalised with the establishment of the *Instituto Profesional Artigas* (Artigas Professional Institute) in 1951 in Montevideo. It was conceived as a highly selective institution with a strong emphasis on content knowledge and educational theory, and included practicum experiences from the second year on through a four-year course of studies. An innovation in the late 1990s was the establishment of a set of six secondary teacher education institutions outside of the city of Montevideo – the Regional Centres for Teachers (*Centros Regionales de Profesores*, CERP) – in order to widen the access to teacher preparation (Vaillant, 2004). Their purpose was also to increase the number of qualified teachers for an expanding secondary system. The growth of initial teacher education relied greatly on the decentralisation of the supply of programmes. Both the IFDs and the CERPs are located in different regions of the country turning initial teacher education into one of the most geographically accessible tertiary education choices.

A positive development has been the creation in 2008 of the “National System of Teacher Education”, with the introduction of a common curriculum for teacher education in the country. This has brought greater coherence to programmes across institutions and had the benefit of significantly reducing the fragmentation of different curricula in the system (including in the same institutions).

Preparation for pre-primary teaching is on par with preparation for primary education teaching

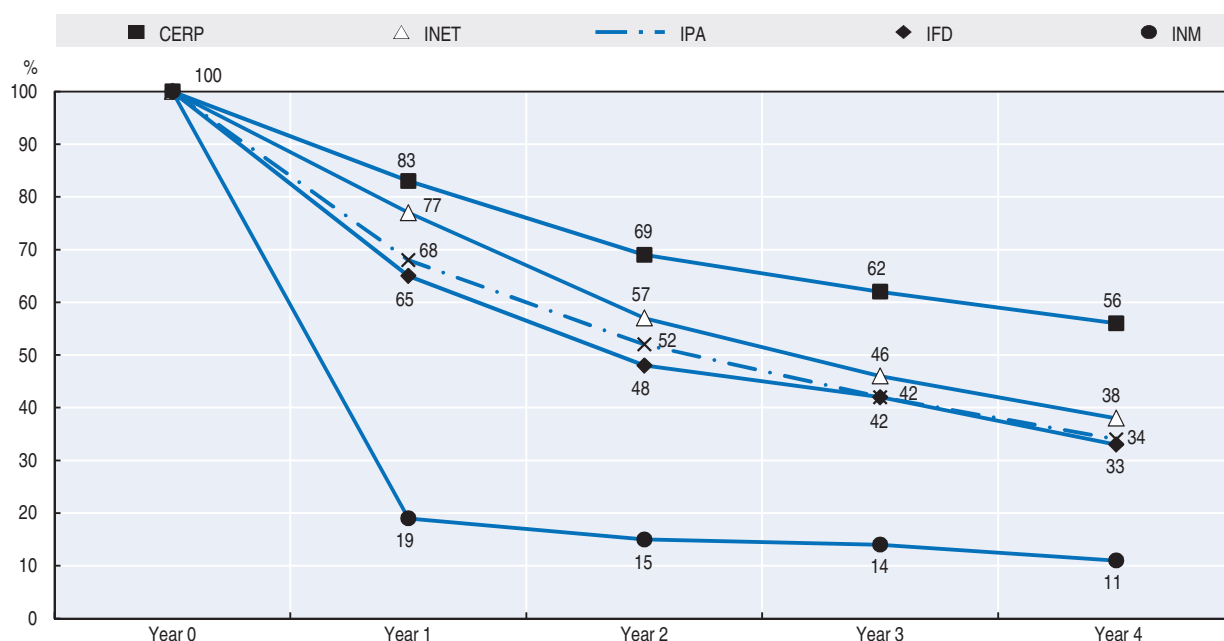
The joint preparation of early childhood, pre-primary and primary education teachers at the IFDs constitutes an interesting and important practice. In Latin America pre-school teacher preparation has been slow to develop and only recently is it being made compulsory for pre-school educators. By having a programme which brings together the preparation of pre-school and primary teachers, Uruguay offers a model of teacher preparation that allows teachers to understand the continuum between pre-school (three to five years) and the early stages of school. This preparation is accomplished through a common core of professional subjects offered in the first year of studies, after which candidates may select to specialise in pre-school or primary education teaching. An additional advantage of this form of preparation is that it ensures that both types of teachers are equally recognised as professionals by the education system.

The preparation of *maestros* as primary teachers has a longstanding reputation and is recognised as a very effective teacher education system by many stakeholders. Mancebo (n.d.) notes that its strength lies in preparing teachers to be “able to face the multiple challenges of primary education, with appropriate technical capacities, clear professional rules and a clear idea about education being their central remit”. Also important is the way in which the whole curriculum is linked to practical school experiences (Mancebo, 2006), which are given considerable importance. For this purpose specific schools (“practice schools”) are designated as practicum sites and teacher mentors in charge of supervision receive special preparation for this. As a result, practical experiences in primary teacher education are systematically organised in dedicated schools with trained mentors who are compensated for this specific function.

The preparation for secondary education teachers is diversified and accounts for the specific needs of technical-professional programmes

As noted earlier, a positive policy development in the mid-1990s was to broaden the scope of secondary teacher preparation through the establishment of the Regional Centres for Teachers (CERPs) and to establish them in six locations throughout the country. CERPs brought an innovative structure based on full-time attendance (including dormitories for students) and a carefully designed curriculum (Vaillant, 2004). The 2007 teacher census data showed the CERPs contributing 22.4% of secondary teachers compared to 53.5% of those trained at the IPA (ANEP, 2008). Also, the CERP institutions seem to retain over the four years of study a larger proportion of teacher candidates than do other institutions of teacher education (see Figure 5.7).

Figure 5.7. **Stay rates in teacher education programmes for 2008 student cohort, by type of institution**



Note: Stay rates provide the proportion of students who started the programme in Year 0 and are still enrolled in the programme in the following four years. CERP: *Centros Regionales de Profesores* (Regional Centres for Teachers); INET: *Instituto Normal de Enseñanza Técnica* (Normal Institute of Technical Education); IPA: *Instituto Profesional Artigas* (Artigas Professional Institute); IFD: *Institutos de Formación Docente* (Teacher Education Institutes); INM: *Instituto Normal de Montevideo* (Normal Institute of Montevideo). Data are based on a study commissioned by the Teacher Training Council (CFE) which analysed two cohorts of students who started their teacher education studies in 2005 and 2008. The study, carried out in 2012, was based on surveys of students belonging to the two cohorts. The study covered nine teacher education institutions: 2 CERPs (Suroeste, Litoral); INET; IPA; INM; and 4 IFDs (Durazno, Melo, Pando and Paysandú). The study surveyed 1 005 students of the 4 224 who started their studies in 2008.

Source: CIFRA (2012), *Factores que Influyen en la Duración de las Carreras de Formación Docente* (Factors which Influence Time to Graduation in Teacher Education Programmes), www.cfe.edu.uy/index.php/transparencia-activa/26-institucional/institucional/495-factores-que-influyen-en-la-duracion-de-las-carreras-de-formacion-docente.

Another strength of the Uruguayan teacher education system is that it offers dedicated and specialised pre-service preparation for teaching in technical secondary schools, which is not the case in other Latin American countries such as Chile. Programmes have a four-year duration and provide pedagogical preparation as in general education, therefore improving the status of teaching in technical-professional programmes. Future teachers in secondary technical-professional programmes are prepared at the *Instituto Normal de Enseñanza Técnica*

(Normal Institute of Technical Education) in Montevideo, while preparation in other parts of the country is increasingly being provided at regional campuses of the Technological University (*Universidad Tecnológica*, UTEC). The latter, however, does not offer initial teacher education but rather technological degrees, whose disciplinary preparation fits the supply of technical and professional programmes in secondary education.

There is some financial support to retain students in initial teacher education

Although limited in coverage, it is commendable that the government is providing scholarships to stimulate retention of teacher candidates in teacher education programmes. As elaborated below, a large proportion of students drop out of initial teacher education programmes or take very long to complete their studies. The government created Uruguay Studies (*Uruguay Estudia*) scholarships targeted at teacher education students who are close to completing their studies (fewer than ten and five courses to be passed in primary education preparation and secondary education preparation respectively). In 2012, 600 students received grants in the context of this programme (about 3% of all enrolled students). In preparation for primary education teaching, the Julio Castro scholarship was also created to incentivise talented secondary graduates to enrol in teacher education. In 2014, 1 061 students received scholarships in the context of this programme, representing 15% of students enrolled in primary teacher education.

Teachers have some opportunities to diversify their roles at schools

A positive feature of the teaching profession in Uruguay is the opportunity for horizontal differentiation in functions performed at school. This is formalised in specialised roles such as teacher leader (a range of administrative and pedagogical tasks in support of school leadership), pedagogical counsellor teacher (co-ordination role among teachers) and bibliographic counsellor teacher (support school libraries). Diversification is also driven by the specialised functions some teaching staff perform in the context of specific education programmes. Examples include community teachers, CEIBAL support teachers, pedagogical facilitator teachers (Educational Commitment Programme) and tutor teachers (Tutorials Project). These roles, which do not necessarily involve differentiated pay but instead release time from classroom teaching, provide more opportunities and recognition for teachers and meet school needs (OECD, 2005).

Teacher appraisal is established

A positive aspect of the teaching career in Uruguay is that teacher appraisal is established even if it has rather limited purposes – ranking teachers in view of allocating posts and teaching hours (see below). The OECD review team formed the impression that the principle that teachers are appraised is moderately valued and accepted among teachers. The approach to teacher appraisal has some valuable aspects. First, both in the cases of an appraisal conducted by inspectors and school leaders, teachers are given an opportunity to establish a professional dialogue about their practices. While this depends on the approach by the specific inspector or the school leader, teachers are provided an opportunity to learn about, reflect on, and improve their practice in the specific school context in which they teach. Teacher appraisal also grants them the opportunity to identify areas for improvement. Second, albeit limited, the teacher statute provides some guidance in terms of the aspects teacher appraisal should cover. This contributes to ensuring some key areas of teachers' practice are covered and gives some consistency to the appraisals across inspectors and

school leaders. Third, a key strength of teacher appraisal in Uruguay is that the process typically includes assessing actual teaching practices in the classroom. While inspectors and school principals vary in their approaches to teacher appraisal, it appears that they typically operate an approach whereby they observe the classroom practice of most of the teachers with a certain periodicity (even if this occurs less in secondary education). Fourth, teacher appraisal processes are school-based and therefore take good account of the context faced by each teacher.

There are opportunities for professional development

As described in the previous section, there is a range of in-service professional development activities to which teachers have free access. Particularly important in this respect is the contribution of the Institute for Advanced and Higher Studies (*Instituto de Perfeccionamiento y Estudios Superiores*), an institution dedicated to teacher professional development which also carries out research and outreach activities. It offers short courses as well as post-graduate diplomas and master's level courses. It is also important to note the efforts of regional campuses to locally provide professional development activities to teachers in technical-professional secondary education.

A recent development that offers new opportunities for school-based professional development is the establishment of “co-ordination hours” for teachers to co-ordinate school activities. These exist in *Aprender* schools, primary full-time schools and secondary schools. While they have the potential to facilitate teacher collaboration and mutual learning and to engage teachers in professional development activities, the impression gained by the OECD review team during its visit is that, instead, they tend to be dominated by administrative issues.

Challenges

There is currently no shared understanding of what constitutes good quality teaching

The Uruguayan education system lacks a national framework of teacher competencies. There is no clear and concise statement or profile of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do. At the national level, there are no uniform performance criteria or reference frameworks which can inform teacher preparation programmes or against which teachers can be appraised. A framework of teacher competencies is an essential mechanism for clarifying expectations of what systems of teacher education and professional development should aim to achieve, offering the credible reference for making judgments about teacher competence, guiding teacher professional development, selecting teachers and providing the basis for career advancement. A clear, well-structured and widely supported framework of teaching competencies (or teaching standards) is a powerful tool for aligning the various elements involved in developing teachers' knowledge and skills (OECD, 2005). It is also essential to guide any fair and effective system of teacher appraisal, given the need to have a common reference of what counts as accomplished teaching. The lack of such a framework weakens the capacity for the system to effectively appraise teachers. It is fundamental that all actors have a shared understanding of high quality teaching and the level of performance that can be achieved by the most effective teachers (OECD, 2005).

A competency framework usually is based on an agreed set of observable teacher actions related to classroom and non-classroom professional responsibilities that provide evidence of teaching quality. While there are expressions of competence that seem narrow

and limited to small behaviours considered to be effective, there are also broader ways of understanding competence that encompass what is expected of a teacher. Thus Pantic and Wubbels (2010) describe these as “inclusive of knowledge and understanding, skills and abilities, and teachers’ beliefs and moral values”. More specifically, they may be described as an “integrated set of personal characteristics, knowledge, skills and attitudes that are needed for effective performance in various teaching contexts” (Stoof et al., 2002).

In this respect, Uruguay has fallen behind some countries in Latin America that have developed frameworks of teacher competencies (e.g. Chile and Peru) which are broad in their descriptions but focused on what teachers know and are able to do. These are intended to orient teacher evaluation as well as initial teacher education and professional development activities (see: Ministry of Education of Chile, 2008; Ministry of Education of Peru, 2012).

There are some challenges to the preparation of teachers

Completion rates in initial teacher education are very low

While there were some enrolment fluctuations in teacher education in recent years (see Figure 5.3), the insufficient number of graduates arises mostly as the result of the very low rates of completion in initial teacher education. According to a study carried out with two cohorts of prospective teachers (2005 and 2008), four out of ten future teachers enrolled in teacher education programmes drop out before the end of their first year of studies (CIFRA, 2012). Figure 5.7 presents the progression rates of students over the four years of study at IPA, INET, INM, two CERPs and four IFDs (all outside of Montevideo) based on this study. The situation is more problematic in Montevideo than in the rest of the country. The CERPs are the institutions which achieve the greatest retention and graduation rates: four years after the initial enrolment, 38% of the students continue their studies while 17% completed them. The equivalent rates for IFDs, located in the interior and offering mostly preparation for primary education, are 18% and 16%. IPA achieves a proportion of 30% of students who continue their studies and of 3% who completed them. In INET, in turn, the equivalent figures are 37% and 1% respectively. Finally, the most critical situation is observed in INM where the proportion of students continuing their studies is only 11% and the proportion of those who completed the programme is only 1% (INEEd, 2014). According to this study, out of 100 students who enrolled in 2008, 37 did not pass any course, 26 dropped out after passing some courses, 29 were still studying and only 8 graduated from the programme (INEEd, 2014).

These low rates of retention and completion appear related to a combination of factors including the high proportion of students who work while they study (see Table 5.6), the significant number of teacher candidates who enter initial teacher education a number of years after they completed secondary education, what seems to be an overloaded curriculum (see below) and the availability of teaching jobs in secondary education with no teaching degree required. These make it difficult for *de facto* part-time students to keep up with the work required (CIFRA, 2012; INEEEd, 2014).

Initial teacher education programmes might not be adapted to their student population

While some of the reasons behind the low completion rates can be linked to commitment and personal situations, there is also the possibility of a strong “institutional” effect at work, which does not seem to have been sufficiently explored. On the whole it is difficult to assess precisely how the different institutions charged with teacher education

contribute to the high dropout and lengthy completion rates. There seem to be extra-institutional reasons for this. For example, one explanation is that teacher education students tend not to arrive straight out from school, but are older and may have to work and study at the same time. There is also the impression among teacher educators that the students enrolled are not really interested in teaching as a profession. On the other hand, it would seem that initial teacher institutions have not organised their programmes – in terms of curriculum requirements and teaching strategies – in such a way they facilitate the success of the type of student population they have. Views collected from two cohorts of teacher education students on the requirements of the curriculum, show dissatisfaction with the teacher education curriculum in terms of its content overload (see Table 5.12).

Table 5.12. Student perceptions on the adequacy of the weekly workload in teacher education programmes for 2005 and 2008 student cohorts, by type of institution

The required workload is:	INET		INM		IFD		IPA		CERP	
	2005	2008	2005	2008	2005	2008	2005	2008	2005	2008
Very heavy (difficult to find the time it requires)	..	56	67	75	41	51	35	61	35	38
Adequately heavy	..	11	13	8	26	10	25	14	21	13
Adequately light	..	29	17	14	27	35	38	23	33	44
Does not know / does not answer	..	4	2	3	7	5	3	2	11	5

..: Not available.

Note: CERP: Centros Regionales de Profesores (Regional Centres for Teachers); INET: Instituto Normal de Enseñanza Técnica (Normal Institute of Technical Education); IPA: Instituto Profesional Artigas (Artigas Professional Institute); IFD: Institutos de Formación Docente (Teacher Education Institutes); INM: Instituto Normal de Montevideo (Normal Institute of Montevideo). Data are based on a study commissioned by the Teacher Training Council (CFE) which analysed two cohorts of students who started their teacher education studies in 2005 and 2008. The study, carried out in 2012, was based on surveys of students belonging to the two cohorts. The study covered nine teacher education institutions: 2 CERPs (Suroeste, Litoral); INET; IPA; INM; and 4 IFDs (Durazno, Melo, Pando and Paysandú). The study surveyed 540 students of the 3 268 students who started their studies in 2005 and 1 005 students of the 4 224 who started their studies in 2008.

Source: CIFRA (2012), *Factores que Influyen en la Duración de las Carreras de Formación Docente* (Factors which Influence Time to Graduation in Teacher Education Programmes), www.cfe.edu.uy/index.php/transparencia-activa/26-institucional/institucional/495-factores-que-influyen-en-la-duracion-de-las-carreras-de-formacion-docente.

The expressed dissatisfaction, which is higher in teacher candidates at the Instituto Profesional Artigas (IPA) and the Normal Institute of Montevideo (INM) may not be so much related to the curriculum as such (given that, as of 2008, it is common for all teacher education institutions) but to the way in which it is enacted. In other words, the highly academic tradition of the IPA may be playing against the enactment of a curriculum that should be more in line with being able to teach the subject than with preparing subject specialists. Perhaps the difference in the perception of teacher candidates at the Regional Centres for Teachers (CERPs) may be related to the original remit of these institutions as specifically focused on the preparation of teachers, meaning that their teacher education practices should be given more attention. This highlights the importance of adapting teacher education programmes to their specific student population.

There is no external evaluation and accreditation of initial teacher education programmes

In Uruguay, there is no accreditation of tertiary education programmes in public institutions. As a result, there is no formal external evaluation of teacher education programmes and these do not need a quality-based accreditation process to operate. The

consequence is that there is no external challenge to the organisation of initial teacher education programmes and no incentives to continuously improve the quality of programmes. At the same time, there are no mechanisms to remove initial teacher education programmes of low quality or with inefficient delivery.

Some aspects to the organisation of teacher education programmes are problematic

A number of aspects to the organisation of teacher education programmes require rethinking. First, teachers seem to receive little preparation for special needs in mainstream schools, multi-year teaching (i.e. simultaneously teaching students who are in different school years) and teaching in rural schools. The regular preparation of primary and secondary teachers does not seem to include special training to deal with special needs in mainstream classes, or to provide special strategies for teaching in multi-year classes. Second, the organisation of studies for secondary teacher preparation is too specialised. Most programmes prepare teacher candidates to teach one specific discipline (e.g. history, mathematics) instead of preparing candidates to teach disciplines within related areas (e.g. history and geography; mathematics and physics). This exacerbates the problem for teachers to find enough teaching hours in the same school (i.e. if teachers were trained to teach both mathematics and physics, they could have more teaching hours at the same school). Finally, there are no special courses or programmes for non-qualified teachers in secondary education, i.e. programmes which would recognise the experience of such teachers, provide flexible learning settings, or offer minimum pedagogical preparation. This is surprising in a context of a great proportion of non-qualified teachers in secondary education.

There are concerns about teacher quality

As described above, there are serious concerns about the lack of qualifications of teachers, particularly in secondary education. In 2014, the proportion of non-qualified teachers was about 42% and 31% in lower secondary and upper secondary general programmes respectively (see Figure 5.1) while, in 2007, the proportion of non-qualified teachers in technical-professional secondary programmes was about 55%. As documented earlier, the lack of teacher qualifications in secondary education seems to be more serious in public schools, outside Montevideo and in very disadvantaged schools. This is likely to affect teacher quality.

This is confirmed by perceptions of school principals in secondary education. According to PISA 2012, the percentage of 15-year-old students in schools whose principals reported that a lack of qualified teachers hindered student learning “to some extent” or “a lot” stood at 34%, 26%, 13% and 37% in mathematics, science, language of instruction and “other subjects” respectively against OECD averages of 17%, 17%, 9% and 21% respectively (Table IV.3.5, OECD, 2013a). The teacher shortage index that is derived from combining school principals’ shortage perceptions across these four areas stood at 0.35 for Uruguay against an OECD average of -0.03 (Argentina: -0.10; Brazil: 0.19; Chile: 0.62; Colombia: 0.67; Costa Rica: -0.01; Mexico: 0.53; Peru: 0.62; Portugal: -0.80; Spain: -0.73; higher values indicate greater teacher shortage) (Table IV.3.10, OECD, 2013a). As shown in Table 5.13, perceptions of teacher shortage in Uruguay’s secondary schools are greater in public schools, technical-professional programmes, outside Montevideo and in schools located in the most unfavourable contexts. Overall, however, the perception of teacher shortages has declined between 2003 and 2012.

The lack of sufficient numbers of qualified teachers is a great concern to cover needs resulting from enrolment expansion in pre-primary, primary and secondary education.

Table 5.13. **Teacher shortage index based on perceptions by school principals provided as part of questionnaires for PISA, 2003 and 2012**

	2012	2003
By type of school		
Total	0.35	0.55
Public schools	0.46	0.72
Private secondary schools	-0.33	-0.50
Public secondary schools (general programmes)	0.41	0.72
Public technical schools (technical-professional programmes)	0.62	0.71
Difference private-public	-0.79 ¹	-1.21 ¹
Difference technical-professional – general programmes (public)	0.21	-0.01
By region		
Montevideo	0.13	0.39
Rest of the country	0.50	0.70
Difference Montevideo – rest of the country	-0.37 ¹	-0.31 ¹
By socio-economic context of the school		
Very unfavourable	1.04	0.34
Unfavourable	0.53	0.74
Medium	0.28	0.70
Favourable	0.39	0.76
Very favourable	-0.51	-0.52
Difference very favourable – very unfavourable	-1.55 ¹	-0.86 ¹

1. means that the difference is significant at 95% confidence level. Standard errors of the estimates are available from the original source.

Note: Based on compiled data from OECD PISA, 2003 and 2012. PISA provides information about the performance of 15-year-olds in reading, mathematics and science as well as comparative insights about the students' backgrounds, schools and the learning environment across the participating countries. The teacher shortage index is based on the perceptions of the principals of the schools attended by the 15-year-olds who took the PISA assessment and therefore refer to lower and upper secondary education. School principals are asked about the extent to which learning at their school is hindered by a lack of qualified teachers in four areas (mathematics, science, language of instruction and other subjects). The teacher shortage index derives from combining school principals' shortage perceptions across the four areas. Higher values of the index of teacher shortage indicate greater incidence of teacher shortage.

Source: INEED (2015), *OECD Review of Policies to Improve the Effectiveness of Resource Use in Schools: Country Background Report for Uruguay*, www.oecd.org/education/schoolresourcesreview.htm.

According to analysis undertaken by INEED, the current annual rate of graduates leaving initial teacher education is insufficient to both cover annual teacher departures from primary education and to increase the proportion of qualified teachers in secondary education (INEED, 2014). It is estimated that both primary and secondary teacher education would each need to provide about 1 000 graduates per year to replace teachers who leave the system, respond to new demands (e.g. expansion of secondary education, expansion of full-time schools in primary education, special programmes such as community teachers) and reduce the lack of qualified teachers in secondary education. As displayed in Figure 5.3, the annual number of graduates is considerably below this target at both education levels. The insufficient number of new primary teachers affects the expansion of “full-time schools” and particularly the staffing of schools in Montevideo. In addition, these low numbers affect the provision of teachers for rural and multi-grade schools.

There are strong indications of an inequitable distribution of teachers across schools

In Uruguay, there are indications of an inequitable distribution of teachers across schools, at least at the secondary level. According to reports from principals for PISA 2012, in schools attended by 15-year-olds, the lack of teacher qualifications is significantly greater in very unfavourable to medium schools (compared to favourable and very favourable schools)

and outside Montevideo (see Table 5.5). Similarly, there are strong indications that, in schools attended by 15-year-olds, the likelihood of teacher shortages (as perceived by school principals) is considerably higher in both socio-economically disadvantaged schools and in schools not located in a large city (over than 100 000 people) (Table IV.3.11, OECD, 2013a).

These indications are not surprising because: i) the teacher allocation system is based on the school choice of individual teachers who are ranked on the basis of seniority and appraisal results; and ii) there are limited incentives to teach in disadvantaged contexts.

Nonetheless, there are commendable efforts to compensate for this inequitable distribution of schools across teachers. For instance, in primary education, average class size is smaller for the most disadvantaged schools – in 2013, average class size was about 22 for quintile 1 schools while it stood at about 24 for quintile 5 schools (INEEd, 2015). This results from the introduction of equity programmes such as *Aprender* schools or Community Teachers, which provide extra teacher resources to disadvantaged schools (see Chapter 2). Similarly, in secondary schools, according to reports by school principals for PISA 2012, the student-teacher ratio was more favourable in socio-economically disadvantaged schools (15.5) than in socio-economically average schools (16.9) (Table IV.3.9, OECD, 2013a).

There is a limited conception of teacher employment

The conception of teacher employment in Uruguay, whereby basic compensation is associated essentially to the teacher's teaching load, is a source of concern. In combination with both a low base salary (as is the case in Uruguay) and little guarantee of having a full teaching load (especially in secondary education), remuneration on the basis of the teaching load has the potential to turn the teaching profession into a part-time job that encourages teachers to teach excessively (in one or more schools), take on an additional job, or look for additional sources of income in or outside the school. This leads some teachers in Uruguay to have heavy teaching loads, often in several schools, and others to have a second job outside education.

A heavy teaching load or a job in addition to teaching leaves little room for teachers to engage in other activities at the school such as collaboration with colleagues, reflection on own practices, mentoring of less experienced teachers, communication with parents and professional development. This is compounded by the fact that teachers are not expected to stay on the school premises beyond their teaching time, which also limits their engagement with students. Another key question is the limited time teachers might have for the preparation of their classes. Those with a heavy teaching load or with an extra job might find it challenging to prepare thoroughly their classes. In addition, working in several schools might generate higher rates of teacher absenteeism. Also, less experienced teachers may also find it more difficult to be given the option of taking on higher teaching loads (since these are preferably given to more experienced teachers, as a result of the system to allocate teaching hours), which in turn lowers their income and limits the attractiveness of their job. In order to find all the necessary hours to fill a full load (of 20, 40 or 48 hours) at the same school, teachers also have strong incentives to take on non-teaching roles such as teacher leader, pedagogical counsellor teacher and bibliographic counsellor teacher.

There is no reason why other tasks performed by teachers such as lesson preparation, meeting parents, marking students' work, collaborative work with colleagues and administrative work should not be formally recognised by teachers' pay. This is likely to be a great source of dissatisfaction among teachers.

A significant proportion of teachers work in more than one school

A conception of employment essentially based on teaching hours, a low base salary and a complex system of allocating teaching hours (see below) lead many teachers to work in more than one school. For example, all of the classroom teachers in a primary school we visited were working in two schools. This situation is more acute in secondary education where the system to allocate teaching hours leads many teachers to work in two schools or more to reach their allowed 48 hours per week. Table 5.14 shows that, in 2013 in public secondary general programmes, almost 20% of tenured teachers and about 30% of interim teachers work in more than one school. This seems to reflect an improvement of the situation vis-à-vis 2007 (see Table 5.14).

Table 5.14. Number of schools at which teachers work by type of teaching post, public secondary education (general programmes), 2013

	All teachers		Tenured teachers		Interim teachers	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
All teachers	18 429	100	9 179	100	9 250	100
Works in one school	13 846	75.1	7 381	80.4	6 465	69.9
Works in two schools	3 663	19.9	1 559	17.0	2 104	22.8
Works in three schools or more	920	5.0	239	2.6	674	7.3

Source: IDB (2015), *Nota Sectorial de Educación 2015-2018 Uruguay (con énfasis en la educación media)* [Education Sectorial Note 2015-18 Uruguay (with emphasis on secondary education)], Inter-American Development Bank.

Teacher recruitment and deployment are highly inefficient

The Uruguayan education system has a complex and rather inefficient system of teacher recruitment and deployment. First, the fully centralised approach (with no involvement from individual schools) raises concerns about whether schools have the teachers that fit their particular needs. By not allowing individual schools to have an active part in the recruitment of teachers, it is difficult to adequately match schools' specific needs to the competencies of individual teachers. The process of teacher selection is highly impersonal and does not involve the direct contact with the hiring school, which might make it more difficult for teachers to build a sense of commitment to the schools where they are appointed - or for the schools to build a sense of commitment to them.

Second, the selection processes might be based in limited criteria that might bear little relationship to the qualities needed to be an effective teacher. Access to tenured posts/hours and non-tenured positions/hours is organised through transparent processes with clear rules. There is a clear concern for both ensuring the objectivity of the selection criteria and leaving no room for favouritism in the process. To a great extent this explains the total absence from school-level players in the teacher recruitment process. Both the access to tenure and to non-tenured positions gives significant weight to seniority. At the same time, in both processes, the quality of the teacher's work receives good attention through formal annual teacher appraisal (in both the teacher registry for interim teachers and the competition to access a tenured post/hours) and an examination (*oposición*) to assess the competencies of teachers (in the competition to access a tenured post/hours). However, annual teacher appraisal is highly influenced by seniority. Not only it concerns 20% of the score (see above) but there is the perception that inspectors weigh the teacher's seniority considerably in their appraisal of the work of the teacher. Overall, it is not clear whether selection processes give enough weight to characteristics which are harder to

measure – enthusiasm, commitment and sensitivity to student needs – but which may be more directly related to the quality of teaching and learning than the traditional emphases on qualifications and years of experience.

Third, the recruitment and deployment of teachers raise equity concerns. As a result of the processes established (as explained above), teachers with greater seniority and very good records of quality teaching will be best positioned in both the registry of interim teachers (which defines priority access to non-tenured posts/hours) and the competitions to reach tenure. Since they then express their preferences for the schools at which to teach, more experienced and higher quality teachers are more likely to end up teaching at higher prestige, more advantaged and urban schools. As seen above, there is evidence to suggest that the current teacher allocation system leads to an inequitable distribution of teachers across schools. This also implies that beginning teachers are more likely to start their career in the most difficult school contexts.

Fourth, the teacher allocation system generates a great degree of instability both in schools and among teachers, particularly in secondary schools. For primary teachers the system provides greater stability as once tenured is obtained at a school (with a 20- or 40-hour teaching load), the teacher may remain there for as long as he or she chooses to. However, for secondary teachers the situation is much more complex as they must bid every year for hours available in the school in which they wish to teach. At the same time, each year each school must open its teaching hours for competition through the reallocation system, requiring all of its tenured teachers to reapply.

The annual reopening of the allocation of all teaching hours in secondary education causes instability both for the school, as it faces difficulties in building a stable teaching body upon which to ensure a productive school operation, but also for the teachers who find themselves in a continuous state of uncertainty. In 2007, there seemed to be a high level of teacher rotation across schools. The proportion of teachers with at most two years of seniority at their school was 50.8%, 52.4% and 36.4% in primary, general secondary, and technical-professional secondary education respectively (ANEP-CODICEN, 2008). Given the rules associated to the teacher allocation system, teacher rotation tends to have greater incidence in disadvantaged schools (Filgueira and Lamas, 2005). The annual allocation of teaching hours also leads to delays in the placement of some teachers at the beginning of the school year sometimes for several months (Filgueira and Lamas, 2005). According to Filgueira and Lamas (2005), a number of effects can be identified in secondary schools as the result of the annual allocation of teaching hours: lack of institutional commitment of teachers; scarce knowledge of colleagues and students; difficulty to establish a school development plan; and little collective management of the school.

Secondary teachers have voiced concerns about the allocation system. They argue that the system does not facilitate the collaboration among teachers, prevents teachers from jointly contributing to school projects and makes it difficult to develop a common ethos in the school (INEEd, 2014). As seen previously, the concept of teacher employment on the basis of teaching hours together with a system based on the allocation of teaching hours, implies that a good proportion of teachers work in more than one school, increasing their sense of instability and reducing the overall attractiveness of the profession.

Fifth, the system involves high administrative costs. The organisation on an annual basis brings great pressure to the central education administration and the complexity of the system requires considerable resources. In addition, it has considerable administrative

implications in individual schools as several new teachers need to be received and timetables need to be rearranged every year.

Some teachers and their representatives defend the allocation system preserves the freedom of teachers to select the schools in which they want to teach. At the same time, by not requiring them to sign multi-year contracts at a given school, they deem that they do not remain tied to such school. Teachers also appreciate the transparency of the process. It is clear that the current system of teacher allocation is driven mostly by teachers' group interests and gives less prominence to the adequate matching between the needs of individual schools and the skills and competencies of individual teachers.

Teacher compensation is unstructured and working conditions uneven

The absence of a career structure limits the ability to provide recognition to teachers

Currently, in Uruguay, there is no career structure for teachers. There is a unique career stage with a single salary scale. Minor pay differentiation is achieved through a small number of salary allowances (e.g. bonus for satisfactory attendance; allowances for co-ordination meetings). Roles involving promotion are limited to school principal, inspector or teacher leader all of which involve leaving the classroom. Hence, within a teaching role there are no opportunities for promotion, greater recognition and more responsibility. There are no career steps in teacher development (e.g. beginning; classroom teacher; experienced teacher), which would permit a better match between teacher competence and skills and the tasks to be performed at schools (e.g. mentor teacher; co-ordinator of professional development). The absence of a career structure also prevents the system from providing the recognition of experience and advanced teaching skills with a formal position and additional compensation. Advancement in the salary scale is mostly on the basis of seniority which runs the risk of not conveying the important message that the guiding principle for career advancement should merit.

Reaching tenured status is the greatest incentive for a teacher to remain in the profession as it ensures a secure job, regular teaching responsibilities, stable income and social security benefits (IDB, 2015). On the other hand, not having yet reached tenured status may be a disincentive for regular attendance. There are high rates of teacher absenteeism in secondary public schools where calculations suggest a yearly 13.9% of non-taught lessons (IDB, 2015). High rates of teacher absenteeism have prompted an incentive to reward those teachers who attend regularly, but without dealing with the more likely causes of the problem.

Low salaries remain the major source of dissatisfaction

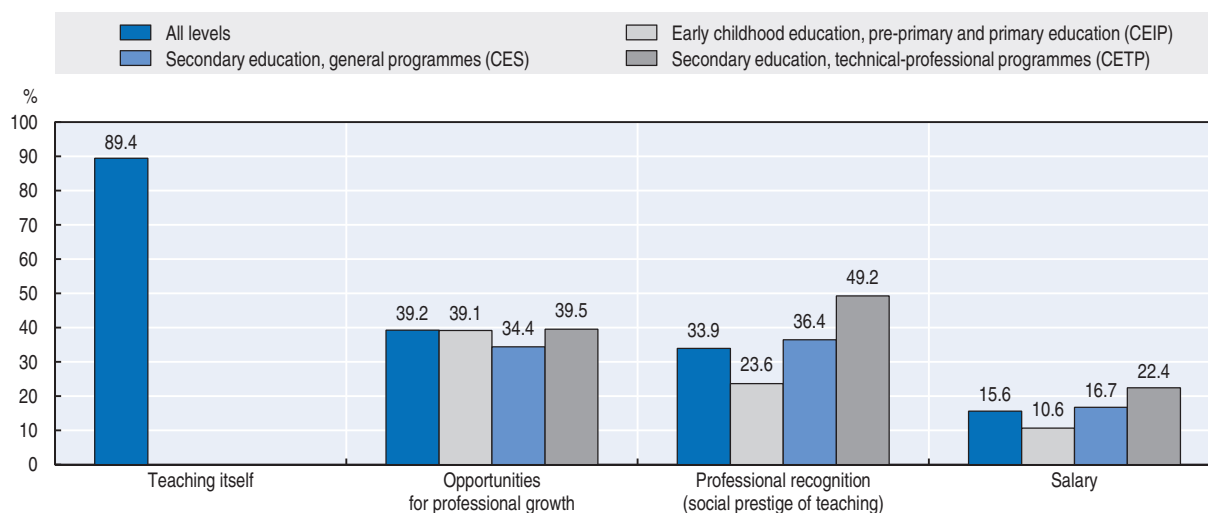
Despite recent increases, salaries remain a source of dissatisfaction for teachers. According to TERCE (organised in 2013), the proportion of Uruguayan primary education teachers who very much disagreed or disagreed with the statement "I am satisfied with my salary" was 92%, the highest figure of all participating countries (Argentina: 78%; Brazil: 72%; Chile: 56%; Colombia: 48%; Mexico: 76%; Peru: 70%) (Weinstein, forthcoming). These unsatisfactory salary conditions cause teachers to seek supplementary employment in schools or other remunerated activities (see also OECD, 2016).

Mancebo (2006) summarised the issues affecting primary education teachers as follows: low remunerations that do not attract good prospective teachers, a teaching progression based only on years of service and lack of incentives to attract more experienced teachers to

difficult or vulnerable schools. In his study of teachers in four Latin American countries, Tenti-Fanfani (2005) asked teachers about their degree of satisfaction with teaching itself as well as with the conditions under which teaching takes place. Uruguayan teachers were those who showed the highest degree of satisfaction with teaching as a task, but much less satisfaction with their school working contexts. A very similar situation was found by the National Teacher Census (ANEP, 2007): great valuation of their profession as teachers and of teaching as such but also much dissatisfaction with their working conditions, especially salaries (see Figure 5.8).

Figure 5.8. **Degree of satisfaction of teachers across selected professional aspects, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007**

Proportion of teachers who are “very satisfied” or “satisfied” with the following professional aspects:



Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP). “All levels” include teachers working in teacher education institutions. Teachers were asked “What level of satisfaction do you experience with the following professional aspects?” and were given four options: “very unsatisfied”, “unsatisfied”, “satisfied” and “very satisfied” (in addition to “does not apply”).

Source: ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística, Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, Montevideo.

As described above, the salary composition of a mid-career teacher still relies heavily on the base salary, which is low compared to other Latin American countries. Also, the salary structure does not reward additional qualifications such as post-graduate studies. Interestingly, however, the basic component of teacher salaries is higher than those of school principals (see Chapter 4).

The incentive structure has little flexibility

Little flexibility exists regarding teacher incentives. Teachers with a given seniority and qualification status are generally paid the same irrespective of their working conditions, level of shortages in the subject area, or school location. The exceptions are the additional compensation received by teachers in special schools and rural schools. This restricts the ability of schools and the system as a whole to address staffing problems (e.g. shortages of qualified teachers in specific subjects) or to give incentives for teachers to

work in disadvantaged schools. As analysed earlier, there are indications of an inequitable distribution of teachers across schools.

Working conditions of disadvantaged schools, given difficult socio-economic conditions can be particularly challenging for teachers. While these schools might receive extra teacher resources, extra benefits to individual teachers are limited to potential smaller classes and support from additional teachers provided by a special programme (e.g. Teacher + Teacher Programme). Teachers in these schools typically do not receive extra pay to compensate them for the more difficult working conditions.

There is little autonomy at the school level to manage the use of human resources

In Uruguay, there is little autonomy in the management of the teaching workforce at the school level. First, schools have no say in selecting their teachers. Recruitment and deployment processes are organised at the central level and take into account teachers' preferences for schools. There is no direct interaction between potential teachers and schools in the selection process – e.g. through interviews – which could involve the use of a more complete set of criteria to match individual applicants' characteristics to schools' specific needs. School leaders are in a better position than more remote administrative levels to assess the specific needs of the school. The absence of such interaction also hinders the identification of potential teachers to the school's educational project. Wößmann (2003) used data from the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) to examine the relationship between different aspects of centralised and school-level decision-making and student performance. He concluded that students in schools with autonomy in deciding on the hiring of teachers performed statistically significantly better in mathematics and science, as did students in schools that could determine teacher salaries themselves.

Second, schools have little autonomy to manage the teacher resources provided to them. Centralised processes not only define teaching bodies in individual schools but also their main functions (e.g. classroom teacher, teacher leader, deputy-principal, bibliographic counsellor teacher, community teacher) and allocated teaching or working hours. School leaders are not able to re-arrange functions or reallocate hours within the school. This limits their ability to adapt the use of teacher hours/functions to the school's specific needs and the student characteristics of each school. Their main area of autonomy is the definition of student groups and matching these with specific teachers. As described earlier (see Chapter 4), disadvantaged schools receive extra resources (e.g. Community Teachers Programme, Teacher + Teacher Programme, *Aprender* schools) which can be used in activities such as remedial classes for students with learning difficulties. These can be better matched to the school needs through the close interaction between school leaders and inspectors. The latter often have an influence on the extra resources a school receives and benefit from a close communication with school leaders.

Finally, school leaders have limited room to develop the competencies of their teaching bodies in agreement with school development plans. While teacher appraisal processes internal to the school are organised, they tend to have little impact on teacher professional development (see below). The latter tends to be an individual decision by the teacher and is not guided by a school development plan (see below). Teachers' workloads, possibly including teaching in more than one school, do also not facilitate the levels of engagement in professional development. Also, as seen previously, the rates of teacher rotation in schools (particularly in secondary education) make it particularly difficult for school leaders to build a learning community within the school.

Teacher performance appraisal is limited in a variety of ways

The teacher performance appraisal conducted by the inspection services has clear benefits. It provides incentives for teachers to perform well and rewards them for their performance and experience. However, there are a range of aspects that raise concerns. First, the appraisal conducted by inspectors, which is a process with high-stakes for teachers (implications for their positioning in the teacher registry, impacts competitions to obtain tenure and influences the position of tenured teachers for potential promotions), is also expected to achieve a developmental function and inform the improvement of the teacher's practices. However, it is difficult to achieve the developmental function of teacher appraisal through a high-stakes process. As explained in OECD (2013b), combining the accountability and developmental functions in a single process of teacher appraisal raises a number of challenges. When teachers are confronted with high-stakes consequences of appraisal on their career and salary, they are likely to be less inclined to reveal weak aspects of their practice and focus on their own potential for development, which in turn jeopardises the developmental function. As such, self-appraisal of teachers might be less meaningful when it is associated with a process with high stakes for teachers. While in Uruguay teacher appraisal processes which are internal to the school are common, they tend to serve mainly as an input for the annual appraisal by inspectors and seem to be less used formatively to identify professional development needs of teachers. Overall, the review team formed the impression that there is an over-emphasis on the accountability function of teacher appraisal, with less attention paid to genuine professional discussions about effective teaching. Opportunities for feedback tend to be rather limited for Uruguayan teachers. Teacher appraisal is very much dominated by its importance to obtain tenure, select the school at which to teach and improve chances for a promotion.

Second, it appears that the approach inspectors follow in the appraisal process is often mechanistic and compliance-based with a focus on assigning a score to each teacher. Appraisal criteria seem to centre on formal aspects such as punctuality rather than on actual teaching competencies (Vaillant, 2012). The appraisal criteria used are rather limited in spite of the tradition of classroom observation. This also relates to the lack of a national framework of teaching competencies (see below). For example, the evaluation form that primary education inspectors use for teacher appraisal, which is provided by CEIP, in addition to a section for general observations, only requires a mark for each of the following areas (in addition to an overall mark):

1. Teaching (Theory/Practice Relation)
 - 1.1 Planning; 1.2 Organisation; 1.3 Professional Development; 1.4 Teacher Intervention; and 1.5 Attention to individual students.
2. Learning (Management of learning)
 - 2.1 Outcomes achieved in the process; 2.2 Attitude of children to learning.
3. Links (Communication)
 - 3.1 Classroom climate; 3.2 Collaborative work; 3.3 Learning networks and communities.

In general secondary education, the teacher inspection report template covers the following main areas for inspectors' appraisal: i) activities developed by the teacher; ii) pertinence of the materials produced; iii) use of different formats for the materials; iv) development of reference spaces in the subject; v) update in ICT use; vi) adaptation of materials and classes to pedagogical and didactic guidelines; vii) collaboration with other

teachers. The template then requires an overall mark and provides sections for making a judgment on the teacher's aptitude, offer an opinion on the teacher, and further comments and suggestions.

Third, the review team also formed the view that the provision of professional development appears not systematically linked to teacher appraisal. The identification of professional development needs is not a requirement of established teacher appraisal practices. The teacher appraisal by inspectors does not result in a systematic professional development plan for each teacher appraised. Similarly, even if practices differ across schools, in most cases teacher appraisal processes internal to the school do not have as their primary objective the establishment of a professional development plan for each teacher in the school. Without a clear link to professional development opportunities, the evaluation process is not sufficient to improve teacher performance and, as a result, often becomes a meaningless exercise that encounters mistrust – or at best apathy – on the part of teachers being evaluated (Danielson, 2001; Milanowski and Kimball, 2003; Margo et al., 2008).

Fourth, teacher appraisal is not based on an agreed national framework of teaching competencies and is not systematic in its operation, especially in the case of secondary teachers. This can hamper the consistency of teacher appraisal processes across schools (and inspectors) and the inability of the system to assure the quality of such processes. The lack of a framework of competencies also explains the difficulties in providing appropriate feedback to teachers on the part of the inspectors.

Also, in secondary education, visits by inspectors tend not to be regular, to the point that some teachers may not receive any visit for several years. This means that they miss their yearly report impacting on the point system that forms the basis for selection of schools in which to work. This is largely due to the lack of inspectors in secondary education, as described earlier.

Among teachers from four Latin American countries studied by Tenti Fanfani (2005), a proportion of 47.1% Uruguayan teachers declared themselves to be dissatisfied with the appraisal system. During the visit by the OECD review team, teachers expressed critical views of the appraisal system in the sense of providing very general reports and of emphasising formal rather than pedagogical aspects of the teacher's work. Similar views were expressed by school principals, indicating that inspector appraisal is too reliant on compliance with the curriculum rather than focused on actual teaching practices. The dissatisfaction with the traditional inspectorate system in Uruguay mirrors a broader assessment of inspectorates in other countries. A recent review noted the move in several countries from traditional school inspections based more on verifying compliance with established norms to inspections providing information on strengths and weaknesses to feed into improvement processes (Slater, 2013). School inspections are more likely to contribute to improvement when they lead to self-evaluation and provide teachers with constructive feedback (Churches and McBride, 2013).

Induction, mentoring and continuing professional development face a range of challenges

In international comparison, the participation rates in professional development of Uruguayan teachers appear to be low. According to PISA 2012 data, Uruguayan principals of schools attended by 15-year-olds reported that 33.1% of mathematics teachers in their school attended a programme of professional development with a focus on mathematics during the previous three months, below the OECD average of 39.3% (Argentina: 48.3%, Brazil: 36.3%,

Chile: 28.0%, Colombia: 21.9%, Mexico: 46.6%) (OECD, 2013a). Similarly, according to teacher self-reports for TERCE (organised in 2013), the proportion of Uruguayan teachers who received professional development in their subject in the previous two years was 18.8%, 27.6%, 25.5%, 26.6% and 29.1% for Year 3 mathematics, Year 6 mathematics, Year 3 language, Year 6 language and Year 6 natural sciences respectively (against TERCE averages of 23.6%, 31.2%, 28.5%, 31.5% and 19.5% respectively) (UNESCO/OREALC, 2015). There are indications that this might result from the combination of a number of factors such as the little relevance of the supply of professional development programmes, the limited entitlement to free professional development, the little time available to teachers to engage in professional development, and the little tradition of school-based professional development.

While the existence of a national institution (Institute for Advanced and Higher Studies, IPES) that provides teachers with formal post-graduate courses and a range of professional development activities is commendable, the fact is that this offer is in the city of Montevideo. Other providers (e.g. the *Universidad de la República* and private universities) are also mostly based in Montevideo. As a result, teachers in other locations of the country have insufficient opportunities for professional development near to where they live and work and can only attend formal courses in the summer. A commendable exception to this is the co-ordination of professional development programmes in technical-professional secondary education at the regional level through the Regional Units of Continuous Education. In addition, while a good proportion of professional development activities are free of charge (e.g. those provided by IPES), teachers are not entitled to be paid working time to undertake professional development activities. These are often taken on Saturdays or during periods where there are school holidays. This results from associating teacher compensation mostly to teaching hours. At the same time, particularly in secondary education, teachers' heavy workload does not give much room for professional development activities.

There are indications that the range of professional development courses available may be limited. In its interviews with teachers and school principals, the OECD review team formed the impression that professional development offerings were not responding to the learning needs of teachers. For instance, the lack of diversity of offerings at IPES was often mentioned by teachers. Courses at IPES seem to concentrate on teaching methods and didactics and seem more limited in specialised areas such as addressing learning difficulties in the classroom, integrating students with special needs, teaching in multi-year classes or teaching in rural areas. Professional development courses also seem targeted at qualified teachers and offer little specific training to non-qualified teachers. This might reflect the fact that professional development providers have little information about the professional development needs of teachers.

The potential lack of adequate learning opportunities for teachers might also result from the fact that teacher appraisal processes inform little the supply of professional development opportunities. As seen above, individual teacher appraisal has no direct link to an individual professional development plan for the teacher. There is clearly further room in Uruguay for better linking teacher appraisal to individual professional development, which is desirable given that teacher development is one of the main goals of teacher appraisal (OECD, 2013b). At the same time, the review team formed the impression that schools take little responsibility for managing whole-school strategies for professional development. In particular, individual teacher professional activities seem to have little connection to a potential school development plan as they remain a decision individually taken by the teacher. The link between, teacher appraisal, teacher professional

development and school development is essential to ensure teachers give priority to acquiring those competencies that better fit the needs of the schools (OECD, 2013b).

The “co-ordination” meetings, which are organised in *Aprender* and full-time schools in primary education and in all schools in secondary education, provide the only time for school-based professional collaboration. However, as conveyed by teachers and principals to the OECD review team during its visit, this time is often taken up with administrative matters, and teachers have no other paid time to work together and learn from each other. The potential impact on teacher quality resulting from school-based collaborative work is highly imperilled by the absence of sufficient school autonomy to provide teachers with opportunities to work together and share their practices. Many studies about successful within-school teacher professional development and collaboration stress the importance of the school leadership in generating learning communities within the school (for a review see Calvo, 2014) (see also Chapter 4).

Also, a gap in the organisation of the teaching career in Uruguay is the absence of a regulated systematic induction or mentoring process for teachers as they enter the school system. While mentoring programmes may be in place in some schools, there are no guarantees that beginning teachers are adequately supported as they enter the career. This is in contrast to the more systematic organisation of school practice for teacher candidates during their initial teacher education, which takes place in Practice schools.

Finally, there does not seem to be a process to evaluate or accredit professional development programmes. Hence, the quality of the programmes is not guaranteed and little use is made of any analysis of the programmes’ impact.

Policy recommendations

The challenges analysed in the previous section concerning working conditions, the recruitment system, career progression, initial preparation and professional development opportunities suggest the need for a comprehensive review of teacher policies and improvements in a range of key areas. This section provides some policy directions. These require focusing on teachers as professionals in terms of the quality of their preparation, their working conditions and the scope they are given to be proactive and creative in their classrooms and schools as well as in relation to colleagues beyond those boundaries.

Develop a competency framework for the teaching profession

Uruguay needs to have a basic reference of what good teaching means. This means establishing a clear competency framework for the teaching profession that signals to teachers and to society as a whole the core knowledge, skills and values associated with effective teaching at different stages of a teaching career. A clear, well-structured and widely supported competency framework for teachers can be a powerful mechanism for aligning the various elements involved in developing teachers’ competencies (OECD, 2005).

A competency framework for teachers should contain quality criteria or indicators for professional teaching practice and should be applied in developing teacher education curricula, appraising individual performance, establishing career structures and guiding professional development (OECD, 2005). Teachers’ practices and the competencies that they need to be effective should reflect the student learning objectives that the school system is aiming to achieve. A competency framework for teachers needs to be informed by research and express the sophistication and complexity of what effective teachers are

expected to know and be able to do. It should also express different levels of performance and responsibilities expected at different stages of the teaching career.

The development of a competency framework for the teaching profession should include a strategy for national consultation: a variety of actors at different levels and from different contexts should participate in the consultation process, to generate knowledge and ownership of the framework across the country. There is also a need to ensure appropriate feedback mechanisms: following implementation, the competency framework can have periodical revisions to ensure that it remains aligned with other elements of the system, and that it is useful in the promotion of teacher professionalism.

Another objective is that the competency framework is clear to teachers. This “making sense” of the competency framework by teachers is essential to transform their practice. Extensive socialisation of the framework for teachers can be done at several stages of teachers’ careers (NBRC, 2010):

- During initial teacher education courses so that beginning teachers already have a clear understanding of what is expected from them.
- In induction and mentoring programmes to ease the transition between initial education and school-level practice (Hobson, 2009).
- In-service teachers must receive training on the use of the competency framework and its implications for classroom practice.

There are several examples of competency frameworks for teachers used in other education systems such as the “Good Teaching Framework” in Chile (*Marco de Buena Enseñanza*, Ministry of Education of Chile, 2008) and the “Teacher Good Performance Framework” in Peru (*Marco de Buen Desempeño Docente*, Ministry of Education of Peru, 2012), both of which have drawn its principles from Danielson’s framework (Danielson, 1996 and 2007) (see Box 5.1).

Box 5.1. Competency frameworks for teachers in Chile and Peru

In Chile, the Good Teaching Framework (*Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*) specifies the following dimensions: i) domains (4); ii) criteria within domains (20); iii) descriptors for each criterion (70); and iv) performance levels for descriptors. The four domains are: i) preparation for teaching; ii) creation of an environment favouring the learning process; iii) teaching that allows the learning process of all students; and iv) professional responsibilities. Each criterion is accompanied by a description of its meaning, and examples of how a teacher might demonstrate skill, either through their teaching in the classroom or through the plans they create, or through other artefacts reflecting their professionalism.

In Peru, the “Teacher Good Performance Framework” (*Marco de Buen Desempeño Docente*) specifies the following dimensions: i) domains (4); ii) competencies within domains (9); iii) performance descriptors (40). The four domains are: i) preparation for student learning; ii) teaching for student learning; iii) participation in school management in collaboration with the community; and iv) development of teacher professionalism and identity. Both frameworks list under each domain a set of competencies and statements of how these are demonstrated in teacher observable performance.

Source: Ministry of Education of Chile (2008), *Marco Para la Buena Enseñanza* (Good Teaching Framework), www.cpeip.cl/usuarios/cpeip/File/Documentos%202011/MBE2008.pdf; Santiago, P. et al. (2013), *Teacher Evaluation in Chile 2013*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264172616-en>; Ministry of Education of Peru (2012), *Marco de Buen Desempeño Docente* (Teacher Good Performance Framework), www.perueduca.pe/documents/60563/ce664fb7-a1dd-450d-a43d-bd8cd65b4736.

Reconceptualise teacher employment to account for all activities performed by teachers

Making the work of teachers more effective in Uruguayan schools necessitates a whole new concept of teacher employment. As explained in OECD (2005), teachers are expected to have broad roles. Some examples of areas of broadened teacher responsibility are: initiating and managing learning processes; responding effectively to the learning needs of individual learners; integrating formative and summative assessment; teaching in multicultural classrooms; introducing new cross-curricular emphases; integrating students with special needs; working and planning in teams; evaluation and systematic improvement planning; ICT use in teaching and administration; projects between schools; management and shared leadership; providing professional advice to parents; and building community partnerships for learning (OECD, 2005). These broad responsibilities are simply not compatible with a conception of teacher employment associated mostly with teaching as a paid activity. Clearly, Uruguay needs to move to employment under a workload system whereby teachers work a specified number of hours per week (e.g. 40 hours), a proportion of which are devoted to teaching. Such conception of teacher employment recognises that teachers need time for engaging in a range of other tasks, including the adequate preparation of lessons. This is likely to make the profession more attractive and to reduce the number of teachers with unreasonably high teaching loads. This reform will necessitate considerable resources but should be a priority for the application of extra resources devoted to education.

The need to consider in teacher contracts an adequate distribution of teaching and non-teaching obligations was recognised in the 1966 ILO/UNESCO Recommendations Concerning the Status of Teachers (Articles 90-93) (UNESCO/ILO, 2008). This highlights the need to provide proper recognition to the non-teaching tasks that teachers perform. Hence teacher compensation should be specified in terms of both teaching and non-teaching responsibilities, possibly with the institution of a ratio (say 60/40) between them for a whole working load (say 40 hours). Non-teaching responsibilities would include lesson preparation, student marking, student counselling, time for professional development and communication with parents and should take into account the specific school context (e.g. rural location).

This approach would imply specifying the number of working hours at a given school for individual teachers and could give individual schools some autonomy on how to use the full working loads of their teachers (i.e. allocating different proportions of teaching/non-teaching tasks to teachers depending on the functions individual teachers perform at school).

Create a career structure for teachers associated with a teacher certification process

Develop a proper career structure for teachers

In Uruguay, there are no opportunities for promotion or to diversify roles for teachers who would like to remain in the classroom. As a result, schools and teachers could benefit from a career structure for teachers that comprised (say) three career pathways: teacher, established teacher, and accomplished/expert teacher. The different career pathways should be associated with distinct roles and responsibilities in schools associated with given levels of teaching expertise. For instance, an established teacher could assume responsibility for the mentoring of beginning teachers and an expert teacher could take responsibility for the co-ordination of professional development in schools. Voluntary access to the top career pathways should be associated with formal processes of appraisal

through a system of teacher certification (see below). Also, each of the career pathways should be organised according to steps indicating a clear salary progression. A teacher who would like to remain in the classroom and not assume new responsibilities should be given the opportunity to progress within the “teacher” career path. Such progression should be regulated through a process of teacher certification (see below).

The existence of a career structure for the most part accomplishes two important functions: the recognition of experience and advanced teaching skills with a formal position and additional compensation; and the potential to better match teachers’ skills to the roles and responsibilities needed in schools, as more experienced and accomplished teachers may be given special tasks within schools. These convey the important message that the guiding principle for career advancement is merit and have the benefit of rewarding teachers who choose to remain in the classroom. Given the potential greater variety of roles in schools as the teacher goes up the career ladder, the career structure fosters greater career diversification. These are likely to have a positive motivational effect.

Qualified teachers (i.e. with a teacher education degree) would access the career in its initial “teacher” stage and the transition to “established teacher” could be associated with the acquisition of tenure. However, access to the top stages of the career (established teacher, expert teacher) should require teaching qualifications. This would work as an incentive for teachers to acquire teaching qualifications (possibly through specific training programmes for those non-qualified teachers who have been some years in the education system, as suggested below). Also, education authorities should consider introducing a formal entry examination for individuals who have no teaching qualifications to access teaching (and the initial stage in the teacher career). This examination could cover both disciplinary and pedagogical competencies.

Set up a system of teacher certification to determine career progression

The accountability function of teacher appraisal that is currently being achieved through the annual formal teacher appraisal by inspectors could be transformed into a process of teacher appraisal for career progression through a certification process associated with the teacher career structure suggested above – with progression within career paths and access to distinct career paths.

Each teacher in the system would be required to periodically (say every four years) be the subject of a formal appraisal for certification (or re-certification), regardless of the career stage. The purpose would be to certify teachers periodically as fit for the profession. The appraisal could determine advancement (or not) to the next salary step within a given career path. Such appraisal would also identify underperformance – i.e. if poor appraisal, a mandatory professional development plan would be established and a new appraisal would be required one year later; and two consecutive poor appraisals could lead the teacher to be removed from the post. This process, which would not involve a promotion or be associated to tenure, could be organised by school inspectors. It should be mostly based on the practice of teachers, involving classroom observation and the preparation of a portfolio with selected evidence of the teacher’s work with students (lesson preparation, student work, examples of student assessments).

Once teachers meet certain requirements (related to experience and performance), they could also voluntarily request a formal appraisal to access a new career path (as “established” or “accomplished/expert” teacher). Established teacher could be associated

with the acquisition of tenure. Both the appraisals for certification and to access a new career path, which are more summative in nature, need to be undertaken under a national framework, with reference to the competency framework for teachers, have a strong component external to the school and more formal processes to ensure objectivity and fairness (Santiago and Benavides, 2009). These processes could be governed by an accredited commission at the departmental level under the supervision of inspection services. Such commissions could be formed by distinguished teachers, recognised school leaders and inspectors. The specific appraisal for promotion or tenure, in addition to the instruments mentioned above, could also include an examination (*oposición*) to look into more detail at the competencies of the teacher. The appraisals for career progression of a given teacher should also be informed by the input by the respective school principal and inspector.

Rethink the system for the recruitment and deployment of teachers

The current system of recruitment and deployment of teachers to schools works against there being a stable team of teachers committed to the school's educational project, is not constructed to optimise the matching between teachers' skills and schools' needs and leads to an inequitable distribution of teacher resources across schools. These undesirable effects call for the reform of the current approach to select, recruit and deploy teachers to schools. Hence, the new model needs to give more stability to teaching bodies within schools, respond better to the needs of individual schools and ensure more experienced and high-quality teachers are willing to work in disadvantaged schools.

It is recommended that the new model builds on a number of principles. First, greater stability needs to be provided to both teachers and schools. As suggested above, tenure should correspond to the 1st major step in the teaching career and correspond to the appointment as "established" teacher through the competition recommended above. In primary education, tenure should be offered at the school level (as is currently the case) and in secondary education, tenure could be offered for a zone within the department (the teacher would be given preference for a given school but would only be sure to be appointed to a school within a given zone). Competitions for new tenured posts would be organised every year, including in secondary education. Similarly, competitions for promotions to the "accomplished/expert teacher" stage could also be organised every year. Then, all other schools' teacher needs not to be filled by tenured posts would be the subject of an annual open competition which should present two major differences compared to the current system: i) once a teacher is selected for a position his or her term in the school should be for at least three years and renewable if both the school and the teacher are in agreement (but providing the teacher with the option of leaving the school before the agreed term for the contract); and ii) appointments would not be on the basis of teaching hours but rather working hours, increasing the probability for a teacher in secondary education to work only in one school.

Second, recruitment methods and selection criteria need to take better account of the specific needs of individual schools. Competitions for tenured positions and promotions should include the input of the principals and inspectors of the school(s) associated with the specific positions. This could include them specifying the profiles of the positions at stake which could then be used to define the competitions' selection criteria. And, they could also be part of the commissions making the final selection of the successful candidates. Regarding non-tenured positions, the approach could continue to be based on a registry of teachers ranked according to a range of criteria and in which teachers express preferences

for schools. However, two major modifications are suggested: i) schools should express its views in terms of the adequacy of the top candidates to their specific needs; ii) criteria to rank teachers in the registry need rethinking. The school principal, together with the inspector in charge of the school, should be able to express their preferences over a given number of top candidates in the registry (say top three) who have expressed interest in working at the school.

Third, criteria to order teachers in the registry need to encourage better equity in the distribution of teachers across schools. Criteria to order teachers in the registry could include the step within the “teacher” career stage, seniority of the teacher, rating at the most recent appraisal for certification (as suggested above, every four years, or if not available, results in initial teacher education) and meeting a certain number of minimum requirements regarding professional development activities and regular attendance. However, it could prove useful to introduce a system of “bonus points” for the teacher registry for teachers who have teaching experiences in difficult or remote schools. These “bonus points” could also be given consideration for tenure positions. This would give incentives for teachers to work in more vulnerable schools and would help beginning teachers to more quickly access a post in a school of their preference. This is intended to address the concern that beginning teachers are mostly assigned to the more difficult and unpopular schools, with potentially adverse consequences for student learning and their own career development.

Improve teacher compensation

Maintain efforts to improve the remuneration of teachers

As further resources become available to the school system and as efficiency gains are realised, a top priority for the allocation of the newly available resources should be the improvement of teachers’ compensation and working conditions. The objective is to improve the status of the teaching profession, attract better candidates to teaching, ensure teacher education candidates complete their studies, make teaching more appealing to males, and ensure teachers have adequate incentives to be effective in their daily practice. This need is well recognised by the Uruguayan government as shown in recent efforts to improve teachers’ salaries. These efforts should be sustained in the years to come, result in the significant improvement of teacher salary conditions, and go alongside efforts to improve working conditions. A significant step in this direction would be, as suggested above, the recognition that non-teaching activities should also be remunerated. Compensating teachers for a full workload (rather than teaching load) will go a long way to improve the attractiveness of the profession.

In light of the expansion of enrolment in secondary education, the growth of full-time education in primary education as well as the broadening of special programmes to address equity in schools, it is important to ensure that good qualified candidates enter the teaching profession at an adequate rate (and remain in it).

Make the compensation system more flexible

In complement to the current approach of addressing inequity through the provision of additional resources to disadvantaged schools (e.g. *Aprender* schools, Community Teachers Programme), the response to the current inequities in the distribution of teachers across schools also requires that the compensation system is made more flexible. Incentives should target individual teachers so disadvantaged schools are in a better position to attract more

experienced and higher quality teachers. This would involve paying special allowances or in-kind support for teachers who work in schools facing more challenging circumstances (e.g. serving vulnerable populations, remote schools). The objective would be to compensate individual teachers for the more challenging working conditions. The principle of targeted allowances could also apply to areas or subjects in which teachers are in short supply.

Improve the provision and status of initial teacher education

There is a need to make initial teacher education more attractive. In part, the response concerns the overall attractiveness of the profession (salaries and working conditions). But it is also important to raise the status of initial teacher education. The implementation of the plans to establish a National Pedagogic University could help in this respect by providing greater structure to initial teacher education and raising its status to university level. It would also have the potential to reorganise the overall supply of initial teacher education by consolidating some providers offering lower quality programmes. A number of other strategies can be considered. These include: providing more information and counselling to prospective teacher candidates so that better informed enrolment decisions are made; procedures that try to assess whether the individuals wanting to become teachers have the necessary motivation, skills, knowledge and personal qualities; financial incentive schemes to recruit candidates with high-level competencies (such as scholarships); and flexible programme structures that provide students with school experience early in the course, and opportunities to move into other courses if their motivation towards teaching changes.

A priority should be to improve the quality of initial teacher education programmes. This requires accreditation procedures ensuring that teacher education institutions are evaluated on an ongoing basis and that the teacher education sector as a whole is subject to periodic review and debate. This should consider the preparation and quality of the teacher education staff, the amount and use of resources, implementation of the curriculum considering student views, and improvement in progression and completion rates as well as activities implemented to reach this purpose. The evaluation of programmes should encompass efforts on the part of the institutions themselves to verify their effectiveness through collection and analysis of evidence from their own current and former students through institutional monitoring and research, as for example on the quality of the future teachers' content knowledge, the quality of needed skills for learning and the learning occurring during practicum experiences (Osman and Venkat, 2012; Kirby et al., 2006).

In the Uruguayan context, a particularly important criterion of the relevance of teacher education programmes concerns their completion rates. Teacher education programmes need to ensure their adequacy to the student populations they receive (i.e. older students, most of whom have a full-time job). The latter would involve addressing the overloaded curriculum, giving more emphasis to practice than theory, offering flexible schedules for classes, developing a modular approach to courses or diversifying approaches to assess teacher candidates.

Teacher education institutions also need to assume further responsibilities in reducing the number of non-qualified teachers currently in the system. This could involve the establishment of specific programmes of study for non-qualified teachers which would recognise teachers' experience in schools (giving them programme credits), be offered on a part-time basis and supplemented with on-line activities. These would focus mainly on the development of pedagogical competencies.

In addition, the organisation of studies in initial teacher education requires improvement. For instance, an increase in the common components of teacher preparation programmes for different levels of education and specialisations would increase opportunities for working in different educational levels and specialisations as teacher demand and career interests change. Teacher education programmes for secondary education teaching, in particular, should be less specialised and allow the graduate to teach in a broader range of specialisms. Preparing secondary teachers for two disciplines within related areas (e.g. physics and chemistry) rather than a single discipline would allow individual teachers to more easily find enough teaching hours at the same school.

Finally, there is a clear need to strengthen the preparation of all teachers to deal with the diverse needs of their students. Teaching students from a disadvantaged family or with special educational needs should not be an isolated task for specialist teachers (part of special programmes as the Community Teachers Programme) as most teachers face these realities in schools every day. In Uruguay special provisions for children with disabilities are particularly limited, especially in secondary education. Hence, it is of great importance to mainstream elements of teaching special education students in general initial teacher education and not just in separate or specialised courses. Currently, there seem to be no courses and activities geared to this purpose in primary and secondary teacher education, and a little by way of in-service provisions. It is suggested that there be a review of the curriculum in order to include relevant contents and that the development of strategies for working with special needs' students be part of the field experiences required during teacher education at primary and secondary level. Preparation to work in rural schools and particularly for multi-year teaching needs also to be included in the initial and primary teacher education programmes and their practical experiences. The teacher education curriculum should also include curriculum contents and activities oriented to handling teaching demands with highly vulnerable school populations. These must consider the different characteristics and needs of young children and youth in the cities, and especially Montevideo, as well as in rural locations.

Strengthen school-based teacher appraisal for formative purposes

There needs to be a stronger emphasis on teacher appraisal for development purposes. Given that there are risks that the developmental function is hampered by the high-stakes inspector-based annual teacher appraisal process, it is proposed that a component predominantly dedicated to developmental appraisal, fully internal to the school, be formalised. This development evaluation would have as its main purpose the continuous improvement of teaching practices in the school. It would be an internal process carried out by senior peers and the school management. The reference standards would be the suggested competency framework for teachers but with school-based indicators and criteria. This appraisal should also take account of the school objectives and context. The main outcome would be feedback on teaching performance which would lead to an individual plan for professional development for each teacher in the school. It can be low-key and low-cost, and include self-appraisal, peer appraisal, classroom observation, and structured conversations and regular feedback by the school management and experienced peers. It could be organised once a year for each teacher, or less frequently depending on the previous appraisal of the teacher. The key aspect is that it should result in a meaningful report with recommendations for professional development. Of course, it can draw on the experience most schools in Uruguay have had with internal teacher appraisal processes. The need is for

these to become systematic and consistent across schools through the introduction of the competency framework as the main reference and the provision of guidelines and instruments at the national or departmental level.

This approach requires school leaders to invest a considerable amount of time in pedagogical leadership. This could benefit from a broader school leadership team which would allow the school principal to devote more time to pedagogical leadership (see Chapter 4) and would require greater training for school leaders to conduct teacher appraisals. School principals could receive training in appraising teachers on the basis of the teacher competency framework, including for instance with the use of appraisal rubrics. Rubrics are descriptive scoring schemes to guide analysis of observed performance and other evidence such as teaching materials, student assessment, etc. (Oakleaf, 2009). They describe what is needed in respect to specified criteria to rate a performance as high or low.

In order to guarantee the systematic and coherent application of teacher developmental appraisal across Uruguayan schools, it would be important to undertake the external validation of the respective school processes. An option is for school inspection procedures to include the audit of the processes in place to organise teacher developmental appraisal, holding the school principal accountable as necessary. The inspection support structures could play an important role in ensuring that schools develop ambitious developmental appraisal processes to be properly documented in school activity reports.

Strengthen the provision of professional development

There is a clear need for professional development to become a more regular practice among teachers in Uruguay, with an adequate time entitlement, greater diversity of activities, led by school development plans and with a supply which reflects teachers' developmental needs. There must be an explicitly stated expectation that every teacher engages in a career-long quest of improved practice through professional development activities. This is likely to require providing teachers with dedicated release time and financial support for professional development than is currently the case. It is important that the professional development system benefits all teachers in the school system. In this sense, it is important to improve the supply of professional development activities outside Montevideo. This could build on the capacity of teacher education providers that are located outside Montevideo.

Teacher professional development also needs to be associated with school development if the improvement of teaching practices is to meet the school's needs. To be most effective, professional development programmes should be co-ordinated at the school level in association with school development plans, so that teachers are aware of the learning goals pursued by their colleagues and potential areas for collaboration. Such joint efforts can contribute to establishing learning communities within schools.

Also, suppliers of professional development programmes need to better connect to the professional development of teachers. This suggests a range of possible actions: better interaction between professional development providers and individual schools; an assessment on the part of the school inspection of the professional development needs of teachers on the basis of the information collected through individual teacher appraisals; or strategies to directly survey teachers about their professional development needs. It would be advisable to collect all available information on the current offer of courses and activities for teachers, assess current gaps, conduct a review of teacher specific needs, and evaluate the quality of courses they have attended in view of improving them.

Successful professional development programmes involve teachers in learning activities that are similar to ones they will use with their students (OECD, 2005). The most effective forms of professional development seem to be those that focus on clearly articulated priorities, provide ongoing school-based support to classroom teachers, deal with subject matter content as well as suitable instructional strategies and classroom management techniques, and create opportunities for teachers to observe, experience and try new teaching methods (OECD, 2005). In this context, school-based professional development activities are particularly important and seem to receive little attention in Uruguay. Professional development should create opportunities for teachers to engage in school-focused research and development, individually and collectively. Such programmes support teachers in studying and evaluating their own teaching strategies and school programmes, and in sharing their findings with their colleagues, and through conferences and publications (see OECD, 2005, for specific examples).

Teacher collaboration linked to school improvement efforts is widely recognised as a powerful tool for school and teacher performance improvement. In Uruguay, although it is currently difficult in terms of available school and teacher time to collaborate and engage in school-based professional development activities, there are schools that do so. On this basis it would be advisable to organise meetings with staff from schools that have experience and manage to work more collectively together with schools that want to do so. This, of course, requires opening the possibilities for greater autonomy at the school level to organise the work of teachers so that there is time and opportunity to work together and learn from each other.

Beyond each school, there is scope for joint partnerships between teachers and education authorities to support collaborative teacher professional development. An interesting initiative involving teacher unions and the Ontario Ministry of Education in Canada, led to the establishment in 2007 of a Teacher Learning and Leadership Programme (TLPP) with three main purposes: “a) support experienced teachers to undertake self-directed advanced professional development; b) develop teachers’ leadership skills for sharing their professional learning and exemplary practices; and c) facilitate knowledge exchange for spread and sustainability of effective and innovative practices” (Lieberman et al., 2015). The process and effects of the programme were studied over a period of two years and results showed an effect on the professional culture among teachers in the sense “that ‘insiders’ can learn both new ways of working with their students, and ways to lead their colleagues. They also share what they are learning with others” (Lieberman et al., 2015).

Networking is a powerful tool for teacher communication and learning. Education authorities should use the facilities provided by the CEIBAL Plan to connect teachers from different schools with the purpose of exchanging experiences, as well as teaching strategies and materials.

Note

1. TERCE is an international student assessment carried out by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC/UNESCO) in 2013. It assessed Year 3 and Year 6 students in 15 countries (plus one Mexican state) in reading, writing, mathematics and natural sciences (Year 6 only).

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ANNEX 5.A1

Descriptive data on teachers

Table 5.A1.1. **Number of teachers, by level and type of education, selected years between 2000 and 2014**

	2000	2002	2006	2010	2014	Difference 2002-14 (%)	Difference 2006-14 (%)
Early childhood and pre-primary education							
Public schools supervised by ANEP – Classroom teachers	2 769	2 920	2 909	2 946	2 961	1.4	1.8
Private schools regulated by ANEP – Classroom teachers	1 064	825	1 007	..	-5.4
Private schools regulated by MEC – All staff	4 492
Primary education							
Public schools – All staff	15 231	15 535	16 169	18 577	19 671	26.6	21.7
Inspectors	235	235	236	261	279	18.7	18.2
Mainstream education	13 074	13 277	13 675	14 748	15 237	14.8	11.4
Education in colonies	39	38	38	38	39	2.6	2.6
Special education	925	930	931	961	972	4.5	4.4
Special teaching services	162	97	127	147	125	28.9	-1.6
Special teachers	758	905	1 109	2 330	2 923	223.0	163.6
Co-ordination and support	38	53	53	92	96	81.1	81.1
Private schools – Classroom teachers	5 737	6 708	8 389	..	46.2
Public secondary education – general programmes							
Lower secondary							
Subject-teachers	12 750	16 016	15 523	..	21.7
Teaching hours	223 737	224 702
Upper secondary							
Subject-teachers	5 360	6 796	7 664	..	43.0
Teaching hours	82 171	95 125
All secondary							
Subject-teachers	20 476	26 779	18 110	22 812	23 187	-13.4	28.0
Teaching hours	301 126	299 306	254 798	305 908	319 827	6.9	25.5
Public secondary education – technical-professional programmes							
Lower secondary – subject-teachers	3 451	3 393	4 335	4 028	6 959	105.1	60.5
Upper secondary – subject-teachers	3 638	4 050	7 533	6 127	14 263	252.2	89.3
All secondary – subject-teachers	7 089	7 443	11 868	10 155	21 222	185.1	78.8

..: Not available.

Note: Data for early childhood, pre-primary and primary education refer to head counts. Data for secondary education are based on the number of subjects, i.e. teachers who teach more than one subject are counted as different teachers.

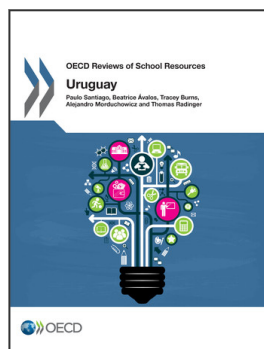
Source: MEC (2000, 2002, 2006, 2010, 2014), *Anuario Estadístico de Educación* (Education Statistical Yearbook), 2000, 2002, 2006, 2010 and 2014 editions, www.mec.gub.uy/innovaportal/v/11078/5/mecweb/publicaciones_?3colid=927.

Table 5.A1.2. **Number of teachers, public schools maintained by ANEP, 2007**

	Total	Direct teaching	Indirect teaching	Technical posts	Other functions
Early Childhood education, Pre-primary and Primary education (under supervision of CEIP)	20 802	16 613	2 822	157	2 707
Secondary education, general programmes (under supervision of CES)	16 323	14 384	3 301	101	595
Secondary education, technical-professional programmes (under supervision of CETP)	6 624	5 854	716	246	239

Note: Data is based on the latest Teacher Census, organised in 2007. The census covered teachers working in public institutions maintained by the National Public Education Administration (ANEP) only. Hence, data for early childhood and pre-primary education do not include teachers in schools managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) and by the Child and Adolescent Institute of Uruguay (INAU). Also data on technical-professional programmes include teachers in programmes at the tertiary level (a minor proportion of programmes supervised by CETP). Direct teaching refers to teachers who have a regular interaction with students in the classroom. Indirect teaching involves interaction with students but with no regular classes. Technical posts refer to school leaders or inspectors.

Source: Administración Nacional de Educación Pública – Consejo Directivo Central, ANEP-CODICEN (2008), *Censo Nacional Docente ANEP-2007* (National Teacher Census ANEP-2007), *Dirección Sectorial de Planificación Educativa, División de Investigación, Evaluación y Estadística*, Montevideo.



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