

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development  
Directorate for Education  
Education and Training Policy Division

## **Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers**

### **Country Note:**

### ***Germany***

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*This report is based on a study visit to Germany in September 2003, and background documents prepared to support the visit. As a result, the report is based on the situation up to that period.*

The views expressed are those of the authors and not necessarily those of Germany, the OECD or its Member countries.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Purposes of the OECD Review

1. This Country Note for Germany forms part of the OECD activity *Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*. This is a collaborative project to assist teacher policy development for improving teaching and learning in schools. Twenty-five countries are taking part.

2. The activity was launched in April 2002. OECD Education Ministers have set out a challenging agenda for schools in responding to rapidly changing needs and providing the foundations for lifelong learning. The Ministers drew a clear connection between the challenges facing schools and the need to attract, develop and retain high-quality teachers and school principals.

3. The project's purposes, analytical framework and methodology are detailed in OECD (2002a).<sup>1</sup> The main objectives are:

- To synthesise research on issues related to policies concerned with attracting, recruiting, retaining and developing effective teachers;
- To identify innovative and successful policy initiatives and practices;
- To facilitate exchanges of lessons and experiences among countries; and
- To identify options for policymakers to consider.

4. The Activity is focused on primary and secondary schools. It encompasses vocational programmes that serve secondary students, and special education programmes that enrol students of school age. While the major focus is on teachers, the scope includes other staff working in schools, and the ways in which their roles interact with those of teachers.

5. The project involves two complementary approaches: an *Analytical Review strand*; and a *Thematic Country Review strand*. The Analytical Review strand is using several means -- country background reports, literature reviews, data analyses and commissioned papers -- to analyse the factors that shape attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers, and possible policy responses. All of the 25 countries are involved in this strand. In addition, 10 of the school systems have chosen to participate in a Thematic Country Review, which involves external review teams analysing the countries concerned.

6. Germany is one of the countries which opted to participate in the Thematic Country Review strand, and hosted a review visit in September 2003. The reviewers comprised two OECD Secretariat members, and educational researchers and policy makers from Hungary, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The team is listed in Appendix 1. The visit encompassed four Länder: Baden-Württemberg; Brandenburg; Hamburg; and North-Rhine Westphalia.

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1. Reports and updates are available from [www.oecd.org/edu/teacherpolicy](http://www.oecd.org/edu/teacherpolicy)

## 1.2 The Participation of Germany

7. Germany's involvement in the OECD activity is being organised by the Standing Conference of Ministers of Culture in the Federal Republic of Germany (KMK) under the management of the National Co-ordinator, Mr Michael Krüger from the Ministry of Education of Hesse. The contribution of each Land visited is being organised by the respective education authorities – the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport of Baden-Württemberg; the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport of Brandenburg; the Department for Education and Sport of Hamburg; and the Ministry for Schools, Youth and Children of North-Rhine Westphalia. Each Land appointed a Co-ordinator to manage their respective involvement (see Appendix 2). The participation of Germany in the activity is also supported by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF).

8. An important part of Germany's involvement was the preparation of a comprehensive set of background documents on teacher policy: a Federal Country Background Report (CBR<sup>2</sup>); a supplement to the CBR; background reports for the four Länder visited; and the views of the DBB and GEW trade unions at Federal level. Details on the background documents are provided in Appendix 2.

9. The review team is grateful to the authors of all the background documents, and to all those who assisted them in preparing the material. Some of the main issues identified by the German background documents, and which are taken up in this Country Note, include:

- The on-going reform of teacher education;
- The growing difficulties of teacher recruitment, especially in vocational and lower secondary education;
- The necessity to keep improving the quality and effectiveness of the teaching force;
- The need to strengthen assessment and evaluation practices at the different levels of the education system;
- The need for more flexibility in the design of teachers' incentives and career structures; and
- The need to reinforce the role of school leaders, consolidate school autonomy and introduce accountability mechanisms.

10. The German background documents are important outputs from the OECD activity in their own right, as well as a significant resource for the review team. The analyses and issues discussed in the background documents are cited frequently in this Country Note.<sup>3</sup> We suggest that the background documents and the Country Note be read in conjunction since they are intended to be complementary.

11. The review visit took place from 14 to 26 September, 2003. The itinerary is provided in Appendix 3. The review team held discussions in Bonn, Dortmund, Düsseldorf, Hamburg, Potsdam, and Stuttgart with a wide range of education authorities, schools, teachers, students, teacher education institutions, teacher unions, parents' organisations, trainee teachers, researchers, and employers. The visit

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2. The Federal Country Background Report is referred to throughout this report by the abbreviation CBR and corresponds to KMK (2003a) in the list of references.

3. Unless indicated otherwise, the data in this Country Note are taken from the German background documents. The background documents are available from [www.oecd.org/edu/teacherpolicy](http://www.oecd.org/edu/teacherpolicy)

was intended to provide a broad cross-section of information and views on teacher policy in Germany, and priorities for future policy development.

12. This Country Note draws together the review team's observations and background materials. The visit was not a review of German education as a whole, but rather an analysis of the issues concerned with attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers in primary and secondary schools. The reviewers trust that this Country Note will contribute to discussions within Germany, and inform other countries about German innovations (such as those highlighted through Boxes in the text). The Country Note will also be an input into the final comparative report from the overall OECD activity.

13. The review team wishes to express its gratitude to the many people who gave time from their busy schedules to assist us in our work. A special word of appreciation is due to the German National Co-ordinator, Mr Michael Krüger, to the KMK's liaison officer with the Activity, Ms. Birgitta Ryberg, and to the Land-level Co-ordinators, Ms Evelyn Junginger, Mr Siegmund Keller, Mr Josef Keuffer, Mr Günther Neumann, and Ms. Monika Renz, for going to great lengths to respond to our needs in a helpful and friendly manner.

14. The review team is very appreciative of the informative and frank meetings that were held during the visit, and the helpful documentation that each group provided. The hospitality extended to us throughout our stay in Germany made our task as a review team as pleasant and enjoyable as it was stimulating and challenging.

15. Needless to say, however, this Country Note is the responsibility of the reviewers. Although we had excellent assistance from Germany, any errors and misinterpretations are our own.

### **1.3 Structure of the Country Note**

16. The remainder of the report is organised into four main sections. Initially, in Section 2, the key contextual factors shaping the school system and the teaching career in Germany are outlined. That section also tries to assist international readers by identifying what is distinctive about the teaching workforce and teacher policy in Germany. Section 3 then identifies the main strengths of German teacher policies, but also the challenges and problems that the system faces.

17. Section 4 uses the analysis in the previous sections to discuss priorities for future policy development. Some of these concerns (such as teacher recruitment problems) are fairly recent in origin, but others (such as the structure of teacher education) are more long-standing. The suggestions draw heavily on promising initiatives that the team learned about during the visit. Section 5 has some concluding remarks.

18. The policy suggestions attempt to build on and strengthen reforms that are already underway in Germany, and the strong commitment to further improvement that was evident among those we met. The suggestions are also offered in recognition of the difficulty facing any group of visitors, no matter how well briefed, in grasping the complexity of Germany and the factors that need to be taken into account.

## 2. CONTEXT AND MAIN FEATURES OF TEACHER POLICY

### 2.1 The Overall Context: A Situation of Change and Openness

19. The background documents and the wide range of discussions during the visit gave us the impression that, in many respects, *the development of the German education system is at a key turning point*. There is an unprecedented debate on education reform underway throughout the country. While all developed countries face the challenges and uncertainties arising from global economic and social developments, Germany has a particular feature that distinguishes it from the others. The high performance of the German economy until the early 1990s and the relative stability of its institutions and its society concealed many of the challenges. Education reforms, which transformed many other countries, were much less common in the western part of Germany, where the education system has remained more or less unchanged for a long period. Stability was paradoxically reinforced by the re-unification of the country as the western model of education was transferred to the eastern Länder, and the focus on its implementation tended to delay critical examination of its key features. Although the nature of the changes is still under discussion, there is a widespread consensus that substantial reform is necessary if the nation is to reach the goal of Germany being among the five leading education nations within 10 years (BMBF, 2002).

20. The fact that the large numbers of teachers who were recruited during the great expansion period of the 1960s and 1970s are now close to retirement is a major challenge in most OECD countries. When those young teachers entered the schools in large numbers some 30 years ago, major changes were inevitably set in train. Germany now has a once-in-a-generation opportunity to shape and benefit from substantial changes in its teacher workforce. It also faces the challenge of losing vast amounts of teacher skills and experience. This opportunity and challenge is perhaps greatest in Germany, where the proportion of teachers close to retirement is one of the highest among OECD countries. Although a decline in student numbers means that not all retirement-related vacancies will have to be filled (especially in the eastern Länder) a much larger number of new teachers will enter the profession in the next 5-10 years than in the past 20 years. This is an historic stage in the evolution of the school system. The massive entry of new teachers with fresh ideas has the potential to renew the schools. As well, there is scope to free up resources for development as a younger workforce implies fewer budgetary pressures. On the other hand, if teaching is not perceived as an attractive profession to able people, there is a risk that the quality of schools will decline.

21. The current consensus on the need for reforms has been generated by various factors. Among these the most important is the worsening performance and the decreasing competitiveness of the German economy. While at the beginning of the 1990s economic growth was stronger than in most developed countries, from 1993 it has been more than 1% below the EU average, and by 2002 the economy came close to stagnating (OECD, 2002b). The low level of growth and the high level of government spending led to an increasing budget deficit, which reached 3.6% of GDP in 2002. This made it necessary not only to initiate reforms aiming at structural adjustments in the economy but also to rethink the whole framework of government spending, and to ensure greater value from public expenditure.

22. The assumption that high level spending produces high quality service was challenged recently by the 2000 PISA<sup>4</sup> survey of 15 year-olds' learning, which indicated that the performance of the German school system is significantly lower than that of other OECD countries in both quality and equity terms. As it is widely known, the PISA results have galvanised the public debate on education. Although a number of

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4. PISA, Programme for International Student Assessment, is a three-yearly survey of the knowledge and skills of 15 year olds measuring performance in three literacy domains: reading, mathematics and science.

politicians and experts had sent out alarm signals earlier, the international comparisons in PISA sharpened and focused public concerns about German schooling. As stressed by the Federal minister, many of the shortcomings PISA brought to light were not new: earlier studies had already drawn attention to the weaknesses of the German system and prompted politicians to set a reform process in motion (Bulmahn, 2002). Nevertheless, PISA has helped to accelerate the pace.

23. Another factor which makes the social climate favourable for substantial change is the growing voice of industrial leaders expressing concerns not only for vocational education but also for schooling more generally (see, for example, UNICE, 2000). The German organisation of employers (*Bundesvereinigung der Deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände – BDA*) took an active part in the recent initiatives of European employer organisations that have called for a radical redefinition of the profile of the teacher profession and that of the management of schools (Group of European Employers Associations, 2000, 2003). The employers point out that the teaching profession should be made more attractive for creative, highly motivated and enterprising people, and that the quality and relevance of teaching can be improved only if schools become more autonomous and, at the same time, more accountable. In order to achieve this “schools should have the freedom to develop new educational approaches with teachers and should not be hindered by overly rigid national regulations governing the profession.” Our talks with representatives of German industry gave us a strong confirmation of this interest of employers in substantially reforming school education.<sup>5</sup>

24. A further factor contributing to the climate for reform is perhaps less visible from within the education sector, but is no less important. This is the ongoing reform of the German civil service and public administration. Since most teachers are civil servants a general reform of the civil service has a direct impact on them, and on the system in which they work. The reform of the German public sector and civil service has been widely discussed by the political parties, academics and the public over the last decade, and in 1997 a new Act on Civil Service Law Reform was adopted by the Parliament, which aims to support the competitive principle in public sector employment, establish more flexible and performance-oriented remuneration systems, and increase the motivation and mobility of career public servants.<sup>6</sup> The 1997 reform introduced “pay-for-performance” elements and new career paths where promotion is no longer based on seniority but on performance; it extended the possibility of temporary and probationary careers for public servants; and it gave more support to part-time employment.

25. Public administration reform has inevitable implications for the education sector also through objectives like decentralisation, deregulation, the enhancement of quality management and client orientation, and the introduction of e-government. The Federal Government decided in 1999 to launch a major modernisation reform of State administration with “a new distribution of responsibilities between the State and society” in order to “create a new balance between State duties, individual initiative and social commitment”, and to make the State “less of a decision taker and producer and more of a mediator and catalyst of social developments” (Federal Ministry of the Interior, 1999). The impact of these changes on the school sector is not yet clear, but this is probably only a question of time. Such reforms are likely to have a strong impact on the mechanisms that traditionally regulate teaching.

26. Changes in society, especially the increasing challenges of social integration, also pose new challenges for German schools and teachers. One of the questions raised by PISA was the capacity of the German school system to respond to the needs of an increasingly diverse student population. For example,

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5. The Baden-Württemberg Chamber of Industry and Commerce, for instance, presented a list of specific demands for the development of particular professional, social and personal competencies in basic school education (Die Industrie- und Handelskammer in Baden-Württemberg, 2003).

6. See European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, European industrial relations observatory on-line at [www.eiro.eurofound.eu.int](http://www.eiro.eurofound.eu.int)



there are 7.3 million foreign-born people living in Germany (around 9% of the total population) whose children have comparatively poor educational outcomes. A quite high proportion of students have a mother tongue that is not German.<sup>7</sup> It is natural that policies aiming at combating social exclusion give a key role to education and training institutions (National Action Plan against Poverty and Social Exclusion 2003-2005, 2003). As it is stressed in the chapter on Germany of the Joint Inclusion Report of the European Union this requires a closer cooperation of institutions responsible for social policy, adult learning and education (Council of the European Union, 2001).

27. The overall political climate seems to be favourable for reforms in Germany. The “paradigm change” being debated puts many of the well-established elements of the welfare system under scrutiny. However, the scale of the current reforms, which is unprecedented in the past 30 or so years, may generate uncertainty or even unleash social unrest if the well-established and traditionally strong mechanisms of social dialogue cannot work out appropriate solutions. The nature and scope of any educational change may be directly influenced by the increasing fragility of social peace.

28. Some significant pointers to educational change were established in 1999 as the Federal Government and the Länder established a forum (*Forum Bildung*) to promote a national debate on the education system. In 2001, with representatives of employers and unions, the scientific community, church leaders, trainees and students the Forum developed 12 recommendations for educational reform (see Box 1). These recommendations seem to express a broad national consensus on educational goals. The “Agenda 2010” programme of the government also defines clear policy priorities in school education (Federal Government, 2004).

#### **Box 1: The recommendations of the Forum Bildung**

1. Developing children at an early age
2. Individual support
3. Lifetime of learning
4. Learning how to take responsibility
5. Teachers: the key to educational reform
6. Equal participation by men and women as a guiding principle throughout the system
7. Skills for the future: sound specialist knowledge and general skills
8. Use of new media such as computers and the Internet
9. Preventing and reducing social exclusion
10. Education and qualification of migrants
11. Opening up and linking places of learning
12. Transferring more responsibility to education institutions, learning from evaluations

*Source:* Forum Bildung (2002)

## **2.2 The Governance of the Education System**

29. Teacher policy is strongly determined by the way the education system is governed. The key characteristics of German education governance are: (1) a limited role of the Federal level; (2) centralised administration at Land level; (3) the separation of the administration of education from other sectors; and (4) a limited, although increasing, role of local communities. The governance of education in Germany is traditionally characterised by the dominance of legal instruments in system regulation, and by the relatively

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7. In the 2001 Progress in International Reading Literacy Survey (PIRLS) 14% of German primary school principals said that more than 25% of their students were not speaking the language of the test as their first language – see [http://isc.bc.edu/pirls2001i/pdf/P1\\_IR\\_Ch07.pdf](http://isc.bc.edu/pirls2001i/pdf/P1_IR_Ch07.pdf)

rare use of alternative, non-regulatory instruments (such as incentives, external evaluation of educational providers, or competence building). Various forms of legislation (mainly ordinances issued by Ministers) play a key role in the regulation of teaching and learning and, as a consequence, individual schools have relatively narrow discretion in defining educational goals and means.

30. Germany is a federal country, and the constitution (the Basic Law) provides the 16 Länder (States) with almost full jurisdiction in educational matters. The Basic Law gives only limited power to the Federal State in order to assure the unhindered movement of the citizens throughout the whole of the country and their fundamental constitutional rights, such as parental rights, freedom of teaching or equality before the law. One of the ministers of the Federal Government has responsibility for those aspects of education and research that come within the federal sphere (BMBF - *Bundesminister für Bildung und Forschung*).

31. Since the creation of the *Bundesrepublik* the role of the federal level in education has often been the theme of policy debates, and the need for national coordination has led to the creation of various federal level bodies. The best known is the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Education and Cultural Affairs of the Länder (the KMK), which was founded in 1948 before the establishment of the Federal Republic. An important feature of the KMK is that all resolutions have to be adopted unanimously by the participating ministers (and if this is achieved, the resolutions are implemented by the Länder through their own legislative and administrative acts).

32. Another federal level body, established in the early 1970s, is the Commission for Educational Planning and Research Promotion (the BLK). This is an intergovernmental body, which cooperates with various sectoral conferences of ministers. It is less known by the larger public than the KMK, although from a structural point of view it potentially could have a stronger role than the latter as it is not only a cross-state, but also a cross-sectoral organisation, which comprises the representatives of all those ministries which may have a significant impact on education policy. The BLK enhances innovations through the promotion of pilot programmes (e.g. in the area of new media in teaching, vocational training and the promotion of women in science). Its role may become a more strategic one in the future if the currently dominant role of legal regulation in education declines, and other, more indirect policy instruments grow in importance.

33. A further federal level agency that may play a significant role in teacher policy is the Science Council (*Wissenschaftsrat*) which was established in the late 1950s. This body has scientists, public figures, representatives of the Federal Government and those of the Land governments among its members. Its recommendations have a strong influence in higher education and research policy. At present, it influences, for instance, Germany's implementation of the 1999 Bologna Declaration on the creation of a common European higher education area, including its implications for university level teacher education.

34. Vocational education and training provides an exception to the generally limited role of federal bodies in education policy. The Federal Institute for Vocational Training (the BIBB) has long been a key player in this field. There are several national institutes active in academic educational research, but no national agency has yet been set up for such policy relevant functions as standard-setting, performance evaluation or school development.

35. The role of the federal level became stronger in the 1970s when the modernisation of education required new federal interventions (the BLK, for instance, was created in 1973) but this period of activity was fairly limited. In recent years, though, new demands have emerged for a greater federal role. This was demonstrated by the establishment and the success of the *Forum Bildung* (led by the BLK and BMBF), and the programme of the Federal government, presented in the Bundestag in March 2003, which proposed the establishment of *national standards* defining the competencies that all German students should acquire at a

certain age, and the measurement of the accomplishment of these by standardised instruments at national level. In this context, a national institute for monitoring the implementation of educational standards in the school system (“Institute for Quality Development in the Education System”) is being created in 2004 with financial support from the Länder and the Federal government.

36. The administration of education is rather centralised in all Länder, even if some minor variations can be observed. Most of the Länder administer education following the common European model characterised by sharing responsibilities between the central administration headed by the minister of education, and self-governing local authorities. In the education sector regional and district authorities operate under the direct supervision of the education minister. These authorities are responsible for legal and professional supervision and inspection. Schools operate in a highly regulated environment: most of the rules of their operation are defined by higher authorities, and schools themselves have relatively little impact on teaching programmes, personnel, or material resources. Measured by the PISA index of school autonomy German schools (3.9) are less autonomous than the OECD average (5.0), with the range being from 6.1 in Australia to 1.5 in Portugal (OECD, 2001a).

37. The structure of local government consists of 445 district governments, of which 313 are associations of rural municipalities (numbering more than 13 000 municipalities), and 132 are autonomous town municipalities. In addition the three city-states of Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg have the status of a Land. The role of local governments differs among the Länder: while in most it is confined to assuring the physical infrastructure of schooling (buildings, technical facilities), in some Länder it is increasing. In North-Rhine-Westphalia, for instance, the 150 municipal self-governments (cities and counties) have had a noticeable role in shaping the school system. In Baden-Württemberg the government has transferred many administrative services from the ministry of education to the local governments. Municipal authorities may have a role in personnel policy as well, as the employers of auxiliary personnel, kindergarten teachers or, in some cases, replacement teachers for those on leave.

38. Germany is notable for the mechanisms to guarantee that teachers participate in the development of teacher policies. Teachers’ involvement is ensured not only through teacher organisations but also by their direct participation in different consultative bodies, namely councils at school, regional and Land levels. Teacher organisations articulate teachers’ views on a wide range of educational issues, promote research to inform the policy debate, and play an important role in the formulation of educational policy.

39. Teachers in Germany are represented by trade unions and professional associations. Most teachers are organised into two main groups of unions:

- a) GEW (*Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*, Trade Union of Education and Science) which belongs to the DGB (*Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund*, German Trade Union Confederation); and
- b) Several unions which are part of the DBB (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*, German Federation of Civil Servants), and which reflect the organisation of the school structure:
  - BLBS (*Bundesverband der Lehrerinnen und Lehrer an beruflichen Schulen*, for vocational education teachers);
  - VLW (*Bundesverband der Lehrer an Wirtschaftsschulen*, for vocational education teachers);
  - DPhV (*Deutscher Philologenverband*, for teachers at *Gymnasien*/Grammar schools);
  - VBE (*Verband Bildung und Erziehung*, for teachers at primary, *Hauptschulen*, *Realschulen* and special schools);
  - VDR (*Verband Deutscher Realschullehrer*, for teachers at *Realschulen*); and
  - VHW (*Verband Hochschule und Wissenschaft*, for teachers at tertiary level).

40. The trade unions and teachers' associations are consulted regarding all matters, which affect the teaching profession by the Länder authorities responsible for educational policy.<sup>8</sup> They also represent teachers' interests at the federal level in the initiatives developed by the KMK. Since most teachers are civil servants, there are no collective bargaining privileges and salaries and working hours are regulated by the educational authorities in each Land. However, in certain Länder there are also formal rights of co-determination, for example with regard to key changes in working conditions. By contrast, in the new Länder, where most teachers are salaried employees, pay and working conditions are regulated by collective agreements between educational authorities and teacher unions.

### 2.3 Structural Features of the School System

41. Germany – together with Belgium and the Netherlands – is one of the three OECD countries where the age of compulsory education has been raised to 18. The school system is characterised by relatively high enrolment rates at all school levels. In 2001, for example, 89% of 15-19 year-olds were enrolled in schools, which was well above the OECD country mean (78%). It has to be stressed, however, that at upper secondary level more than half the students attend school on a part-time basis as part of their vocational education, and the proportion of upper secondary students enrolled in programmes that provide qualifications to enter university education (*Abitur*) is lower (37%) than the OECD country mean of 49% (OECD, 2003).<sup>9</sup>

42. The structure of the German school system is complex and diverse (see CBR; Döbrich *et al.*, 2003; and Eurydice, 2002a). Although Germany does not have a unified school structure there is, in practice, a recognisable common framework across the different Länder. *Pre-school education* is not yet seen as a fully integrated part of the school system. The length of the *primary cycle* is relatively short (four years in most Länder). The *lower secondary* level, which starts relatively early (at the age of 10 in most Länder), is horizontally highly fragmented. At lower secondary level there is a greater variety of programmes and school types than in most European countries:

- *Hauptschule* ('lower level' secondary school programme, in most cases organisationally integrated with primary schools; it normally covers grades 5 to 9, and provides access to vocational education and training);
- *Realschule* ('intermediate level' general secondary school; it normally covers grades 5 to 10, and provides access to upper secondary education);
- *Gymnasium* (an academic school that combines lower and upper secondary levels and lasts 8 to 9 years);
- *Integrated schools (Gesamtschule)* and *multi track schools* (comprehensive schools providing a unified programme or various programmes in one institution);<sup>10</sup>
- *Alternative schools* (typically non-government schools such as religious-affiliated schools and Free Waldorf-schools); and

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8. For instance, in most Länder the so-called Chamber/Council of Teachers actively participates in the discussion of educational matters together with representatives of parents, students, employers, municipalities, and chambers of commerce in periodical sessions organised by the educational authorities of the Land.

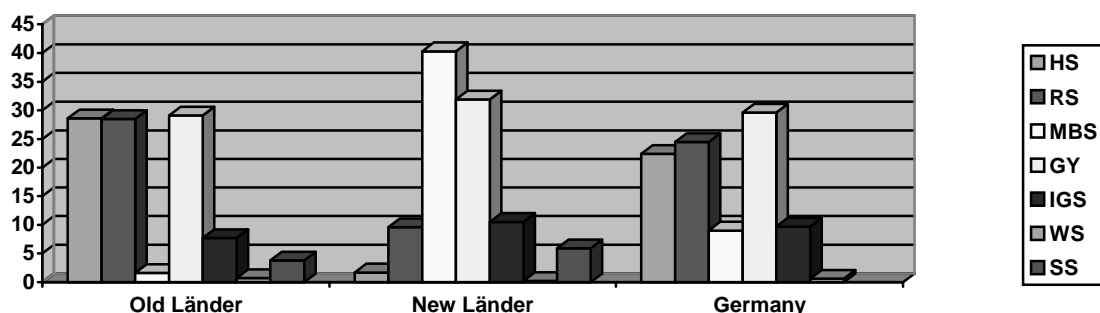
9. The proportion of those who, in fact, acquire university entrance qualification (*Abitur*) is lower: between 20% and 30% (Döbrich *et al.*, 2003).

10. This category comprises *Mittelschule* (Sachsen), *Regelschule* (Thüringen), *Sekundarschule* (Sachsen-Anhalt), *Erweiterte Realschule* (Saarland), *Integrierte Haupt- und Realschule* (Hamburg), *Verbundene Haupt- und Realschule* (Hessen, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern) and *Regionale Schule* (Rheinland-Pfalz).

- *Special education schools (Sonderschulen/Förderschulen).*

43. The distribution of students across the various types of schools differs in the 16 Länder, with the 11 “old” (western) Länder and the 5 “new” (eastern) Länder<sup>11</sup> showing clearly different patterns (see Figure 1). The old Länder have much higher proportions of lower secondary students in *Hauptschule* and *Realschule* than do the new Länder, whereas the latter have around 40% of students in integrated or multi-track schools, compared to only 2% in the former West Germany.

**Figure 1: The distribution of grade 8 students among different school types, 2001/2002 (%)**



**Legend:** (HS – *Hauptschule*; RS - *Realschule*; MBS – Multi-track schools (*Schulen mit mehreren Bildungsgängen*); GY – *Gymnasium*; IGS - Integrated schools (*Gesamtschulen*); WS - Free Waldorf-schools; SS - Special education schools (*Sonderschulen*))

**Source:** Avenarius *et al.*, 2003. p. 56.

44. Students at around the age of 15 or 16 opt for one of three main types of upper secondary institutions: (1) the academic *Gymnasium*; (2) the vocationally oriented secondary schools (*Berufsoberschule*, *Fachoberschule*, and *Berufsfachschule*) which provide full-time education; and (3) the programmes where schooling is combined with workplace training (*Berufsschule*). However, there are considerable variations in these patterns of secondary education, even among neighbouring Länder.

45. The diverse and fragmented structure of schooling has far-reaching implications for the training and the employment of teachers. For every level and for type of school there are specially trained teachers, and there is little scope for moves between the different categories. Initial teacher education, as well as on-the-job induction and in-service training, are typically organised according to the different types of school. As well, the structure of teacher associations reflects the structure of the school system (there are separate associations for teachers in *Gymnasium*, *Realschule* and *Grudschule/Hauptschule*), and the same is true for parents’ associations.

46. In 2000 Germany spent 3.6% of its GDP on school education (including pre-school and non-tertiary post-secondary education) which was the same as the OECD average and slightly lower than its own spending five years earlier (3.7% in 1995). An important feature of the German system is the very wide gap between spending per student at the upper secondary level and spending at the primary and lower secondary levels. At upper secondary level per student expenditure in Germany is about 60% higher than the OECD country average, whereas at the other school levels it is close to the country average (see Appendix 4). Teacher salaries are higher at upper secondary level, student-teacher ratios are lower, and the extensive system of vocational education at upper secondary level tends to have a higher cost structure.

11. The 5 new Länder of the former DDR (Democratic Republic of Germany) were added to the 11 former BRD (Federal Republic of Germany) Länder after re-unification.

## 2.4 Teacher Education and Professional Development

47. Initial teacher education in Germany has some unique features. It is the longest in Europe and lasts for at least six years for secondary teachers, and five years for primary teachers (Eurydice, 2002b). Initial teacher education consists of *two phases*, both ending with an examination regulated by State authorities. The first phase (usually 3 or 4 years long) is provided at universities for all teacher categories (excluding pre-school teachers),<sup>12</sup> and it covers at least two subjects plus educational studies. The second phase, the *preparatory service* lasts between 1.5 and 2 years and follows a *dual model*: it is partly organised in schools as a kind of on-the-job training, and partly in special non-university teacher training institutions (“Seminars”), operating under the control of Land ministries of education. With few exceptions, students holding a general upper secondary qualification (the *Abitur*) can enter university education, including teacher training programmes, without being requested to meet any further requirements (Eurydice, 2002b). The German system of initial teacher education is a mixed model: as a whole it could be described as *consecutive*, but given the fact that the first phase contains significant elements of direct preparation for teaching (educational studies, subject-related didactics and some school practice) it also can be described as *concurrent* (Terhart, 2003).

48. Although virtually all teacher education is provided at university level, the system is rather fragmented. The differentiation of the school structure and the parallel increase in the number of teaching career structures has led, in some Länder, to restructuring teacher education to reflect *level-related* teaching careers (e.g. teaching careers for primary level, for lower secondary level and for upper secondary level), instead of *school-type-related* ones. Nevertheless, the number of categories of teachers of various levels and types of schools, trained separately, is more than 40 in all the Länder. A classification based on the aggregation of similar categories leads, however, to the identification of a more limited number of types of teaching careers and related types of training programmes. According to a KMK agreement concluded in the early 1990s the Federal Republic has six major types of teaching career with related training programmes and examinations (see Table 1).

**Table 1: Types of teaching career and period of initial teacher education defined by the KMK**

Type of teaching career	First phase: university study (no. semesters)	Second phase: preparatory service (no. months)
<i>Grundschule</i> or at primary level	7	18-24
Primary level and all or individual school types at lower secondary level	7-9	18-24
All or individual school types at lower secondary level	7-9	18-24
Upper secondary level (general subjects) or <i>Gymnasium</i>	9	24
Upper secondary level (vocational subjects) or vocational schools	9	24
Special education	9	18-24

**Note:** The periods of the first and second phases may differ according to the special regulations of the different Länder. Six months of the scheduled 24 months of preparatory service may be used for placement in schools during the first phase.

**Source:** CBR

49. According to the KMK agreement, the Land level examination and study regulations should ensure a maximum of 20 hours of weekly attendance per semester. Courses in the first phase have to comprise the study of education theory as well as subject-related studies and subject-related teaching methodology in at least two subjects, and also some weeks of placements in schools. The State

12. The only exception is Baden-Württemberg, which educates primary school teachers, part of lower secondary teachers and special education teachers at non-university institutions (*Pädagogische Hochschulen*).

Examination concluding the first phase consists of a written thesis, written and oral examinations and, if applicable, practical examinations.

50. Following the successful completion of the first phase examinations, students are entitled to have access to the preparatory phase but immediate enrolment is not guaranteed as it is subject to the availability of places at the training institutes where it is undertaken. The main function of the preparatory service is practical training combined with further theoretical studies but, at a certain level, it also may assume a function of induction. In this phase the training institutes (*Seminars*) are responsible for the training as a whole, but the students are already working in schools and are entitled to a reduced salary. This phase is completed by the second State Examination, which consists, as a rule, of the evaluation of a written thesis, an oral examination and the evaluation of teaching.

51. After the successful completion of the second phase teachers – like other civil servants – must prove themselves during a probationary period. The length of the probationary period for teachers is typically two years. After successful completion of the probationary service, teachers, if they are at least 27 years of age, are appointed for life. Special regulations exist for students whose applications were delayed by child-raising or looking after relatives. The typical age of teachers when they enter tenured employment service is relatively high: the average age was 32 years in 1998 (Terhart, 2003).

52. The duty of teachers to undergo in-service training is specified in all Länder by law or ministerial ordinance. The participation of teachers in in-service training is in general compulsory, and training is typically provided during working hours (Eurydice, 2003). In spite of this, Germany is one of those countries where, according to data from the 2000 PISA survey, the extent of teacher participation in professional development activities is the lowest among OECD countries (see Appendix 4). The importance of in-service training and continuous professional development is generally recognised and this is a rapidly developing area in Germany. There is an existing institutional structure for in-service training in all Länder, mostly with well-equipped institutions (State Academies). Baden-Württemberg runs, for instance, four such institutions, and North-Rhine-Westphalia maintains a large State Institute for School Education employing 180 persons. Local school authorities are also playing an increasingly active role in this area.

## **2.5 The Teacher Labour Market**

### *Structure and characteristics of the labour market*

53. In 2001-02, a total of 884,000 teachers were employed in German schools, 84% in general education and 16% in vocational education.<sup>13</sup> Primary school teachers form about 24% of the teaching workforce and *gymnasium* teachers are predominant in secondary education (19% of the total). The number of teachers on the territory of the former West Germany grew significantly until the beginning of the 1990s. Since 1991, however, the number of teachers has declined continuously. Ongoing reductions in some of the eastern States are severe. In Brandenburg, it is planned that the number of established posts will be reduced by 7,000 (30%) by 2010, accompanied by the closure of about half of all secondary schools (Brandenburg background report, 2003).

54. The labour market for teachers in Germany is fundamentally stratified according to level of education, type of school, type of programme (general or vocational), type of provider (public or private), region (municipalities and Länder), and subject matter. As such, considerations about the balance of teacher demand and supply should reflect the existence of different sub-markets for teachers. Table 2 provides the distribution of teachers by type of school for the country as a whole.

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13. The figures exclude pre-primary education teachers.

**Table 2: Total number of teachers and proportion of female teachers, by type of school and scope of employment, 2001/02 (numbers in thousands)**

Type of school	Total number and % by type of school	Percent of female	Number and percent of full-time (FT)	Percent of female among FT teachers	Number and percent of part-time (PT)	Percent of female among PT teachers	Number and percent on an hourly basis	Percent of female among teachers on an hourly basis
<b>Total</b>	<b>884</b>	<b>62%</b>	<b>498 (56%)</b>	<b>49%</b>	<b>292 (33%)</b>	<b>85%</b>	<b>95 (11%)</b>	<b>59%</b>
<i>General Education</i>	<i>741(84%)</i>	<i>66%</i>	<i>411 (55%)</i>	<i>53%</i>	<i>264 (36%)</i>	<i>87%</i>	<i>67 (9%)</i>	<i>63%</i>
Primary schools	214 (24%)	83%	85 (40%)	72%	105 (49%)	96%	24 (11%)	70%
Orientation stage <sup>1</sup>	27 (3%)	71%	16 (60%)	62%	10 (37%)	87%	1 (3%)	71%
<i>Hauptschulen</i>	82 (9%)	54%	52 (63%)	41%	22 (27%)	86%	8 (10%)	55%
<i>Realschulen</i>	81 (9%)	61%	47 (58%)	48%	28 (34%)	84%	6 (8%)	59%
<i>Gymnasien</i> <sup>2</sup>	170 (19%)	49%	105 (62%)	37%	48 (29%)	74%	16 (9%)	56%
Integrated and multi-track schools <sup>3</sup>	78 (9%)	63%	49 (64%)	55%	25 (33%)	80%	3 (4%)	52%
Free Waldorf schools	7 (0.7%)	57%	3 (48%)	42%	2 (37%)	73%	1 (15%)	69%
Special schools	74(8%)	73%	47 (64%)	66%	21 (28%)	89%	6 (8%)	78%
Evening and adult schools	4 (0.5%)	--	2 (51%)	--	1 (22%)	--	1 (27%)	--
<i>Vocational Education</i>	<i>142 (16%)</i>	<i>41%</i>	<i>87 (61%)</i>	<i>30%</i>	<i>28 (20%)</i>	<i>70%</i>	<i>28 (19%)</i>	<i>47%</i>
Dual-system <sup>4</sup>	59 (7%)	35%	41 (70%)	26%	10 (18%)	65%	7 (12%)	42%
Full-time vocational education <sup>5</sup>	41 (5%)	50%	22 (53%)	38%	9 (23%)	76%	10 (24%)	52%
Other Vocational	43 (5%)	42%	24 (56%)	30%	9 (20%)	69%	10 (24%)	46%

**Notes:**

1. Covers grades 5 and 6, which either form part of the various secondary schools or are separate from them;
2. Grammar schools;
3. Schools in which the different types of secondary school are combined in various organisational and curricular forms: (i) schools offering the different educational tracks under the same umbrella; (ii) fully comprehensive schools (integrated *Gesamtschulen*);
4. *Berufsschulen*;
5. *Berufsfachschulen*

**Source:** Computations from KMK (2003a), based on Federal Statistical Office.

55. A large share of the funding for schools is spent on teachers. In 2000, 86% of current expenditure on the school system was devoted to the remuneration of teachers and other staff, a figure considerably above the OECD country mean of 80% (see Appendix 4). The teaching workforce is considerably feminised in general education although, with the exception of primary education, feminisation tends to be below the OECD average (see Appendix 4). While more than 83% of teachers are women at primary level, the numbers are about equal in grammar schools (Table 2).

56. A striking feature of the German teaching workforce is the high percentage of part-time teachers. Overall, 33% of teachers work part-time<sup>14</sup> and about 11% are employed on an hourly basis.<sup>15</sup> In particular, full-time teachers are a minority (40%) in primary schools. Not surprisingly, women constitute the vast majority of the teachers who work part-time and also tend to work more than men on an hourly basis (see Table 2). The origins of the high proportion of part-time employment differ across the Länder. In the western Länder it generally results from the decisions of individuals who value the flexibility of part-time positions, while in the eastern Länder it mainly results from workforce contraction due to financial

14. Part-time teachers are fully integrated in the school and their non-teaching duties typically go above the 50% rule established for teaching hours.

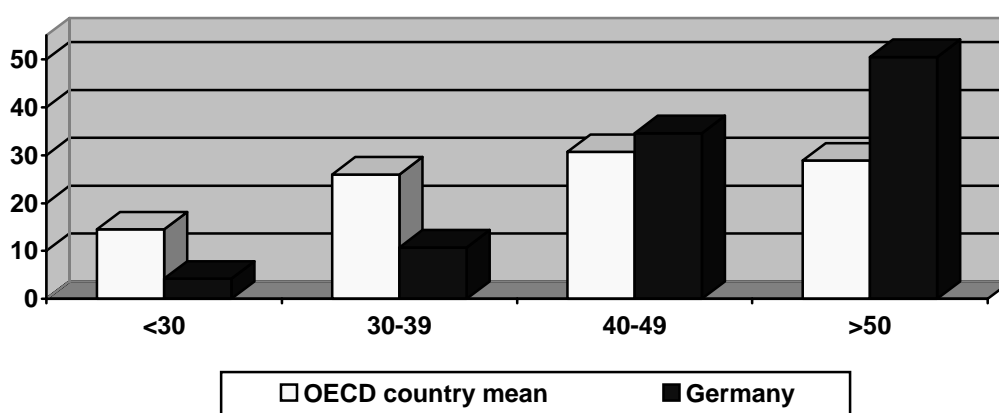
15. Teachers on an hourly basis work below the 50% threshold for teaching time established for part-time teachers.



restrictions and a sharp decrease in student numbers which has lead educational authorities to offer mostly part-time employment.<sup>16</sup>

57. The German teaching workforce has one of the oldest age structures among OECD countries. In 2001, about 45% of primary school teachers (1<sup>st</sup> highest among OECD countries), 51% of lower secondary teachers (2<sup>nd</sup> highest) and 37% of upper secondary teachers (6<sup>th</sup> highest) were aged 50 and over (see Figure 2 and Appendix 4). In addition, the ageing trend has been very marked in recent years – the corresponding 1996 figures for primary and lower secondary education were 32% and 34% respectively (OECD, 1998a). The explanation lies in the lack of continuity of recruitment practices over time and the massive number of appointments during the 1970s. It should also be noted that this trend is Land-specific as the average age of teachers tends to be lower in the new Länder in the east of the country.

**Figure 2: Percentage of teachers in public and private lower secondary schools by age group, 2001**



Source: OECD (2003)

58. Difficulties in the recruitment of teachers differ by region, level of education, type of school and subject area, although there is a considerable lack of indicators and statistics to assess the severity of teacher shortfalls, which implies that assessments are often based on anecdotal evidence. At national level, the overall picture reveals that teacher shortages particularly affect vocational and lower secondary education. In upper secondary general education teacher demand and supply seem to be broadly aligned, while in primary education supply tends to exceed demand.

59. There is a great contrast across Länder, however. The new Länder (e.g. Brandenburg) are on the whole characterised by surpluses of teachers due to an unprecedented decline of student numbers following a fall in birth rates and high migration to the western Länder. This demographic trend, in addition to tight budgetary restrictions, led to reducing teacher numbers through early retirement, redundancies, and part-time employment together with significant limitations on the hiring of new teachers. Yet the eastern Länder have also needed to adapt their curricula in line with that of the western Länder, which has created new recruitment needs in areas such as foreign languages, vocational and special education that have not been easy to meet.

60. Among the western Länder the picture is not uniform either. In Hamburg, despite the overall favourable 3:1 ratio of applicants to available posts, some recruitment problems have emerged. These are more acute in lower secondary schools in areas such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, music and fine

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16. Part-time employment is also used as a policy when surpluses of teachers arise in western Länder but to a much lesser extent than in eastern Länder.

arts; vocational disciplines such as electrical engineering and metallurgy; and subjects in grammar schools such as physics, Latin and Spanish (Hamburg background report, 2003). The situation seems to be more favourable in Baden-Württemberg, where shortfalls are uncommon in general education, in part as the result of the successful recruitment of teachers from other parts of Germany (Baden-Württemberg background report, 2003).

61. The situation seems to be more difficult in North-Rhine Westphalia. Anecdotal evidence points to long-standing recruitment difficulties in vocational schools, especially in the construction sector. Similarly, qualified teachers are hard to recruit in areas such as mathematics and sciences in secondary schools and the problems are more acute for schools in remote and heavily industrialised areas. Problems are particularly sharp in *Hauptschulen*, regardless of the subject area, as indicated by the fact that in February 2003 50% of the newly-hired teachers were not fully qualified (i.e. had not passed the 2<sup>nd</sup> State examination). By contrast, primary schools do not seem to be affected by recruitment problems (North-Rhine Westphalia background report, 2003).

62. As regards future prospects, four factors will be particularly influential. First, Germany's school-age population is likely to drop by 2010 – by 16% and 5% for the 5-14 and 15-19 age ranges respectively (see Appendix 4), although rising student numbers are expected until about 2005/06 in the western Länder. Second, large numbers of teachers will retire within the next decade: for example, given that 59 is the current average retirement age, about half of the current teaching workforce in primary and lower secondary schools will leave within the next decade. Third, the number of graduates from initial teacher education has been static since 1997 after a considerable expansion in the early 1990s (see Table 3). But an encouraging trend is the significant rise of student numbers entering the 1<sup>st</sup> phase of initial teacher education since 1998. Finally, the current effort to significantly raise the number of whole-day schools is placing additional pressure on the demand for new teachers. The latter might be attenuated by the reduction from 13 to 12 grades in schooling, which is occurring in most Länder.

**Table 3: Entrants and graduates by type of initial teacher education (ITE), 1992-2002**

Type of specialisation		First-year enrolments	Number of students	First-year enrolments	Number of students			Number of newly-		
		ITE – 1 <sup>st</sup> phase	graduating from ITE – 1 <sup>st</sup> phase	ITE – 2 <sup>nd</sup> phase	graduating from ITE – 2 <sup>nd</sup> phase			appointed teachers		
					Total	Western Länder	Eastern Länder	Total	Western Länder	Eastern Länder
All types	2002	48873	21889	23164	20270	19314	956	26863	25062	1801
	2001	45769	23254	23672	21583	20250	1333	30584	27764	2820
	2000	35749	23676	22608	22727	20956	1771	29109	26788	2321
	1999	34942	24825	24372	22332	20544	1788	20350	18288	2062
	1998	34774	25685	23769	22875	20792	2083	16490	14614	1876
	1997	38913	25066	24746	21963	19464	2499	12904	11818	1086
	1996	42407	24688	23310	17515	15699	1816	14888	13542	1346
	1992	42180	12976	14192	12222	11437	785	13930	12868	1062
Primary and lower secondary education	2002	21282	10070	10038	9832	9564	268	12089	11559	530
	2001	20597	10844	11118	10186	9841	345	14774	13876	898
	2000	15920	11246	10439	10505	9876	629	14210	13434	776
	1996	18022	12352	11872	9346	8688	658	7833	7619	214
	1992	18040	5714	6472	4856	4314	542	7081	6696	385
Upper secondary general education and gymnasien <sup>1</sup>	2002	19900	7552	7196	5918	5509	409	8015	7475	540
	2001	18881	7811	6910	7034	6316	718	8944	8037	907
	2000	13943	8117	7261	7613	6732	881	8165	7399	766
	1996	16801	8597	7043	4724	3802	922	3488	3002	486
	1992	17367	5117	4773	4554	4382	172	3108	2740	368
Upper secondary vocational education <sup>1</sup>	2002	4363	1617	2462	1751	1626	125	2200	2013	187
	2001	3181	1772	2195	1837	1739	98	2640	2323	317
	2000	2907	1744	1951	2006	1869	137	3023	2597	426
	1996	3318	1903	2184	2009	1841	168	1880	1325	555
	1992	3483	1054	1547	1198	1128	70	1608	1373	235

**Notes:** 1<sup>st</sup> phase corresponds to the academic part of ITE while 2<sup>nd</sup> phase corresponds to the preparatory service.

1. Includes individuals who will teach at tertiary level.

**Source:** KMK (2003b).

63. Limited information is available regarding the mobility of teachers within and across Länder. Some statistics point to some mobility within Länder but very limited transfers across them. According to statistics from KMK, which consider flows of full-time teachers for the 2001-02 academic year, about 9% of teachers left their initial teaching position. Of these, about one-third transferred to another school within the same Land while only about 2% of leavers transferred to a school in another Land (other reasons to leave included retirement, death, temporary departures, and “other”). The same statistics reveal that, among the teachers staying in the profession, only 3% transferred to another school for the 2001-02 academic year. This might reflect the high degree of specialisation of the different types of schools – once teachers are assigned to a specific type of school, almost exclusively dictated by their initial training, they tend to remain in it for most of their careers. The degree of mobility from education to other sectors of activity also seems to be limited. From all the teachers that left their initial teaching position in the 2001-02 academic year, fewer than one fifth left for another occupation. Part of the explanation certainly lies in the benefits provided by the public service which are hard to find in the private sector, namely high job security and a good pension.

### ***Employment, recruitment and selection***

64. Teachers in public schools in the western Länder are, as a general rule, civil servants employed by the Länder. Their legal position is regulated by the civil service legislation of the Länder, which is guided by the provisions of the Civil Servant Framework Act. New teachers meeting the legal requirements are appointed as civil servants on probation. During the probationary period (which typically lasts two years) a teacher’s aptitude is monitored with regard to his/her permanent appointment as a civil servant. Teachers are eligible for public servant status if they are qualified (i.e. passed both State Examinations) for the teaching position to which they have been appointed, and if they are less than 45

years old. As civil servants, teachers do not have collective bargaining privileges and have no right to strike.

65. In exceptional cases – to cover for teaching staff on leave, or when the requirements for civil servant status are not met – teachers can be hired as salaried employees on fixed-term or open-ended contracts. The legal position of salaried teachers corresponds to general employment law as well as provisions under the collective wage agreement. Such teachers are subject to a probationary period of six months and their contract cannot be terminated after 15 years of employment provided that the teacher has reached the age of 40. A considerable proportion of teachers in the eastern Länder currently have the status of salaried employees. For example, in Brandenburg about half of the teachers have public servant status (half of whom are employed part-time) in contrast with the western Länder where more than 90% of teachers have public servant status. But teachers in the eastern Länder are progressively acquiring civil servant status and being integrated into the salary structure of the western Länder. In government-funded private schools teachers are the salaried employees of the governing bodies but, as a result of the public funding, schools are compelled to hire teachers that have passed the second State Examination. Greater discretion is allowed in the few non-government-funded schools in regard to the employment of teachers.

66. Upon successful completion of the preparatory phase, new teachers can apply for permanent posts at public-sector schools. In practice, each ministry is itself responsible for selecting and hiring new teachers and may establish independently how applicants are to be selected. The different levels of government have the right to decide, within the framework of their budgetary authority, on the number and distribution of teaching posts. In accordance with budgetary law, human resources are not managed according to available funds, but according to established posts. On principle, the budgetary authority must approve each post before someone can be hired into that post, since the costs of a lifetime appointment are large.

67. Germany belongs to the group of countries where teachers are recruited through a *candidate list* and the decision on employment is made by the *State authority*, although in several Länder, especially when not enough candidates are found to fill a particular teaching post on the list, State authorities resort also to *open recruitment*. The typical features of the candidate list model is that (1) teachers join the national body of the profession instead of choosing a concrete job at a given workplace, and (2) it is based on an impersonal procedure managed by State authorities (either the ministry or an intermediate-level school supervisory authority, depending on the Land) through a waiting list on which the position of teachers depends essentially on their academic performance (a “performance mark” based on the average grades obtained in both State Examinations) or partly the assessment of teaching performance during the preparatory phase. The decision to allocate teachers to schools is made by the authorities, which may take the geographical preferences of the candidates into account. The satisfaction of such preferences is sometimes used to recognise the (mainly academic) achievements of the candidate.

68. Alongside the central procedure based on the candidate list, most Länder advertise a proportion of their vacancies separately targeting them at the profile of specific schools and involve the school concerned in the selection of the new teachers. Examination grades remain relevant selection criteria, but a direct interaction with the applicants, typically through interviews, allows the use of a more complete set of criteria such as the ability to communicate and the match with the school’s educational approach. This process of open recruitment offers advantages to applicants who can more directly choose the school and have a closer contact with the school’s reality before the decision is taken. The applications are sometimes directly sent to the respective school; however, the appointment is not made by the school itself but by the ministry or the intermediate-level school supervisory authority. Most Länder have recently introduced the open application procedure but to different extents. Currently, Hamburg fills about 20% of new teaching posts using this method and has plans to expand it to about 50% of available positions. Similarly, Baden-Württemberg has also been expanding the importance of open recruitment and currently uses it to fill about

a third of vacancies (40% in vocational and special schools). North-Rhine Westphalia and Brandenburg also currently make widespread use of open recruitment procedures.

69. Entering the teaching profession with professional experience outside education and also without formal initial teacher education is still a limited phenomenon and tends to occur only in the areas of shortage. In 2001, about 3% of new appointees in the public education sector were of the so-called “side-entrants”. This possibility is used in subject areas such as physics, mathematics or information technologies in general education, but is considerably more common in vocational areas such as electrical and mechanical engineering, metallurgy, information technology, and business informatics as a result of shortages, and also in areas such as pharmacy or law that are not offered in teacher education programmes. The Länder use a multitude of procedures to accommodate “side-entrants”. One possibility is to employ “side entrants” on a fixed-term basis to address temporary needs and to offer them in-service training in didactics and educational pedagogy; another possibility is to allow individuals with a university qualification, especially in scientific and technical subjects, to have direct access to the preparatory phase of initial teacher education; and in some cases employment on an hourly basis without teacher training is considered.

70. Schools are often faced with the need to replace teachers for short periods of time. In Germany, the use of existing teacher resources has priority over employing a substitute teacher. Teachers may be required to teach up to three additional lessons over a period of one month with no additional pay to cover for the absence of a colleague. Teaching hours beyond these imply extra pay but, in these circumstances, a maximum of 24 lessons a month applies. There is a maximum time period during which teachers can have their teaching duties increased; this depends on the Länder and varies between one week and six months. This means that for longer periods of a teacher’s absence, at the discretion of the school management, schools typically hire a substitute teacher whose contract has a maximum duration of one year. Finally, increasing the size of classes, for as long as half a school year, is a procedure allowed to deal with an absent teacher. (See Eurydice, 2002c, for further details.)

## **2.6 Status, Career and Incentives**

71. As described earlier, teachers and administrative staff are employed by the Länder either as public civil servants or salaried employees. The classification and remuneration of public school teachers with civil servant status are regulated by federal legislation<sup>17</sup> while the Guidelines of the Employers’ Association of the German Länder apply to teachers with employee status. Land specific guidelines apply to teachers with employee status. As regards public servants, certain teaching careers (e.g. teachers in special education and principals in integrated schools) are regulated in accordance to Land legislation. In addition a 1997 amendment to the federal legislation provides for teachers’ performance, as well as seniority, to be considered in promotion decisions, a possibility that the Länder have used to different extents.

72. As civil servants, teachers are classified under the higher and senior service. Following the preparatory service phase, teachers are usually placed on scales A12 or A13 under the federal legislation. The initial scale placement depends on the specific training completed. Depending on the Land, the salary scales are organised according to either school types or school levels. While in the school-type-based system *Hauptschule* teachers are placed into a lower pay category than *Realschule* teachers, in the school-level-based system both start their career in the same category and may enter a higher one if promoted (see

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17. Teachers with public servant status in the eastern Länder are remunerated according to the *Second Transitional Ordinance on Remuneration*, which consists of a gradual convergence to remuneration levels of the western Länder. The transition is to be completed by the end of 2005. In Brandenburg in 2002/03 the net income of teachers appointed as public servants was 8% lower than in the western Länder.

Table 4). Teachers of practical subjects in vocational schools whose training does not require a degree from a university or equivalent higher education institution, if not employed as salaried employees, are classified as civil servants at a lower level (clerical or higher service).

**Table 4: Salary scales by school type and by school level**

<b>Basis of salary classification</b>	<b>Salary scale of teachers</b>	<b>Salary scale of vice principal / principal</b>
<i>By school type</i>		
Primary schools	A12	A13 / A14
<i>Hauptschulen</i>	A12	A13 / A14
<i>Realschulen</i>	A13	A14 (+ post allowance) / A15
Special schools	A13	Information not available
<i>Gymnasien</i>	A13 (+ post allowance)	A15 (+ post allowance) / A16
- Promotion to <i>Oberstudienrat</i>	A14	--
- Promotion to <i>Studiendirektor</i>	A15	--
Vocational schools	A13 (+ post allowance)	A15 (+ post allowance) / A16
- Promotion to <i>Oberstudienrat</i>	A14	--
- Promotion to <i>Studiendirektor</i>	A15	--
<i>By school level corresponding to the training of teachers</i>		
Teachers holding a primary level teaching certificate	A12	--
Teachers holding a teaching certificate for the lower secondary level		--
- Starting	A12	--
- On promotion	A13	--
Teachers holding a teaching certificate for the upper secondary level (general or vocational)	A13 (+ post allowance)	--
- Promotion to <i>Oberstudienrat</i>	A14	--
- Promotion to <i>Studiendirektor</i>	A15	--

**Note:** The salaries for vice-principals and principals depend on the size of the school. The table shows the scales for schools with more than 360 students.

**Source:** Eurydice (2003a).

73. Each salary scale comprises 12 steps. The initial placement within a given salary scale depends on the age of the teacher at the time he/she became a public servant, with the training period also taken into account. Within a salary scale, moving up to the next step depends essentially on years of experience and, to some extent, on assessed performance. Step increases within a salary scale are typically automatic with the following frequency: every two years for the first five steps; every three years until step 9; and every four years until the end of the scale. The performance of teachers is not systematically assessed for step increases to be confirmed. However, certain Länder have recently introduced formal links to performance. For instance, in Baden-Württemberg it is possible for teachers with outstanding performance as identified by school management to advance faster within the salary scale.<sup>18</sup> Likewise, North-Rhine Westphalia is currently evaluating a system whereby the automatic step increases have been replaced by step increases whose frequency (2 to 4 years) depends on the quality of teachers' work.

18. In Baden-Württemberg since 2000, each year 10% of the teachers in each school can advance to the next salary step based on outstanding performance. A step advance can be postponed on the basis of an unsatisfactory performance.

74. Opportunities for teacher promotion (in the sense of moving to a higher salary scale) are scarce in the civil service. Teachers in primary and special schools, *hauptschulen* and *realschulen* do not have opportunities for promotion except to school management roles. In *gymnasien* and vocational schools, teachers can be promoted to two other salary scales. The promotion to *Oberstudienrat* (“head study advisor”) is generally automatic after a few years of service conditional on satisfactory performance and does not involve any new responsibilities.<sup>19</sup> By contrast, the promotion to *Studiendirektor* (“study director”) involves special duties such as head of department (subject co-ordinator). Posts as *Studiendirektor* are limited in number, require an open competition and imply an evaluation of teachers.

75. The remuneration of salaried teachers is governed by collective agreements concluded between the public employers and the trade unions. A set of salary scales with multiple steps, equivalent to the system for civil servants, defines the level of remuneration. Unlike with civil servants, reaching the next step depends exclusively on age, and hence not performance. As a person gets older the salary increases from the starting step in intervals of two years, until the final step is reached. The basic salary of teachers with employee status is lower than that of teachers with civil servant status – on average it amounts to 87% of the civil servant pay (Federal Ministry of the Interior, 2002).

76. Besides the basic salary, earnings also include a family allowance (dependent on the family circumstances and specific salary scale), an annual extra amount (“Christmas bonus”), and an annual holiday allowance. Public employees largely receive the same allowances as civil servants. Tax is deducted from civil servants’ gross salaries but, unlike salaried employees, no social security contributions (pension and unemployment insurance) are deducted. Allowances may be provided for certain extra responsibilities, such as service on committees or staff bodies. There are no extra allowances for difficult working conditions, areas of shortage, or teaching in disadvantaged areas.

77. Teachers with civil servant status benefit from a generous pension scheme. The regulated retirement age is 65 but it is possible to retire earlier including for reasons of bad health. The current average retirement age is 59. The amount of the pension is based on the number of years of service (a minimum of 5 years is required), the salary, the family allowance and other official allowances. The amount of the pension is necessarily between 35 and 75% of the value of the final earnings package. Pensions of salaried teachers are determined by the contribution period (a minimum of 15 years is required) and the value of contributions to pension insurance during working life.

78. Teachers are generally entitled to 30 working days of holiday per year to be taken during school holidays. School holiday periods which exceed teachers’ holiday entitlement are to be used for professional development activities, preparation of lessons or other official duties. An additional benefit offered to teachers with civil servant status is substantial job security. A teacher can only be dismissed under extraordinary circumstances, which include loss of citizenship, sentence to imprisonment, and refusal to swear the oath of office described by law. Disciplinary proceedings can also result in dismissal but this rarely occurs. An underperforming teacher may be required to undergo further training or to move to a different school but dismissal usually proves impossible. Dismissal is conceivable during the probationary period if the performance is deemed inadequate, but is fairly rare. The job security of salaried teachers is substantially lower. As long as due notice is given, contracts can be terminated when the performance of teachers is unsatisfactory and also when an excess supply of teachers exists (e.g. when the number of students drops).

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19. In Baden-Württemberg, in 2002 and 2003 on a trial basis, 30% of posts as *Oberstudienrat* are associated with special responsibilities (e.g. organisation of in-service training). An evaluation is underway to determine the scheme’s effectiveness. Hamburg plans to introduce open competition for all posts implying a promotion.

79. Teachers are compensated during the preparatory service phase. In general, student teachers earn about half of what they will earn as beginning, full-time teachers. They are considered probationary civil servants, and as such receive many of the same benefits as other civil servants – e.g. family and holiday allowances.

## **2.7 Teachers' Work in Schools**

80. The net time German teachers spend on teaching expressed in hours per year is around the OECD average (slightly lower at primary, and higher at lower and upper secondary level - see Appendix 4). Germany belongs to the group of few countries (together with Belgium, Ireland and Luxembourg) where the regulation of working time of teachers is based solely on the prescription of teaching hours, that is lessons spent in classrooms with students (Eurydice, 2003). The German approach, by defining teachers' work in terms of class teaching hours alone, offers less scope for involving teachers in the overall activity of the school as an organisation.

81. The average class size in public primary and lower secondary education (22.4 and 24.5 respectively) was only slightly higher than the OECD averages (22.0 and 23.8) in 2001 (OECD, 2003). As the non-teaching staff of schools is usually confined to a secretary, who is often part-time, and a caretaker, teachers have to undertake a variety of administrative and bureaucratic tasks. In general, there is no technical support for practical laboratories or computer facilities. Staffrooms in schools, particularly half-day schools are often small and cramped. Teachers tend to prepare their work at home but many would stay longer at the school if there were better staff facilities. Some good staff facilities were observed during the visit, for example in a comprehensive school in Dortmund and a secondary school in Potsdam. The overall impression, though, was that the physical infrastructure will require considerable investment in coming years.

82. The CBR included evidence from medical and psychological studies indicating that up to one-third of teachers suffers from various physical, psychosomatic and psychological problems often described as the "burn-out syndrome". Other indications of concern are that many teachers leave the profession before reaching the official retirement age (in 2001 only 6% worked to the ordinary retirement age of 65), and that teacher absenteeism seems to be relatively high: according to data from the 2000 PISA survey 26% of 15 year-olds are in schools where principals believe that student learning is hindered "some" or a "lot" by teacher absenteeism (compared to an OECD country average of 17%).

83. There are various opportunities for teachers to work outside their school in jobs related mainly with supervision or development. They may take part in the professional assessment and counselling of other teachers, undertake mentorship or work in in-service teacher training. The development of the support system and the concomitant emergence of new educational professions (such as school developers, quality management consultants, testing experts or professional school evaluators) seem to result in a more diverse, and perhaps more attractive profession.

84. The expansion of whole-day schooling will probably have a significant influence on the organisation of the work of teachers in the future. Although the Länder are free to define the pedagogical content of this form of education, the Federal government has proposed that teaching should be linked with supplementary and free-time provision covering mornings and afternoons, and be freed up from the usual 45-minute rhythm of class organisation.

## **2.8 Quality Assurance, Accountability and Management**

85. Teachers in Germany enjoy a large measure of professional independence in the way they work. There is a sense in which their long preparation for the profession, and success in the first and second State



Examinations, followed by a period of induction, gives them the authority to practise largely autonomously for their entire careers. This view of teacher autonomy implies that the quality of educational provision is largely determined by teachers' initial training and early career experiences. The subsequent development of skills and techniques rests with the individual teacher, and their interest and enthusiasm. Teachers are seldom evaluated after they are established in post: typically they are assessed after starting in the education service, and later only if they are promoted. The regular moves up the salary scale are generally not linked with assessment. The main exceptions are for ineffective teachers, who may be identified by the principal. Such teachers may be warned, sent for further training, but dismissal is extremely rare.

86. The debate about the evaluation function within the education system is only fairly recent in Germany, and the new institutional structures reflecting advanced evaluation and assessment concepts have not yet been firmly established (Eurydice, 2002a). Quality control has traditionally focused on input factors (especially on teaching programmes), and is achieved mainly through legal-administrative inspection by the State supervisory authorities. The regulatory tool that has traditionally been seen as the most important guarantee for quality is the final examination of the *Gymnasiale Oberstufe* (the *Abitur*, with no nationally standardised components even if recently certain national-level requirements in specific subjects have introduced a certain degree of uniformity). Except for the examinations required for vocational qualifications, there are no other regular, institutionalised instruments to measure the results of learning.

87. It should be noted, however, that this tradition has recently been seriously challenged and several new quality instruments are being developed and introduced in all Länder, supported by federal measures. The KMK in 1997 declared that quality assurance would be a central issue for its work, and in 1998 it carried out an assessment of quality evaluation procedures in the Länder, which revealed that they have taken many new quality evaluation measures (see Box 2). That review revealed that these measures are embedded in overall strategies for strengthening the autonomy of schools, the development of school-specific profiles, the promotion of inter-school cooperation and the strengthening of the advisory functions of the school supervisory authority. The Länder have also come to an agreement to link up some of their measures in a BLK pilot programme entitled "Quality improvement in schools and school systems" (KMK, 2002). As noted earlier, quality assurance was also a central objective of the Forum Bildung.

#### **Box 2: New evaluation measures in the Länder**

The KMK review of the quality evaluation procedures applied by the Länder indicated that a range of initiatives had been undertaken in recent years. These comprised: (1) the use of standardised school performance tests at Land level (e.g. to compare performance between parallel classes within a school); (2) the application of comparative tests in core subjects; (3) the supervision of final examinations by external staff or the external correction of examination work (e.g. by a second correction of examination papers); (4) the organisation of focused evaluations on special measures and topics (e.g. evaluation of examination work in individual subjects in various Länder); and (5) the internal and external evaluation of schools by external observers and advisors.

*Source:* KMK, 2002

88. The emerging emphasis on quality assurance and evaluation is strongly linked with a concern about school management which, until recently, has been a rather neglected area in Germany. The identity of school leaders is still basically associated with class teaching. Principals tend to see themselves more as head teachers rather than as school managers and leaders. Teachers generally perceive the principal as "first among equals", raised from the ranks and paid a bit more to coordinate the work of the school. As noted in an international review of school leaders "there are still States in Germany, where school leaders are not prepared at all or only to a small extent before taking over leadership ... in a school. The underlying assumption is that a good classroom teacher will automatically become a sufficiently good school leader" (ICSEI, 2000). Although there is a national association of school leaders, principals are generally more likely to be members of school-type-related professional organisations.

89. Most principals do not seem to have strategies for quality improvement and for assessing and developing the effectiveness of the work of their teacher colleagues. Becoming a principal is not a typical aspiration among teachers: in many schools, vacant headship posts receive only few applications (e.g. an average of 1.3 applications per vacancy in one Land we visited). In some rural areas, it seems to be especially difficult to find suitable candidates. The low rate of applicants may be attributed partly to the relatively small pay differential, but it may also reflect the fact that the principal's role is quite constrained. Teachers have a relatively strong position in the management of the school as they occupy several places in the *Schulkonferenz*, where they can express their views on the way the school is run.

90. The school principal is supported typically by minimal management and administrative resources. Although larger schools have deputy principals and a few other staff who carry particular responsibilities, the middle-level of management is typically missing. Most frequently the principal holds the only management position in the organisation. The concept of shared leadership in schools seems to be under-developed.

### **3. STRENGTHS AND CHALLENGES IN TEACHER POLICY**

91. This section provides an evaluation of the strengths and challenges of teacher policy in Germany. The analysis focuses on eight main areas: system governance; initial teacher education; continuous professional development; the labour market for teachers; teachers' career structure and incentives; teachers' work in schools; school management and leadership; and evaluation and accountability.

#### **3.1 Governance and Administration of Teacher Policy**

92. A significant strength of the German system is its highly developed institutional framework for consultation, participation and social dialogue. We were impressed by the level of activity and commitment of the various stakeholder groups, by their level of knowledge and understanding of education policy issues, and also their willingness and capacity to express their views. There are not many countries where the business community shows a similarly strong commitment and participatory activity in the development and the management of education, and not only in the vocational education field.

93. In Germany, as in other countries, a key question of educational governance is how to create the right balance between the roles of the State (including the federal level), the local communities and the educational institutions. The Federal State, as already stated, plays a relatively limited role in education. The Länder seem to have ambiguous attitudes towards an increasing role at the federal level: on the one hand, they support it, as it may back their own reform initiatives; on the other hand, they wish to retain control and restrict autonomous federal actions. We think that the potential of the federal structure is not exploited appropriately. The federal level does not show the same level of activity and creativity in shaping the country's educational landscape and to enhance mutual inter-state learning and experimentation as it does in some other federal countries.

94. The administrative apparatus of the education sector at local and territorial level operates in chain line subordination to the ministries of education, and is largely separated from other local and territorial sectoral administrations. This has a significant impact on the way the system operates and on the organisational culture it supports. This type of educational administration has a lower capacity to place educational policy problems in the wider social and economic context of lifelong learning and it is less

open towards the labour market related or social functions of education than systems organised in a more integrated administrative structure. It also tends to favour seeing educational issues in an academic context dominated by disciplinary problems. It is important to stress, however, that in some Länder there are more integrated models (in North-Rhine-Westphalia, for example), and some Länder (for example Baden-Württemberg) are moving in this direction.

95. This model of educational administration also implies a relatively weak role for local communities. In most Länder, the role of local self-governments is limited to the maintenance of physical infrastructure. There are, however, a number of recent developments that may challenge this situation. One of these, as already stressed, is the new government policy of supporting pre-school education and whole-day schools. As these forms of schooling are associated with a broader concept of education, this development may strengthen those social functions of schools that are already strongly linked with local communities. A further such tendency is the growing role of modern multimedia and communication technology in teaching and learning. As the purchase and, particularly, the maintenance and continuous renewal of this technical equipment is the responsibility of the school maintainer (normally a local community), and pedagogy and technology are becoming more intertwined, it can be expected that curricular decisions in the future will entail the active participation of local communities in spite of the administrative tradition. A similar development may be enhanced by the growing concern for immigrants and non-German speaking minorities, as an adequate service directed towards these groups necessarily involves elements of local social care as well as education.

96. Local communities may acquire a new role also in teacher employment, which is an area traditionally excluded from their jurisdiction. There are some examples of local governments employing replacement teachers who can be allocated to schools when needed on a temporary basis. Local governments can also contribute to solving teacher shortage problems in critical subject areas, as they can make special compensation offers (for example cheaper housing). It is important to stress, however, that the increasing potential role of local communities in educational issues raises some concerns. Adding another set of players to an already complex educational scene contains risks as blurring lines of responsibility and additional costs. As this new trend appears in a period of budgetary restrictions hitting particularly strongly certain municipalities, many of them may not be willing to increase their involvement in the education sector. A greater involvement of local authorities may paradoxically, therefore, create greater inequalities in the school system. Our meetings with the representatives of associations of city governments presented us a very diverse picture: while some of them seemed to be heavily involved in schools and interested to increase further their involvement, others appeared surprisingly passive, uninformed and uninterested.

97. A further important aspect of governance and administration that has far reaching implications for teacher policy is the nature and scope of the regulatory system. As already noted, one of the major objectives of the current reform of State administration is to reduce excessive regulation and to enhance the capacity of society for self-regulation. The education sector is one of those where the scope of State regulation is traditionally the most extended. The German (and also European) tradition of regulating teaching and learning, and teachers' activities predominantly through legal instruments, apart from the advantages it may bring, may create an unfavourable environment for innovations. It may also impede the professionalisation of teaching, and it can create barriers to transform schools into learning organisations. In the context of teacher policy an important example of inflexible regulation is the way the work and working time of teachers is regulated. These issues are taken up further below.

### **3.2 Initial Teacher Education**

98. Initial teacher education in Germany has recently been subject to a number of high-level analyses at both Federal and State levels and various expert commissions have put forward proposals for policy

action. Most reviews see this area as needing substantial reforms, and there seems to be a rather wide consensus on the major challenges (Terhart, 2000; Döbrich *et al.*, 2003; Terhard, 2003; GEW, 2003).

99. Initial teacher education in Germany involves considerable resources and is very powerful in shaping the teaching profession. One of the strengths of this model is that it offers good opportunities for the “user” (that is the school sector) to exercise control over its structure and content. As noted, in this two-tier model the first phase is provided at universities as autonomous academic institutions, and the responsibility for the second phase is shared between schools and another type of institution, the *Seminars*. The influence of the school sector on teacher education is ensured not only through the second phase provided by organisations operating under the direct supervision of State authorities, but also through the regulation of the content of State Examinations in the first phase at universities. According to Eurydice, the control of the school administration on initial teacher education is the strongest in Germany among all European systems (Eurydice, 2002b).

100. This institutional framework provides an exceptional opportunity to link important parts of teacher education directly to school practice and the development of teacher careers, starting with the induction period.<sup>20</sup> In particular, the capacity of the second phase to react to the needs of schools is a major strength of the German system. However, in the current period of accelerated change this appears also as a weakness. The school administration, exercising control upon training, is not necessarily more adaptive and more open to innovations than the universities. As the expectation of ministries of education towards the content and the form of training is strongly determined by the way schools are currently organised, this model tends to reinforce the fragmented character of initial training, according to various school types and subjects.

101. The high degree of fragmentation according to school types and subjects is a major weakness of the way the training and the employment of teachers is regulated in Germany. We saw many examples of isolated operations in areas where integration could lead not only to a more efficient use of resources but probably also to a better professional content. For instance, *Seminars* are running separate programmes for language teachers teaching in general and in vocational secondary schools, when the content is actually very similar. But we also saw many examples of interesting reform initiatives towards integration. Some *Seminars*, for instance, have merged the separate units responsible for the training of teachers of various school types. *Seminars* in Baden-Württemberg are being transformed into didactical centres, which are intended to establish more intensive cooperation with teacher training universities and colleges. In Hamburg the creation of the Institute for Teacher Training and School Development has provided the conditions for a better coordination of the two phases in collaboration with the university. At the University of Potsdam in Brandenburg, a Teacher Education Centre is being established with the responsibility to coordinate all teacher education related activities.

102. A further strength of initial teacher education in Germany is the orientation of the second phase. In this 18-24 month long period trainee teachers work under the supervision of a mentor teacher in a school where they are already employed while they also participate in training organised by special teacher training institutions. This model applies an apprenticeship approach to the initial training of teachers, and is in many respects close to what is advocated by experts in teacher education reform (e.g. Hargreaves, 2000). The second phase provides a unique opportunity for “learning by doing”, that is for acquiring and developing teaching skills during real experiences in schools. It also provides opportunities for experienced practitioners to help develop new teachers and thereby combines theoretical and practical training. The second phase can also fulfil the important functions of inducting new practitioners into the profession.

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20. If the second phase of teacher preparation is considered as also fulfilling the function of induction, the often criticised length and high costs of initial education in Germany appear in a different light.

However, despite these considerable strengths, the second phase is among those elements of German teacher education that is subject to the most criticism.

103. A common criticism is that the second phase is too isolated both from the university-based first phase, and also from teachers' continuous professional development. The institutions responsible for initial teacher education, induction and continuous training operate separately from each other, despite the efforts of several Länder to make them cooperate. The fact that the second, apprenticeship type phase of teacher education is provided at institutions operating under the direct supervision of educational ministries while the first phase at autonomous universities (which themselves are sometimes under the supervision of ministries of science and higher education) not only makes cooperation difficult but it sometimes serves as a pretext for universities to keep away from practical training, which is seen as a task for others. Another criticism directed at the second phase is that, in spite of its favourable institutional conditions, it is, in fact, not able to create an organic linkage between school practice and professional reflection. The content of the training programmes of the *Seminars* is often not practice oriented enough, and what the student teacher learns in these programmes is rarely linked with his/her concrete individual school experience.

104. Although the evidence we gained seems to back up these criticisms, this should not shade the potential strengths of the apprenticeship model. Reforms aiming at the integration of the two phases would certainly make initial teacher education shorter and cheaper but with the risk of teacher education being absorbed by universities, not necessarily interested in preserving the apprentice-type character of training. Any reform aimed at integrating the first and the second phases into a unified, university-controlled system may thus jeopardise this major strength of German teacher education system if it is not implemented very carefully.

105. As in many other countries, universities are often reluctant to recognise teacher education as one of their key functions and to accept this as an autonomous professional area. In this respect the initiatives to define standards for teacher education deserve particular attention. Some Länder have already made considerable progress in this area. The University of Hamburg and the Hamburg Institute for Teacher Training and School Development, for instance, are jointly developing a core curriculum for teacher education, which will cover both the first and the second phases and will serve also to harmonise them. The new core curriculum will define specifications for subjects that will comprise approximately half of the training time, and ensure a closer link with the current professional practice (Hamburg background report, 2003). Setting explicit standards for teacher education allows universities to decide whether they want to continue with teacher training or not. The checking of the conditions of university-based teacher education through accreditation may lead to universities withdrawing from the field, as happened recently with two universities in North-Rhine-Westphalia.

106. In our view the content and organisation of teacher education in both phases are still too influenced by a conception of teaching that is losing its validity. A major weakness of the first phase, although this is being corrected in some universities, is the limited exposure of student teachers to school experience. The German teacher education system has a strong orientation towards subject learning, and while it is commendable and necessary that teachers have solid foundations of subject-matter expertise, this is often not linked to the methodological repertoire of teachers. However, didactics (methodology) has recently been identified as a key element to be developed. There is a widely shared view that the methodological skills and the general teaching competencies of German teachers are less developed than their subject knowledge, and they are not sufficiently prepared to develop students' learning competencies, to individualise teaching, to enhance self-regulated learning, to motivate students by using active methods, to initiate complex projects for learning, or to organise learning in cooperative teams. Although these limitations are not peculiar to German teachers, in the light of the PISA results they have received particularly strong attention in the country. The PISA results showed that Germany is among those countries where the satisfaction of students with the support they receive from their teachers is very low,

and where this has a negative influence on their achievements (Appendix 4 and OECD, 2001a; p. 161-162). The adaptation of teacher education and professional development to the new requirements requires radical changes in behaviour and institutional practice. It is not enough, for instance, to shift the emphasis in teacher education from disciplinary learning to didactics if the latter is still conceived and practised as a theoretical subject (Kansanen, 1999). Similarly, it is not enough to strengthen university-school cooperation if the teaching practice in schools does not provide effective models for competency development (Jones, 2000).

107. One of the recognised strengths of German teachers is their high level of disciplinary knowledge, especially at secondary level. We think however, that didactics is too tightly connected with particular disciplinary subjects in teacher education. Most of those who teach didactics represent specific disciplinary fields, and this state of affairs does not seem to be questioned. In spite of the new policy initiatives we saw relatively little interest in searching for common elements that overarch disciplines and school types. Most of the general teaching skills (those that are needed, for instance, for managing learning projects, organising teamwork or developing cooperative competencies) are transversal to the different subjects and school types. There are also strong practical arguments for finding cross-disciplinary solutions that are detached also from the specific school types: the number of trainers who have the capacity to develop effectively the general teaching skills is always limited. The German system, characterised by low-level cross-disciplinary cooperation and by the isolation of different programmes based on school types, requires more resources than those organised around elements that are common to most teaching contexts.

108. One of the promising instruments being used in several Länder to re-profile teacher education according to a more up-to-date conception of the teaching profession is *modularisation*. However, this powerful instrument may also hold risks of reinforcing bad structures if its goals are not appropriately defined. The approach being adopted by the University of Potsdam provides an example of how to avoid such risks (see Box 3). Another important stimulus to change is the German government's commitment to the Bologna Process on European recognition of higher education qualifications. On the basis of an agreement among the Länder with regard to the issue of the reciprocal recognition of new study courses and to make provision for BA/MA structures<sup>21</sup> in teacher education, universities in several Länder have developed proposals for creating new BA/MA qualifications. The debate about whether the restructuring of higher education according to BA and MA levels should be applied in teacher education is still open. The two key (sometimes implicit) questions in the applicability of the Bologna principles to teacher education are (1) whether the BA level will lead to a qualification with a labour market relevance, and whether (2) the introduction of a BA level should allow the postponement of the choice between preparing for different school types.

### **Box 3: Modularisation of teacher education at the University of Potsdam (Brandenburg)**

The University of Potsdam is reforming teacher education using the concept of modularisation in order to: create horizontal linkages between subjects that have previously been isolated from one another; enhance the inclusion of more practical elements into the curriculum; open new possibilities for cooperation between the two phases of initial training and on-going professional development; make course structures more transparent and improve quality management; make programmes more flexible and increase their accessibility to a wide range of students; recognise earlier studies or work experiences and make it easier for "side-entrants" to join the teaching profession; and help renew examinations and certification.

109. The question of the labour market relevance of a BA qualification is at the heart of the Bologna process. German educational authorities have emphasised that a qualification for a profession is an indispensable element of the first, basic degree (National report Germany, 2003). Teacher education is one

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21. In common with terminology in Germany, BA is used here to refer to a Bachelor degree qualification and MA to a Masters degree in any disciplinary field.

of those areas in higher education where the application of this principle would require a fundamental reorganisation of university level training, based on a new definition of content and outcomes of the BA and the MA degrees. This cannot be done without the cooperation of those who will employ the holders of the new qualification, namely the Länder. It is important to note that the application of the BA/MA model in teacher education is under discussion in other European countries and the willingness to offer integrated, multi-purpose training at the BA phase is uneven.<sup>22</sup>

110. The cautiousness of the authorities in the application of the BA/MA model in initial teacher education is understandable since the new structure may have undesirable consequences: for instance, it may hinder the realisation of the key objective of introducing more teaching practice into the first phase of teacher education. This is one of the reasons why the largest teacher union (GEW) expressed reservations about the BA/MA model in teacher education.<sup>23</sup> In fact, the achievement of both making the first phase of teacher education more practice oriented, and providing in this phase a qualification with labour market relevance, requires a radical rethinking of the content and structure of university studies. This is very difficult, although not impossible, as certain initiatives show (see Box 4). In those Länder where, following the expansion of secondary education, a higher number of *Abitur* holders are qualified automatically to enter university education, the widening of the content profile of BA level programmes may become an alternative to reinforce entrance selection.

#### **Box 4: Proposals for BA/MA levels in teacher education in North-Rhine-Westphalia**

At the beginning of 2001 North-Rhine-Westphalia – following the proposal of the Federal Council of Sciences, and the advice of a Land level expert commission – invited its universities to submit proposals for the introduction of a BA/MA structure into teacher education. One of the proposals, submitted by Dortmund University, went as far as to offer the introduction of a system that meets two criteria: (1) the postponement of the commitment of student teachers to any of the existing school types, (2) a BA qualification having broader labour market relevance. The key element of the proposal was the creation of a new, multi-purpose BA programme based on the development of general skills relevant for teaching but also allowing employment also in other professional areas requiring such skills (e.g. foreign languages, communication, writing skills, general presentation skills, project management, ICT competencies, cooperation skills, teamwork, treating diversity etc.). According to the proposal the BA level programme would contain also school practice elements. Following the 3-year BA course students could decide either to continue their preparation for teaching in one of the MA courses or to leave teacher training. Four types of teacher training MA courses were proposed for (1) gymnasium, (2) primary and lower secondary, (3) vocational training and (4) special education teachers.

111. The Bologna process may also lead to a new distribution of responsibilities between the university and the non-university sectors of higher education, and this may have a significant impact on teacher education as well. It is probable that the non-university sector (*Fachhochschule*) will play a growing role. According to the German national report on the Bologna process, the Federal level Science Council recommended in 2002 that the new graduation system should be introduced also at *Fachhochschulen*. If this happens, this sector may become a new competitor with universities in the area of

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22. The Netherlands seems to be one of those countries that are strongly committed to introduce an integrated BA qualification in teacher education. As its country background report for this OECD project points out, “the teacher training institutes (...) formulated the aim that the bachelor’s phase of the teacher training courses will be broader than they are now. Bachelor’s programmes will offer a broad range of employment opportunities.”

23. As GEW noted in its background document for this review: “since the Bachelor course is solely concerned with the academic subject and educational subjects, both theoretical and practical, are only introduced at the Master stage, students at the beginning of a course will not be able to explore their own interests and to reach clarity about their suitability to follow a career in teaching. It is for this reason, too, that the GEW is opposed to a Bachelor for teachers only based on special academic subjects, though it may possibly make sense for training courses for specialists in other areas for reasons of employment market policy. Furthermore, the Bachelor/Master teacher training model is rejected by the GEW as it will further increase hierarchical structures” (GEW, 2003).

teacher education, especially by its greater openness to define the BA level as a qualification used at the labour market. This sector is already training teachers (“educators”) for pre-school sector and other professionals that do education-related work. With the upgrading of *Fachhochschule* training, and with the introduction of the BA level qualification, the practice-oriented approach of this type of institution may become more attractive for the employers of teachers than training offered by universities that are reluctant to make their training more practice oriented.

### 3.3 Teachers’ Professional Development

112. The on-going professional development of teachers throughout their careers is seen as a key instrument in Germany for achieving the main educational policy goals. We saw many examples of highly advanced in-service training (INSET) with the application of active methods based on team learning and the use of ICT, and also drawing on the expertise of trainers from industrial firms. We also heard, however, complaints about in-service training concentrating too much on subject matter and being less efficient in developing general teaching competencies.

113. Since in-service training is generally provided according to the different school types and different subject areas, there seems to be little transfer of teachers’ learning across these boundaries, and the best trainers and training resources are perhaps not used as efficiently as they could be. We heard several times that in-service training is not sufficiently related to the specific strategic needs of individual schools, although schools in several Länder are encouraged to establish their own institutional plan for professional development. The sustainability of the impact of training on teachers is often hindered by the gap between the advanced environment of the INSET institution and the reality of the school. In some Länder there is a clear recognition that schools as organisations should play a much more active role in formulating their specific training needs and new forms of training, focused rather on the school as an institution than on the individual subject teachers, should be applied (see Box 5). Today up to one third of INSET programmes are school-based in certain Länder (Winter, 2000). There are other initiatives to enhance integration. Baden-Württemberg, for instance, merged its four INSET institutions into a single Land Academy for further education and school staff development (*Landesakademie für Fortbildung und Personalentwicklung an Schulen*).

#### **Box 5: School centred in-service training in Baden-Württemberg**

One of the priorities of the Ministry of Education of Baden-Württemberg is to promote in-service training addressed to schools or regional teams, in order to promote cooperation between teachers and the development of whole schools. The Ministry supports the organisation of about 100 “whole school” seminars every year by its State Academies for In-service Teacher Training. The Academy of Esslingen, for instance, uses a significant part of its training potential to organise tailor-made two-day seminars (*Wunschkurs*) offered for the whole staff of schools (generally on weekends). The content of these seminars is determined in cooperation by the school and the provider of training. It is focused on staff and organisational development according to the specific needs of the participating schools. It also contains elements such as organising active learning, developing self-regulated learning competencies, stress and conflict management, and helping students to work in teams. The course always starts with an introduction by the principal of the school. After this the members of the staff form small groups and work with external trainers on special themes, resulting in the presentation and a common discussion of the conclusions of the teams. The courses always end with the establishment of an action plan for school development based on the agreed common conclusions. In order to assure sustainability, a steering team, consisting of teachers from the school, is established at the end of the training with a responsibility to achieve the action plan. Those schools which cannot take part in these intensive programmes have another opportunity to organise “in-house training programmes” for their entire staff or for groups of teachers according to their own needs with the support of the local school authorities. The Nürtingen school authority, for instance, spends about 25-30% of its INSET budget on these types of programmes. It publishes a catalogue of the available training programmes, lets the schools choose those that fit their needs the best, and provides the resources to buy them.



114. The intention of making in-service training more demand-driven is a policy priority in a few Länder, for instance, in Baden-Württemberg. Both cooperation and competition is encouraged between potential providers of training, including not only those institutions that had been created specially for this function but also other players like higher education institutions, local educational authorities, and private firms. There are clear signs in this Land at least of the emergence of a training market, although the financial conditions of this are only partly created. Representatives of the private sector expressed very clearly their willingness to take part in the training of teachers and principals, especially in the areas of vocational education, management development and quality management. A question that arises in connection with this is who will meet the costs of training provided by private companies, and how the form and the content of this can be adapted to the specific needs of the education sector. Chambers and employer organisations seem to be willing to provide training for the education sector at a reduced price, but this is still higher than what education can normally afford, given that its own specialised institutions already use most of the resources for this purpose.

### **3.4 The Labour Market for Teachers**

115. The labour market for teachers in Germany has some considerable strengths. First, the selection and recruitment of teachers is highly transparent. Selection criteria are clearly defined in centralised hiring procedures, and the establishment of school commissions, whose choice is validated by educational authorities, promotes open recruitment procedures. The information regarding teacher vacancies also seems to be well disseminated. Given that the authorities at Land level handle most of the vacancies centrally, applicants are guaranteed to be considered for all those posts that fit their profile. In addition, schools participating in the open recruitment procedure are increasingly using the Internet to advertise their vacancies. Certain Länder are developing systems to close the information gaps between teachers and schools. For instance, the Ministry of Education of Baden-Württemberg is planning to use a special IT network “Schulverwaltung am Netz” (SVN) which will connect all schools in the Land, make information on vacancies promptly available and handle applications online. The network will also provide an effective means to collect information on teacher flows in the Land.

116. Second, schools have become increasingly involved in the selection and hiring of their teaching personnel. This is an encouraging trend as having schools involved is likely to increase the chances of new appointments meeting school-staffing needs. In particular, this involvement assists the school management in building a staff team leading to a distinctive school identity.

117. Third, largely as a result of hiring difficulties, the school system is progressively accommodating the recruitment of individuals with no formal teacher training but with work experience outside education, particularly in the vocational sector. The different Länder have developed a multitude of procedures to certify the so-called “side-entrants” – people with subject expertise validated by university degrees, graduates from *Fachhochschulen*, or individuals with relevant experience in a specific vocational area. New entrants can start working as teachers and earning a salary before completing teacher-training qualifications; and their initial step on the salary scale generally recognises experience gained outside education. This is a useful model as it not only provides an additional pool of qualified individuals to address teacher shortfalls, but also provides schools with a wider set of skills and experience. Furthermore, by providing fixed-term contracts to “side-entrants”, the system is not committing itself long-term to those individuals who do not adapt well to school needs. The review team collected very positive accounts from teachers and school principals about their experience with “side-entrants”, in particular in vocational schools (see Box 6).

### **Box 6: An alternative way to enter the teaching profession**

A young female teacher who was recently employed in a Baden-Württemberg vocational school as a “side entrant” indicated that she moved from industry to teaching because her promotion chances in her firm had been narrowed. She read an advertisement about the opening of teaching posts for highly qualified people working in industry and felt this was an attractive new opportunity. Although she knew that as a teacher she would earn about 20% less than in her previous job, she thought that teaching would offer other benefits, like creative work, flexibility, richer human relations and more free time. She was employed immediately as regular teacher, but in the first year she had to teach only nine lessons in a week. A mentor teacher from the staff of the school assisted her during this period. Besides this, she also took courses at the State Seminar for teacher training (second phase training). She indicated, though, that this course contributed to her teaching competence in a limited way. More relevant to her teaching was the on-the-job training she had undertaken in private industry with trainers who were using advanced didactic methods. She was particularly helped by her mentor teacher in the school, although this person could not devote enough time to work with her. The school principal saw this as a non-regular solution to teacher shortages forced by circumstances, but at the same time indicated that he was satisfied with the side entrant teacher and sees pedagogical benefits in her appointment.

118. A further strength in Germany is the close partnership between vocational schools and industry. This brings great benefits to teachers and students. Teachers generally have opportunities to stay in close touch with developments in industry and even to spend some periods of time working in companies. This allows for teacher skills to be periodically updated but also makes the teaching profession more attractive to “side-entrants” in that a close contact with industry can be readily maintained.

119. Another positive aspect of German teacher policy is the existence of tools that provide flexibility in adapting the size of the teaching workforce to school needs. In order to adjust to temporary reductions in the number of students, teachers can be required to work part-time for a given period. To cover for absent colleagues, teachers can be asked to work more hours, and can receive additional pay if the absence is long-term. Teachers who are redundant to a given school’s needs (e.g. through a decline in student numbers or a changed curriculum) can be transferred to another school and thereby are not lost to the system. Finally, it is possible to employ a teacher on a fixed-term basis to address particular needs of schools.

120. Despite these strengths, the labour market for teachers is facing important challenges. The current features of the civil servant status under which most teachers are employed, despite the considerable personal benefits they bring, also entail problems. By providing extensive job security and limiting the mechanisms for teacher evaluation and accountability, they fail to give teachers incentives to continuously challenge their skills and improve their practice. The situation is often described as “once a teacher becomes a civil servant, he or she can relax”. This is detrimental to the image teachers hold among the general public and is likely to lower the status of the profession. Some analysts argue that the job security provided by a post in the civil service is the key factor that keeps the profession attractive. But it is debatable whether the school system should be interested in attracting individuals whose main motivation is job security. Along the same lines, the characteristics of the civil servant status provide only limited means to address cases of teachers not performing satisfactorily. These characteristics restrict the ability of the school system to ensure that each teacher is fit for the profession at the different stages of the career.

121. Another clear challenge is the result of the current recruitment difficulties in some specific levels of education, regions of the country, programmes of study, and specific subjects. Teacher shortfalls seem to be affecting especially vocational education, lower secondary education, and subjects such as mathematics and science in general upper secondary education. The picture is not uniform across the country. In particular, the eastern Länder are on the whole characterised by surpluses of teachers, and

shortages are much more common in the western Länder. Future changes in the demand for teachers raise serious concerns. Even if the student population will on the whole decline in the next few years, half of the teaching workforce will retire within the next decade. In addition, the school system is currently expanding the number of whole day schools. Another trend that may increase the demand for teachers in vocational education is the increasing difficulty of students in the dual system to obtain a trainee position in a company.<sup>24</sup> This will possibly increase the number of students in full-time schooling and consequently reinforce the need for more teachers. Regarding the monitoring of the labour market, it should be noted that several institutions provide analysis useful for the development of long-term recruitment strategies. This is the case of several Länder – through special educational planning departments - but also of the KMK and the BLK.

122. A particularly important issue is that of the equitable distribution of teacher resources across schools. The anecdotal evidence indicates that shortage problems are unevenly distributed: schools in remote or disadvantaged areas and some school types (namely *hauptschulen* and to some extent *realschulen*) are more severely affected by teacher shortfalls.

123. In light of the differences across the Länder regarding the current balance of teacher supply and demand, the lack of mobility of teachers across the Länder is disturbing. The limited mobility is not a surprise given that it was only in 2001 that the KMK agreed that the “the teaching career examinations carried out in accordance with the recommendations of the Standing Conference” should be reciprocally recognised.<sup>25</sup> Yet the considerable differences across Länder in school system structures and the close linkage between these structures and initial teacher education systems are obstacles to the implementation of the agreement. It is clear that a full integration of the teacher labour market at the country level is far from being achieved.

124. Schools can respond to the sudden need to replace a teacher for short periods of time by using the existing teacher resources in the school. However, for replacements of longer duration, there is generally no structured system such as a replacement pool to help schools find a substitute teacher (an exception is the replacement pool in Baden-Württemberg). In addition, the extra financial means are often not available to provide schools with extra teacher resources. The lack of systematic response to replacement needs is potentially disruptive to school programmes.

### **3.5 Teachers’ Career Structure and Incentives**

125. Some features of the formal system to recognise the work of teachers considerably improve the attractiveness of the profession. A prominent favourable aspect is that the average salaries of teachers are competitive, both relative to those of teachers in other countries and to those of other occupations requiring similar qualifications within Germany. Salaries of German teachers are among the best in the OECD area. This is particularly the case when they start their career – among OECD countries, starting salaries in Germany rank 1<sup>st</sup> in primary schools and 2<sup>nd</sup> in both lower secondary and general upper secondary education (Appendix 4).<sup>26</sup> In addition, salaries of teachers are also competitive relative to those of other

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24. The review team was often told that, as the result of the economic crisis, company restructuring, and concerns about whether vocational students’ skills meet their needs, enterprises were reducing the number of apprenticeships.

25. Prior to 2001, the mobility of teachers across some Länder was facilitated by several bilateral agreements between Länder.

26. Teacher salaries at the top of the salary scale compare less favourably: on average, the top German salaries rank 6<sup>th</sup> among OECD countries in primary education and 5<sup>th</sup> in lower secondary and general upper secondary education. This results from a pattern of salary progression that initially climbs quickly but then tapers. At the start of their career, the salary of German teachers amounts to approximately 78% of the maximum salary for any level of

public employees such as university lecturers (Appendix 4). The level of teacher salaries relative to GDP per capita reinforces this impression as this ratio is among the highest among OECD countries (Appendix 4).

126. Teachers have considerable flexibility in choosing a level of activity that fits their needs. Part-time teaching is widely used on a voluntary basis (especially in the western Länder) by a significant proportion of teachers, and reflects the fact that comparatively high salaries make this a feasible option for teachers. Almost all Länder offer a sabbatical year to teachers where the work due in that particular year is “worked in advance” in the preceding years – the teacher works longer hours for same pay or same hours for lower pay during a given period which is then used to fund the sabbatical year. Teachers are also entitled to take leave of absence to take on roles outside education or to work in school administration, teacher training institutes or school counselling. All these aspects are likely to increase the attractiveness of the profession.

127. As noted earlier, the 1997 amendment to federal legislation opens up the possibility, at Länder discretion, for teacher performance to be considered in promotion decisions (within and across salary scales). Länder such as Baden-Württemberg and North-Rhine Westphalia are exploring this possibility. When more widely implemented this measure is likely to improve quality and accountability to the benefit of the school system. Surprisingly, this measure is yet to be adopted for teachers with salaried status.

128. Teachers benefit from a clear, transparent and highly predictable career structure, which reduces the risk and uncertainty they face. Another positive aspect is that teachers may become, through an open competition, either part-time or full-time instructors at *Seminars* offering the preparatory phase for student teachers. We consider as strength the emergence of new, alternative forms to enter the teaching profession, referred to earlier. Although some see these as forced solutions that have to be maintained only temporarily in areas of acute shortage, these new entry mechanisms should be sustained as they help to open up the schools and enrich teaching.

129. Despite these strengths and promising developments, the structure to reward and recognise the work of German teachers faces some important challenges. First, remuneration is related to a very limited number of aspects – in essence, qualifications, age and years of experience. Rewards for extra responsibilities or additional duties are not provided, with a few exceptions. The extent to which teachers’ compensation is related to an assessment of their performance is still limited, and professional development activities are not linked to progression in the career. Also, the current compensation package does not recognise the different nature of the tasks to be performed according to different working conditions, school location, or subject speciality.

130. Second, opportunities for promotion are extremely limited, a feature often mentioned by teachers as hindering the attractiveness of the profession. Two aspects seem particularly problematic. In contrast to the few opportunities at the upper secondary level, teachers at other levels essentially have no opportunities for promotion, except to management roles. The review team could not find a rationale for this differential treatment. Moreover, not all promotion posts are associated with new roles and responsibilities; the position of *Oberstudienrat* often results from an automatic promotion with no additional special duties. At a time when schools are being asked to take on a wider set of responsibilities and roles to meet new student needs, the lack of diversity in career opportunities seems hard to justify.

131. Third, the current composition of the compensation package concentrates also solely on salaries. Despite the openness of the system to flexible working hours, making part-time work, sabbatical periods,

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education while in the middle of their career (after 15 years of experience) the corresponding figure is 93% and 96% in primary and secondary education respectively (Appendix 4).

and leaves of absence available to teachers, these are not used as a reward (e.g. time allowances). Also, opportunities for in-service education as part of a compensation package are not offered.

132. Another aspect that stands out is the unevenness of the hurdles throughout the teaching career. The obstacles are quite high when teachers start their career with a long study period, several examinations to certify their fitness for the profession, and a somewhat long probationary period. Once the civil servant status is reached, the picture changes substantially and teachers have little or no evaluation of their work. Apart from raising questions for the wider society about the quality of schools, the lack of regular evaluation is also likely to raise questions in teachers' minds about whether their work is considered sufficiently important to be assessed and good teaching to be recognised.

133. Some concerns arise from some policies targeted at young teachers. Some Länder have recently reduced the salary of newly-hired teachers and those of trainee teachers undertaking the preparatory service by placing them in lower salary scales. This is likely to undermine efforts to making teaching more attractive. Furthermore, the salaries of trainee teachers in the preparatory service might be considered low for the level of engagement and responsibility involved. This is particularly pertinent at a time when teachers in the preparatory phase are often assigned on the basis of school needs (e.g. areas of shortage) rather than on the school's suitability for their training. The review team also formed the view that probationary periods for new teachers were little used in practice to identify those individuals that do not fit the profession.

134. Finally, a matter of serious concern is the proportion of teachers who retire early. The average age of retirement is 59, which is well below the age at which teachers obtain full benefits – 65. The review team was often told of a “malaise” among experienced teachers in Germany, and the high proportion of early retirements supports that view.

### **3.6 Teachers at the Workplace**

135. In our visits to schools we witnessed a strong professional commitment among teachers and good relationships between teachers and students. Teachers in primary and lower secondary schools, in particular, spoke of the major challenges in compensating for the social and emotional deprivation of a growing number of students, including children who do not have German as their first language. Although such challenges may be stressful for many teachers, most seemed to respond very positively and to take satisfaction from their work of educating difficult children and supporting their development. Many schools have extra staff to assist with teaching German as an additional language. Gymnasium teachers, in particular, are strongly committed to their subject area; they possess high level specialist knowledge and take particular satisfaction from teaching their subject. Research has identified a restricted set of teaching methods used by teachers: a survey of 40,000 students in Grade 8, and their teachers, reported that many teachers had a high reliance on one method (often on the *frontal* approach).<sup>27</sup>

136. Teachers and researchers often used an image of the teacher as an island, or “lone fighter” – as it was expressed. This picture is reinforced by the number of teachers who reported few opportunities to work or develop as a team, no contact with colleagues teaching the same subjects in other schools, and the rarity of other teachers or the principal joining them in the classroom. Teachers working in teams seemed to be more common in primary, integrated and vocational schools than in other types of school. There is a tendency, similarly to several other countries, to blame schools, and teachers, for not solving social ills, and many teachers feel that their status has been eroded. Some decisions, such as the increase in the number of teaching hours, have had a de-motivating influence, and resulted in teachers withdrawing their

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27. Reported by Prof. Andreas Helmke.

support for extra-curricular activities in some *Gymnasien*. Several Länder have, however, made efforts to improve the public esteem of teachers and celebrate the success of schools (see Box 7).

#### **Box 7: Initiatives to improve the public esteem of teachers Brandenburg**

Brandenburg has been proactive in taking measures to improve public appreciation of education in schools and the teacher's image. These include: public ceremonies when new teachers are appointed and experienced teachers retire; the award of a prestigious prize to give public recognition to projects in schools and the field of social education; joint trips for teachers and Ministers to educational fairs held in other States, and the presentation of 50 projects from schools, chosen by competition, during the annual festivities of Brandenburg Day. These projects were chosen to convey an image of schools in which creative and socially engaged teachers and students show a lot of initiative. Winners were awarded substantial prizes. Public relations initiatives also include: a range of advertising measures by teacher education institutions; the development of a much-visited website on becoming a teacher in both Berlin and Brandenburg; and the development of a nation-wide advertising campaign, prepared by the KMK, aimed at promoting the public image and reputation of the teaching profession.

137. It seems that the job satisfaction of German teachers, although they are among the best paid in the OECD community, is rather low – an issue that has to be faced by policies aiming at attracting new people to the teaching profession. The interviews we made in the course of our field visits gave us the impression of a kind of *malaise* within the teaching profession. We heard much about lowering of social esteem, unjust criticism by politicians, increasing burdens and worsening working conditions. The reasons for this phenomenon are manifold, and they cannot be attributed to simple and objective factors, such as, for instance, high number of compulsory teaching hours. There is some evidence that teachers' psychological concerns "are connected not so much with excessive situational demands but rather with the intensification of demands in the sense of forced decision-making and pressure for action", and that this "pushes a rational and reflective approach to professional action into the background", and enhances a subjective feeling of being powerlessness. The feeling of being overloaded "is not solely the consequence of objective requirements, but also an expression of the structural conditions in which the work is undertaken" (Döbrich *et al.*, 2003).

138. There does seem to be a discrepancy between overall work expectations of teachers and the reality of jobs in schools. This discrepancy is linked with the fact that teachers have limited freedom to choose their concrete workplace, and schools have few opportunities to present the jobs to applicants before they commence work in the school. The apparent malaise of German teachers can also be linked to the fact that the social image of schools and teaching, which determine strongly the career choice of young people, does not reflect the current reality of school life. While, for instance, teaching and learning situations are increasingly heterogeneous and they require professional flexibility, the rules in force support uniformity and demand conformity. Those whose job expectations are shaped by the "old" professional image of teaching may be frustrated when they are plunged into the current heterogeneous reality of school life, and those who could work well in this newer context can feel frustrated by the regulations which are still based on an earlier conception of school life. This is a key reason why we put the redefinition of the professional profile of teaching at the top of our list of recommendations in the next section.

139. Germany belongs to the group of countries where teachers' working time is regulated exclusively in terms of the number of weekly lessons, and the regulation is done at State level. This model does not recognise the differences between lessons, contact hours and other types of activities. It also diminishes the scope for school organisation and curriculum development initiatives such as project work. Experiences with teaching methods, for instance, in the *Learning Fields* project (see Box 8) are often hindered by the rigid regulation of teaching time. Yet class teaching time is actually only one aspect of a complex job profile. The lack of explicit recognition of the wide variety of tasks that teaching actually entails can create

stress through uncertainty about who is responsible for what, and adds to workload because adequate resources are not always made available.

### **Box 8: The “Learning Fields” project**

A number of schools in the different Länder participate in the “Learning Fields” (*Lernfelder*) project. This entails reorganising teaching so that students are involved in the solution of complex “real life” problems (e.g. changing the engine of a car in the area of mechanics, organising a hotel breakfast in the area of catering, or producing a work-piece in the technical sector). Learning fields may include also lessons in foreign languages. This project, initiated by the Federal authorities, raises major challenges for the organisation of the work of teachers, as they have to work together in teams consisting of different subject teachers while planning complex problem situations and achieving effective teaching in these situations. Instead of teaching under different headings, the knowledge is assembled into an entity that has to enable the student to fulfil the specific task. To achieve this, good coordination is necessary, and the structure of the subjects or the classes has to be flexible. This raises major challenges for school management. For instance, when this experiment was introduced in a Brandenburg vocational school in 1998, the principal had difficulties to find subject teachers who were willing to do and capable of this type of cooperative teaching, and also to create the flexible organisational environment required for this type of work within the current regulatory environment. For instance teachers have to be available at particular, not necessarily foreseeable moments when they are needed in the course of teaching, which is possible only if they work in a very flexible way. The typical solution is that this type of work is organised at a given period of the school year, separated from normal teaching periods, but it is expected that more flexible ways of organising teaching will be extended in the future.

140. Some Länder are seeking new forms of regulating the teaching time of teachers to give more flexibility to schools. For instance, Baden-Württemberg is planning to introduce a new system of defining the number of compulsory lessons taught by teachers on a yearly basis instead of doing it on a weekly basis. This would be a considerable advance as would enable schools to redistribute teaching time during the academic year and will give more opportunities to use pedagogical methods requiring flexible time management (in project work, for instance, or students working in enterprises as part of their course). The City of Hamburg is introducing a new model which also breaks with the tradition of regulating teachers’ working hours on the basis of hours per week according to the type of school. The Hamburg model defines a working hour budget for the school and allocates hours to specific tasks (teaching and non-teaching tasks), determining the total number of working hours so that these specific tasks are also taken into account (Hamburg background report, 2003).<sup>28</sup>

### **3.7 School Management and Leadership**

141. It is perhaps the area of school management and leadership that demonstrates in the most striking way how resistant the German system has been to change. In spite of some significant recent developments, there is little widespread evidence of the school management and organisational changes seen in other OECD countries (OECD, 2001b). The school *as an organisation* is not yet generally seen as the main vehicle for improving the quality of learning, and school management has yet not been generally recognised as an autonomous profession (Döbrich *et al.*, 2003). However, the need to change the organisational culture of schools and to renew their management was expressed by many individuals and groups during our visit. The growing emphasis on the school as an organisation is shown also by the fact that several Länder made it compulsory the development of school programmes. These documents are seen as the expression of the specific pedagogical approach characterising a given school, and as a kind of educational platform shared by the actors who have an interest in the good operation of the institution.

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28. In terms of models used in other countries the most flexible is probably found in Sweden where, within the general framework of 40 hours per week required of all public employees, schools can negotiate with teachers their teaching time on an individual basis, and schools adopt quite different approaches to organising the school year (OECD, 2002c).

Some of the Länder have made efforts to develop school-level quality management and self-evaluation schemes, as well.

142. The role of the German school principal is generally not conceived as a “process leader” marshalling the collective efforts of the teaching staff to achieve commonly agreed goals. Principals’ way of working is essentially as a part time administrative job along with teaching duties. Principals are rarely expected to lead processes like school development or school-based self-evaluation. Teachers, as well as principals seemed to be astonished when we asked questions about how often the principal visits classrooms to observe teaching and learning in action in order to give feedback to teachers. School leaders seldom take the lead when planning the in-service training of the school staff, which is seen as more a private matter for each teacher than an activity bringing benefits for the school as an organisation. Principals seem to be expected to act as loyal teacher colleagues, who do not disturb other teachers with new and challenging initiatives, but who act as buffers between the teachers and external demands.

143. The German system already started moving into the direction of shifting more responsibilities for management to the school as an institution. In Brandenburg, for instance, several schools participate in the MoSeS (*Modellplan “Stärkung der Selbstständigkeit von Schulen*) and the SeSuS (“*Selbstständige Schulen und Schulaufsicht*”) programmes that aim at strengthening the independence of schools and at assessing whether the quality of the school’s work and its attractiveness for students can be increased by greater school autonomy in setting regulations and managing personnel and resources. The Independent Schools (*Selbstständige Schule*) Project supported by the educational ministry of North-Rhine-Westphalia is also a clear sign of this development. Schools participating in this project can choose among the autonomous management of five areas: (1) personnel affairs, (2) management of equipments, (3) organisation and planning of teaching, (4) internal organisation and cooperation in the school, (5) quality management and accounting. In 2002/2003 there were 278 institutions participating in the project. Almost one fourth of vocational schools participate in Baden-Württemberg in the STEBS (*Stärkung der Eigenständigkeit beruflicher Schulen*) project started in May 2001, which aims at helping schools to become more self-reliant and to develop individual school profiles. The concept of the "Operationally independent school" (OES - *Operativ Eigenständige Schulen*) has been developed on the basis of the experiences gained in this project. These initiatives, while welcome and worthy of support, have yet to develop a critical mass of responsive schools.

144. The process of the professionalisation of school leadership has also started. School leaders have a national association (*Arbeitsgemeinschaft der Schulleiterverbände Deutschlands*), which publishes a regular review whose title (*Beruf: Schulleitung*) stresses that school management is a profession in itself. Regular professional conferences are organised, and there are a few important professional agencies promoting the process of professionalisation (for example the Research Centre for School Development and Management of the University of Bamberg in Bavaria).

145. The shift from the role of the traditional head teacher to that of the leader of a responsive institution is a difficult and slow process, and German educational leaders seem to be fully aware of the challenges involved. The transitional phase will be unavoidably characterised by conflicts between the old and new role-expectations and it is not yet clear what proportion of the current school principals will be capable of adapting to the requirements of the new leadership role. It is important to note that the largest teacher union (GEW) has expressed a view supporting the increase of school-level responsibility with the proviso that this is not used as an excuse for the State to withdraw from proper financing and regulating standards (GEW, 2003).

146. The people we met in ministries, regional authorities and schools, have all shared the view that school leaders need more support if they are to be enabled to transform schools into more responsive organisations. Such support might be provided not only through training programmes, but also through



networking between institutions or through links with business and industrial organisations. The need is well perceived by a number of training institutions. For example, the University of Potsdam established a further education centre, which operates as a non-profit organisation, and offers three-semester school management training courses. The further training institute of Comburg in Baden-Württemberg has been organising management training since 1997 for practising principals, and has recently started cooperating with the Ludwigsburg College of Education in a two-year Masters level programme in school management. Some institutions are very active in creating a new knowledge basis for school management. For example, the Institute for School Development Research at the University of Dortmund has been conducting collaborative research with schools in such areas as management development, self-evaluation, quality management and organisational development.

### 3.8 Evaluation and Accountability

147. The German education system is facing the challenge of building a new culture of evaluation and of making professional accountability an integral part of the professional profile of teachers. At present, assessment is focused mainly on students, with an accent on marking students' performance in order to decide on whether they can remain in their course, class or school or not. As noted earlier, self-evaluation is not commonly established in schools, and there are no regular mechanisms by which teachers can benefit from feedback from their peers or school managers. Students and their parents tend to put up with less effective teachers who may cover the curriculum but who have not developed their skills over the years. Such teachers are rarely the subjects of monitoring under efficiency procedures. Many people recognise that the evaluation of teaching and learning and the management of quality improvement are not well embedded in the culture and practice of schools. We met parents' organisations, which stressed this in a particularly expressive way.<sup>29</sup> Apart from anything else, the lack of regular feedback to teachers about their work is likely to increase their sense of professional isolation and build the perception that their efforts are not appreciated.

148. The lack of accountability and stimulus to quality improvement seems to have contributed to a culture in which the causes and remedies of national educational problems are not appropriately associated with the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Without a culture of accountability and quality improvement, initiatives such as greater school autonomy, the introduction of new programmes and standards, the development of in-service training and lifelong learning for teachers, increasing the working week and introducing more whole-day schools may not prove successful. The need is for *every* teacher to be transparently accountable for the effectiveness of what happens in the classroom: without this, the mediocre teacher may teach to the standards, but will not provide effective education, and the good teacher will have little incentive to continue to improve.

149. The need for greater evaluation at school level is gaining wide acceptance in Germany. In the light of the results of the PISA survey it is not surprising that the objective of improving quality and developing new instruments for quality improvement (such as the definition of standards, the regular assessment of student achievements through standard tests, the evaluation of schools and teachers and the establishment of institutional level quality management processes) are the focus of public debate. As noted earlier, the question of how to assure and maintain quality is brought to the centre of public attention not only by internal processes within education but also by broader concerns regarding the whole of the public

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29. One parents' organisation expressed this in the following terms: "There is no evaluation culture. Evaluation is considered mainly to be a threat. There is no feedback culture. Feedback from the students about instruction, and feedback from the parents about the school are generally non-existent. Everything that happens in classes – and how it happens is not transparent enough. Many teachers see themselves as teachers who convey a specific subject. They do not see themselves as experts who assist the children in learning" (Paper from *Landeselternrat der Gesamtschulen* in NW e.V., May 2003).

sector. The improvement of quality has become a cornerstone of the education policy of the Federal Government through, for example, the definition of national standards, the creation of a national agency for evaluation (BMBF, 2002) and through the opening of new projects aiming at enhancing the introduction of school-level quality management procedures (BLK, 2000). This has become a key element in the policies of the Land ministries, as well: all the Länder we visited are taking active steps to raise achievement in their schools and to improve efficiency in the education sector. It is worth noting that the high level quality of German educational research and its growing interest in evaluation and student performance are also significant assets for further development in this area.

150. The quality issue has been strongly interlinked with school autonomy in the Länder we visited. All are embarking on a process of giving schools greater autonomy in their management, and increasing the autonomy of schools and making them more responsible is seen as a major tool for improving quality. Greater school autonomy does not, however, mean that there is no longer a role for the central authorities. Rather, their role changes from managing educational inputs to ensuring that quality outcomes are achieved, that schools have the support and resources to exercise their new responsibilities effectively, and the effects of greater school autonomy are monitored and appropriate remedial action is taken – as when, for example, performance gaps between schools start to widen.

151. Quality improvement may be enhanced by the setting of performance objectives and targets, which can be monitored as a consistent part of schools' annual planning processes. There are already good examples of developments in this area. For instance a vocational school visited in Esslingen has investigated quality measures such as the European Excellence Model. Others have used students' questionnaires and other instruments to gain a perspective on teaching. Schools that work closely with business and the Chambers of Commerce are often provided with very immediate and direct feedback on whether their students have appropriate skills. Equally, in schools where team planning and working is common, there is open discussion in which teachers readily share their ideas and methods.

152. Efforts to make schools more autonomous and more accountable for quality are accompanied, in certain Länder, by the development of instruments providing external feedback. In Brandenburg, for instance, every school has been asked to participate in a State-level testing exercise covering all students at grades 5 and 8 in German and mathematics. This follows a pilot exercise in which schools received the test results and their use of them was investigated by research. In this initiative testing is used as a feedback instrument and schools are expected to make correction measures on the basis of the analysis of their results. In the projects coordinated by the Institute for School Development Research in North Rhine-Westphalia evaluation and quality management are integral elements of the concept of autonomous school (see Box 9). In Brandenburg, within the framework of a pilot programme (*Beratungs- und Unterstützungssystem - BUSS*) school development and evaluation consultants support schools in the process of their self-evaluation and internal development. As noted in the previous section a number of institutions now offer programmes to strengthen principals' evaluation and quality management skills. These are noteworthy innovations in a system where there has traditionally been little regular systematic provision in schools for evaluating the effectiveness of teaching, for the purpose of quality improvement.

#### **Box 9: University-led initiatives for quality improvement in North Rhine-Westphalia**

In North Rhine-Westphalia the Institute for School Development Research at the University of Dortmund has a number of relevant research and development projects. One is about the *efficiency of principals' leadership*, which aims to identify effective strategies of school leadership by analysing important aspects of school quality, the identification of "good" schools and those "in need of improvement", and identifying important dimensions of leadership. Another project, on *autonomous schools*, focuses on the "quality-orientated self-government of schools" in terms of: teaching and learning; school management; responsibility for staff, resources, curriculum and participation; and the development and guarantee of accountability and quality. Other projects relate to pedagogical quality management, recognising quality as a "central reference for school development" and developing a quality management system.

153. Qualified and experienced external evaluators have, in many countries, an important role in evaluating schools, helping school leaders to develop evaluation and appraisal skills, and validating school self-evaluation. In most countries this role is assigned to inspectors, keen to shape a new profile for themselves, and also often developing and using new instruments for this purpose (Maes *et al.*, 1999). German inspectors in some Länder seem to be aware of this, as it is shown by their participation in some development projects of the Standing International Conference of Inspectorates (SICI). However, inspectors in Germany are still overloaded with the daily administrative tasks of managing resources and personnel. As the background report of one of the Länder notes, the character of inspection still reflects much "the old 'Aufsicht' principle" focusing on whether teachers and schools act in compliance with formal rules. Inspectors are also often involved in development activities, but they rarely seem to do professional school evaluation. Since teachers often see inspectors as the representatives of the administration, and not as independent professionals, evaluations performed by them are not seen as professionally legitimate. Nor is there a tradition of whole-school evaluation by any other type of external team, such as principals from other schools or teacher educators.

#### **4. PRIORITIES FOR FURTHER POLICY DEVELOPMENT**

154. The previous sections have outlined a number of weaknesses in teacher policy in Germany and the significant challenges that the system faces. We have also identified what we see as substantial strengths and a wide range of promising initiatives. In this section we look to the future and the ways that teaching can become a more satisfying and rewarding profession, and public confidence in schools built up. These two objectives are, of course, closely linked. Teachers are the key resource in schools, and the quality of schooling is critically dependent on ensuring that able people want to enter and remain in teaching – and that they have the working conditions and support to help them achieve their best. We have identified six strategic priorities that could help to orient further policy development. These are (1) the re-definition of the professional profile of the teaching profession, (2) the renewal of initial teacher training and professional development, (3) measures to assure an adequate supply of teachers, (4) the development of teachers' career structure and incentives, (5) the strengthening of evaluation and accountability, and (6) the modernisation of governance and management. In large part these priorities build on developments already underway in different parts of the country, but which have not yet come together into a coherent whole.

## 4.1 Creating a New Professional Profile for the Teaching Profession

155. Society now expects schools to deal effectively with different languages and student backgrounds, to be sensitive to culture and gender issues, to promote tolerance and social cohesion, to effectively respond to disadvantaged students and students with learning or behavioural problems, to use new technologies, and to keep pace with rapidly developing fields of knowledge and approaches to student assessment. Teachers need to be capable of preparing students for a society and an economy in which they will be expected to be self-directed learners, able and motivated to keep learning over a lifetime. These changing expectations of schools and teaching require a re-definition of the professional profile of the teaching profession. This new profile should reflect (1) the increasing heterogeneity of the student population and the greater probability that teachers need to address the needs of students who demand special care because of various handicaps, learning difficulties, social disadvantages or particular capacities in their classroom; (2) the growing stress on the need to provide individualised support for every student and to use new, creative methods that are more efficient in motivating and activating them; and (3) the increasing importance of the school as an organisation, with the stress placed on intensive internal communication and cooperation, participation in collective strategic planning, quality management, self-evaluation and professional development planning. The traditional strength of teaching in Germany has been its focus on teachers' role as subject matter experts. While it is clearly vital that this be retained, it needs to be rounded out and broadened to better capture what being an effective teacher in a modern school actually involves. This necessitates a major debate at all levels of the education system and throughout the wider society. Germany has a distinct advantage in this regard – it already has well-established mechanisms for intensive social dialogue among all interested stakeholders.

156. The definition of the new profile of the teaching profession will help to sharpen and clarify the purposes of initial teacher education, teachers' on-going professional development, and their daily work. It is likely to encourage the adoption of national standards for teacher education. This would be a logical implication of the ongoing process of defining national standards for students. The standards for teacher education could give expression to the changing expectations towards the profession and they could become an orientating instrument for the whole education sector. They could be used as a reference when teacher education and further training programmes are devised, and they could also be used as a basis in the process of accrediting teacher education programmes and institutions.

157. There are two particular aspects of the profile that deserve special attention. The first is related with innovation, entrepreneurship and creativity. The openness to innovate, to take risks, to try out new solutions and to modify them on the basis of evidence from practice has to be reconciled with the principles of public service. If schools are to be transformed into learning organisations capable of adapting themselves to environmental changes, those who work in them have to possess appropriate behavioural traits. Only creative, self-confident people characterised by positive attitudes, capable of working in teams and open to learning from a variety of sources can create learning organisations. The German tradition of viewing teaching as a legally regulated State service is not very conducive to stimulating change in what needs to become the key vehicle for improving educational quality – the school. High-level job security is an important value but it can be counter-productive if too many teachers see in this the most important motivation to enter the profession, and too few are becoming teachers because this is creative work giving rise to high levels of job satisfaction and recognition by the wider society. The attractiveness of the teaching profession should be based in the future much more on a professional image that values a willingness to serve students and the public through creativity, entrepreneurship and innovative attitudes.

158. The second aspect concerns quality evaluation. International experiences as well as the evidence found in the German context suggest that quality and performance should get the strongest emphasis when the concept of teaching as a profession is reviewed. We fully agree with the statement of the largest teacher

trade union GEW that “teachers’ professional identity is defined by quality” (GEW, 2003). The times are long past when the public had automatic confidence in the professional autonomy of well-educated individuals. Teaching needs to be subject to high expectations – and teachers need to be able to demonstrate that those expectations are being met. A culture of quality, with such elements as giving and asking feedback, cooperating in evaluation, and openness to continuous improvement should become a key pillar of the new professional profile. This involves setting out clearly what is expected of teachers and what they can expect in return. The teaching profession needs to recognise that the continuous evaluation and improvement of its work is a critical factor in retaining public support for schools. In turn, teachers need to be confident that they will receive the support and resources to do their job well – and that evaluations of their work will be transparent and fair.

## **4.2 Improving the Preparation and Development of Teachers**

159. The reform of teacher education is at the top of the agenda of education policy in Germany. The dominant views seem to be in harmony with the current international trend of looking at teacher education as an open and dynamic system, and as a continuous process (Buchberger *et al.*, 2000). Given the rapidity of changes and given the urgency to renew the profile of the teaching profession, policy attention needs to be shifted from initial teacher education towards induction and continuous professional development. Despite the ageing of the teaching workforce in Germany, most of the teachers who will be working in the schools in 5-10 years are already there, and their development is the key to lifting educational quality. Although initial teacher education needs to grow and to be reoriented, there needs to be some redistribution of resources in per teacher terms away from initial teacher education and towards teachers later in their careers. This policy orientation should have a more direct impact on the redistribution of resources between initial and continuous training: parallel with the reduction of the length of the former, more resources can be deployed for the further development of the latter.

160. Institutional reforms aiming at the creation of a new balance between the first and the second phases of initial teacher education or at merging them should meet the following conditions: (1) the length of initial education becomes shorter; (2) the practice-based elements of initial education get greater emphasis; (3) schools are to be supported to play a larger role in initial education, assuring also the function of induction; (4) the institutional structure of initial teacher education ensures that the employers of teachers and the teaching profession influence the content and assessment, (5) the changes result in a decrease of subject- and school-type based fragmentation, (6) the resources potentially released by the shortening of initial education are redirected towards the improvement of teachers’ induction and on-going and continuous professional development.

161. The shortening of initial teacher education carries the risk that the time for experience in schools is sacrificed first. This risk could be avoided through the introduction of minimal curricular requirements such as the inclusion of a minimum proportion of time for practice-based training. However, the prescription of a minimum proportion of time for school-based practice does not solve the problem of the quality of the contents. New forms of partnership will need to be developed between teacher education institutions and schools, and schools will need to have the time, training and resources to adequately supervise and support trainee teachers. The German Federal system provides much potential for pilot projects and learning from good practice in this regard. A country-wide programme for the development and the sharing of good quality and efficient partnerships with schools could significantly help this process.

162. We suggest that clear standards be established for schools which take part in practical training, and that their selection for this function be done through an accreditation procedure based on these standards. Schools providing practical training in close cooperation with teacher education institutions should acquire a special status, which may bring them certain privileges but also serious duties. A basic

requirement is that they should operate internal quality management and go through regular external evaluation. They should be actively involved in educational research and experimentation, so that they could play an important role in the mediation between research and practice, and use research directly in the process of practical training. Another, similarly important requirement is that they should take an active part in the induction-related and in-service training of practising teachers in partnership with teacher education institutions. The teachers with such responsibilities should be recognised through their higher career status and salary.

163. One of the greatest potential risks of the shortening of initial teacher education through merging the first and second phases is that the employer of new teachers (the school sector) may lose its current influence on the producers (the universities) in this process. As we stressed earlier, this influence is a major strength of the German system. The reforms proposed here could build further on this strength by ensuring that the teaching profession itself plays a more active role in determining the content and accreditation, and by developing a new institutional framework for teacher education. One possibility would be the creation of larger, more autonomous teacher education units within the universities, similar to the University of Potsdam initiative, but going, if possible, some steps further. The existence of a well-staffed teacher education faculty or institution, taking overall responsibility for teacher education, and structured so that it has close links to the employers of teachers, the schools and the teaching profession, could gradually become a condition for the accreditation of the teacher education function of universities. The need for such a concentration of effort and resources is obvious, as teacher education is one of the largest areas of activity in many universities. Furthermore, there is a need for teacher education to be informed by the latest research and evidence, and this is difficult to achieve when the academic staff involved in teacher education are scattered among a wide range of other subject departments and their primary research orientation is towards disciplinary areas rather than teacher education and schools.

164. Another possibility is the establishment of teaching professional bodies (such as the General Teaching Council in England) which provide a mechanism for profession-led standard setting and quality assurance in teacher education, teacher performance and career development. This would give teachers a greater say in the criteria for entry to their profession, the standards for career advancement, and the basis on which ineffective teachers should leave the profession. The example of the Victorian Institute of Teaching (VIT, in Victoria, Australia) is illustrative. The Institute, which was established by government legislation in 2001, provides teachers with a level of professional autonomy and self-regulation and the right to have a say in the further development of their own profession. The VIT has developed professional standards for teachers based on research and an extensive consultation process across the state. The standards apply to eight broad areas, including “teachers know the content they teach” and “teachers reflect on, evaluate and improve their professional knowledge and practice”. The standards are being used for the accreditation of teacher education programmes and the development of induction and professional development schemes. It is intended that they will also be used as the basis for promotion decisions and identifying ineffective teachers.

165. It is also important to ensure the active participation of teacher education institutions in the in-service training of practising teachers provided this is organised according to the needs of the user (the schools). There are various mechanisms to ensure it. One way is the further spreading of tailor-made whole-school training programmes, which, as we could see, are based on thorough needs-analyses and are adapted to the specific needs of concrete schools. Another way is the transformation of the mechanisms of financing in-service training, so that resources are deployed to the schools, which can decide on what kind of training they buy with their money according to their specific needs. This can create a demand-driven system of in-service education, which requires the providers to develop new courses to meet the demand of schools and to drop those that are not demanded. In this new environment a wide range of different types of providers of in-service education and school development services could be stimulated. For example, there are substantial training resources and expertise within German industry that would greatly benefit the

schools. A more demand-driven system of in-service training also requires the development of efficient quality assurance mechanisms (e.g. the accreditation of programmes and providers), and on-going evaluation and dissemination to ensure that the benefits of good practice are multiplied.

166. One of the potential beneficial side effects of the creation of more substantial and focused teacher education faculties or institutions within the universities would be the strengthening of interdisciplinary approaches, and the development of more common elements within teacher education so that teachers would not be confined to teaching in one school type or a narrow range of discipline areas. Moving away from the currently highly fragmented system would be also encouraged by the growing role of new content areas which are less dependent on specific disciplines or school types: such as training for personality development and teamwork, the development of generic teaching skills, quality management, assessment theory and practice, and so forth. By ensuring that all new teachers have a broader skill base, the school system will become more flexible in responding to changing circumstances. The decision makers responsible for teacher education need to continuously pose the question, when deciding about organisational processes, personnel issues or programmes, whether organising and managing things separately for each discipline and each school type is really efficient, or whether more integrated programmes would not bring more benefits.

167. The further development of initial teacher education should draw the maximum benefit from the structural changes induced by the Bologna process and the modularisation of programmes already in progress. If the profile of the teaching profession is reshaped on the lines outlined above, the task of constructing BA level qualifications having labour market relevance both within and outside the school system will be less difficult. The realisation of the Bologna principles in teacher education requires that the Länder make their definition of entrance requirements for teaching more flexible, taking account of the fact that the school sector is not the only likely employer of teacher education graduates. A flexible definition of the qualification requirements for teachers, together with an increasing role for professional development will assist new teachers in postponing a choice between the various lines of the fragmented teaching career. In the light of the urgent need for a large number of new teachers to replace those leaving the profession in the coming years, the introduction of pilot projects testing out new approaches to teacher education should be accelerated.

168. As noted earlier the content of the programmes should be based on the new national standards for teacher education, which in turn should be based on the new professional profile for the teaching profession. We also see it as important that teacher education places a greater emphasis on school evaluation, relations with colleagues, parents and accountability to the public. Federal and State level projects, aiming at renewing and enriching the teaching repertoire and methodological toolbox of teacher education institutions through enhancing innovative practice and mutual learning should be designed. The State regulation of teacher education examinations is a powerful tool for encouraging such developments. The definition of standards for initial teacher education, based on a new profile of the teaching profession, can also be used to focus more attention on the aptitudes required from students entering teacher education, and to help students make better career choices.

### **4.3 Assuring an Adequate Supply of Good Quality Teachers**

169. A top priority is to ensure that teachers are encouraged and supported to continuously review their skills and improve their practice. It is not clear to the review team that a civil servant status characterised by extensive job security and limited mechanisms for teacher evaluation and feedback is the employment status that best achieves this objective. It may be worth considering an employment status that would introduce or strengthen the following aspects:

- A system of on-going contracts with the requirement that teachers renew their teacher certificates after a period of time, such as every 5-7 years. The basis for renewal could be an attestation that the teacher is continuing to fully meet the required standards of performance. In such a system, contractual arrangements could be terminated or teachers deployed to other positions in the school system if performance is deemed unsatisfactory;
- a wide range of opportunities for teachers to improve their practice thereby improving their capacity to secure the positions they want while responding to the changing needs of schools;
- an open, fair and transparent system of teacher evaluation involving teaching peers, school leaders and external experts who are properly trained and resourced for these tasks – and who are themselves evaluated on a regular basis; and
- fair but speedy mechanisms to address poor performance. Teachers in this situation should have the opportunity and support to remedy any deficiencies but, if improvements do not occur, steps should exist to move these teachers either out of the school system or into non-teaching roles.

170. The 1997 amendment on the remuneration of civil servants gave the Länder some discretion in handling the compensation package of teachers, including a closer linkage between the career evolution of teachers and their performance. However, the teacher labour market calls for further structural changes to give more room for Länder to introduce features such as: (1) greater opportunities for promotion; (2) elements other than salaries in the compensation package of teachers; (3) allowances to differentiate teachers on the basis of difficult working conditions or areas of shortage; and (4) more mobility of teachers between different schools and jurisdictions.

171. Targeted responses to imbalances in specific teacher labour sub-markets have already been launched around the country, and the KMK articulated a number of recommendations with regard to recruitment difficulties in its 2001 document “Measures to meet the demand for teachers”. The recommendations can be grouped into six domains: (1) media campaigns; (2) elimination of barriers to inter-Länder mobility; (3) further qualification programmes permitting teachers to acquire additional qualifications in areas of shortage; (4) greater flexibility in higher education programmes; (5) alternative pathways into teaching; and (6) improvement of entering financial incentives. These are steps in the right direction and it is encouraging that Länder have been quite active in launching specific initiatives in these areas.

172. It is clear that targeted responses to recruitment problems call for the incentive structure to be used in a more flexible manner. For instance, in order to compensate some teachers for working under particularly difficult conditions, the introduction of a number of extra incentives might prove useful. Monetary incentives such as salary allowances for teaching in difficult areas, transportation assistance for teachers in remote areas, or bonuses for working in difficult working conditions (e.g. teachers in some *Hauptschulen*) might reveal appropriate in ensuring that all schools are staffed with teachers of similar quality. Also worthy of attention are non-salary strategies, such as lower class contact times or smaller classes, for schools in socially difficult areas or which have particular educational needs.

173. Another solution to tackle the problem of shortages is to expand the potential supply pool. This can be achieved, for instance, by opening further the teaching profession to individuals with relevant experience outside education. Some Länder have already developed policies whereby the system recognises the skills and experience outside education through “side entrant” schemes. Such schemes have scope for expansion. Furthermore, the harmonisation across the Länder of systems for accommodating new pathways into teaching will open up wider career opportunities for prospective teachers and facilitate



geographical mobility. As noted several times, a key strategy for expanding the supply pool is by improving the mobility of teachers across educational levels and school types, something that can be achieved by common standards in teacher education programmes and by creating more opportunities for retraining (Sweden, the Netherlands, and Finland offer examples of possible approaches to widen the types of schools in which teachers are qualified to teach).

174. In addition, certain sub-groups of teachers need careful attention as potential sources of greater supply. Given their large numbers in the system, policies targeted at encouraging part-time teachers to take on additional assignments seem worth exploring. Similarly, in light of the high rates of early retirement rates, policies focussing on the retention of more experienced teachers should be developed. Some countries have introduced “seniors policies” as a means of reducing career burn-out among experienced teachers and retaining their skills in schools. The elements include targeted professional development activities, reduced classroom teaching hours and reduced hours overall, and new tasks including curriculum development, advising other schools and mentoring beginning teachers. Moreover, in recognition of the fact that financial incentives are likely to make more of a difference for beginning and trainee teachers, the recent salary declines in some Länder might necessitate re-examination.

175. Given that teacher shortages in some regions of the country are paralleled with oversupply in others, the low mobility of teachers across Länder is problematic. Apart from the recognition of teacher qualifications that was noted earlier, the review team formed the view that little communication exists between the Länder regarding teacher needs. Moreover, information on teaching posts in one Land does not seem to be easily available to individuals in other Länder. Educational authorities of each Land should be encouraged to disseminate information about the conditions of employment as a teacher much more widely.

176. In order to address the substitution of teachers, it is important to enhance the creation of local/regional replacement pools, which can promptly respond to schools’ short-term teacher needs (such as the ones which exist in England and the Flemish Community of Belgium).<sup>30</sup> Such pool offers the potential to provide quick responses to imbalances between demand and supply and relieve teachers from extra work to cover for absent colleagues. Replacement pools also offer a way for former teachers to start to make the transition back to full-time teaching, and can provide some job security for beginning teachers before they obtain a permanent position. It is also potentially a good means to monitor local and regional labour markets and a way for municipalities and Länder to co-operate in regard to teacher recruitment.

177. The increasing role of schools in the selection of teachers is a positive trend and its further expansion would prove useful. A more direct interaction through personal interviews and visits to schools by candidates are likely to improve the match between applicants and school needs, and to build a stronger commitment to the school. However, having schools select the teachers involves some complexity; there is potential for an inequitable distribution of teachers; and the possibility of unfair treatment of some candidates. Overall, the role of schools in teacher selection needs to be carefully monitored and evaluated by Länder authorities, and mechanisms put in place to ensure that selection panels are properly trained and use transparent and agreed procedures.

#### **4.4 Improving Teachers’ Career Structure and Incentives**

178. The challenges outlined earlier in regard to the career structure and incentive mechanisms for teachers call for a number of initiatives. Foremost, the structure of teaching careers would benefit from: (1)

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30. Also, in some countries (e.g. the United Kingdom), teacher private employment agencies function as intermediaries between schools and potential teachers (*Morrison, 1999*).

extra differentiation; (2) consistency across school levels and types; and (3) closer links to aspects other than qualifications and seniority.

179. Extra differentiation consists of more opportunities for promotion on the basis of the creation of positions associated with specific tasks and roles. This comes as the recognition that schools and teachers need to take on a greater range of tasks and responsibilities both within and beyond the classroom. Roles such as mentor/coach of beginning and trainee teachers, co-ordinator of in-service training, school project co-ordinator and curriculum development could be associated with new positions in the career structure in addition to the existing position for subject co-ordinator in upper secondary schools. However, it is important to keep the transparency of the system by clearly defining the duties implied by each new position. An illustrative case is that of Ireland which has introduced four categories of promotion posts: Principal; Deputy Principal; Assistant Principal; and Special Duties Teacher. They have each special management duties, and receive both salary and time allowances. In addition to classroom teaching, Assistant Principals and Special Duties Teachers have special responsibility for academic, administrative and pastoral matters, including timetabling arrangements, liaison with parents' associations, supervising the maintenance and availability of school equipment, and so on.

180. Consistency of career structures across school levels and types is the principle that recognises that the greater complexity of teachers' work, which calls for a greater diversity of roles, is common to the different educational levels and school types. It implies that extra career differentiation needs to be offered across all school types and levels.

181. Linking career progression to aspects other than qualifications and seniority offers the potential for the best qualified people to be encouraged to take on new roles, and to be recognised and rewarded for doing so. In a context of a more diversified career structure, steps within salary scales, and promotion from one scale to the next could be related to the effectiveness of the teacher. For example, salary progression could be deferred if teachers had not met the stated expectations of performance or there could be accelerated progression for exemplary performance. As described earlier, Baden-Württemberg and North-Rhine Westphalia have recently introduced such approaches. As another example, in Finland the collective bargaining agreement for 2003–2004 includes elements for assessing the standards of teachers' work, and provides scope for employers to pay bonuses on the basis of individual professional proficiency and performance. In the St Gallen canton in Switzerland teachers can move up to the next grade on the pay scale only if they are given a positive assessment, based on a process of self-evaluation and external assessment. Any success in linking rewards to performance, of course, depends on the clarity of the performance expectations and the skills of those evaluating the performance. To be credible and accepted, those involved in evaluating others should receive appropriate training and support, and themselves be subject to evaluation.

182. Rewarding teachers with time allowances, sabbatical periods, fee support for post-graduate courses, or opportunities for in-service training could overcome the little lack of flexibility in raising salaries and offer additional reasons for attracting and retaining individuals into the profession. For instance, in order to stimulate more school-based research and development, some countries have created provisions for teacher action research (e.g., England and Ontario in Canada). Those teachers studying and evaluating their own teaching strategies are rewarded through opportunities for high-level professional development (such as participation in national conferences). Teachers could also be granted a leave of absence to pursue research as a form of professional development that benefits both the individual teacher and the school system.

183. The flexible approach to working time should be maintained, along with the possibilities offered to work out of schools for some periods of time as key comparative advantages of the teaching career. The issue of the unevenness of hurdles throughout the career could be tackled by: (1) moving to a system

whereby all teachers are required to periodically renew their teacher certificates, such as every 5-7 years; (2) reinforcing the links to performance throughout the career; and (3) reducing the probationary period for beginning teachers. Also, efforts ought to be made to make the latter a more effective tool in identifying individuals who do not fit the profession.

184. As mentioned earlier, efforts should be devoted to the development of policies targeted at keeping more experienced teachers in the profession. Attrition rates before the regular retirement age are very high, and could result from the lack of career opportunities and growth in the second half of the career. Experienced teachers need a system which continuously challenges them, gives them the opportunity to improve professionally and grants them the possibility to access new roles and tasks. This can be accomplished in the context of a career structure embodying more diverse and rewarding roles. In particular, more experienced teachers might gain motivation from engaging in new tasks such as mentor to beginning teachers or school project co-ordinator and could benefit from lighter workloads while still retaining seniority and pension rights.

#### **4.5 Strengthening Accountability**

185. The current trend of linking increased school autonomy with a growing stress on accountability and quality assurance deserves strong support. This should be accompanied by the development of clear lines of accountability for the performance of schools alongside the Federal and State strategies that aim to raise the achievement of students. The specification of lines of accountability for raising standards and assuring quality, using evaluation as the fundamental tool for diagnosing the effectiveness of the education process, would complement and reinforce the initiatives that have already been adopted.

186. One possible strategy for providing a quality improvement framework for schools and teachers is to set performance objectives and targets which can be monitored as a consistent part of schools' annual planning processes. The inclusion of personal objectives for teachers in school development plans would help ensure a closer connection between individual teacher and whole-school needs. For this to be a credible process, though, the school system would need to ensure that teachers have the support and resources needed to achieve their objectives. The introduction of regular staff appraisal, that reviews performance against objectives and identifies areas for development, should help to reinforce the message that teaching is an important job, to recognise and celebrate good performance, and ensure that less successful teachers receive the support, coaching or training they need. To be successful, such measures need to operate in a climate in which self-evaluation and peer evaluations are regarded as normal aspects of professionalism. In the process of redefining the profile of the teaching profession and establishing standards for teacher education on the basis of this revised profile, evaluation and quality care should receive a particular attention. This will also require in-service training in processes of evaluation and the allowance of time for this in the school organisation.

187. These developments could be assisted by the identification or creation of centres of expertise for quality improvement and performance management in schools. Such centres could draw from the existing expertise of school evaluation in some Länder, develop approaches and training materials, and validate the approaches used in different Länder. Teachers' professional associations are also key players in this regard. The joint establishment by the Länder and Federal authorities of a nation-wide institution for educational quality improvement would be a promising step in focusing attention on the need for quality improvement, involving the key stakeholders, improving the knowledge base and disseminating good practice.

188. One of the conditions for these processes to be successful is the development of a new profession profile for educational evaluation and quality improvement experts. Evaluation as a new professional task should be separated from legal and administrative inspection. Experts in evaluation and quality or performance management need a professional preparation and profile that is different from those of

administrators. Universities should consider the development of special graduate training programmes for this new profession in a close cooperation with quality experts in other sectors outside education. The offers of the business community to take an active part in this process should be taken into account.

#### **4.6 Modernising Governance and Management**

189. Since many of the questions related with the problems of attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers can be traced back to the structure of governance and management and the overall regulatory environment, the modernisation of these seems to be a basic precondition. This is not peculiar to Germany, but given the tradition in this country of the use of legal instruments to promote uniform solutions, it requires particular stress. Uniformity and State control have made important contributions to the establishment of the schooling system. However, the intended benefits of this model to the efficiency of resource use, the promotion of quality, and the equity of opportunity are now being seriously questioned in Germany as they are around the world. In fact, uniformity increasingly appears as an obstacle to the efficient management in a system characterised by growing complexity, as it hinders the capacity of the system to find creative solutions to new challenges, and lowers the adaptive capacity of its actors. This appears in many dimensions of teacher policy, whether it is about efficient recruitment, the quality and relevance of professional preparation or the quality of teachers' work in schools. One of the keys for the further development of teacher policy in Germany is to be found in the reshaping of the regulatory environment, including, in certain cases, the reallocation of responsibilities among different actors.

190. Our impression was that harnessing the potential of a federal structure can make an important contribution to educational development in Germany. This involves federal initiatives to complement and reinforce Land-level initiatives, and also building up the opportunities for individual Land to take initiatives and for these to be evaluated and communicated so that all can benefit from cost-effective approaches. As well as individual schools needing to become learning organisations, the overall system needs to become better at learning about itself and disseminating good practice throughout the country.

191. Another potential source of strength in the German system lies in the role of local communities. As we saw, some of the current educational policies (development of kindergartens and whole-day schools, the introduction of new equipment-demanding ICT or multimedia-based programmes, the strengthening of the social functions of schools) already entail a more active role of local communities in education, including in personnel policy. The transfer of administrative tasks and personnel from the State authorities to local governments, as being applied by some Länder, is worthy of support, but it needs to be done cautiously, and evaluated thoroughly, so that it does not make a complex system even more complicated. It is also clear that if local governments are to play a more significant role in schooling, their capacity to do so will need to be enhanced. For example, Sweden has recently given more authority to municipalities and individual schools over a wide range of teacher matters, including salaries. For instance, the centrally bargained fixed pay scheme for teachers was abolished in the mid-1990s as part of a package designed to enhance local autonomy and flexibility in the school system. There is now much greater variety in teachers' pay, with those in areas of shortage and with higher demonstrated performance able to negotiate more. The scheme is underpinned by a system of central government grants to ensure that low-income municipalities are able to compete effectively for teachers.

192. Making schools more autonomous and more responsive is a widely accepted education policy goal today in Germany. We recommend the further widening and acceleration of the initiatives already started in this area. A higher number of schools should be involved in programmes aimed at enlarging institutional autonomy and in wider range of areas (curriculum, personnel, quality, premises, finances and so on). Schools in all Länder should be asked to prepare a development programme as a strategic document with certain standard elements such as a self-evaluation (identifying strengths and weaknesses and drawing on a wide range of sources of information), the definition of school-specific developmental goals, the

identification of steps to achieve those objectives, and the development of evaluation strategies to determine whether they have been achieved and the necessary adjustments made. The role of schools in recruiting teachers should be further strengthened through the generalisation of the practice of advertising vacancies and organising job interviews by the schools. Experiments with implementing advanced quality management techniques in schools should receive further support. It is important to stress again that unless quality evaluation becomes a requirement for *all* schools, accountability may be weakened rather than strengthened by increased autonomy.

193. If the empowerment of schools is an important policy goal, the development of management in both central authorities and schools should also become a high-level priority. As stressed several times already, the development of greater school autonomy does not mean that there is no longer a role for central authorities. Rather, the role of central authorities changes towards one of leading and monitoring the system, assuring quality, and supporting schools in their new roles. There need to be collective efforts by education authorities – and, critically, teachers and school leaders themselves -- to define standards for school management training programmes. These standards should be based on the definition of a new profile of the school leader, focussing more on organisational improvement than on routine administration. School management programmes should be accredited according to these standards.

194. Gradually – parallel with the development of participation in training – a qualification in school management should become a formal requirement for individuals applying for a post of principal or for being prolonged in this position. To make school leadership more attractive as a career step, principals and other senior staff should be better paid on the basis of fixed-term, renewable contracts. The linking of school leaders' work to structured training and regular evaluation would provide an important model for other teachers. The professionalisation of school leadership needs to be supported also through other means such as networking among school leaders and the strengthening of associations for school management that cover all school types. The recent experience of England in this area is illustrative with the rapid development of school leadership programmes (e.g. Headlamp and the Headship Induction Programme), the creation of the National Professional Qualification for Headship, and the establishment of the National College for School Leadership.

195. Empowering schools and making school management more responsible requires also the change of the inspection system. There is a need to develop a new inspection model, based on the conception of the autonomous school (following, for instance, the experiences of Hessen, Saxony and North-Rhine Westphalia). The ongoing process, characterising several Länder, of separating professional and administrative inspection – through, for instance transferring administrative tasks to the municipalities and reinforcing the evaluation and developmental functions of State inspectors – should be continued, together with the encouragement of the development of inspectorates into professional evaluating agencies. In the activities of ministries of education the stress should be shifted from daily operational tasks towards more strategic steering functions.

## 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

196. On the basis of the documentation offered by both the German authorities and the various stakeholder groups, and the rich evidence collected during the field visits and interviews the review team came to the conclusion that the German system is in a difficult, but fertile *period of transition*. The ongoing innovations and initiatives have already begun to transform the daily operation of schools,

however the adaptation of the regulatory structure to the new reality has only started. As the length of the transition and the deepness of changes cannot yet be seen fully, a relatively high level of uncertainty can be perceived among the teaching profession and other stakeholders.

197. Although there have been considerable changes in recent years at the levels of schools and classrooms – in the daily pedagogical practice, the relations between students and teachers, and the thinking and the behaviour of teachers -- the major structural and regulation characteristics at macro level have remained practically unchanged. And yet, almost no one we met, or nothing we read, argued that the present system of managing and regulating schools and teachers should be retained.

198. The review team visited the country in a period where a wide consensus seemed to emerge on the need for changes. We found that, in terms of both diagnosis and response, the key ingredients of educational reform are already present in the country, albeit in often small scale and limited ways. We could also witness many concrete measures that already are, or at least could be put together into a coherent strategy of reform, and are already being implemented, although the changes are being introduced very cautiously, and their intended time scale is often very long.

199. From the point of view of the long process of educational reform and improvement, Germany may draw many advantages from its position of a relatively “late-comer” to the current phase. The experiences of other countries can help to inform the process in Germany, and prevent costly mistakes from being made. But the German way of reforming education may also create valuable experiences for other countries. This model of reform is characterised by an interesting combination of cautiousness on the one hand, and radicalism on the other. This approach may derive from another key feature of Germany: the extensive mechanisms and forums through which the views of key stakeholders and participants are aired and taken into account. This can mean that the process of change can appear slow and uncertain. But it can also mean that once the consultative processes have worked their way through, and a broad consensus on the direction of change established, the actual implementation of reform can be quite rapid, thorough and widely supported. We sense that an historic next stage in the evolution of the school system is about to start. We trust that our analysis and proposals – which aimed at ensuring that able and committed people want to teach in German schools because the work is exciting, well rewarded and appreciated – will contribute to this process.

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## **APPENDIX 1: THE OECD REVIEW TEAM**

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## **APPENDIX 2: NATIONAL CO-ORDINATOR, LAND CO-ORDINATORS, AND AUTHORS OF BACKGROUND REPORTS**

### **National Co-ordinator for Germany**

Mr Michael Krüger, Teacher Initial Education Section, Ministry of Education of Hesse

### **Organisation within Standing Conference of Ministers of Culture in the Federal Republic of Germany (KMK)**

Ms Birgitta Ryberg, Department for International Affairs, KMK

### **Co-ordinators for Länder visited**

Baden-Württemberg

Mr Siegmund Keller, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport

Brandenburg

Ms Evelyn Junginger, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport

Hamburg

Mr Josef Keuffer, Department for Education and Sport

Ms Monika Renz, Department for Education and Sport

North-Rhine Westphalia

Mr Günther Neumann, Ministry of Schools, Youth and Children

### **Background Documentation**

Federal Country Background Report

Author: Secretariat of the Standing Conference of the Ministers of Culture in the Federal Republic of Germany.

Supplement to the Federal Country Background Report

Authors: Peter Döbrich, Klaus Klemm, Georg Knauss and Hermann Lange.

Trade Union views at Federal Level

DBB (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*, German Federation of Civil Servants)

GEW (*Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*, Trade Union of Education and Science)

Länder Background Reports

Baden-Württemberg

Author: Secretariat of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport

Brandenburg

Author: Secretariat of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport

Hamburg

Author: Secretariat of the Department for Education and Sport (edited by Monika Renz)

North-Rhine Westphalia

Author: Secretariat of the Ministry of Schools, Youth and Children (edited by Günther Neumann)

Report complemented with contributions from local stakeholders

## APPENDIX 3: PROGRAMME OF THE REVIEW VISIT

### ***Sunday 14 September***

17:00 Review team meeting

### ***Monday 15 September – Bonn***

09:00 Michael Krüger, National Co-ordinator

09:30 Meeting with the National Co-ordinator, Co-ordinators of the Länder, representatives of the Standing Conference (KMK), and of the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF)

11:30 Bund-Länder Commission for Educational Planning and Research Promotion (BLK).

Meeting with: Secretary General, Deputy Secretary General, Head of Division “European Educational Planning, International Comparisons in Educational Planning, Interdisciplinary issues of further education” from BLK; and Head of sub-department “Educational Reform” from BMBF.

14:00 Meeting with Key stakeholder groups (representatives of trade unions, parents’ associations, employers’ associations and Chambers of Industry and Commerce):

- GEW (*Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*, Trade Union of Education and Science);
- DBB (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*, German Federation of Civil Servants) with representatives from General Secretariat and from the affiliated organisations BLBS (*Bundesverband der Lehrerinnen und Lehrer an beruflichen Schulen*, for vocational education teachers), DPhV (*Deutscher Philologenverband*, for teachers at Grammar schools) and VBE (*Verband Bildung und Erziehung*, for teachers at primary, *Hauptschulen*, *Realschulen* and special schools);
- Federal Parents’ Council;
- European Parents’ Association;
- Association of German Chambers of Industry and Commerce (DIHK);
- Confederation of German Employers’ Associations (BDA).

16:45 Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF)

Meeting with Desk Officer from the “Vocational Schools” Division in BMBF and the Head of the Sector “Educational Technology, Educational Staff and Learning Co-operation” in the Federal Institute for Vocational Training (BIBB).

19:00 Departure of two review members to Brandenburg and two review members to Hamburg.

### ***Tuesday 16 September – Brandenburg (Half of the team)***

08:30 Welcome by Land Co-ordinator Evelyn Junginger

09:00 School Visit: Humboldt Gymnasium, Potsdam

Welcome by School Principal.

Representatives from Voltaire Gesamtschule, Potsdam joined the visit.

Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers and students from both the Humboldt Gymnasium and the Voltaire Gesamtschule.

13:30 Meeting with Education Administration officials

Head of Department 1 “Administration, Organisation, Legal and Supraregional Affairs”; Head of Department 2, “Planning, Legal Affairs, Organisation of Teaching and Information in the School Sector”; Head of Department 3, “School Supervision, Quality Development, Teacher Training, Further Education”; Head of the School Office *Wünsdorf*; School Counsellors (*Schulrat*) for special

schools, lower secondary schools and upper secondary schools; Chairperson of the Staff Association.

- 14:30 Meeting with key stakeholder groups  
Local representatives of GEW (*Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*, Trade Union of Education and Science); DBB (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*, German Federation of Civil Servants) and the *Main Staff Organisation*.
- 15:30 Local authority association  
Deputy President of the German Association of Towns and Municipalities (DStGB).
- 16:30 Meeting with key stakeholder groups  
Parents' spokesperson of the Land; Chairman of the School Advisory Council of the Land; Spokesperson of the Land Council of the Teaching staff; Representatives of the Sector for Co-operation in the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport.
- 18:00 Dinner with the Minister of Education Youth and Sport Steffen Reiche, State Secretary Frank Szymanski and Heads of Departments in the Ministry.

***Tuesday 16 September – Hamburg (Half of the team)***

- 08:30 Official welcome by State Counsellor Reinhard Behrens  
Welcome by Land Co-ordinators Josef Keuffer and Monika Renz and by Otfried Börner and Wolfgang Meyer (both from the Land Institute of Teacher Training and School Development), members of the team assisting during visit.
- 09:00 School Visit: Gesamtschule Mümmelmannsberg (GSM)  
Welcome by School Principal  
Representatives from the following schools joined the visit: Billstedt Gymnasium, Lohbrügge Gymnasium, Rahewinkel primary school and Mümmelmannsberg primary school.  
Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers and students from the 5 schools represented, and with representatives of the Department for Education and Sport (School Supervisory Board, superintendents).
- 13:30 Meeting with the Senator for Education and Sport, Rudolf Lange.
- 14:30 Teacher education institution, 1<sup>st</sup> phase, University of Hamburg  
Welcome by the President of the University of Hamburg and the Dean of the Faculty for Educational Sciences  
Discussion with Members of the Faculty for Educational Sciences and student teachers.
- 17:00 Meeting with representatives from the Department for Education and Sport (BBS)  
School Supervisory Board; School Development Department, Teacher Training Department, Head of the Secretariat "Reform of Teacher Training".

***Wednesday 17 September – Brandenburg (Half of the team)***

- 09:00 School Visit: Montessori Gesamtschule (GS/S I), Potsdam  
Welcome by School Principal  
Representatives from Oberstufenzentrum III school, Potsdam joined the visit  
Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers and students from both the Montessori Gesamtschule and the Oberstufenzentrum III school.
- 13:30 Teacher education institution, 1<sup>st</sup> phase, Potsdam University  
Welcome by the Pro-rector of Potsdam University and the Head of the Teacher Training Institute  
Discussion with Members of the Teacher Training Institute and student teachers.
- 15:30 Education Administration officials  
Meeting with representatives of the Examination Office of the Land and the Land Institute for Schools and Media (LiSuM)
- 18:00 Review members travel to Stuttgart

**Wednesday 17 September – Hamburg (Half of the team)**

- 09:00 School visit: H 3 Vocational School (commercial vocational school), *Staatl. Handelsschule mit Wirtschaftsgymnasium Schlankreye*, Hamburg  
Welcome by School Principal  
Representatives from G 6 (technical vocational school), W 2 (vocational school in the field of domestic and nutritional science) and G 9 (technical vocational school) joined the visit.  
Representatives from the Department of Vocational Education within the Department for Education and Sport and a representative from the Land Institute for Teacher Training and School Development (training of vocational school teachers) joined the meeting.  
Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers, and students from the schools represented.
- 14:00 Meeting with key stakeholder groups  
Representatives from the Chamber of teachers, Chamber of parents, Chamber of students, German Teachers' Association (*Deutscher Lehrerverband*), GEW (*Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*).
- 16:00 Teacher education institution, 2<sup>nd</sup> phase and continuous in-service education, Land Institute for Teacher Training and School Development  
Welcome by the Director of the Land Institute for Teacher Training and School Development  
Discussion with Members of the Teacher Training Institute and student teachers.
- 18:00 Review members travel to Stuttgart

**Thursday 18 September – Stuttgart**

- 08:30 Welcome by Land Co-ordinator Siegmund Keller
- 09:00 Meeting with the Minister of Education, Annette Schavan.
- 10:15 School Visit: Friedrich-Ebert Berufliche Schule, Esslingen (vocational school, craft)  
Welcome by School Principal  
Representatives from John F. Kennedy School (vocational school, craft) joined the visit.  
Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers and students from both schools represented.
- 14:00 Institution for in-service training, *Staatliche Akademie für Lehrerfortbildung (Wirtschaft und Technik)*, Esslingen.  
Welcome by the Head of the Academy, followed by a guided tour.  
Discussion with Members of the Academy, a representative from the State Academy of Comburg, Local supervisory authority, and officials in charge of in-service teacher training within the Ministry of Education.
- 16:30 Teacher Education, 1<sup>st</sup> phase  
Discussion with Rector of Konstanz University, Rector of the Ludwigsburg College of Education (*Pädagogische Hochschule*), and official in charge of initial teacher education within the Ministry of Education.
- 17:30 Teacher Education, 2<sup>nd</sup> phase  
Discussion with representatives from the State Seminars for practical school training (*Staatliche Seminars*) and officials in charge of 2<sup>nd</sup> phase of initial teacher education within the Ministry of Education.
- 20:00 Dinner with representatives of the Ministry of Education, the school administration and the schools involved.

**Friday 19 September – Stuttgart**

- 09:00 School Visit: *Gymnasium Königin-Olga-Stift*, Stuttgart  
Welcome by School Principal

Representatives from the *Filderschule* (Primary and *Hauptschule*) and Robert-Koch-Schule (*Realschule*) joined the visit.

Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers and students from the schools represented.

- 13:30 Vice-President of the Parents' Advisory Council of the Land (LEB)  
14:00 Representatives from the School Advisory Council of the Land (LSB)  
14:30 Representatives from the Employers' Association and the Chamber of Industry and Commerce  
15:30 Local representatives from teacher unions
- GEW (*Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*, Trade Union of Education and Science);
  - DBB (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*, German Federation of Civil Servants) with representatives from the affiliated organisations BLBS (*Bundesverband der Lehrerinnen und Lehrer an beruflichen Schulen*, for vocational education teachers), DPhV (*Deutscher Philologenverband*, for teachers at Grammar schools) and VBE (*Verband Bildung und Erziehung*, for teachers at primary, *Hauptschulen*, *Realschulen* and special schools).
- 17:00 Local education authorities, Municipality of Stuttgart.

### ***Saturday 20 September – Stuttgart***

- 09:00 Education Administration officials: recruitment of teachers  
10:30 Education Administration officials: working conditions of teachers  
13:00 Review team travels to Dortmund

### ***Monday 22 September – Dortmund***

- 08:30 Welcome by Land Co-ordinator Günther Neumann  
09:00 School Visit: *Gesamtschule* Dortmund-Gartenstadt  
Welcome by School Principal  
Representatives from Immanuel Kant *Gymnasium* joined the visit  
Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers and students from both the schools represented.
- 14:00 Teacher Education institution, 1<sup>st</sup> phase, University of Dortmund  
Welcome by the Pro-rector for study and teaching  
Discussion with: Members of the Faculty of Educational Sciences (University of Dortmund); Members of the Institute for School Development Research (University of Dortmund); Members of the State Institute for School (*Landesinstitut für Schule*).
- 16:30 Local representatives from teacher unions
- GEW (*Gewerkschaft Erziehung und Wissenschaft*, Trade Union of Education and Science);
  - DBB (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*, German Federation of Civil Servants) with representatives from the affiliated organisations BLBS (*Bundesverband der Lehrerinnen und Lehrer an beruflichen Schulen*, for vocational education teachers), DPhV (*Deutscher Philologenverband*, for teachers at Grammar schools), VDR (*Verband Deutscher Realschullehrer*, for teachers at *Realschulen*); and VBE (*Verband Bildung und Erziehung*, for teachers at primary, *Hauptschulen*, *Realschulen* and special schools).
- 18:00 Dinner with State Secretary for Education, Elmar Schulz-Vanheyden

### ***Tuesday 23 September – Dortmund***

- 09:00 School Visit: Gisbert-von-Romberg-Berufskollef (center for vocational schools), Dortmund  
Welcome by School Principal  
Representative from *Realschule* in the area of Köln joined the visit  
Tour of school, discussion with heads of school, teachers and students from both the schools represented.

- 14:00 Teacher education Institution, 2<sup>nd</sup> phase, Student Seminar, Sekundarstufe II (Berufskolleg), Dortmund  
 Discussion with representatives from the Student Seminars for practical school training (*StudienSeminars*): Special education, primary education, lower secondary education, upper secondary education (general programmes), and upper secondary education (vocational programmes)
- 16:00 Key stakeholder groups: parents' organisations  
*Landeselternrat der Gesamtschulen in NW e. V.*  
*Elternverein NW e. V.*

***Wednesday 24 September – Düsseldorf and Bonn***

- 09:00 Ministry for Schools, Youth and Children, Düsseldorf  
 Welcome by Minister of Education Ute Schäfer and State Secretary Elmar Schulz-Vanheyden  
 Meeting with officials from Ministry for Schools, Youth and Children  
 Inspection; Recruitment and Employment of teachers; School administration and autonomy; Initial (1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> phases) teacher education; In-service training of teachers; Vocational education system; Statistical analysis and prognosis.
- 13:30 Secretariat of the KMK, Bonn  
 Seminar with educational researchers: Jürgen Baumert (Max-Planck-Institute for Educational Research); Andreas Helmke (Koblenz-Landau University); Marianne Horstkemper (Potsdam University, Institute for Pedagogics); Ewald Terhart (Westfälische Wilhelms-Universität Münster, Institute for School Pedagogics and General Didactics); Hermann Lange (former State Counsellor).
- 16:30 Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF)  
 Head of the sub-department "Educational Reform"

***Thursday 25 September – Bonn***

- 9:30 Review team meetings

***Friday 26 September – Bonn***

- 13:15 Meeting with the National Co-ordinator, Co-ordinators of the Länder, representatives of the Standing Conference (KMK), Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), and key stakeholder groups.  
 Initial impressions by review team and feedback by German authorities.
- 15:00 Farewell drink.
- 16:00 Visit conclusion.



## APPENDIX 4: COMPARATIVE INDICATORS ON TEACHERS

	Germany	OECD country mean	Germany's rank <sup>1</sup>
<b>SCHOOL SYSTEM EXPENDITURE</b>			
<b>Expenditure – total (2000)</b>			
Expenditure on all educational institutions as a % of GDP	5.3	5.5	=17/29
Expenditure on schools and post-sec. non-tertiary educ. institutions as a % of GDP	3.6	3.6	=16/29
Total education expenditure from public sources (%)	81.1	88.4	22/27
<b>Expenditure per student (2000)<sup>2</sup></b>			
Primary (US\$)	4 198	4 381	15/26
Lower secondary (US\$)	5 470	5 575	13/20
Upper Secondary (US\$)	9 625	6 063	2/21
All secondary (US\$)	6 826	5 957	10/26
<b>Current expenditure – composition (2000)<sup>3</sup></b>			
Compensation of teachers and other staff (%)	85.7	80.3	7/27
Non-staff expenditure (%)	14.3	19.7	21/27
<b>SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION</b>			
<b>Expected changes in the school-age population by 2010 relative to 2000 (2000=100), Source: OECD (2001)</b>			
Ages 5-14	84	91	25/30
Ages 15-19	95	98	=17/30
<b>SCHOOL STAFF NUMBERS</b>			
<b>Ratio of students to teaching staff (2001)<sup>4</sup></b>			
Primary	19.4	17.0	=10/29
Lower Secondary	15.7	14.5	8/22
Upper Secondary	13.7	13.8	11/23
All Secondary	15.2	13.9	9/26
<b>Average class size (public institutions, 2001)<sup>5</sup></b>			
Primary	22.4	22.0	7/23
Lower secondary	24.5	23.8	=6/22
<b>Staffing levels (2001)</b>			
Classroom teachers, academic staff and other teachers, primary and secondary schools, per 1000 students, in full-time equivalents	61.4	71.4	20/29
<b>CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEACHER WORKFORCE</b>			
<b>Age distribution of teachers (percentage aged 50 and over, 2001)<sup>6</sup></b>			
Primary	44.9	25.4	1/18
Lower secondary	50.5	28.9	2/16
Upper secondary	37.2	31.6	6/17
<b>Gender distribution of teachers (% of females, 2001)<sup>6</sup></b>			
Primary	82.0	78.6	11/25
Lower secondary	59.2	64.8	18/22
Upper secondary	40.3	51.4	21/24

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<b>GRADUATES FROM INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION</b>			
<b>Tertiary graduates with qualifications in education (2001)<sup>7</sup></b>			
Tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes (%)	8.2	13.1	19/25
Tertiary-type B programmes (%)	9.7	13.0	9/17
<b>TEACHER WORKLOADS</b>			
<b>Net teaching time, hours per year (2001)<sup>8</sup></b>			
Primary education	784	792	13/26
Lower secondary education	735	714	=7/25
Upper secondary education, general programmes	684	656	7/25
<b>Specific tasks that may be required of teachers by regulations, without any adjustment in teaching time (lower secondary, 2000-01)<sup>9</sup>, Source: Eurydice (2003)</b>			
Supervision between lessons (except during lunch breaks)	∅	16/24	
Supervision after school hours	∅	9/24	
Standing in for absent colleagues	√	16/23	
Support to future teachers and new entrants	∅	9/23	
Teamwork on the school plan, cross-curricular work, drawing up the curriculum	√	21/24	
Teamwork on internal evaluation of the school <sup>10</sup>	√	19/24	
<b>STUDENT VIEWS</b>			
<b>PISA index of teacher support for 15-year olds (2000)<sup>11</sup>, Source: OECD(2002)</b>	-0.34	0.02	=23/27
<b>PISA index of disciplinary climate for 15-year-olds (2000)<sup>12</sup>, Source: OECD (2002)</b>	0.10	0.00	10/27
<b>TEACHER SALARIES</b>			
<b>Annual teacher salaries, public schools (with minimum training, 2001)<sup>2</sup></b>			
Primary - starting salary (US\$)	38 412	21 982	1/29
Primary - 15 years experience (US\$)	46 459	30 047	1/29
Primary - top of scale (US\$)	49 839	36 455	6/29
Primary - ratio of salary after 15 years experience to GDP per capita	1.75	1.31	3/29
Lower secondary - starting salary (US\$)	39 853	23 283	2/28
Lower secondary - 15 years experience (US\$)	49 053	31 968	2/28
Lower secondary - top of scale (US\$)	51 210	38 787	5/28
Lower sec. - ratio of salary after 15 years experience to GDP per capita	1.84	1.34	3/28
Upper secondary, general - starting salary (US\$)	43 100	24 350	2/28
Upper secondary, general - 15 years experience (US\$)	52 839	34 250	2/28
Upper secondary, general - top of scale (US\$)	55 210	41 344	5/28
Upper secondary, general - ratio of salary after 15 years to GDP per capita	1.99	1.43	3/28
<b>Ratio of salary after 15 years experience to starting salary (2001)</b>			
Primary	1.21	1.37	=20/29
Lower secondary	1.23	1.38	=20/28
Upper secondary, general programmes	1.23	1.41	23/28
<b>Number of years from starting to top salary (lower secondary, 2001)</b>			
	28	25	=10/27
<b>Salary per hour of net contact (teaching) after 15 years experience (2001)<sup>2</sup></b>			
Primary (US\$)	59	37	2/26
Lower secondary (US\$)	67	45	3/25
Upper secondary, general programmes (US\$)	77	52	3/25
Ratio of salary per teaching hour of upper secondary and primary teachers	1.30	1.38	=15/25

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**Comparison of average secondary teachers' salaries with other public sector employees (1999)<sup>13</sup>**

Draughtsperson	▽	■8 ▼7 ▽8 ▲0 △1
Computer operator	▽	■10 ▼7 ▽7 ▲1 △0
Social worker	▼	■6 ▼11 ▽3 ▲1 △2
University lecturer	■	■2 ▼0 ▽0 ▲6 △16
Civil engineer	■	■4 ▼2 ▽0 ▲4 △15
Head teacher / Principal	▲	■1 ▼0 ▽0 ▲7 △16

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**Increases to base salary for teachers in public schools (2001)<sup>14</sup>**

Holding a higher than the minimum qualification required to enter teaching	∅	15/29
Reaching high scores in the qualification examination	∅	3/29
Holding an educational qualification in multiple subjects	∅	3/29
Successful completion of professional development activities	∅	9/29
Management responsibilities in addition to teaching duties	√	22/29
Holding a higher than minimum level of teacher certification or training obtained during professional life	∅	13/29
Outstanding performance in teaching	∅	11/29
Teaching courses in a particular field (e.g., mathematics or science)	∅	6/29
Teaching students with special educational needs (in regular schools)	∅	14/29
Teaching more classes or hours than required by full-time contract	√	21/29
Special activities (e.g., sports, drama and homework clubs, Summer school)	∅	15/29
Special tasks (e.g., training student teachers, guidance and counselling)	∅	16/29
Teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high cost area (location allowance)	∅	18/29
Family status (e.g., married, number of children)	√	12/29
Age (independent of years of experience)	√	6/29
Other	∅	12/29

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**TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

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**Teacher participation in prof. development (teachers of 15-year olds, 2000), Source: PISA Database, 2001**

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% teaching staff who attended a programme of prof. dev. in the last 3 months <sup>15</sup>	26	42	=26/27
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*Sources:* All data are from OECD (2003a), Education at a Glance, OECD Indicators 2003, Paris, unless indicated otherwise in the table.

*Notes:*

1. "Germany's rank" indicates the position of Germany when countries are ranked in descending order from the highest to lowest value on the indicator concerned. For example, on the first indicator "Expenditure on all educational institutions as a % of GDP", the rank "17/29" indicates that Germany recorded the 17<sup>th</sup> highest value of the 29 OECD countries that reported relevant data. The symbol "—" means that at least one other country has the same rank.
2. Expressed in equivalent US\$ converted using purchasing power parities.
3. Expenditure on goods and services consumed within the current year which needs to be made recurrently to sustain the production of educational services. Refers to current expenditure on schools and post-secondary non-tertiary educational institutions. The individual percentages do not always sum to the totals due to rounding.
4. In public and private institutions; calculations based on full-time equivalents. "Teaching staff" refers to professional personnel directly involved in teaching students.
5. Calculated by dividing the number of students enrolled by the number of classes (excluding special needs programmes and teaching in sub-groups outside the regular classroom setting).
6. In public and private institutions, based on head counts.

7. Percentage of tertiary graduates who graduated with qualifications in education. “Tertiary-type A” programmes generally involve at least three years full-time study, and typically last four or more years. “Tertiary-type B” programmes are generally shorter, less theory-based, and are designed for direct entry to the labour market.
8. Calculated on the basis of the annual number of weeks of instruction multiplied by the minimum/maximum number of periods that a teacher is supposed to spend teaching a class or a group, multiplied by the length of the period in minutes and divided by 60. Excludes breaks between lessons and days when schools are closed for holidays.
9. A “√” indicates that the specific task may be required without any adjustment in teaching time while “∅” indicates that the specific task cannot be required without an adjustment in teaching time. The information in the column of “OECD country mean” indicates the number of countries in which the specific task may be required without any adjustment in teaching time, out of the 23 or 24 countries for which data are available.
10. Teachers may temporarily stand in for absent colleagues, although usually for a very short period of time (around 1-5 weeks). Regulations vary from one *Land* to another. Supervision between lessons and the provision of support to future teachers are infrequent; teachers are involved in internal evaluation in only 6 *Länder*.
11. PISA index based on the percentage of 15-year olds who report that in most or every test language lesson, the teacher: (i) shows an interest in every student’s learning; (ii) gives students an opportunity to express opinions; (iii) helps students with their work; (iv) continues teaching until the students understand; (v) does a lot to help students; (vi) helps students with their learning; and (vii) checks students’ homework.  
A positive value on the index indicates that the students responded more favourably than all students on average, in OECD countries; a negative value indicates that they responded less favourably on average.
12. PISA index based on the percentage of 15-year olds who report that in most or every test language lesson: (i) the teacher has to wait a long time for students to quieten down; (ii) students cannot work well; (iii) students don’t listen to what the teacher says; (iv) students don’t start working for a long time after the lesson begins; (v) there is noise and disorder; and (vi) at the start of class, more than five minutes are spent doing nothing.  
A positive value on the index indicates that the students responded more favourably than all students on average, in OECD countries; a negative value indicates that they responded less favourably on average.
13. The symbols indicate:
  - Between -10 and +10 % of a secondary teacher’s salary
  - ▼ More than 10 but less than 30% lower than a secondary teacher’s salary
  - ▽ More than 30 % lower than a secondary teacher’s salary
  - ▲ More than 10 but less than 30% higher than a secondary teacher’s salary
  - △ More than 30 % higher than a secondary teacher’s salary
 The information in the “OECD country mean” column indicates the number of countries in each category. For example, in the “Computer operator” row, “■10” means that in 10 countries the salary of a computer operator is between -10 and +10 % of a secondary teacher’s salary.
14. OECD (2003a) gives information about the authority responsible for making the decision regarding the increase. A “√” indicates that the specific system exists to increase the base salary of teachers while “∅” indicates that such system does not exist. The information in the column “OECD country mean” provides the number of countries in which the specific mechanism exists out of the 29 countries for which data are available.
15. In the PISA 2000 questionnaire, principals were asked what percentage of teaching staff in their school have attended a programme of professional development in the last three months. The average country figure is computed weighting each school figure by the number of students enrolled in that school.