OECD Reviews of Evaluation and Assessment in Education

Teacher Evaluation in Chile

Paulo Santiago, Francisco Benavides, Charlotte Danielson, Laura Goe and Deborah Nusche

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Foreword

This report on Teacher Evaluation in Chile forms part of the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes (see Annex A for further details). The purpose of the Review is to explore how systems of evaluation and assessment can be used to improve the quality, equity and efficiency of school education. The Review looks at the various components of assessment and evaluation frameworks that countries use with the objective of improving student outcomes.

Chile was one of the countries which opted to participate in the country review strand and host a visit by an external review team. At the request of Chile's education authorities, the analysis in this report focuses on Chile's teacher evaluation system. Members of the Review Team were Paulo Santiago (OECD Secretariat), co-ordinator of the Review; Francisco Benavides (OECD Secretariat); Charlotte Danielson (Educational Consultant; United States); Laura Goe (Research Scientist, Educational Testing Service; United States); and Deborah Nusche (OECD Secretariat). This publication is the report from the Review Team. It provides, from an international perspective, an independent analysis of major issues facing teacher evaluation in Chile, current policy initiatives, and possible future approaches. The report serves three purposes: (1) Provide insights and advice to Chilean education authorities; (2) Help other OECD countries understand the approach to teacher evaluation in Chile; and (3) Provide input for the final comparative report of the project.

Chile's involvement in the OECD Review was co-ordinated by Francisco Lagos Marín, Head of the Research Centre, Planning and Budget Division, Ministry of Education. An important part of Chile's involvement was the preparation of a comprehensive and informative Country Background Report (CBR, forthcoming). The Review Team is very grateful to the authors of the CBR, within the Ministry of Education, for providing a high-quality informative document. The CBR is an important output from the OECD project in its own right as well as an important source for the Review Team. Unless indicated otherwise, the data for this report are taken from the Chilean Country Background Report. The CBR follows guidelines prepared by the OECD Secretariat and provides extensive information, analysis and discussion in regard to the national context, the organisation of the educational system, the main features of the teaching profession and the teacher evaluation framework, as well as the views of key stakeholders. In this sense, the CBR and this report complement each other and, for a more comprehensive view of teacher evaluation in Chile, should be read in conjunction.

The Review visit to Chile took place on 2-9 November 2011. The itinerary is provided in Annex B. The visit was designed by the OECD in collaboration with the Chilean authorities. The biographies of the members of the Review Team are provided in Annex C.

During the Review visit, the team held discussions with a wide range of national and municipal authorities, education officials, representatives of privately provided education, relevant agencies and groups which deal with teacher evaluation, teacher unions, parents' organisations, representatives of teacher educators, and researchers with an interest in teacher evaluation. The team also visited a range of schools, interacting with school management, teachers, parents and students in Concepción, Santiago and Valparaíso. The intention was to provide a broad cross-section of information and opinions on teacher evaluation policies and how their effectiveness can be improved.

The Review Team wishes to record its grateful appreciation to the many people who gave time from their busy schedules to inform the Review Team of their views, experiences and knowledge. The meetings were open and provided a wealth of insights. Special words of appreciation are due to the National Co-ordinator, Francisco Lagos Marín, Ministry of Education, for going to great lengths to respond to the questions and needs of the Review Team. We are also very grateful to Franco Fernández Fleming, Co-ordinator in the Evaluation Unit of the Research Centre, Planning and Budget Division, Ministry of Education, and other colleagues within the same unit for making excellent arrangements for the Review visit and providing excellent support to the team. The courtesy and hospitality extended to us throughout our stay in Chile made our task as a Review Team as pleasant and enjoyable as it was stimulating and challenging.

The Review Team is also grateful to colleagues at the OECD, especially to Thomas Radinger for preparing the statistical annex to this Country Review report (Annex D) and to Heike-Daniela Herzog for editorial support.

This report is organised in six chapters. Chapter 1 provides the national context, with information on the Chilean school system, main trends and concerns, and recent developments. Chapter 2 looks at the teaching profession and describes teacher evaluation in Chile. Then Chapters 3 to 6 present strengths, challenges and policy recommendations according to the main elements of the teacher evaluation framework: design and governance of teacher evaluation; teacher evaluation procedures; competencies for teacher evaluation; and use of teacher evaluation results.

The policy recommendations attempt to build on and strengthen reforms that are already underway in Chile, and the strong commitment to further improvement that was evident among those we met. The suggestions should take into account the difficulties that face any visiting group, no matter how well briefed, in grasping the complexity of Chile and fully understanding all the issues.

Of course, this report is the responsibility of the Review Team. While we benefited greatly from the Chilean CBR and other documents, as well as the many discussions with a wide range of Chilean personnel, any errors or misinterpretations in this report are our responsibility.

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ACM	Chilean Association of Municipalities
AEP	Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence
AVDI	Programme for the Variable Individual Performance Allowance
CBR	Country Background Report
CNED	National Education Council
CONACEP	Private Schools of Chile
CPEIP	Centre for Pedagogical Training, Experimentation and Research
CUT	Central Workers' Union
FNDR	National Fund for Regional Development
GTF	Good Teaching Framework
INICIA	Programme for the Promotion of Quality in Initial Teacher Education
JUNAEB	National Board of School Assistance and Scholarships
LGE	General Education Law
LOCE	Education Constitutional Organic Law
MBD	Good School Leadership Framework
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PADEM	Annual Development Plan of Municipal Education
PISA	OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment
PSP	Professional Development Plans
PSU	University Selection Test
RBMN	National Minimum Basic Salary
RPNP	National Public Training Registry
SEP	Preferential School Subsidy
SIMCE	System to Measure the Quality of Education
SNED	National System for Performance Evaluation

Executive summary

The market-oriented education reforms of the 1980s entailed the decentralisation of public school management responsibilities to municipalities and the introduction of a nationwide voucher programme. The latter has led a great number of private schools to enter the school system with a growing share of the student population (59.1% in 2011). Student learning outcomes in Chile are considerably below the OECD average. However, trend analyses of PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) results have shown some encouraging improvement in student learning outcomes. Research has also shown that student results differ considerably across the socio-economic background of students and the type of school attended. In this context, the government accords great importance to teacher policy and teacher evaluation within the general education improvement agenda. Chile has developed a national framework defining standards for the teaching profession, the Good Teaching Framework (GTF), as of 2003. It also established the teacher performance evaluation system (also referred to as *Docentemás*) within the municipal school sector in 2003. This system is complemented by a range of reward programmes which involve some type of evaluation: the Programme for the Variable Individual Performance Allowance (municipal sector only) (AVDI); the Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence Allowance (covering the entire subsidised school sector) (AEP); and the National System for Performance Evaluation (SNED), which provides group rewards for teaching bodies of given publicly subsidised schools. While Chile has made remarkable progress in implementing teacher evaluation and developing an evaluation culture among the teaching workforce, challenges remain in ensuring the coherence of the teacher evaluation framework, in adjusting instruments to better link them to the standards of practice and in strengthening improvement-oriented evaluation practices. The following priorities were identified for the development of teacher evaluation policies in Chile.

Placing greater emphasis on the developmental function of teacher evaluation with a larger role for local agents

While the intended original objective of *Docentemás* was to conceive teacher evaluation as a formative process, teacher evaluation, as implemented, is presently perceived mostly as an instrument to hold municipal teachers accountable. The feedback for improvement teachers receive from the *Docentemás* evaluation is limited, there is little professional dialogue around teaching practices that occurs as a result of teacher evaluation, teacher evaluation results are not systematically used to inform a professional development plan for all teachers and the concept of feedback is not yet fully ingrained among school agents. At the same time, formal teacher evaluation processes require little engagement from local agents. In particular, school leaders play a relatively small role in the evaluation process and seem to make little use of the results of *Docentemás* to coach their teachers and inform their school development plans. As a result, there needs to be a stronger emphasis on teacher evaluation for improvement purposes (i.e. developmental evaluation). Given that there are risks that the developmental function is hampered by high-stakes teacher evaluation (to take the form of a certification process as suggested below), it is proposed that a component predominantly dedicated to developmental

evaluation, fully internal to the school, be created. The main outcome would be feedback on teaching performance and the whole contribution of the teacher to school development which would lead to a plan for professional development. In order to guarantee the systematic and coherent application of developmental evaluation across Chilean schools, it would be important to undertake the external validation of the respective school processes for developmental teacher evaluation (a possible role for the Quality of Education Agency).

Fulfilling the accountability function of teacher evaluation through a system of teacher certification with a better integration of the private sector

Presently, in Chile, there are no career steps in teacher development (e.g. beginning; classroom teacher; experienced teacher), which would permit a better match between teacher competence and skills and the tasks to be performed at schools. This is likely to undermine the potentially powerful links between teacher evaluation, professional development and career development. A possible approach to fulfil the accountability function of teacher evaluation is to bring together the *Docentemás* system, the AVDI and the AEP into a single process of teacher evaluation for career progression through a certification process associated with a newly created teacher career structure (fitting 2012-13 governmental plans) – with progression within career paths and access to distinct career paths. This would formalise the principle of advancement on merit associated with career opportunities for effective teachers. The reward dimension would be captured through faster career advancement (leading to a higher salary). Each permanent teacher in the system would be required to periodically (say every four years) be the subject of a formal evaluation for certification (or re-certification). The purpose would be to certify teachers periodically as fit for the profession. Both the evaluations for certification (or career progression) and to access a new career path, which are more summative in nature, need to have a strong component external to the school and more formal processes. These processes could be governed by an accredited commission organised by the Quality of Education Agency. Also, a major gap in the teacher evaluation framework is that it is not publicly guaranteed that all teachers in the school system undergo a formal process of performance evaluation since teachers in the private school sector (over 50% of Chilean teachers) are not required to undergo a *Docentemás* evaluation and teacher evaluation procedures in private schools are not validated by public education authorities. Given that private subsidised schools receive public funds, there is a strong case for them to be integrated, to some degree, in the teacher evaluation framework.

Consolidating the Good Teaching Framework as the main pillar for teacher evaluation and adjusting the evaluation instruments

There is a clear definition in Chile of what constitutes good teaching, as described in the Good Teaching Framework (GTF). As implemented, however, the GTF could benefit from some adjustments. For instance, it displays poor alignment between some of the criteria and the descriptors intended to illustrate them. At the same time, the understanding of the GTF is not well disseminated throughout the system. Also, *Docentemás*, as designed, includes a rich combination of various sources of evidence of teaching practice as well as different evaluators. This adds to the validity of the system as a whole. However, the association between each of the standards and the instruments is not always clear. Moreover, self-evaluation is a poor instrument, there is room to

strengthen the peer interview, the third-party evaluation might not be effective and a number of adjustments can be made to the teacher performance portfolio. A priority should be to consolidate the Good Teaching Framework as the main pillar to guide teacher evaluation and development. Efforts should go into its further improvement through clear feedback mechanisms involving education practitioners. Teaching standards need to be continuously informed by research on teaching practice. Also, further work needs to be undertaken to ensure the Good Teaching Framework contains the relevant criteria and indicators and that these are adequately aligned with the evaluation instruments. Furthermore, it is fundamental to embed the teaching standards in teachers' everyday work in the classroom and to ensure they inform teacher preparation. Another priority should be for teacher evaluation to draw on instruments which capture more authentic teaching practices. In this way, portfolios could be designed to reflect what can be called a "natural harvest" of the teacher's work. Teacher evaluation should also be firmly rooted in classroom observation. In the peer interview, a better approach would be to give teachers access to the rubrics, and ask them to describe a specific instance in which they achieved the different elements. This approach would help teachers be more reflective, and would contribute to their professional development. Also, both the third-party reference report and the peer interview should involve a professional dialogue with the teacher. Finally, at this stage, it is premature to use student standardised assessment results as direct measures to evaluate the performance of individual teachers.

Strengthening competencies for teacher evaluation

At the central level, teacher evaluation relies on the competencies of several agencies that co-operate regularly so as to assure the quality of the process with, in general, stakeholder appreciation for the services provided. Additionally, the management of public schools by the municipalities offers the potential for closer monitoring of teacher evaluation practices with opportunities to recognise local realities and constraints. However, it appears that there are large variations in the extent to which municipalities have the capacity to fulfil their roles in teacher evaluation effectively. Also, a range of concerns remain about whether school leaders have the competencies necessary to lead the effective implementation of teacher evaluation at the school level, in spite of the recent policy focus on improving school leadership. Traditionally, in Chile, school leaders have played more of an administrative and managerial role than a pedagogical leadership role. A positive feature is the high involvement of practising teachers as markers of teacher portfolios and as peer evaluators. However, there are a number of areas where teachers lack evaluation competencies (e.g. capacity to undertake effective self-evaluation; limited understanding of the *Docentemás* system). Another concern is that there is little trust in the competencies of portfolio markers among evaluated teachers. A priority is therefore to ensure the high-quality preparation of portfolio markers, possibly through the establishment of a process to accredit them alongside the reinforcement of moderation processes where more than one marker agrees on a teacher's rating. Another priority is to strengthen the professional competencies of municipal education staff, through further training, strategic partnerships between municipalities and support from the central ministry. Similarly, policy attention should go into building pedagogical leadership capacity and giving school leaders a key role in teacher evaluation. Finally, ensuring that teachers are provided with support to understand the evaluation procedures and to benefit from evaluation results is also vitally important. Teachers can benefit from training modules that help them understand what is expected of them and how to make best use of the feedback provided.

Chapter 1

School education in Chile

The market-oriented education reforms of the 1980s entailed the decentralisation of public school management responsibilities to municipalities and the introduction of a nationwide voucher programme. The former involved the transfer of the administration and infrastructure of all the country's public primary and secondary schools to municipalities. The latter is characterised by a per student public subsidy for schools which are part of the voucher system (municipal and the majority of private schools) and parents' free choice of schools. The introduction of the voucher programme has led a great number of private schools to enter the school system with a growing share of the student population (59.1% in 2011, with 51.8% of students enrolled in private schools which are part of the voucher programme). Attendance of different school types greatly depends on family income levels. Students from the most disadvantaged families attend municipal schools in largest numbers even if from 1990 they have increasingly attended subsidised private schools. Student learning outcomes in Chile are considerably below the OECD average but there has been considerable progress in the last decade. In 2009, achievement levels of Chilean students in the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) were at the far end within the OECD area in the assessed areas of reading literacy, mathematics and science. However, Chile performed above any other Latin American country which took part in PISA (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay) in all assessed areas except mathematics (where its performance is similar to that of Mexico and Uruguay). Trend analyses of PISA results have also shown some encouraging improvement in student learning outcomes. In addition, research shows that student results differ considerably across the socio-economic background of students and the type of school attended.

Main features

Context

Chile, with about 17 million inhabitants, is a democratic republic made up of 15 regions (including the Metropolitan Region where the national capital Santiago is located), 51 provinces and 345 municipalities. The most populated regions in 2010 were the Metropolitan Region (estimated 6.88 million inhabitants), Biobío (2.04 million), Valparaíso (1.76 million), Maule (1.01 million), La Araucanía (0.97 million), O'Higgins (0.88 million) and Los Lagos (0.84 million) (INE, 2012). In 2010, about 87% of Chile's population lived in urban areas dominated by the agglomerations of Greater Santiago, Greater Concepción and Greater Valparaíso. About 22% of the population was in the 0-14 year-old age range in 2010 (INE, 2012).

The economy of Chile is classified as an upper-middle income economy by the World Bank and is among Latin America's fastest growing economies. During the past 15 years, the country recorded an average annual per capita growth of 4.1% and per capita income doubled in real terms during this period. In 2011, its nominal GDP per capita reached USD 14 394, the highest in Latin America (online data by the World Bank). The Global Competitiveness Report for 2009-2010 ranks Chile as the 30th most competitive country in the world and the first in Latin America (online data by the World Economic Forum). In 2010, Chile became the first South American country to join the OECD. However, Chile's economy is also characterised by high inequality. The Gini coefficient, a standard measure of income inequality that ranges from 0 (when everybody has identical incomes) to 1 (when all income goes to only one person), stood at 0.494 in the late 2000s, the highest among OECD countries (against an OECD average of 0.314). In the late 2000s, the average income of the richest 10% of the population was about 27 times that of the poorest 10%. Nonetheless, there has been an encouraging decrease of inequality between the mid-1990s and the late 2000s (by more than three percentage points in the Gini coefficient) (OECD, 2011a). In 2009, 11.5% of the Chilean population lived in poverty according to the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, a decrease from the 20% observed in 2000 (ECLAC, 2011).

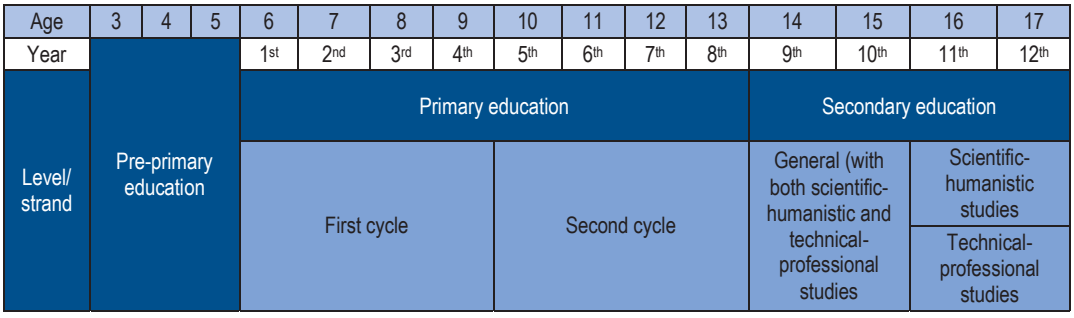
There is considerable cultural diversity in the country. According to the 2002 census, Indigenous people constituted approximately 4.6% of the population. Of these, about 87% belonged to the main ethnic group of the Mapuche (INE, 2003). The other ethnic groups in the country are Alacalufe, Atacameño, Aymara, Colla, Quechua, Rapa Nui and Yámana.

Structure of the school system

The school system in Chile is organised in three sequential levels: pre-primary education (*educación parvularia* or *preescolar*, children up to 5 years old), primary education (*educación básica*, divided in 8 years with typical ages 6 to 13) and secondary education (*educación media*, divided in 4 years with typical ages 14 to 17) (see Figure 1.1). Since 2003 both primary and secondary education are mandatory for children up to 18 years old (12 years of compulsory schooling). By contrast, pre-primary education is not mandatory even if it is free of charge. The proportion of children aged 3 and 4 enrolled in school was 59% in 2011 (against an OECD average of 74%). For the same year, such proportion reached 94% for children aged between 5 and 14 (against an OECD average of 99%) (OECD, 2013). As of 2017, the structure of the education system will be adjusted to provide for 6 years in each primary and secondary education.

Primary education is divided into two cycles: first cycle comprising Years 1 to 4 and the second cycle comprising Years 5 to 8. Schools may combine classes within the first cycle and they may also combine Years 5 and 6 (rural primary schools may combine Years 1 to 6). Secondary education (Years 9-12) is organised in two stages, the second of which offers two differentiated strands. The first stage (Years 9-10) offers general subjects but allows for a choice between scientific-humanistic studies and technical-professional studies. The second stage (for Years 11-12) involves the choice of one of these two strands: scientific-humanistic studies geared towards further study at higher education level and technical-professional studies with courses that are either mainly geared to working life or the continuation of technical studies at higher education level. In secondary education (Years 9-12), in 2011, students were distributed as follows: 63.9% in scientific-humanistic studies and 36.1% in technical-professional studies (see Table 1.1) (the respective proportions, when only Years 11-12 are considered, are 55.7% and 44.3%) (Ministry of Education, 2011). Technical-professional studies are offered in 46 specialisation options, grouped into 14 occupational areas. The majority of secondary technical-professional students come from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds – about two-thirds of them belong to the two lowest income quintiles (Kis and Field, 2009).

Figure 1.1 The Chilean school system



Students with special needs (with disabilities and gifted students) attend mainstream schools, or receive their education from special needs schools. Only those mainstream schools which have a School Integration Programme can receive students with special needs (*Programas de Integración Escolar*). Schools receive a "special education subsidy" for each enrolled student with special needs which is typically higher than the public subsidy associated to a student with no special needs.

The National Programme for Intercultural Bilingual Education was established in 1996 and provides for study programmes and didactic materials in Indigenous languages as a second language, and textbooks contextualised to Indigenous cultures for the first three years of primary education. The 2009 General Education Law established the gradual introduction of Indigenous languages as a regular educational offering.

There are four types of school providers:

- *Municipal schools*: public schools administered by the respective municipalities.
- *Private subsidised schools*: schools administered by private non-profit or for-profit organisations that receive a public subsidy per student of the same amount as municipal schools.
- *Private non-subsidised schools*: schools administered by private non-profit or for-profit organisations that do not receive public subsidies.

- *Schools with delegated administration*: schools owned by the Ministry of Education and mostly offering technical-professional education whose administration is delegated to public or private non-profit organisations (typically associated to the industry, commerce and construction industries).

In 2011, 12 063 schools were registered in Chile: 5 580 municipal schools (46.2%); 5 756 private subsidised schools (47.7%); 657 private non-subsidised schools (5.4%); and 70 schools with delegated administration (0.6%) (Ministry of Education, 2011). Table 1.1 displays student enrolment in 2011 by type of provider across education levels and strands of education. Enrolment in private subsidised schools is dominant at all levels (except for technical-professional studies in secondary education) even if a significant proportion of students attend municipal schools (around 40% in most school levels). As shown in Figure 1.2, a significant trend is that the attendance of municipal schools has steadily decreased in the last 20 years relative to that of private subsidised schools. While the proportion of students enrolled in municipal schools was 57.8% in 1990, it stood at 39.3% in 2011.

Table 1.1 Student enrolment by education level, strand and type of provider, 2011

Level/strand	Total enrolment	Proportion of enrolment (%)	Enrolment by type of provider (within level and strand of education) (%)			
			Municipal	Private subsidised	Private non-subsidised	Delegated administration
Total school system	3 456 945	100	39.3	51.8	7.3	1.5
Regular pre-primary education	346 167	10.0	35.8	53.5	10.7	0
Regular primary education	1 989 155	57.5	42.4	50.4	7.2	0.0
Special education (pre-primary and primary levels)	141 636	4.1	11.4	88.5	0.0	0
Total secondary education	979 987	28.3	38.4	48.6	7.5	5.4
Scientific-humanistic studies	625 890	18.1	34.8	51.9	11.8	1.5
Technical-professional studies	354 097	10.2	44.8	42.7	0.0	12.4

Source: Ministry of Education (2011), *Estadísticas de la Educación 2011*, Centro de Estudios MINEDUC, Santiago, http://centroestudios.mineduc.cl/index.php?t=96&i=2&cc=2036&tm=2, accessed 15 July 2013.

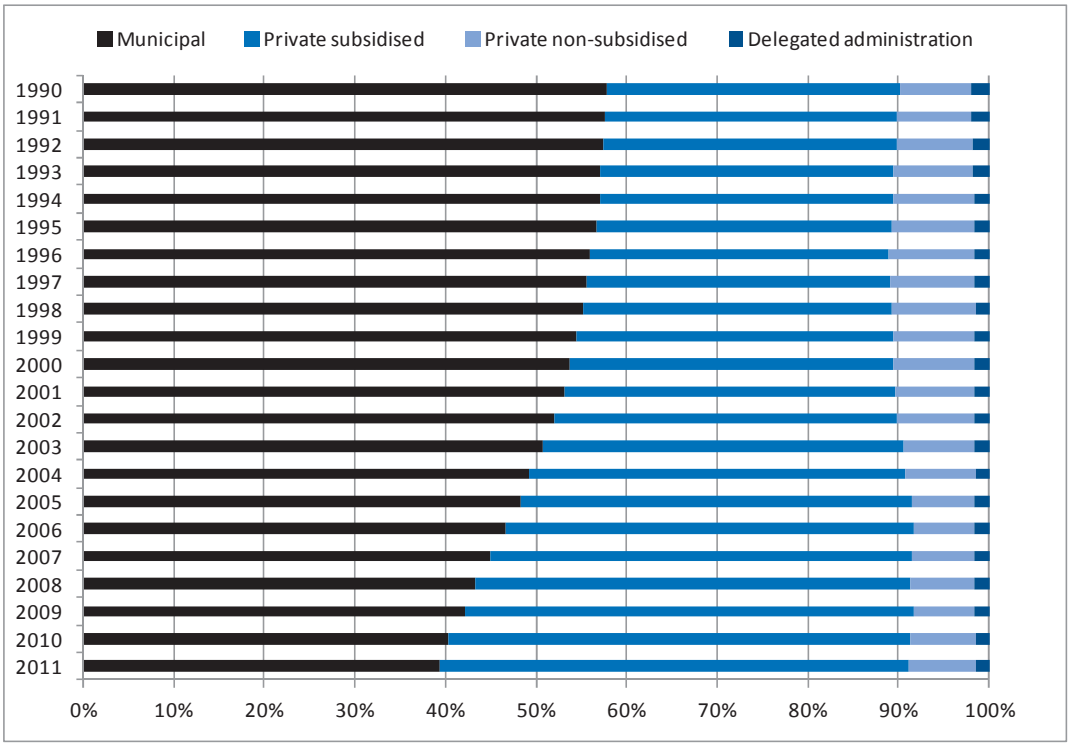
Governance of the education system

The decentralisation of provision and the voucher system

The market-oriented education reforms of the 1980s entailed the decentralisation of public school management responsibilities to municipalities and the introduction of a nationwide voucher programme (see, for example, Cox, 2005, for a detailed description). The former involved the transfer of the administration and infrastructure of all the country's public primary and secondary schools to municipalities, including the management of the respective teaching workforce. The latter is characterised by a flat per student public subsidy for schools which are part of the voucher system (municipal and

private schools) and parents' free choice of schools. The introduction of the voucher programme has led a great number of private schools to enter the school system with a growing share of the student population (as reflected in Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2 Distribution of enrolment across school provider types, 1990-2011



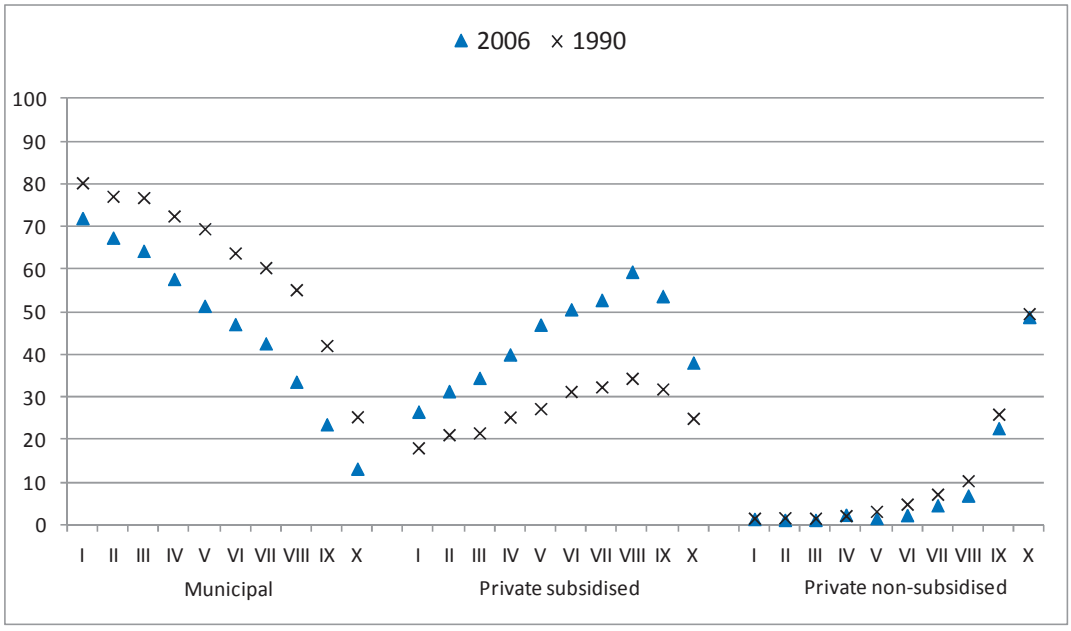
Source: Ministry of Education. Several editions of *Estadísticas de la Educación*, *http://centroestudios.mineduc.cl/index.php?t=96&i=2&cc=2036&tm=2*, accessed 15 July 2013.

Municipal and private schools operate under rather different conditions. While all private schools had the freedom to select their students until recently, undersubscribed municipal schools are required to admit all children. Chile has recently prohibited the selection of children on the basis of criteria such as academic ability, socio-economic background, ethnicity and religious affiliation up to Year 6 for all schools which are part of the voucher programme (OECD, 2010a). Since 1993 private subsidised schools have been allowed to charge tuition up to a ceiling while municipal schools are only allowed to do so at the secondary level. The subsidy is gradually withdrawn at increasing rates as school fees rise and once they go beyond a ceiling of roughly USD 125, students lose their entitlement to voucher subsidies (OECD, 2010a). However, schools that charge tuition fees and receive public subsidies must enrol a minimum of 15% of disadvantaged students to whom no tuition fees are charged. A number of private schools (private non-subsidised schools) opted against the voucher programme to be able to continue charging full fees.

Attendance of different school types greatly depends on family income levels. As shown in Figure 1.3, students from the most disadvantaged families attend municipal schools in largest numbers even if from 1990 to 2006 they have increasingly attended subsidised private schools. Private subsidised schools receive students from a wider range

of backgrounds. By contrast, private non-subsidised schools are mostly attended by students from high-income families.

Figure 1.3 Attendance of different primary and secondary school types by income decile (as a percentage of each income decile), 1990 and 2006



Source: Reproduced from OECD (2010a), based on data from the CASEN survey (national socio-economic characterisation survey) developed by the Ministry of Social Development, *http://observatorio.ministeriodesarrollosocial.gob.cl/casen_obj.php*, accessed 15 July 2013.

The legislative framework

The General Education Law (*Ley General de Educación*, LGE), established in 2009 (and amended in 2010), provides the framework for education governance in Chile. The LGE regulates the rights and duties of the members of the education community, establishes minimum requirements for completion of each of the education levels and institutes a process for the recognition of education providers. The LGE supersedes the Education Constitutional Organic Law (*Ley Orgánica Constitucional de Enseñanza*, LOCE), introducing significant changes such as: limiting schools' ability to select students on the basis of criteria such as academic ability, socio-economic background, ethnicity or religious affiliation; establishing the duration of primary and secondary education as six years each (from 2017 on), and strengthening the requirements for the official recognition of education providers.

The LGE together with the National System for Quality Assurance of Education Law, whose implementation is currently underway, defines the National System for Quality Assurance (*Sistema Nacional de Aseguramiento de la Calidad*, SNAC), formed by four institutions: the Ministry of Education, the National Education Council, the Quality of Education Agency and the Education Superintendence (see below). The Agency's functions include major areas such as school evaluation, external assessment of student learning and information to the general public about the quality of learning across the system and in individual schools (see below).

In addition, the Quality and Equality of Education Law (*Ley de Calidad y Equidad de la Educación*) approved in early 2011 introduces a range of reforms. It modifies the Teacher's Code; creates a new selection system for Head of the Municipal Education Administration Departments and school directors (see below); gives more discretion to primary and secondary education school directors (see below); increases the incentives for high performing teachers (increasing the Excellent Performance Allowance and linking it to the number of disadvantaged students taught by the concerned teacher); establishes an allowance for teachers who are about to retire and a bonus for those teachers who retired with a low pension.

The Ministry of Education

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the co-ordination and regulation of all aspects related with education. Additionally, the Ministry is responsible for designing policies, developing programmes and quality standards (including the curriculum), officially recognising education providers, and offering technical and pedagogical support to schools. Its defines its mission as follows: "To ensure an equitable and quality educational system leading to the comprehensive and permanent learning of people and to the country's development, through the design and implementation of policies, standards and regulations of the educational sector" (Ministry of Education, forthcoming).

The organisation of the Ministry includes the following units/divisions: Curriculum and Assessment (*Unidad de Curriculum y Evaluación*, UCE), General Education (*Educación General*), Subsidies (*Subvenciones*), Planning and Budget (*Planificación y Presupuesto*), General Administration (*Administración General*), Higher Education (*Educación Superior*) and the Centre for Pedagogical Training, Experimentation and Research (*Centro de Perfeccionamiento, Experimentación e Investigaciones Pedagógicas*, CPEIP). In particular, the CPEIP's work focuses on promoting the professional development of Chilean teachers and school leaders. It takes responsibility for the design and implementation of policies concerning the support for beginning teachers, continuous teacher training, and the evaluation of teachers (as elaborated later in the report). Two autonomous entities which collaborate closely with the Ministry of Education are: the National Board of School Assistance and Scholarships (*Junta Nacional de Auxilio Escolar y Becas*, JUNAEB); and the National Board of Pre-primary institutions (*Junta Nacional de Jardines Infantiles*, JUNJI).

The role of municipalities

The management of public schools is the responsibility of municipalities through Municipal Education Administration Departments (DAEM) (for about 80% of municipalities) or municipally controlled non-profit organisations/corporations. The DAEMs answer directly to the mayor and are subject to more rigid rules regarding personnel management than municipal organisations/corporations. Municipal education authorities take responsibility for the operation of public schools (including their financial management), administer their teaching workforce (including the appointment, dismissal and professional development of teachers) and manage the relations to the education community and the general public.

Each municipality prepares an Annual Development Plan of Municipal Education (*Plan Anual de Desarrollo Educativo Municipal*, PADEM), covering areas such as the objectives for education within the municipality, the demand and supply of education,

and teaching and non-teaching staff needs. The PADEM includes an action plan for the municipality and each of its schools together with the budget for its implementation.

Since 1993, municipalities are organised in a private non-profit corporation, the Chilean Association of Municipalities (*Asociación Chilena de Municipalidades*, ACM). The ACM is one of the most important social and political pressure groups in Chile and represents the municipalities in their negotiations with the Ministry of Education. Recurrent issues negotiated with the Ministry of Education concern the levels of public subsidies for municipal schools and teacher working conditions and salaries (with municipalities claiming a greater say in the definition of teacher working conditions and salaries as their employers).

A rather fundamental debate about removing the administration and management of public schools from municipalities is currently taking place in Chile. The Government sent bills to Parliament in 2008 and 2011 proposing alternatives to the local management of public schools, but with no results.

The educational role of regions and provinces

Regional and provincial education authorities function as supervision structures for the central Ministry of Education. The governance structure is centralised and vertical in nature. The Ministry of Education develops national education policies and organises their implementation in the country's regions through the Education Regional Secretariats (*Secretarías Regionales Ministeriales*, SEREMIs). SEREMIs plan and supervise educational processes in the respective jurisdiction and ensure their adequacy to specific regional needs. In turn, these bodies are also organised at the province level through Education Provincial Departments (*Departamentos Provinciales de Educación*, DEPROVs). DEPROVs act as representatives of the Ministry of Education in their liaison with municipal education authorities, schools and school providers in the concerned provinces. DEPROVs are mainly responsible for technical and pedagogical support for schools, inspect the administrative and financial situation of schools under their jurisdiction, and supervise the education activities of their municipalities (including the validation of PADEMs).

Private school providers

Another important group are the private school providers. These are private non-profit or for-profit organisations/corporations which might manage a single school or a group of schools. They employ their own teachers under labour legislation applicable to the private sector and are free to adopt the Teacher's Code (but some articles of the Code apply to private school providers). Most private school providers are part of associations which defend their interests. Two prominent such associations are the Federation of Institutions of Private Education (*Federación de Instituciones de Educación Particular*, FIDE) and Private Schools of Chile (*Colegios Particulares de Chile*, CONACEP). FIDE, created in 1948, represents about 800 private schools (both subsidised and non-subsidised), most of which are Catholic schools and non-profit school providers. CONACEP, created in 1977, represents about 800 private schools (both subsidised and non-subsidised) corresponding to about 25% of student enrolment in the private sector. Its membership contains a majority of for-profit school providers. Both associations defend the principles of freedom of education and autonomy for school governance.

Education agencies

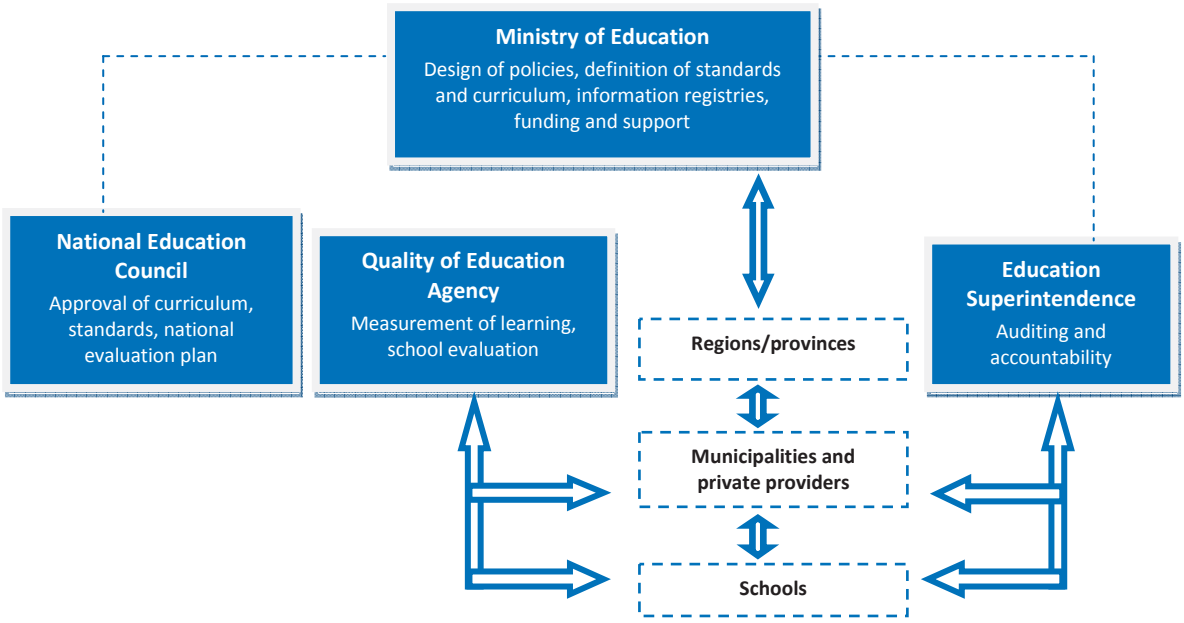
A significant player at the national level is the National Education Council (*Consejo Nacional de Educación*, CNED). It was created in 2009 by the General Education Law as an autonomous body to contribute to policy development in both school and tertiary education. In particular, within school education, the Council is responsible for: approving the curricula for pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary education; approving the relevant plans and programmes of study; approving the plan for evaluating learning objectives (national evaluation plan); and providing information about the qualification and promotion regulations and the quality standards. The CNED also provides advice to the Ministry of Education (on specific instances at the request of the Ministry) and promotes research in education. It exercises its functions in the context of the National System for Quality Assurance. The CNED has ten members: a prestigious academic appointed as President of the Council by the President of the Republic; two teachers or education professionals appointed as counsellors by the President; four academics or professionals proposed as counsellors by the President for confirmation by the Senate; and three university representatives (representing the Council of Rectors of Chilean universities, the accredited autonomous private universities, and the accredited professional institutes and technical training centres).

The 2009 LGE also created two new entities which complete the National System for Quality Assurance. The Quality of Education Agency (*Agencia de Calidad de la Educación*) takes responsibility for evaluating the quality of learning provided by Chilean schools, including the evaluation of teachers, school leaders and school providers, in view of improving the quality and equality of education. Its objectives include evaluating individual schools against learning standards it develops, making publicly available information about the performance of individual schools, and supervising and supporting schools with lower performance. Plans for its activities include the validation of teacher and school leader evaluation programmes in private subsidised and private non-subsidised schools; the development of indicators to assess individual schools (covering areas such as curricular management; learning processes; human resource management; and leadership and school climate); rating schools' performance in four categories; and the introduction of proportional evaluations (i.e. frequency of evaluation dependent on the result of the previous evaluation).

The Education Superintendence (*Superintendencia de Educación*) plays the complementary role of auditing the use of public resources by school providers. In addition, it supervises the compliance of school providers with the relevant laws, standards and regulations. It also takes responsibility for investigating any claims or complaints submitted against the schools and their owners and apply any pertinent penalties.

Figure 1.4 depicts the National System for Quality Assurance and the relationships between its entities.

Figure 1.4 The National System for Quality Assurance



Source: Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

Teacher representatives

The Teachers' Association (*Colegio de Profesores*) is a teacher union created in 1974 with about 72 000 members (around 40% of the teachers at the national level, most of whom work or are retired from municipal schools) and actively involved as teacher representatives in the development of policies concerning the teaching profession. It is affiliated with the Central Workers' Union (*Central Unitaria de Trabajadores*, CUT), the most important labour union in Chile. Since 1991, the Teachers' Association regularly negotiates teachers' salaries and working conditions with the government and the Ministry of Education, even if teachers' employers are the municipalities and the private school providers. Having a nationwide coverage, the Teachers' Association is organised in Councils at the municipal, provincial and regional levels which report to the National Board. There are also trade organisations representing teachers working in private schools at primary and secondary levels. These organisations are governed by the labour legislation applicable to the private sector. They have the right to collective bargaining and calling a strike.

Student participation

Student organised participation at the secondary level within schools occurs through Student Councils which are represented in School Councils (see below). At the national level, secondary students are also very active in expressing their views and conveying those formally to the Government. Since 2011, there have been massive student demonstrations at the national level led by secondary and tertiary education students in the country. Students' demands include a more equitable access to quality education; a reduction in the levels of debt students must incur to obtain a higher education degree; a more active role of the State in education; and revoking the authorisation for for-profit organisations to be education providers. These movements have led to the creation of

organisations at the national level which represent secondary students in the negotiations with the Government. These include the National Co-ordinator of Secondary Students (*Coordinadora Nacional de Estudiantes Secundarios*, CONES) and the Chilean Co-ordinating Assembly of Secondary Students (*Asamblea Coordinadora de Estudiantes Secundarios de Chile*, ACES).

Student learning objectives

In Chile, there is a single national curriculum defined by the Ministry of Education, which is binding for schools wishing to receive official recognition: the curricular framework (for primary and secondary education) and more detailed plans and programmes of study for each learning field and subject (defining contents and generic activities). The national curriculum sets out minimum requirements (Fundamental Objectives and Compulsory Minimum Contents, *Objetivos Fundamentales y Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios*, OF-CMO) to which individual schools can make additions thereby developing their own plans and programmes of study. The curricular framework distinguishes between two types of fundamental objectives (OFs): *(i)* vertical OFs associated with subject-related learning (for each Year level and as learning objectives at the end of secondary education); and *(ii)* transversal OFs, general and comprehensive objectives targeted at personal development and conduct (and embedded in all curricular areas). The CMOs make explicit the knowledge, abilities and attitudes implied by the OFs.

The curricular framework is the basic reference for establishing (UNESCO-IBE, 2010):

- *The plans of study*: define the schedule for each school level and year (curricular areas to be covered and associated weekly time).
- *The programmes of study*: define the didactical organisation for each school year (expected learning for each semester or unit); and provide both examples of learning activities and methodological orientations.
- *The progress maps*: describe student growth in fundamental competencies within each curricular area and are a reference to observe and assess learning. The maps describe seven growth levels in student learning in words and with examples of student work.
- *The textbooks*.

The 2009 General Education Law involves revisions to the curricular framework. As of late 2011, the Curricular Terms and Conditions from Year 1 to Year 6 in language, mathematics, sciences and English – were being reviewed by the National Education Council. Concurrently the Ministry of Education's Curriculum and Assessment Unit (*Unidad de Currículum y Evaluación*, UCE) was developing the terms and conditions for the remaining Years and subjects. Another significant initiative is the development of student learning standards. Learning standards aim to describe the core expected learning at key stages of the students' learning process, and can be used as the reference for the external monitoring of the education system.

In 1996, the Government decided to extend school hours, moving away from two shifts of six pedagogical periods to a full school day, consisting of eight 45-minute pedagogical periods. This change involved an increase in students' time available for curricular subjects, as well as extra-curricular activities, and the possibility of students and teachers taking advantage of facilities outside of regular classroom time. This change in the length of the school day required a considerable investment in school

infrastructure and more resources for hiring teachers and was undertaken through the full-day schools programme (*Jornada Escolar Completa*, JEC) (OECD, 2004). Bellei (2009) finds strong evidence that JEC had a positive effect on student achievement in both language and mathematics and that the impact was larger for rural students, students who attended public schools, and students situated in the upper part of the achievement distribution.

Governance of schools

In Chile, regulatory frameworks do not specify school leadership structures. These are defined by school providers and schools themselves based on the resources available. However, the Good School Leadership Framework (*Marco para la Buena Dirección*, MBD), in place since 2005 to provide reference standards for school leadership, suggests the existence of a leadership team within each school in addition to the figure of the school director. In Chilean schools, the school director is the person in charge of the functioning, organisation and management of the school. The functions and attributions of school directors are defined in the Teacher's Code. It states that "The main function of a school director is to direct and lead the institutional educational project". For municipal schools, it further indicates that "…the school director shall in addition manage the school administration and finances, and further fulfil all other functions, attributions and responsibilities awarded by law". The Teacher's Code defines the recruitment process for school directors in municipal schools. It stipulates the need for a public competition to access the post of school director and requires a minimum of five years of experience as a teacher in addition to teacher qualifications and some training in school administration/management.

The director is not necessarily the only person who is expected to undertake a leadership role. Other typical leadership roles in Chilean schools include Deputy Director, Head of Technical-Pedagogical Units (in charge of curricular activities), Inspector General (in charge of a range of organisational aspects such as student admission, staff and class management and school discipline), Educational Cycle Director and Head of Department. Some administrative functions in schools are also undertaken by teachers who do not, however, have formal responsibility for these functions (technical-pedagogical roles such as curriculum development). The Teacher's Code also specifies that each school should organise a Teachers' Council (*Consejo de Profesores*), constituted by school leaders, teachers and technical-pedagogical staff, to provide advice on pedagogical issues. The leadership team tends to be more elaborate as the size of the school grows (e.g. secondary schools).

There is no specific initial education to train school leaders or managers in Chile, nor does the specific career of school leader exist (as school leader roles are defined by the Teacher's Code). School leaders in Chile are mostly former teachers, with 98% of current leaders holding a degree in education. The legislation establishes that professionals from other fields may only apply for school director positions in exceptional cases. Most of those currently responsible for schools developed competencies on the job. Others have undertaken specialised training in school administration while on the post (postgraduate courses in higher education institutions or training accredited or provided by the CPEIP, including its Managerial Leadership Programme). For new school leader positions, the Teacher's Code states that the key requirement for applying to directorship is having completed additional studies related to administration, supervision, evaluation or vocational guidance. A 2010 survey indicates that a high percentage of directors have continued their education beyond the undergraduate level: 69.7% hold a graduate certificate, 44.2% hold a Master's degree and 4.4% hold a doctorate (Weinstein et al.,

2011). Weinstein et al. (2011) and Ministry of Education and University Alberto Hurtado (2008) provide a detailed account of current practices of school leaders in Chile.

The participation of parents and the school community in the activities of subsidised schools is undertaken through the School Council (*Consejo Escolar*). This council, comprised of the school director (President of the council), the school owner (or its representative), a teacher elected by the school's teaching body, the President of the parents' association, and the President of the Students' Council (in secondary education), has an advisory role. The council issues positions at the request of the school leadership and may be asked to take a decision at the discretion of the school owner. The council must be consulted at least about the following aspects: the definition of the Institutional Education Project; school targets and improvement projects proposed; the report about leadership management at the school; and development and modifications to the Internal Regulation. Also, the council is to be provided with information on student outcomes, the school budget and its implementation, and the recruitment of staff.

Reforms in school leadership

School leadership has been a policy priority in the last few years. In 2005, the Ministry of Education issued the Good School Leadership Framework (*Marco para la Buena Dirección*, MBD), which provides both a description of the skills and competencies needed for good school leadership in Chilean schools and a reference for the professional development of school leaders. The Good School Leadership Framework covers four areas: leadership; curricular management; management of the school environment and coexistence; and resource management. Each of these areas includes a set of criteria on which to focus professional development.

More recently, the Quality and Equality of Education Law of 2011, introduces significant changes into school leadership. First, it introduces a new selection process to recruit both the Head of the Municipal Education Administration Departments and school directors. The new process involves a competitive examination similar to that applicable to the High Public Service and an individual performance agreement specifying goals and objectives to be reviewed annually. Second, it gives school directors more discretionary power. The school director is able to select his or her own team (Deputy, Inspector General, Head of Technical-Pedagogical Units) and is able to establish school-based evaluation mechanisms as internal management tools, possibly involving rewards for individual teachers. Additionally, school directors are able to annually dismiss up to 5% of the school's staff among those teachers who were rated as "unsatisfactory" at their most recent external evaluation. Finally, the "Directors of Excellence" Plan, mainly aimed at contributing to the professional development of those holding or intending to hold the position of school director was launched in 2011 with the aim of promoting the development of management skills in the school system.

Funding of education

Chile devotes a good proportion of its resources to education. Public expenditure on pre-tertiary education as a proportion of total public expenditure reached 11.6% in 2011, the third highest such proportion in the OECD area (against a 2010 OECD average of 8.6%). Total expenditure on pre-tertiary educational institutions as a proportion of GDP was 3.4% in 2011, above the 3.2% of 1996, and below the 2010 OECD average of 3.9% (OECD, 2013). In 2011, annual expenditure per student by educational institutions to GDP per capita remained low by OECD standards: 19 in primary education (fourth

lowest figure in the OECD area, against a 2010 average of 23); and 18 in secondary education (third lowest figure in the OECD area, against a 2010 average of 26) (OECD, 2013). Expenditure per student in pre-tertiary education increased in real terms about 27% between 2006 and 2011 (above the average increase of 13% in the OECD area between 2005 and 2010) (OECD, 2013).

Characteristic features of general funding of schools in Chile, in international comparison, include the following: the compensation of educational staff absorbs a very high proportion of expenditure at pre-tertiary levels of education (87.4% in 2009), the fourth highest in the OECD area (against a 2008 OECD average of 79.0%) (see Annex D); the proportion of total current expenditure on pre-tertiary education allocated to capital expenditure at 2.2% in 2009 was low by OECD standards (second lowest figure, against a 2008 average of 7.9%) (OECD, 2011b); and the ratio of public expenditure per student in pre-tertiary education to public expenditure per student in tertiary education is among the highest in the OECD area (i.e. a greater proportion of public funds are allocated to pre-tertiary levels of education in comparison to other countries) (see Figure 4.7 in OECD, 2008).

Another major feature of school funding in Chile is the considerable share of private expenditure. In 2011, the proportion of public expenditure on educational institutions at the pre-tertiary level was 78.6%, the second lowest such proportion within the OECD area (against a 2010 OECD average of 91.5%). The 21.4% share of private expenditure was split as 19.1% of household expenditure (mostly going to school fees) and 2.4% of expenditure of other private entities (OECD, 2013).

There are two major sources of public funding for school education: *(i)* the central government through the Ministry of Education, the Regional Development National Fund (*Fondo Nacional de Desarrollo Regional*, FNDR) and the Social Fund; and *(ii)* the municipalities. The central government transfers to individual municipalities earmarked funding for the provision of educational services. In 2009, before transfers between levels of government, 97.6% of the public funding for school education came from the central government while the remaining 2.4% came from municipalities' own resources. Following transfers between levels of government, for the same year, 55.4% of the public funding came from the central government and 44.6% from municipalities (OECD, 2011b). The level of municipal funds devoted to education differs across municipalities: this means that municipal schools located in more advantaged municipalities might benefit from greater resources. The FNDR essentially funds projects to improve the infrastructure of municipal schools.

The Ministry of Education allocates funds for school services through a number of strands: *(i)* Subsidies: this includes subsidies to municipal and private subsidised schools under the voucher programme as well as allowance programmes for teachers (e.g. rewards for excellence, allowances for working in disadvantaged areas); *(ii)* Programmes and projects co-ordinated by the Ministry such as the Programme for the Extension of the School Day, the Fund to Support the Management of Municipal Schools, educational support for low performing students, standardised national assessments, school supervision and inspection services, and initiatives to improve educational quality and equity; and *(iii)* Student financial aid and assistance through the National Board of School Assistance and Scholarships (*Junta Nacional de Auxilio Escolar y Becas*, JUNAEB) (Marcel and Tokman, 2005). This results in a diverse range of funding channels to school providers.

There are a number of pre-requisites for schools to be part of the voucher programme. A requirement is the official recognition of the school which is defined in the 2009 LGE and

relates to the suitability of the school owner, the existence of an educational project, the adherence to the curricular framework defined by the Ministry of Education, the observance of national learning standards, the existence of an internal regulation to frame the relationships between the school and the actors within the school community, the suitability of the teaching and the non-teaching staff, and the appropriateness of the infrastructure. Other requirements include that: at least 15% of students come from a disadvantaged background; payments to school staff are up to date; no fees above a certain ceiling are charged; and the selection of children on the basis of criteria such as academic ability, socio-economic background, ethnicity and religious affiliation is not undertaken (for academic ability, only up to Year 6). The level of the subsidy per student provided to schools which are part of the voucher programme depends on the educational level, the socio-economic background of the student, and characteristics of the school such as whether it is part of the full-day schools programme (*Jornada Escolar Completa*, JEC), location of the school (degree of disadvantage, rural or urban), and the existence and level of tuition fees.

As of 1993, when the Shared Financing System (*Sistema de Financiamiento Compartido*) was introduced, subsidised schools (private schools and secondary municipal schools) are allowed to charge tuition fees (up to a ceiling) in complement of the public funds received. However, subsidised schools have their public subsidy reduced in proportion to the tuition fees they charge. In 2009, the proportion of students enrolled in subsidised schools which charged tuition fees was 6% in the municipal sector and 67% in the private sector (Ministry of Education, forthcoming).

A significant development in school financing was the introduction in 2008 of the Preferential School Subsidy (*Subvención Escolar Preferencial*, SEP) whereby a subsidised school receives a higher subsidy per each disadvantaged student (in relation to the family's income). The SEP is a voluntary programme for schools whose participation requires the school to develop specific school wide initiatives to promote student learning, an external evaluation of the school possibly leading to rewards or sanctions, and a degree of school autonomy which depends on the results of the external evaluation. The external evaluation is mostly based on school scores in standardised national assessments (*Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación*, SIMCE, see below), and results in a rating for the school ("autonomous", "emerging" or "recovering") that defines the level and form of the SEP subsidy. The participation in SEP involves signing an "Agreement on Equal Opportunities and Academic Excellence" which commits the school to develop an Educational Enhancement Plan as a collaborative effort within the school community. The funds of the SEP subsidy are intended to fund the implementation of such a plan. As of 2012, the programme covers students up to Year 8 but it will be extended to secondary education in 2014. The Preferential Subsidy is reduced for Years 7-8 compared to its level for Years 1-6 (to reflect greater returns to education for the early years of schooling). As a complement to the SEP (and conditional on participating in the SEP), schools also receive a Subsidy for the Concentration of Priority Students (*Subvención por concentración de alumnos prioritarios*) which depends on the proportion of disadvantaged students in the school. The SEP recognises that there is a higher cost for the school to educate a disadvantaged student while the Concentration Subsidy acknowledges the negative peer effects of a high concentration of disadvantaged students in a school.

The SEP and the Subsidy for the Concentration of Priority Students are efforts to reduce differences in expenditure per student across schools – as the Shared Financing System and municipalities' contributions led to a school level correlation between expenditure per student and families' ability to pay. Through these initiatives, the voucher system is now differentiated by the socio-economic background of students but, as indicated, this

involves the voluntary engagement of the subsidised schools (raising issues about differences in capacity across schools to get involved, e.g. rural schools facing more difficult circumstances to respond to the administrative requirements of the programme). It should be noted, however, that a range of programmes seeking to improve equity in education have been implemented since the 1990s such as the Rural Primary Education Programme, the P-900 Programme and the Montegrande Project, that provided special support to rural schools and schools with a high proportion of disadvantaged students.

Other public subsidies to schools include the Excellent Performance Subsidy (*Subvención por desempeños académicos*), rewarding schools for their good performance in SIMCE (see below and Chapter 2 concerning the National System for Performance Evaluation, SNED); the Subsidy for Educational Reinforcement (*Subvención por reforzamiento educativo*), benefitting those schools which implement initiatives to support students falling behind; and the Subsidy to Support School Maintenance (*Subvención anual de apoyo al mantenimiento*), provided to schools to maintain their infrastructure.

The evaluation and assessment framework

In addition to teacher evaluation, which will be analysed in-depth in the remaining chapters, the Chilean evaluation and assessment framework provides for a variety of arrangements for student assessment, school evaluation and system evaluation.

System evaluation

A particularly significant development in the area of educational evaluation has been the introduction in 1988 of the System to Measure the Quality of Education (*Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación*, SIMCE), a full-cohort national standardised assessment of student performance across the country. SIMCE measures achievement of fundamental curricular objectives and minimum compulsory contents. Since 2006, the test is applied in Years 4, 8 and 10 in language, mathematics and sciences (natural and social sciences). In 2010, a biennial test in English in Year 11 was added. As of 2012, tests also cover Year 2 (in reading) and Year 6 (writing as of 2012, and reading and mathematics as of 2013). Also, a sample-based test in physical education is organised every year since 2010. Students are rated in three performance levels: elementary, intermediate and advanced. SIMCE's results are public at the school level and have become an important tool to give feedback to students, parents, teachers, schools and education authorities. They are also used in collective incentive programmes such as the National System for Performance Evaluation (*Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de Desempeño*, SNED, see Chapter 2) and the Preferential School Subsidy (SEP). As a result, the impact of SIMCE is significant at several levels of the education system.

SIMCE's primary objectives are to: *(i)* monitor student performance at the system level, provide information to parents and the educational community at large, and guide policy development; *(ii)* provide feedback on the work of schools, school leaders and teachers; and *(iii)* promote the commitment and responsibility of schools, stakeholders and parents. SIMCE also collects information about teachers, students, parents and guardians through the use of questionnaires. This information is used to contextualise student results.

School evaluation

There is no well-established, systematic approach to school evaluation in Chile. School-level aggregated data, mostly SIMCE assessments, provide general information on student performance at the school level against national averages. However, no systematic external evaluation approach exists to evaluate school processes and support improvement plans. It is intended that the Quality of Education Agency will develop approaches for comprehensive school evaluation in the country.

The approach has thus far involved supervision and inspection on the part of the Ministry of Education. It essentially assesses compliance with the Law; reviews the use of subsidies; verifies the qualifications of teachers and the delivery of study programmes. Some programmes such as the Rural Primary Education Programme and the P-900 Programme (to support disadvantaged schools) have involved requirements for school self-evaluation. Also, in 2003, the Ministry of Education launched the System for Quality Assurance in School Management (*Sistema de Aseguramiento de la Calidad de la Gestión Escolar*, SACGE), a programme targeted at school improvement based on the voluntary participation of schools. The programme is based on school self-evaluation, the formulation of an improvement plan and public accountability to the school community and involves a visit by a panel of external experts to the school (involving Ministry of Education staff (at regional and provincial levels), municipal staff and professionals from other schools). By 2005, the programme had covered about 50% of municipal schools and 1% of subsidised private schools (Navarro, 2007).

Student assessment

Student performance in Chile is assessed by a wide range of instruments, ranging from national standardised assessments to continuous formative assessment in the classroom. Teachers take the main responsibility for student assessment. All students are assessed in an on-going manner throughout the school year in each curriculum area or subject. Marks used to report student achievement are on a scale of 1 to 7. Assessment criteria and methods are defined by each school. No externally based national final examinations exist at any level. However, in secondary education, schools are required to organise final examinations in language and mathematics in Years 9 to 11. As mentioned earlier, at the national level, there is also a full-cohort external assessment (SIMCE) which is used for diagnostic and improvement purposes but which has "high stakes" for schools. Year repetition is not possible in Years 1 and 2 (as long as the student attends at least 85% of classes). Schools define the processes for communicating student results to students and parents, including their periodicity. Intermediate student results are typically reported to parents in writing either each month, trimester or semester. End year results are provided to parents and students in a formal certificate of studies needed for enrolment at the next year level.

Policy consultation

The development of educational policies led by the Ministry of Education involves a range of consultations. These include the National Education Council (CNED), which approves the curricula, the national programmes of study and the national evaluation plan, and provides advice on a range of issues at the request of the Ministry. Other groups which are typically consulted include Parents' organisations, the Chilean Association of Municipalities, and teachers' professional organisations. In the last few years there has been greater emphasis on a more complex and interactive model of policy development in which several perspectives and views are taken into account (Martinic and Elacqua, 2010).

Main trends and concerns

Low starting point and significant quantitative growth

Chile's school system has experienced an impressive expansion. Enrolment rates in secondary education grew from 14.0% in 1960 to levels above 90% in the early 2000s (Marcel and Tokman, 2005). The proportion of the population that has attained at least upper secondary education grew from 56% for the generation aged 55-64 in 2011 to 88% for the generation aged 25-34 in the same year (OECD, 2013). Lower secondary education is now virtually universal and enrolment rates for 15-19 year-olds grew from 64% in 1995 to 76% in 2011 (still below the OECD average of 84%) (OECD, 2013). The coverage of pre-primary education is also increasing and reached a participation rate of 59% for children aged 3-4, below the OECD average of 74% (OECD, 2013).

Challenges with educational attainment remain

Despite the expansion of the education system, educational attainment remains a challenge. The proportion of the working-age population (25-64 year-olds) having attained at least upper secondary education in 2011 at 72% is below the OECD average of 75% (OECD, 2013). There is also a good share of students leaving the education system too early with low skills. Upper secondary graduation rates, at 83% in 2011, reached the OECD average level (OECD, 2013).

Student learning outcomes are below the OECD average but show considerable progress

Student learning outcomes in Chile are considerably below the OECD average but there has been considerable progress in the last decade. In 2009, achievement levels of Chilean students in the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) were at the bottom end within the OECD area in the assessed areas of reading literacy, mathematics and science (OECD, 2010b). However, Chile performed above any other Latin American country which took part in PISA (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay) in all assessed areas except mathematics (where its performance is similar to that of Mexico and Uruguay) (OECD, 2010b). Trend analyses of PISA results have also shown some encouraging improvement in student learning outcomes.

In PISA 2009, the main focus was on reading literacy. The performance of Chilean 15-year-olds in reading was considerably below the OECD average – within the OECD area, only Mexico scored significantly below Chile. Still there has been a significant improvement since the first PISA study in 2000 (conducted in 2001 in Chile) (OECD, 2010c) – Chile is the OECD country with the highest performance increase between 2000 and 2009. The mean score for Chilean students in 2001 was 410 points, compared to 449 for PISA 2009. In terms of the proficiency levels, at the lower end of the reading literacy proficiency scale, the proportion of students who failed to reach Level 2 declined significantly from 48.2% in PISA 2000 to 30.6% in PISA 2009. Chile raised the performance of their lowest-achieving students while maintaining the performance level among their highest-achieving students (the proportion of the latter increased from 0.5% to 1.3% in the same period) (OECD, 2010b). Valenzuela et al. (2010) attributed 70% of the increase in PISA results during 2000–06 to more resources at the individual and school level and 30% to better efficiency in resource use.

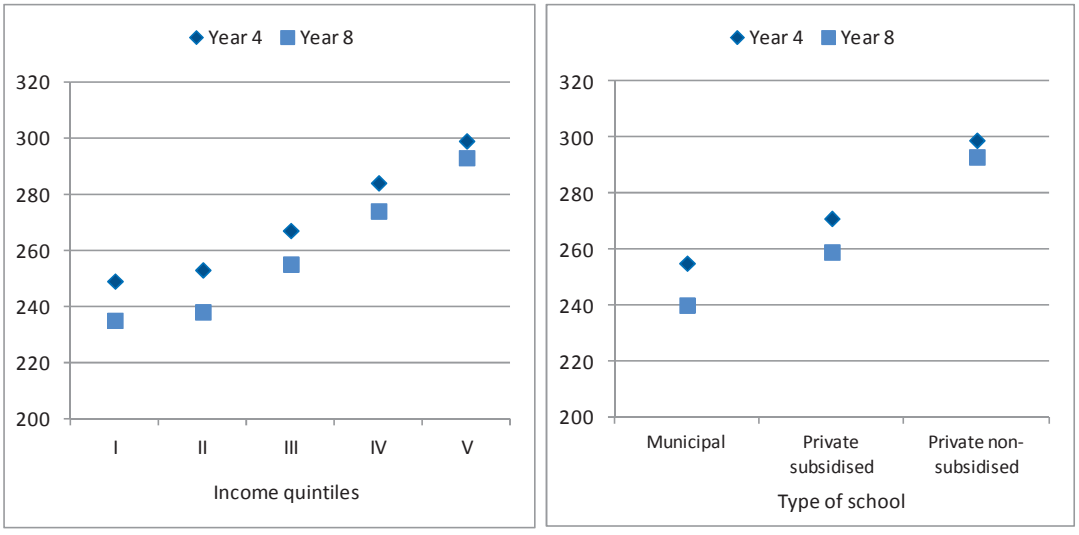
The variation in performance between high- and low-performing students in Chile was lower than the OECD average in reading in PISA 2009 and a statistically significant decrease was observed since 2000 (OECD, 2010c). Variations in student reading performance between schools are greater than within schools (OECD, 2010c). The between-school variation of reading performance in Chile remains higher than the OECD average, which seems to indicate that the specific school a student attends has considerable impact on how the student performs (OECD, 2010c). This also reflects some increase between 2000 and 2009, even if not statistically significant.

Regarding the PISA relationship between socio-economic background and performance (i.e. between the PISA index of economic, social and cultural status and the reading performance of 15-year-olds), the following indications emerge: *(i)* Chile is statistically significantly above the OECD average in terms of the percentage of variance in student performance explained by student socio-economic background (strength of the socio-economic gradient) – i.e. the impact of socio-economic background on learning outcomes is considerably above the OECD average (OECD, 2010d); and *(ii)* Chile is significantly below the OECD average in terms of the score point difference associated with one unit increase in the PISA index of economic, social and cultural status (slope of the socio-economic gradient) (OECD, 2010d) – and there was a statistically significant decrease between 2000 and 2009 in this indicator (OECD, 2010c). However, it should be borne in mind that in the case of Chile the observed relationship between socio-economic background and performance might be weakened as a result of the fact that some proportion of individuals have dropped out of school by the time they are 15 years of age.

There are strong social inequities in the school system

There is evidence that student results differ considerably across the socio-economic background of students and the type of school attended. Figure 1.5 shows such differences in average 2011 SIMCE results for Year 4 and Year 8.

Figure 1.5 Average student results in reading skills as measured by SIMCE (System to Measure the Quality of Education) 2011 across income quintiles and type of school attended, Year 4 and Year 8



Source: Ministry of Education (2012), *Síntesis de Resultados: SIMCE 2011*, Santiago, *http://www.agenciaeducacion.cl/wp-content/files_mf/folleto_sintesis_web_2012.pdf*, accessed 15 July 2013.

There is evidence that total expenditure per student varies across the type of school attended as well as the socio-economic background of the student. According to Marcel and Tokman (2005), in 2003, in aggregate terms, spending per student in private non-subsidised schools was 2.6 and 3.1 times greater than in private subsidised and municipal schools respectively. This resulted from the much greater private spending in private non-subsidised schools: 6.8 and 21.1 times greater than in private subsidised and municipal schools respectively. Per student public expenditure was greater in municipal schools in a ratio of 1.1 relative to private subsidised schools and in a ratio of 5.4 relative to private non-subsidised schools. Given that the voucher system is now differentiated by the socio-economic background of students (through the introduction of programmes such as the Preferential School Subsidy and the Subsidy for the Concentration of Priority Students), these differences are likely to have been reduced.

Gauri (1998) finds that school choice led to increased social and academic segregation. McEwan et al. (2008) find similar results but show that segregation did not occur across the board but only in areas large enough to sustain school competition. Elacqua (2012) finds that municipal schools are more likely to serve disadvantaged students than subsidised private schools and that disadvantaged students are more segregated among subsidised private schools than among public schools.

The market-oriented reforms have produced mixed results

The impact of the market-oriented education reforms of the 1980s has been extensively analysed within Chile and internationally. OECD (2010a) summarises the results of such analysis:

- Competitive pressures may not be strong enough to lead to the desired productivity-enhancing effect

  Rural schools do not feel the same competitive pressures as urban schools with a number of nearby competitors and the same may apply to municipal schools given that municipalities often do not rearrange their schools' budgets when their enrolment changes. In addition, there is evidence that the quality of parent's information about schools is not as good as desirable for competition to lead to higher productivity, and access to this information as well as incentives to use it vary by socio-economic background, raising equity issues. Moreover, some parents may be discouraged to apply to good schools because of their inability to pay top-up fees and because they are likely to be eliminated through the selection processes. There is also some evidence that available quality indicators are of dubious usefulness and that both parents and teachers have difficulties interpreting them.

- To some extent competition has led to sorting, reducing positive effects on productivity

  There is considerable evidence of sorting within the Chilean system: private schools selecting students on the basis of parents' interviews, entry tests and other tools that help to select students with characteristics that positively influence achievement, such as socio-economic background (before such practices were prohibited in 2009); private schools more extensively expelling students who repeat a year than municipal schools; and parents choosing schools attended by children with backgrounds similar to theirs, thus reinforcing the effects of selection.

- It is unclear whether competition had positive effects on the quality of education

  Some research has found that competition has a significantly positive effect on average test results while other research has found no such effect. Likewise, results on whether or not private schools perform better than public schools after accounting for differences in socio-economic background and – in some cases – selection bias, remain inconclusive.

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Chapter 2

The teaching profession and teacher evaluation

Teacher evaluation develops in a context of considerable national policy attention to improving teacher quality. This is reflected in significant initiatives in the following areas: attracting the best secondary education graduates to initial teacher education; improving the quality of initial teacher education; developing teaching and school leadership standards; creating a teacher career structure; and improving retention by rewarding quality teachers and school leaders. As a result, the government accords great importance to teacher evaluation within the general education improvement agenda. Chile has developed a national framework defining standards for the teaching profession, the Good Teaching Framework, as of 2003. It also established the teacher performance evaluation system (also referred to as Docentemás) within the municipal school sector in 2003 following a tripartite agreement between the Ministry of Education, the Chilean Association of Municipalities and the Teachers' Association (Colegio de Profesores). This system is complemented by a range of reward programmes which involve some type of evaluation: the Programme for the Variable Individual Performance Allowance (municipal sector only) (AVDI); the Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence Allowance (covering the entire subsidised school sector) (AEP); and the National System for Performance Evaluation (SNED), which provides group rewards for teaching bodies of given publicly subsidised schools. In addition to these formal programmes, private schools (both subsidised and non-subsidised) autonomously organise their own performance teacher evaluation systems and any school is free to organise extra internal systems of teacher evaluation.

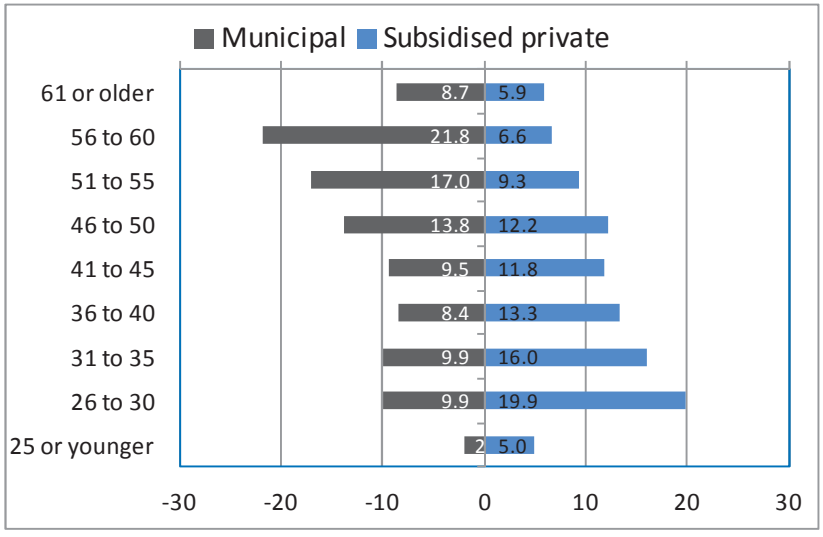
The teaching profession

Characteristics of the teaching workforce

In 2010, there were 186 475 teachers working in the Chilean school system, an increase of 13.6% relative to 2004. The distribution of teachers by type of school provider in 2010 was as follows: 43.5% in municipal schools, 45.5% in private subsidised schools and 10.9% in private non-subsidised schools (the equivalent shares in 2004 were 50.2%, 37.9% and 11.9% respectively). In 2010, the large majority of teachers (91%) worked in a single school but some teachers worked in two schools (8%) or three schools (1%). A longitudinal survey of teachers also suggests that in 2005 about 10% of teachers had an additional remunerated job outside of teaching (Bravo et al., 2006). In 2010, seven out of ten teachers were women. However, the proportion of women varied according to the duties at the school: 73%, 72%, 52% and 55% for classroom teachers, heads of technical-pedagogical units, senior management positions and school directors, respectively.

The age distribution of teachers varies considerably across school providers (see Figure 2.1), with the teaching workforce clearly older in the municipal sector. In 2010, the average age of teachers in the three main school sectors was 47.5 in municipal schools, 40.4 in the private subsidised schools and 42.2 in the private non-subsidised schools.

Figure 2.1 Age distribution of teachers, municipal and subsidised private schools, 2010



Source: Reproduced from Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

In 2010, around 85% of teachers were performing classroom teaching duties in schools with the remaining teachers performing a variety of duties as depicted in Table 2.1.

Student-teacher ratios are more favourable in the private sector. In 2010, taking into account the hours worked by teachers, student-teacher ratios were 22.1, 18.6, 14.4 and 21.7 in the municipal, private subsidised, private non-subsidised, and delegated administration sectors respectively. Interestingly, while in the municipal sector the student-teacher ratio increased from 16.8 in 2004, it decreased significantly in the private subsidised sector from 30.0 in the same year (Ministry of Education, forthcoming).

Table 2.1 Distribution of teachers according to their duties (%), 2010

Position	Municipal schools	Private subsidised schools	Private non-subsidised schools	Total
Classroom teacher	84.2	84.5	87.5	84.7
Technical-pedagogical duties	4.2	3.8	2.0	3.8
Senior management	3.8	4.1	3.8	3.9
Director	4.6	4.6	2.3	4.4
Another position in the school	2.8	2.9	4.4	3.0
Another position outside the school	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2

Source: Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

By 2005, according to a longitudinal survey of teachers, the large majority of teachers had a higher education degree as initial qualification or a degree in education from a "Normal" school (see Table 2.2) (Bravo et al., 2006). The latter is a teacher education institution mostly dedicated to training primary school teachers that ceased to exist in 1974.

Table 2.2 Distribution of teachers according to their initial qualification (%), 2005

Initial qualification	Municipal schools	Private subsidised schools	Private non-subsidised schools
Higher education degree in education	78	89	93
Higher education degree in other areas	2	4	2
Degree in education from a "Normal" school	18	6	4
No higher education degree	2	1	2

Source: Bravo et al. (2006), *Encuesta Longitudinal de Docentes 2005: Análisis y Principales Resultados*, Centro de Microdatos, Departamento de Economía, Universidad de Chile.

Teachers tend to come from households with a lower educational background than other professionals with higher education degrees. For example, in 2005, a longitudinal survey of teachers showed that 41% of teachers had fathers who had attained at most primary education, against an average of 31% for other professionals with higher education degrees (Bravo et al., 2006).

Initial teacher education and professional development

Initial teacher education is a requirement to enter the teaching profession and is provided in universities – which confer qualifications for all levels and areas of education – and professional institutes (*Institutos Profesionales*) – which qualify pre-primary and primary teachers. In 2010, in a total of 107 725 students in initial teacher education, 86% were attending universities while the remaining 14% were attending professional institutes. In most cases, entrance into a university requires a minimum score in the university selection test (*Prueba de Selección Universitaria*, PSU), a practice which is not common in professional institutes. Students of initial teacher education are typically not drawn from the top secondary graduates. Beyer et al. (2010) indicate that more than half of the student teachers are drawn from below the 50th percentile in terms of scores in the PSU. However, there is evidence that the average PSU scores of students entering initial teacher education have increased in recent years, possibly as a result of initiatives to improve the attractiveness of teaching (see below). According to a longitudinal survey of teachers, by 2005 about 68% of primary education teachers had chosen teacher education as their top choice for entry into higher education (the equivalent figure for secondary education was 63%) (Bravo et al., 2006). Initial teacher education programmes are

organised in the context of the pedagogical autonomy granted to higher education institutions. However, they are required to undergo accreditation in the context of quality assurance processes in higher education. These processes are, nonetheless, just starting as only 17% of the programmes had been accredited by 2010 (the study area with the lowest proportion of programmes accredited).

In the municipal sector, there is no compulsory probation period associated with an induction programme for beginning teachers even if it might be in place at the initiative of some municipalities. Similarly, such processes might exist in the private sector at the discretion of school owners.

Teachers in Chile have access to a variety of professional development activities with more traditional forms, such as courses, subject specialisations and seminars coexisting with other forms that are provided in schools or municipalities, such as municipal workshops and internship projects as well as postgraduate studies provided in institutions of higher education. The CPEIP co-ordinates the supply of professional development in the country, defines priority areas, and supplies key offerings. It also accredits professional development courses for teachers, which are then listed in the National Public Training Registry (*Registro Público Nacional de Perfeccionamiento*, RPNP). The RPNP functions as a large database with information on accredited offerings. A variety of providers exists, including: universities, professional institutes, academic centres, labour associations, education consulting companies, CPEIP and municipal training centres. In 2010, there were 1 112 courses registered in the RPNP, with the following distribution of suppliers: 42 by CPEIP, 912 by autonomous higher education institutions and 158 by institutions accredited by CPEIP. Municipal teachers benefit from a training allowance for attending courses in this Registry, which requires approval by the municipal educational authority. Participation in such activities typically occurs outside of term time.

A significant initiative in relation to professional development was the creation in 2002 of the "Maestros" Teacher Network. The principle is to benefit from the expertise and experience of teachers who received the accreditation of pedagogical excellence (AEP, see below). In order to be members of the "Maestros" Teacher Network, AEP teachers need to go through a selection process which requires giving evidence, through the submission of a portfolio, that they have the skills to work well with their peers. The Network members design projects aimed at working with other teachers outside school hours. In recent years, a focus of the work has been the development of mentoring programmes for beginning teachers.

Employment status, career structure and remuneration

Teachers in Chile have salaried employee status both in the municipal and private school sectors. Municipalities and private school owners are the employers of teachers in their respective sectors. Most teachers have permanent employment contracts. In 2005, according to a survey of teachers, 86% and 11% had an indefinite contract and a fixed-term contract, respectively (Bravo et al., 2006).

Conditions of service in the municipal sector are set out in the Teacher's Code and other general national labour regulations. The Teacher's Code regulates the requirements, duties and rights of teaching professionals working in the municipal sector, including their career structure. For example, it stipulates that teachers should work a maximum of 44 hours a week and that 25% of the hours stipulated in the work contract should be devoted to non-classroom activities. Within this framework, municipalities and school directors

define the specific service conditions at the school. Private school owners have more flexibility in defining teachers' conditions of service, observing the general Labour Code.

At present, in municipal schools, teaching is organised with a unique career stage with a single salary scale. There are no promotion opportunities within teaching. Roles involving promotion are limited to head of technical-pedagogical units, senior management posts and school director. Private schools have full discretion in organising their teachers' career structures.

Teachers' salaries in the municipal sector consist of a basic component (the National Minimum Basic Salary – *Remuneración Mínima Básica Nacional*, RBMN) and a set of salary allowances. The RBMN is higher for secondary teachers. The RBMN is indexed to the salary in the public service. In the subsidised private sector, employers also need to guarantee the RBMN for teachers but can establish higher pay levels at their discretion. In the non-subsidised private sector, salary levels are fully at the discretion of employers provided they comply with the Labour Code. All teachers in the country are covered by the national pension scheme. Men and women can retire at the age of 65 and 60 respectively.

Teachers benefit from a large set of salary allowances, as listed in Table 2.3. Some of these cover teachers in the municipal sector only (as noted in the table). The table also shows the relative weight of each specific allowance for the "average" teacher in a municipal school in 2010 (with the RBMN forming 40.2% of the average overall salary).

Table 2.3 Salary allowances for teachers

Allowance	Description	Weight in overall salary (%)	Schools covered
Experience allowance	Corresponds to salary increment every two years to a maximum of 15 two-year periods. Rewards length of service.	26.8	Municipal
Training allowance	This allowance, which can reach 40% of the RBMN, is provided to teachers who undertake professional development activities registered in the RPNP.	5.0	Municipal
Difficult conditions of work allowance	This allowance, which can reach 30% of the RBMN, is given to teachers in isolated, rural, culturally-diverse and disadvantaged schools.	2.5	Municipal and private subsidised
Responsibility allowance	Given to teachers who serve in senior management and technical-pedagogical positions.	1.6	Municipal
Performance of Excellence allowance (SNED)	Collective reward for teachers in schools demonstrating high performance in SIMCE.	6.8	Municipal and private subsidised
Variable Individual Performance allowance (AVDI)	Individual reward to teachers with high performance in the teacher performance evaluation system and who succeed in the voluntary AVDI test (see below).	0.1	Municipal
Accreditation of pedagogical excellence allowance (AEP)	Individual reward to teachers who succeed in their voluntary accreditation of pedagogical excellence (see below).	0.1	Municipal and private subsidised
Special allowance for working in rural areas	Given to teachers working in rural areas.	0.2	Municipal and private subsidised
Special Professional Reward allowance	Special allowance awarded in the context of school- or municipality-level initiatives to reward the merit of teachers.	not available	Municipal
Collective performance allowance	Allowance given to teachers in senior management or technical-pedagogical positions whose school's performance agreement's objectives were reached.	0.0	Municipal
Professional acknowledgment allowance	Allowance to reward the qualifications of teachers, with amounts increasing as the level of the degree increases.	3.9	Municipal and private subsidised
Professional Improvement Unit	Bonus for teachers who work over 30 hours discontinued in December 2010 (and replaced by the professional acknowledgment allowance)	0.5	Municipal and private subsidised
Supplement to the Professional Development Unit	Bonus given to teachers who entered the school system before 30 October 1993.	0.7	Municipal
Zone supplement	Allowance given to teachers who work in localities where subsidies for education were increased as a result of the characteristics of those localities.	5.2	Municipal
Supplementary salary	Supplementary amount to guarantee teachers receive a minimum salary.	1.6	Municipal and private subsidised
Proportional allowance	Bonus given to some teachers in relation to the supplementary salary.	3.6	Municipal and private subsidised
Pension fund bonus	Bonus for pension fund.	1.0	Municipal and private subsidised

Source: Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

There are indications that salaries of teachers are low when compared to salaries of other professionals. According to statistics from *Futuro Laboral*, five years after graduation, a teaching career is the worst paid among professional careers, particularly for pre-primary and primary teaching (Meller and Brunner, 2010). Average per capita household income of teachers in Chile, in 2005, was still 40% lower than that of professionals with a tertiary degree (Bravo et al., 2006).

Recruitment of teachers

The prerequisites for entering the teaching profession detailed in the Law are: (1) having teacher education qualifications from an institution recognised by the State, being qualified in vocational subjects by an accredited institution, or having an equivalent degree from a foreign institution; (2) not having a criminal record; (3) being in good state of health for teaching; (4) qualifying for the exercise of public duties; and (5) having complied with the military recruitment and deployment Law. Currently, in order to work as a teacher, there is no need to take a qualifying examination following graduation from an initial teacher education programme.

In the municipal school sector, the recruitment of teachers is organised by municipal education authorities. Open public recruitment processes are organised at least once a year with vacancies published in a national circulation newspaper. A commission formed by the Head of the municipal Education Administration Department or the municipally controlled non-profit corporation which runs education within the municipality, the director of the school associated with the job vacancy and a selected teacher reviews applications. Applicants are rated according to professional performance, seniority and training taken and are ranked in a list. The municipality's Mayor then appoints the teacher ranked at the top of the list. In the private school sector, schools have discretion in organising their recruitment processes.

Teaching standards

Chile has developed a national framework defining standards for the teaching profession, the Good Teaching Framework (GTF) (*Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*), as of 2003. The GTF provides a clear and concise statement or profile of what teachers are expected to know and be able to do. The GTF specifies the following:

- domains
- criteria within domains
- descriptors for each criterion
- performance levels for descriptors.

Table 2.4 provides the list of domains and criteria of the Good Teaching Framework as well as one example per domain of criterion descriptors.

Table 2.4 Domains and criteria of the Good Teaching Framework

Domains	Criteria (the teacher should be prepared to:)	Examples of descriptors
A – Preparation for teaching	A1. Master the subjects taught and the national curricular framework. A2. Know the characteristics, knowledge and experiences of his/her students. A3. Master the didactics of the subjects or disciplines taught by him/her. A4. Organise the objectives and contents consistently with the curricular framework and the characteristics of particular students. A5. Use assessment strategies that are consistent with the learning objectives, the subject taught, and the national curricular framework, and allow all students to show what they have learnt.	**Descriptors for criterion A.1**. The teacher: – knows and understands the core principles and concepts involved in the subject(s) or discipline(s) taught by him/her. – knows the different perspectives and new developments in the subject(s) or discipline(s) taught by him/her. – understands the relationships between the contents taught by him/her and the contents taught in other subject(s) or discipline(s). – knows the relationships between the contents of the sub-sector taught by him/her and the reality. – masters the principles of the curricular framework and the focus of the sub-sector taught by him/her.
B – Creation of an environment favouring the learning process	B1. Create an environment dominated by values such as acceptance, equality, trust, solidarity and respect. B2. Show high expectations about the learning possibilities and development of all of his/her students. B3. Create and keep consistent regulations about classroom coexistence. B4. Create an organised working atmosphere and make available the spaces and resources required by the learning process.	**Descriptors for criterion B.4**. The teacher: – uses different strategies to keep and maintain an organised working environment. – structures the spaces in a flexible way and consistently with the learning activities. – uses the resources in line with the learning activities and makes them available to students on a timely way.
C – Teaching that allows the learning process of all students	C1. Communicate the learning objectives in a clear and accurate way. C2. Design challenging and consistent teaching strategies that are relevant for the students. C3. Treat the classroom contents with the right conceptual focus and using terms that students are able to understand. C4. Optimise the time available for teaching. C5. Promote the development of thought. C6. Evaluate and monitor the process of understanding and the appropriation of contents by the students.	**Descriptors for criterion C.6**. The teacher: – uses the relevant strategies to evaluate the achievement of the learning objectives defined for a class. – uses feedback strategies allowing the students to become aware of their learning achievements. – reformulates and adapts the teaching activities in connection with the evidences gathered from the students' learning experiences.
D – Professional responsibilities	D1. Reflect systematically about his/her teaching skills. D2. Build a professional and team relationship with his/her peers. D3. Take up responsibilities regarding student counselling. D4. Promote respect and carry out co-operation actions with his/her students' parents and guardians. D5. Manage updated information relevant to the teaching profession, the educational system and the current policies.	**Descriptors for criterion D.1**. The teacher: – evaluates the degree of learning expected from the students. – analyses critically his/her teaching practices and is prepared to reformulate them based on the students' learning results. – identifies his/her own learning needs and is willing to meet them.

Source: Ministry of Education (2008), *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* (Good Teaching Framework), CPEIP, Santiago, *www.docentemas.cl/docs/MBE2008.pdf*, accessed 15 July 2013.

The GTF provides the foundation for each of the criteria and an explanation of each of the descriptors. The rubrics used to construct performance levels by descriptor include:

- the understanding by the teacher of the objectives underlying each descriptor, i.e. their meaning and foundations
- his/her competence when such descriptor is put into practice

- the impact of the descriptors on the students' learning process, as well as the contribution and significance of teacher performance both within and outside the school
- the commitment by the students and the school community in the application of the descriptor.

Table 2.5 presents the example of the four performance levels related with the descriptor A.1.1 (rubrics) ("The teacher knows and understands the core principles and concepts involved in the subject(s) or discipline(s) taught by him/her"):

Table 2.5 Example of levels of performance for descriptor A.1.1 of the Good Teaching Framework

Outstanding	The teacher shows a wide knowledge of the contents taught by him/her and establishes connections between such contents and the different aspects of his/her subject or discipline and reality, showing a permanent updating of such knowledge.
Competent	The teacher shows a strong knowledge of the contents taught by him/her and establishes connections between such contents and the different aspects of his/her subject by relating them with reality.
Basic	The teacher shows a basic knowledge of the contents taught by him/her, but is unable to establish connections with other aspects of his/her subject, or relate them with reality.
Unsatisfactory	The teacher makes mistakes regarding the contents of the subject taught by him/her, and/or is unable to be aware of the mistakes made by the students.

Source: Ministry of Education (2008), *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* (Good Teaching Framework), CPEIP, Santiago, *www.docentemas.cl/docs/MBE2008.pdf*, accessed 15 July 2013.

The Good Teaching Framework is a derivative of an important movement internationally, most particularly in the United States but not restricted to that country. In the United States, it was inspired originally by the efforts of several states (for example, Georgia and Florida in the 1980s), and then followed by a national effort orchestrated by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), one of the organisations in the United States prominent in the design of systems to license beginning teachers. ETS has for many decades offered a series of assessments to individual states to use in their licensing procedures; these were updated in the early 1990's under the general name of "The Praxis Series" comprised of Praxis I (to determine a teaching candidate's grasp of the basic skills of literacy and numeracy), Praxis II (administered at the conclusion of a teaching candidate's period of formal education, to ascertain a future teacher's understanding of the content he or she will teach and knowledge of the appropriate pedagogical techniques), and Praxis III (designed to answer the question, in the teacher's first year of teaching, whether in addition to knowing, for example science, the beginning teacher can actually *teach* science.) The Praxis III criteria, originally intended for first year teachers, became the foundation of the Good Teaching Framework in Chile.[1]

Teacher evaluation

Overview

Formal teacher evaluation in Chile comprises a range of programmes. Comprehensive mandatory teacher evaluation is organised through the teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*), covering the municipal school sector only. This system is complemented by a range of reward programmes which involve some type of evaluation: the Programme for the Variable Individual Performance Allowance (municipal sector only) (AVDI); the Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence

Allowance (covering the entire subsidised school sector) (AEP); and the National System for Performance Evaluation (SNED), which provides group rewards for teaching bodies of given publicly subsidised schools. These programmes are described in detail below.

In addition to the formal programmes outlined above, private schools (both subsidised and non-subsidised) autonomously organise their own performance teacher evaluation systems and any school is free to organise extra internal systems of teacher evaluation. The latter tend to be informal processes of feedback for improvement but can also be part of internal management tools established by the school director in the context of the 2011 Quality and Equality Education Law.

Teacher performance evaluation system

The teacher performance evaluation system (also referred to as *Docentemás*) was established in 2003 following a tripartite agreement between the Ministry of Education, the Chilean Association of Municipalities (*Asociación Chilena de Municipalidades*, ACM) and the Teachers' Association (*Colegio de Profesores*) and consists of a formal system of external teacher evaluation in the municipal school sector (see Avalos and Assael, 2006, for an account of its implementation).

Objectives, organisation and main features

The teacher performance evaluation system is aimed at improving teachers' practice and promoting their continuing professional development in view of improving student learning. It covers all classroom teachers in municipal schools (as well as those in schools with delegated administration) who have at least one year of professional practice. Teachers are assessed every four years, unless their previous evaluation identified poor performance (in which case, they are evaluated more often, see below). The evaluation refers to performance in the specific year in which the evaluation occurs. Teachers who are less than three years from reaching retirement age are exempted from the performance evaluation system.

The Centre for Pedagogical Training, Experimentation and Research (CPEIP), within the Ministry of Education, co-ordinates the whole teacher performance evaluation system including the definition of objectives, validation of instruments, and the dissemination of results. Current regulations require that CPEIP receives independent technical advice provided by higher education institutions with proven expertise in the area of teacher education and teacher evaluation. Since the inception of the teacher performance evaluation system, the required technical advice has been provided by the *Docentemás* team of the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile*. Under the supervision of the CPEIP, the *Docentemás* team operates the teacher performance evaluation system through the following processes: *(i)* preparation of assessment instruments and guidelines for marking; *(ii)* logistical tasks such as the distribution, printing and processing of materials; *(iii)* marking of the portfolio, one of the instruments used (undertaken at assessment centres in selected universities in the country); *(iv)* development and maintenance of information systems (e.g. dedicated software recording all teacher-level data), training programmes, websites, and call centres; and *(v)* production of reports with results from teacher evaluations. In addition, the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile* maintains a permanent research agenda to assess the validity of the teacher performance evaluation system. The focus of the studies undertaken has been on the validity of the ratings and the validity of individual instruments, particularly the portfolio (Manzi et al., 2011).

In addition, a Technical Advisory Commission has been set up, consisting of three members of the most representative teacher union (*Colegio de Profesores*), three members of higher education institutions appointed by CPEIP and three members appointed by the Chilean Association of Municipalities. Figure 2.5 below provides an overview of the organisational structure for the teacher performance evaluation system.

Instruments and reference standards

The following instruments and information sources are used in assessing the performance of a teacher: *(i)* Self-evaluation; *(ii)* Peer evaluator interview; *(iii)* Third-party reference report; and *(iv)* Teacher performance portfolio. Each of the instruments is described below. In addition to the instruments, the teacher also fills out a questionnaire providing background information (e.g. education, professional experience, working conditions, the context for teaching) and requesting the teacher's views of the teacher evaluation process. Teachers are evaluated against reference standards established by the Good Teaching Framework (*Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*).

Self-evaluation

The self-evaluation consists of a structured questionnaire organised according to the four domains of the Good Teaching Framework (GTF). Its objective is to generate teachers' reflection of their own practice and encourage teachers to review the GTF. The self-evaluation proposes 12 areas (3 areas per GTF domain), each related to a specific criterion in the GTF, on which the teacher rates his or her performance in four possible levels: Unsatisfactory, Basic, Competent, Outstanding. There are no open-ended questions. Teachers also have the possibility of adding information about the context for their teaching. Teachers are given guidelines with a protocol to rate themselves. An example is can be found in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 Example of descriptor, indicators and levels of performance used in self-evaluation

<table>
<tr><td>STEP 1
Read carefully the GTF descriptor</td><td>Descriptor:
A.2.3 The teacher knows the strengths and weaknesses of his/her students regarding the contents taught by him/her.</td></tr>
<tr><td>STEP 2
Read each indicator and think whether it is an integral part of your regular teaching practices</td><td>Indicator:
Think about the degree in which each one of the following indicators is part of your regular teaching practices.
I plan my classes and take into account the learning contents that I know will present a problem for my students.
I design my classes by taking into account the contents that my students know from their own home or community experiences.
I implement actions to identify and overcome my students' weaknesses.
I implement actions to identify and promote my students' talents.</td></tr>
<tr><td>STEP 3
In order to define the level of performance assigned:

See how many indicators are an integral part of your regular teaching practices.</td><td>EXAMPLE:
<table><tr><th>Outstanding</th><th></th><th>Competent</th><th></th><th>Basic</th><th></th><th>Unsatisfactory</th><th></th></tr><tr><td>I fulfil the four indicators</td><td>○</td><td>I fulfil three of the four indicators</td><td>●</td><td>I fulfil two of the four indicators</td><td>○</td><td>I fulfil one of the four indicators</td><td>○</td></tr></table></td></tr>
</table>

Peer evaluator interview

A peer evaluator, a classroom teacher at the same education level and within the same area of teaching[2] previously trained and accredited by the CPEIP, interviews the teacher using a structured and pre-established standardised set of questions for about an hour. The questions cover domains and criteria in the GTF. The peer evaluator and the evaluated teacher are provided with guidelines describing the steps to be followed in the interview. This instrument has three sections: data on both the teacher and the peer evaluator, six questions, and contextual considerations. The peer evaluator rates each of the teacher's answers into one of four performance levels using a scorecard which is then entered into the *Docentemás* dedicated software and conveyed to the co-ordinator of the Municipal Evaluation Commission (see below). The information is used to provide feedback to teachers in writing through the individual report teachers receive subsequently to completing the whole evaluation process. There is no dialogue between the peer evaluator and the teacher. The peer evaluator formulates the questions and waits until the teacher indicates he or she is finished answering.

In the 2011 teacher evaluation process, the six questions were the following:

1. Part of our pedagogical duties relate with monitoring the student's work. What benefits does it have to monitor the students' work during the class?
2. In the classroom there are students that outstand in the class because of their learning results. What strategies do you use to promote the learning process of these students?
3. Think about the occasions you have asked your students to evaluate their own performance. What benefits does it have to propose to our students that they do a self-evaluation?
4. We use a number of teaching strategies in the classroom. What advantages does it have for the students to work with different teaching strategies?
5. It is important to identify our strengths and weaknesses in order to improve our teaching work. What information do you use to evaluate your teaching practices?
6. In our pedagogical work we encounter students that find it hard to participate in class. In these situations, what do you do to promote their participation?

Peer evaluators are provided with rubrics for rating the teacher in four performance levels (Unsatisfactory, Basic, Competent, Outstanding) alongside examples of possible answers. For example, the rubric elements for the first question above can be found in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 Example of question, rubric elements and performance levels for the peer evaluator interview

Question	
1	Part of our pedagogical duties relate with monitoring the student's work. What benefits does it have to monitor the students' work during the class?

Rubric elements	
Element 1	It allows keeping the students focused on the learning activities.
Element 2	It allows the teacher to give timely feedback or support to the student during the lesson.
Element 3	It allows the teacher to collect information in order to evaluate or reformulate his/her pedagogical practices (planning, learning strategies, pedagogical resources, evaluations).

Rubric			
Unsatisfactory	**Basic**	**Competent**	**Outstanding**
The teacher does not fulfil the conditions required for the Basic level.	Element 1 or Element 2	Element 1 and Element 2	Element 1 and Element 2 and Element 3

Third-party reference report

The third-party reference report is a structured questionnaire to be answered by both the school director and the Head of the Technical-Pedagogical Unit of the school, covering a range of domains of the teacher's professional activity (according to the GTF). Each question requires both evaluators to rate the teacher's performance into four performance levels. The Third-party reference report consists of five parts: *(i)* basic information on both the teacher and the evaluators; *(ii)* ratings by evaluators across a range of domains and criteria (in 13 questions); *(iii)* information about past performance of the teacher (whether teacher had been evaluated before; actions taken by evaluator as a result of previous evaluation; comparison of current performance *vis-à-vis* previous evaluation); *(iv)* contextual information; and *(v)* qualitative assessment of the teacher's strengths and weaknesses, to be used by the Municipal Evaluation Commission as background information. The information gathered through the reference report is also used for the feedback to be received in writing by the teachers as they complete the evaluation process.

The rating by evaluators across GTF domains and criteria forms the core part of the third-party reference report. Figure 2.4 provides an example of the assessment rubric in a given domain/criterion that evaluators are supposed to follow.

Figure 2.4 Example of assessment rubric for a given domain/criterion in the third-party reference report

STEP 1
Read the GTF domain

Domain C: **Teaching that allows the learning process of all students**.

STEP 2
Read the GTF in each descriptor. Then, locate the COMPETENT column and read carefully the associated behaviours and indicators (1 and 2). Reflect if the indicators presented are an **integral part of the regular teacher's practice**. For this, please take into account the frequency and quality of these behaviours. The indicators may reflect in full or in part the statements contained in the criterion.

Criterion C.4: The teacher optimises the time available for teaching

W/I O	Unsatisfactory O	Basic O	Competent O	Outstanding O
	The teacher does not comply with the condition required for the Basic Level.	1 **OR** 2	1 The teacher uses the time available in the class to perform activities that are relevant for achieving the learning objectives. **AND** 2 The classes start on time and the material for the class activity is available when needed.	1 **AND** 2 **AND** The teacher meets all the conditions that make him/her outstand in this criterion (Please justify in the box below.)

Only if you marked Outstanding, give the reason(s) here by describing the outstanding conduct(s.)

STEP 3
Fill in black ● the circle corresponding to the rating given, taking into account that:

- If the teacher fulfils the two Competent behaviours or indicators and also has *other conditions* that make him/her outstand, mark the **Outstanding level and support your evaluation** by describing the outstanding behaviour in the corresponding box.
- If the teacher regularly fulfils *both* behaviours, mark the **Competent** box.
- If the teacher regularly fulfils *one* behaviour, mark the **Basic box and specify which of the two behaviours he/she fulfils** (circling it)
- If the teacher does not fulfil regularly *any* of them, please mark the Unsatisfactory box.
- If you do not have enough information available to make a judgement, mark **"W/I"** (Without information.)

Basic ●

The teacher uses the time available in the class to perform activities that are relevant for achieving the learning objectives.

OR

The classes start on time and the material for the class activity is available when needed.

Teacher performance portfolio

The portfolio is designed for teachers to provide evidence of their best pedagogical practices. The portfolio is prepared for a given educational level and area of teaching expertise (as defined by the Curriculum and Assessment Unit within the Ministry of Education). Teachers are provided with a Portfolio Manual which, among other things, specifies the descriptors of the Good Teaching Framework which are associated with each of the components of the portfolio. The portfolio consists of two separate modules:

- Set of pedagogical materials (Module 1): the teacher is required to plan and implement an 8-hour teaching unit (providing related materials in writing), to design an end of term assessment for the teaching unit, and to respond to a set of questions about teaching practices (including a reflection on achievements).

- Video recording of a class (Module 2): a 40-minute recording of a regular class together with the completion of a questionnaire about the class. The class is filmed by a cameraman accredited by the *Docentemás* team.

Module 1 consists of a description of an 8-hour learning unit (Component 1), the associated assessment strategy (Component 2) as well as a reflection about pedagogical practices (Component 3). Component 1 has three elements: *(i)* description of the learning unit (fundamental curricular objectives, compulsory minimum contents, learning objectives, content of classes); *(ii)* analysis of the characteristics of students (how pedagogical strategies take student characteristics into account); and *(iii)* analysis of the learning unit conducted (effective and non-effective pedagogical actions during learning unit). Component 2 is also divided into three elements: *(i)* Assessment of the learning unit and marking rubrics (e.g. approaches to assessment used, example of written assessment and associated marking rubrics); *(ii)* Reflection about assessment results (description of areas of strong and weak performance, interpretation of student results); and *(iii)* Feedback on the basis of assessment results (description of feedback given to students to improve subsequent learning). Component 3 consists of a reflection by the teacher about his or her pedagogical practices in the previous school year. It is based on responses to a set of questions about issues such as learning difficulties in the classroom, pedagogical approaches to address them, strategies to motivate students for learning, professional development needs, and actions to improve teaching practices.

Module 2 (video recording of a class) seeks to assess a range of aspects of the teacher's work: capacity to develop a lesson with a good start, development and closure; the quality of the interaction promoted among the students (questions asked, activities proposed and feedback); capacity to keep a proper working environment; and quality of the explanations and the didactic strategies. The class, previously scheduled with the teacher, is recorded for precisely 40 minutes and the teacher is encouraged to give notice to his or her students about the recorded class together with some recommendations for their behaviour (e.g. avoid noise during the class, speak with the adequate volume). The teacher also fills out a questionnaire about the class describing the number of students, learning objectives of the class (fundamental curricular objectives, compulsory minimum contents), teaching strategies used and, if any unexpected situation interfered with the class, an explanation of the situation.

The teacher is rated across eight dimensions (first five related to Module 1 and the remaining three to Module 2):

- Dimension A: Organisation of the elements of the learning unit
- Dimension B: Analysis of class activities
- Dimension C: Quality of the assessment of the learning unit
- Dimension D: Reflection about assessment results
- Dimension E: Reflection about pedagogical practices
- Dimension F: Classroom environment
- Dimension G: Structure of the class
- Dimension H: Pedagogical Interaction

The rating by portfolio markers is based on specifically designed assessment rubrics. A number of indicators are developed for each of the dimensions described above. Each indicator is accompanied with an assessment rubric, a description of the meaning of the four performance levels (Unsatisfactory, Basic, Competent, Outstanding) in the competency described by the indicator. The assessment rubrics are similar to the above example provided for the third-party reference report and are not disclosed to teachers.

Relative importance of the instruments

The weights of each of the assessment instruments for the final evaluation rating are as displayed in Table 2.6:

Table 2.6 Weights of assessment instruments in the teacher performance evaluation system

Instrument	Weight (%)	
	Regular evaluation in 4-year cycle	Follow-up evaluation subsequent to a Basic or Unsatisfactory rating
Self-evaluation	10	5
Peer evaluator interview	20	10
Third-party reference report	10	5
Teacher performance portfolio	60	80

Source: Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

For each evaluated teacher, the ratings assigned across the different evaluation instruments are encoded by the respective evaluator and entered into the *Docentemás* dedicated software. Such software generates an overall rating for each evaluated teacher as well as a performance report to be reviewed by the Municipal Evaluation Commission (see below).

Evaluators

The teacher performance evaluation system involves a range of evaluators, namely: *(i)* the Municipal Evaluation Commission; *(ii)* school leadership; *(iii)* peer evaluators; *(iv)* markers of portfolios; and *(v)* the teacher being evaluated.

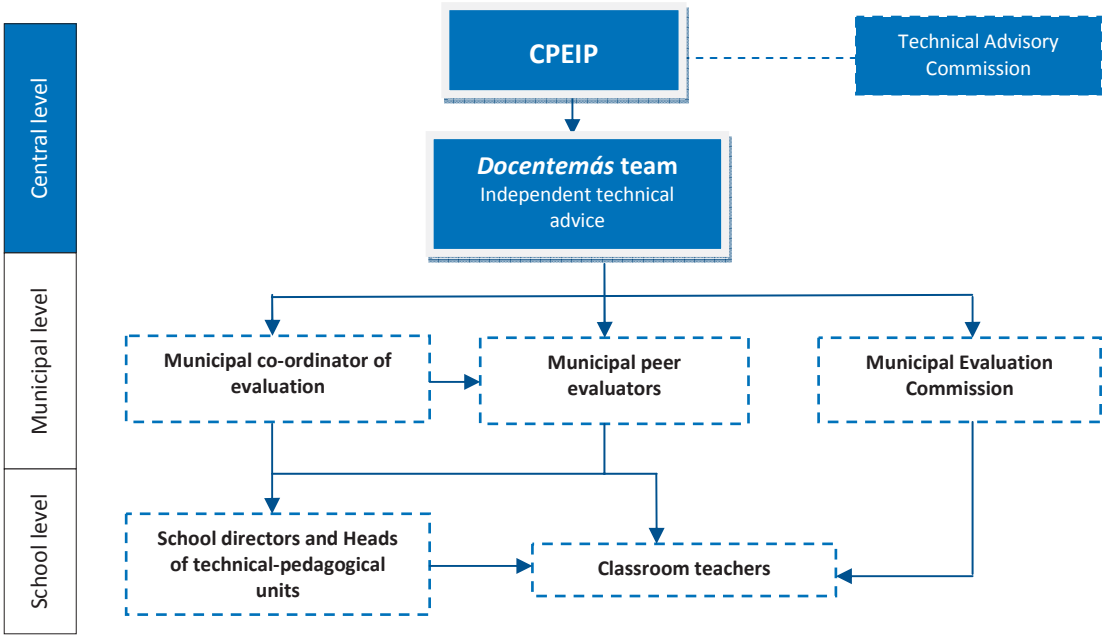
The final decision on each teacher's performance rating is taken by the Municipal Evaluation Commission. The Commission brings together the municipality's peer evaluators (see below) and is typically co-ordinated by the Head of the municipal Education Administration Department or the municipally controlled non-profit corporation which runs education within the municipality. He or she leads the process at the municipal level. For each evaluated teacher, the Commission's decision is based on a review of the results obtained by the teacher in each of the assessment instruments as well as background information on the concerned teacher. The Commission discusses whether the rating resulting from the weighted average of results in each assessment instrument is to be ratified (which happens in most of the cases) but can also modify such rating if a majority of two-thirds of the Commission is in agreement with the modification (this happens in about 5% of the cases, two-thirds of which lead to an upgrade of the rating, Manzi et al., 2011). The final decision by the Commission is expressed in an Individual Evaluation Report. The Commission also holds the responsibility to manage and decide on appeals made by teachers on the result of their evaluation.

School leaders play a relatively small role. School directors and the Heads of Technical-Pedagogical Units in the school are responsible for providing the third party reference report. They receive a set of guidelines to be followed in the preparation of their reference report. The so-called "peer evaluators" are practising classroom teachers previously rated as *Outstanding* or *Competent* (see below) who are annually selected and trained by the CPEIP following their own application for this function. They are recruited for two important roles in the *Docentemás* teacher evaluation system. First, they are responsible for conducting peer interviews with the teachers being evaluated. Second, they form part of the respective Municipal Evaluation Commission. Peer evaluators receive protocols for conducting the interviews. The CPEIP determines the criteria to select peer evaluators as well as the number of peer evaluators needed each year. Each peer evaluator conducts interviews with about 12 teachers on average per year.

Portfolios are marked in Assessment Centres based at selected universities in the country under the supervision of the *Docentemás* team (in 2010, the five participating universities were *Universidad Católica de Chile*, *Universidad Católica de Valparaíso*, *Universidad de Concepción*, *Universidad de la Serena* and *Universidad de Santiago de Chile*). Assessment Centres function according to detailed terms of reference established by the *Docentemás* team. The portfolio markers are practising teachers with at least five years of experience in the same teaching area and level as the teacher being evaluated. They examine the evidence provided by teachers and assign the performance ratings for the different dimensions evaluated by the portfolio. Portfolio markers receive proper training for their function by the *Docentemás* team and benefit from a detailed set of assessment rubrics describing the meaning of *Unsatisfactory*, *Basic*, *Competent* and *Outstanding* performance across the different elements analysed by the portfolio. In order to improve the reliability of marking, about 20% of portfolios are marked by two markers, some group marking takes place within school levels and teaching areas and some re-calibration of markers is undertaken by supervisors on the basis of evidence coming from the double marking. Their work is supported by trained supervisors within the Assessment Centres. In 2010, 11 070 portfolios were marked in five Assessment Centres by 347 markers who were assisted by 63 supervisors (Manzi et al., 2011).

Teachers themselves are required to be active participants in their own evaluation process. They have two major responsibilities. First, all teachers under evaluation are required to carry out their self-evaluation. Second, teachers are required to prepare a teacher performance portfolio, as described above. Both these procedures are intended to have a role in supporting a reflective approach to teaching practice by the teacher. Figure 2.5 summarises the organisational structure of the teacher performance evaluation system.

Figure 2.5 Organisation structure of the teacher performance evaluation system



Source: Manzi et al. (2011), *La Evaluación Docente en Chile,* Facultad de Ciencias Sociales, Escuela de Psicología, MIDE UC, Centro de Medición, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile.

Use of evaluation results

Teachers are rated into four distinct performance levels:

- Outstanding (*Destacado*)
- Competent (*Competente*)
- Basic (*Básico*)
- Unsatisfactory (*Insatisfactorio*).

The teacher performance evaluation system is intended to be formative and provide an opportunity for teachers to reflect on their own practice and obtain feedback on their strengths and areas for improvement. The more formal consequences of the teacher performance evaluation system are as follows:

- Teachers who are rated *Outstanding* or *Competent* are eligible to voluntarily apply to the Variable Individual Performance Allowance programme (AVDI), a programme requiring an extra national test to assess the disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge of teachers and which confers monetary rewards based on the results of both the teacher performance evaluation and the AVDI test (see below for further details). Teachers rated as *Outstanding* or *Competent* also have priority access to certain professional development opportunities such as internships abroad, professional workshops or academic seminars.

- Teachers who are rated *Basic* are required to participate in Professional Development Plans (*Planes de Superación Profesional*, PSP) specifically designed and implemented for them by municipal education authorities and which are supposed to address the development opportunities identified in the evaluation. As of 2011, a *Basic* rating requires a new evaluation two years later.
- Teachers who are rated *Unsatisfactory* are also required to participate in targeted Professional Development Plans (*Planes de Superación Profesional*, PSP) developed by municipal authorities. This rating also entails a new evaluation the following year. As of 2011, if a second consecutive *Unsatisfactory* rating is given to the teacher, he or she is removed from the teaching post. Also, following the Quality and Equality of Education Law of 2011, school directors are able to annually dismiss up to 5% of the teaching's staff among those teachers who were rated as *Unsatisfactory* at their most recent evaluation.

The professional development plans targeted at teachers who obtain a *Basic* or *Unsatisfactory* rating are funded by the Ministry of Education through earmarked resources transferred to municipal education authorities. The design and implementation of Professional Development Plans (PSPs) by municipal education authorities require the annual approval by the CPEIP. The CPEIP directly or through Education Regional Secretariats and Education Provincial Departments inspects and reviews the relevance, timeliness and effectiveness of PSPs, including through surveying the concerned teachers. Inadequacies in the provision of PSPs by municipal education authorities lead the CPEIP to require improvements in the organisation of PSPs. The CPEIP develops and provides materials and guidelines to assist both the concerned teachers as well as municipal education authorities in the development of PSPs. Professional development plans may include activities such as: *(i)* direct mentoring and advice by suitable professionals; *(ii)* participation in relevant courses, workshops or seminars; *(iii)* recommended reading with supporting materials; and *(iv)* observation of classes by outstanding teachers or other qualified professionals. According to Taut et al. (2011), in 2008, the most frequent activity was the participation in courses, workshops and seminars (76%), followed by direct mentoring and advice by suitable professionals (17%) while observation of classes with feedback was the least frequent activity (3%).

Feedback in writing is provided to a range of groups:

- Individual teachers

  Teachers receive an Individual Evaluation Report of about ten pages. The report has four sections: *(i)* portfolio results: ratings and a description of strengths and weaknesses across the eight dimensions assessed by the portfolio (about six pages); *(ii)* integrated results for peer evaluator interview and third-party reference report with ratings and a short paragraph across the four domains of the GTF (one page); *(iii)* ratings of self-evaluation (half a page); and *(iv)* overall evaluation rating awarded by the Municipal Evaluation Commission with an explanation (one page).

- Municipal Evaluation Commission

  The Municipal Evaluation Commission receives a report on each of the teachers evaluated in the municipality. The report is the same as the one received by the individual teacher except that it contains the automatic rating generated by the weighted average of the ratings in the four evaluation instruments and it does not contain section (iv) described above.

- Individual schools

  Schools receive a short report with descriptive statistics on the evaluation results of: *(i)* teachers at the school (requiring a minimum of three teachers evaluated at the school); *(ii)* teachers at the respective municipality; and *(iii)* teachers at the national level. Reported results include average ratings across the eight dimensions rated by the portfolio as well as the proportion of teachers having achieved at least the "Competent" level in each of the dimensions; and the distribution of ratings for each the third-party reference reports and the combined portfolio and peer interview. Schools also receive the overall rating for each of the teachers at the school.

- Municipal education authorities

  Municipal education authorities receive the same descriptive statistics as those provided to schools with results for each of the schools within the municipality and results at both the national and municipal level. In addition, they receive the overall rating for each of the evaluated teachers within the municipality.

Timeline

The self-evaluation report and the portfolio are to be completed within 5 and 12 weeks respectively of the delivery of the teacher evaluation materials. The peer evaluator interview is conducted after the self-evaluation report is completed and within 13 weeks of the delivery of the teacher evaluation materials. The third-party reference report is the final instrument to be completed between weeks 14 and 17 from the delivery of the materials. Teachers receive the Individual Evaluation Report about 8 months after the start of the process.

Implementation

The teacher performance evaluation system has by now covered a significant proportion of the municipal teaching workforce. As shown in Table 2.7, by 2010, 69 643 municipal teachers had participated in the teacher performance evaluation system, of whom 13 792 were evaluated at least a second time. Taking into account the number of teachers in municipal schools in 2010 (about 81 000) and the proportion of teachers who had been evaluated who were still teaching in a municipal school in 2010 (about 88%), it can be concluded that about a quarter of the 2010 municipal teaching working force had not undergone an evaluation process. According to Ministry of Education information, about half of these teachers carry out administrative or technical-pedagogical duties. As shown in Table 2.7, the proportion of teachers who refuse to be evaluated has been consistently decreasing since the teacher performance evaluation system has been in place.

Table 2.7 Data on the implementation of the teacher performance evaluation system, 2003-2011

	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Levels and types of education covered	FC	FC SC	FC SC SE	FC SC SE	FC SC SE	FC SC SE PP	FC SC SE PP SpE	FC SC SE PP SpE	FC SC SE PP SpE
Municipalities involved	63	104	330	342	337	339	342	340	m
Evaluated teachers[1]	3 673	1 719	10 665	14 190	10 413	16 015	15 699	11 061	12 223
of whom, re-evaluated teachers[2]	-	-	-	-	1 906	956	5 306	5 624	m
Teachers who refuse to be evaluated with no valid justification	-	-	-	1 664 (10.5%)	731 (6.5%)	846 (5.0%)	743 (4.5%)	402 (3.5%)	281 (2.3%)
Teachers with a revoked evaluation[3]	68	2	2	39	18	10	12	9	m

Notes: FC = First cycle of primary education; SC = Second cycle of primary education; SE = Secondary education; PP = Pre-primary education; SpE = Special education; m = missing data.

1. Since 2005, all municipalities have been involved in the teacher performance evaluation system. Figures refer to the number of municipalities for which at least one teacher was evaluated.

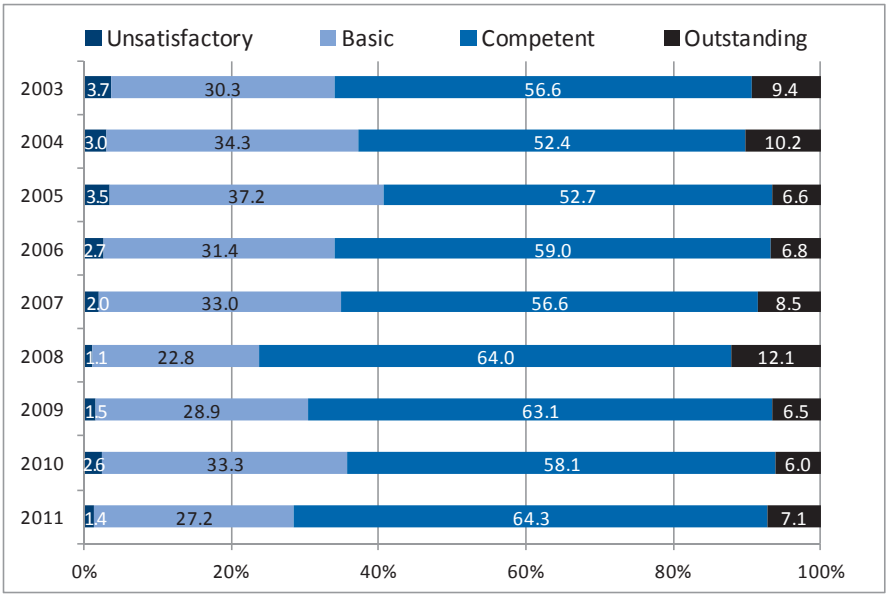
2. Corresponds to a subset of the figure in the row above, referring to teachers entering the second evaluation cycle.

3. Number of teachers for which the evaluation process was not considered valid as a result of irregularities in its application.

Source: Reproduced from Manzi et al. (2011), *La Evaluación Docente en Chile,* Facultad de Ciencias Sociales, Escuela de Psicología, MIDE UC, Centro de Medición, Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile, Santiago, Chile; with 2011 data from Ministry of Education (2012), *Resultados Evaluación Docente 2011*, CPEIP, Santiago.

Figure 2.6 displays the distribution of teacher ratings in the teacher performance evaluation system since its inception. The proportion of teachers rated as *Unsatisfactory* or *Basic* has fluctuated between about 24% and 40% while the proportion of teachers rated as *Outstanding* is typically below 10%.

Figure 2.6 Distribution of teacher ratings in the teacher performance evaluation system, 2003-2011



Source: Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes; and data retrieved from Ministry of Education (2012), *Resultados Evaluación Docente 2011*, CPEIP, Santiago.

Programme for the Variable Individual Performance Allowance

Objectives, organisation and main features

The Variable Individual Performance Allowance programme (*Programa Asignación Variable por Desempeño Individual*, AVDI), created in 2004, is a voluntary annual reward programme accessible only to those municipal teachers who obtained the classification of either "Competent" or "Outstanding" in the teacher performance evaluation system. The AVDI aims at strengthening the quality of education through rewarding the strongest performers among those identified as high performing by the teacher performance evaluation system. Eligible teachers can apply only once within the three years that follow a "Competent" or "Outstanding" rating in the teacher performance evaluation system.

The CPEIP, within the Ministry of Education, co-ordinates the AVDI programme including the definition of objectives, validation of instruments, and the dissemination of results. As with the teacher performance evaluation system, the design and administration of the AVDI test is delegated by the Ministry of Education to the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile*.

Instruments and reference standards

The single instrument used for the AVDI is an annual national standardised test to assess the disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge of teachers. The test includes multiple-choice questions as well as open-ended questions. The AVDI test is designed in reference to the Good Teaching Framework (*Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*) and the national curricular framework. The open-ended questions (typically two) focus on pedagogical knowledge and may cover the following areas:

- Psycho pedagogy: learning styles, general notions about intelligence, main learning theories, socio-emotional factors in the learning process, and stages of development.
- Methodology and didactics: Main characteristics of significant learning; resources and motivation for learning; pedagogical and didactic principles of the curricular framework, and the educational use of ICTs.
- Student assessment: General principles, types of assessment, range of instruments, selection of assessment instruments, and use of assessment results.
- Knowledge of the curriculum and educational policies: curricular framework, fundamental objectives and compulsory minimum contents, progress maps, student learning standards, SIMCE, student assessment regulations, and teacher evaluation.

Evaluators

The Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile*, in charge of designing and administrating the AVDI test, also takes responsibility for its marking. It is required to develop a system of automatic marking for multiple-choice questions and to select and train external markers to assess open-ended questions. The latter involves, for at least 20% of the tests, marking by two distinct external markers. The definition of the cut-off points determining the different performance levels is also a responsibility of the Measurement Centre.

Use of evaluation results

AVDI test results are provided into four distinct performance levels:

- Outstanding (*Destacado*)
- Competent (*Competente*)
- Sufficient (*Suficiente*)
- Not approved (*No tiene AVDI*)

Results of the AVDI programme are used to award monetary rewards to teachers who succeed in their application. The amount of the monetary reward depends not only on the AVDI rating but also on the teacher's rating in the performance evaluation system, as indicated in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 Level of Variable Individual Performance Allowance

		Results of the AVDI test		
		Outstanding	Competent	Sufficient
Results of teacher performance evaluation	Outstanding	25%	15%	5%
	Competent	15%	15%	5%

Note: The level of the AVDI allowance is expressed as a percentage of the National Minimum Basic Salary of the concerned teacher (i.e. basic salary with no allowances) at the time of the award of the allowance.

Source: Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

Hence, a teacher granted an AVDI reward, receives an extra annual amount of between 5 and 25% of his or her annual national minimum basic salary, paid in four instalments. Also, if the teacher is employed in a school with a high concentration of priority students, the reward is increased by 30%. The duration of the AVDI reward varies between two and four years depending on when the AVDI test is taken *vis-à-vis* the next evaluation planned in the context of the teacher performance evaluation system.

Implementation

Table 2.9 shows the total number of applicants as well as the distribution of the AVDI test results for the period 2006-2009. Taking into account the figures shown in Table 2.7 and Figure 2.6, it is clear that a considerable proportion of eligible teachers (rated as *Outstanding* or *Competent* in *Docentemás* in the previous four years) do not apply to the AVDI programme. By 2008, there were 36 691 teachers who complied with the minimum requirements to apply to the AVDI programme. Of these, 59% had completed the AVDI test by 2009 (Ministry of Education, forthcoming). As shown in Table 2.9, typically over 75% of those who apply to the AVDI programme receive at least the lowest level of the monetary rewards.

Table 2.9 Results of AVDI test, 2006-2009

	Not approved	Sufficient	Competent	Outstanding	Total
2006	865 (26.7%)	1 651 (51.0%)	629 (19.4%)	95 (2.9%)	3 240
2007	1 649 (25.4%)	2 964 (45.7%)	1 675 (25.8%)	198 (3.1%)	6 486
2008	846 (17.9%)	2 273 (48.2%)	1 338 (28.4%)	259 (5.5%)	4 716
2009	856 (15.1%)	3 065 (54.0%)	1 523 (26.9%)	227 (4.0%)	5 671

Source: Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence Allowance

Objectives, organisation and main features

The programme for the accreditation of pedagogical excellence allowance (*Programa de Acreditación para la Asignación de Excelencia Pedagógica*, AEP), introduced in 2002, is a voluntary annual programme to recognise the pedagogical excellence of teachers and reward them with one dedicated allowance. Teachers in both municipal and private subsidised schools are eligible to apply for the programme. The objective of the AEP is to strengthen the quality of education through the recognition of the pedagogical excellence of classroom teachers.

The CPEIP, within the Ministry of Education, co-ordinates the AEP programme. However, the operation of the AEP programme is undertaken by two university departments under the supervision of the CPEIP: the Microdata Centre of the *Universidad de Chile* and the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile*.

Teachers apply within four categories of professional experience: *(i)* Track 1: between 2 and 12 years of experience; *(ii)* Track 2: between 12 and 22 years; *(iii)* Track 3: between 22 and 32 years; and *(iv)* Track 4: over 32 years. Hence, a teacher needs a minimum of two years of professional experience to apply to the AEP programme in addition to teaching at least 20 hours a week in the year he or she applies.

Instruments and reference standards

The AEP is based on two main instruments: *(i)* a test to assess the disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge of the teacher (weight of 30%); and *(ii)* a portfolio to demonstrate the extent to which the teacher meets standards (weight of 70%). The AEP is designed in reference to the Good Teaching Framework (*Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*) and the national curricular framework.

The test includes multiple-choice questions as well as open-ended questions. The open-ended questions (typically two) focus on pedagogical knowledge and cover areas similar to those contained in the AVDI test (see earlier description). The individual portfolio is intended to present evidence about the performance of the candidate across the domains of the Good Teaching Framework. It is expected to involve planning, organisation of activities, preparation of documents, and exemplars of practices leading the candidate to reflect on his or her own practice. The candidate is required to follow the instructions provided in a Portfolio Manual developed to guide the application process. The Portfolio consists of five distinct components:

- Planning and implementation of a learning unit

  This component refers to a learning unit of about eight to ten teaching hours and includes the description of the following aspects: *(i)* requirements for planning (in association with fundamental curricular objectives, compulsory minimum contents and learning objectives); *(ii)* organisation of the planning; *(iii)* foundations for the planning (explanations by teacher of decisions on planning); and *(iv)* Analysis of the implementation of plan (e.g. explanation about how school context was taken into account in the planning of the learning unit).

- Student assessment strategy

  This component includes the description of the following aspects: *(i)* foundations for the assessment strategy (assessment instruments and reasons for their choice); *(ii)* characterisation of an assessment activity or situation; *(iii)* coherence of assessment activity or situation (matching between learning objectives and assessment indicators); *(iv)* follow-up actions (communication of results, impact on subsequent teaching approaches); and *(v)* reflection on the implementation of the assessment strategy (e.g. explanation of how the learning process benefitted from the assessment strategy).

- Class (video recorded)

  This component assesses teacher's mastery of curricular contents and his or her ability to generate a favourable environment for learning. The class given should be part of the learning unit planned in the portfolio. The class should contain two or more activities.

- Analysis of videotaped class

  This component consists of a description by the teacher of the class as well as his or her pedagogical analysis of its content. Issues addressed include analysis of the sequencing of activities, time management and the interaction in class.

- Reflection about teaching practice

  This component assesses the quality of the teacher's critical self-analysis and the capacity to generate improvement in his or her practices. It requires the teacher to undertake the analysis of the learning progression of a single student, an account of student performance within the class, and an assessment of own strengths and weaknesses.

The Portfolio Manual lists the domains and descriptors of the Good Teaching Framework that each of the five components is supposed to address. The teacher uses a template to provide the answers with a required maximum number of pages per answer. The marking of the portfolio relies on a detailed set of assessment rubrics describing the meaning of *Unsatisfactory*, *Basic*, *Competent* and *Outstanding* performance across the different aspects assessed within each component.

Evaluators

Under the supervision of the CPEIP, the Microdata Centre of the *Universidad de Chile* and the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile* take responsibility for the following tasks: *(i)* registration of applicants; *(ii)* design and preparation of evaluation instruments; *(iii)* application and marking of instruments; and *(iv)* reporting of results. Both academic centres are required to develop a system of automatic marking for multiple-choice questions and to select and train external markers to assess the test open-ended questions and the portfolios.

Use of evaluation results

Teachers who succeed in their application to the AEP are provided with a monetary reward (Excellent Teacher Allowance) and the possibility to apply to the "Maestros" Teacher Network. The monetary reward is broadly equivalent to an extra monthly salary per year for ten years (distributed in two annual instalments). The names of the teachers

who obtain the Excellent Teacher Allowance are publicly disclosed. To keep the reward, accredited teachers must be practising classroom teachers in either a municipal or a private subsidised school and be rated as "Outstanding" or "Competent" by the teacher performance evaluation system during the corresponding period.

Implementation

The annual number of applicants to the AEP programme is relatively small, as shown in Table 2.10. In recent years, most applicants were teachers based in the private subsidised sector. In addition, reflecting the high standards of the programme, since 2008 less than one in five applicants successfully achieves the accreditation of excellence.

Table 2.10 Statistics on the AEP programme, 2002-2010

			Distribution of applicants across type of provider (%)		
	Applicants	Successful accreditation	Municipal schools	Private subsidised	Delegated administration
2010	1499	258 (17.2%)	42	56	2
2009	1815	319 (17.6%)	41	56	3
2008	1662	315 (19.0%)	41	59	0
2007	1666	341 (20.5%)	49	51	0
2006	2215	626 (28.3%)	56	44	0
2005	1833	632 (34.5%)	63	37	0
2004	1621	522 (32.2%)	87	13	0
2003	941	409 (43.5%)	72	28	0
2002	1906	313 (16.4%)	74	26	0

Source: Ministry of Education, website for *Programa de Asignación de Excelencia Pedagógica*, CPEIP, MINEDUC, *www.aep.mineduc.cl/programa_resultados.asp*, accessed 15 July 2013.

National System for Performance Evaluation

Objectives, organisation and main features

The National System for Performance Evaluation (*Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de Desempeño*, SNED), which started operating in 1996, is a system for evaluating school performance which rewards teachers and education assistants within a school for their performance in the System to Measure the Quality of Education (*Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación*, SIMCE), the full-cohort national standardised assessment of student performance across the country. The SNED is organised every two years and covers the subsidised sector, i.e. municipal schools, private subsidised schools and schools with delegated administration.

SNED aims at contributing to the improvement of the quality of education in the subsidised school sector through collectively rewarding student learning outcomes as measured by SIMCE. SNED also aims at informing parents about school performance and ensuring that school leadership and school staff use SNED results to improve practices at the school level.

The technical implementation of the SNED, including the development of the instruments and the computation of school-level SNED indices (see below), is the responsibility of the Centre for Applied Economics of the Industrial Engineering Department of the University of Chile, under contract with the Ministry of Education. The Centre provides technical advice to the Ministry for the development of SNED.

Reference standards and criteria

SNED is based on SIMCE which measures achievement of fundamental curricular objectives and minimum compulsory contents. The evaluation reference is therefore the binding single national curriculum defined by the Ministry of Education, particularly its minimum requirements: the Fundamental Objectives and Compulsory Minimum Contents (*Objetivos Fundamentales y Contenidos Mínimos Obligatorios*, OF-CMO). Other references include the equity objectives for the school system and school regulations.

Instruments

The SNED reward is based on the SNED performance index which is determined, for each individual school, as a weighted average of the following factors (weight indicated in parentheses):

- Effectiveness: SIMCE performance level (37%)
- Progress: Growth of SIMCE results over time (28%)
- Initiative: Ability of the school to introduce educational innovations and draw the support of external agents to their teaching activities (6%).

  Examples of indicators are: existence of School Council; planning of professional development activities; development of extra-curricular activities; existence of representative management team; development of group pedagogical work. The source of information is a questionnaire filled out by the school in the context of the SNED.
- Improvement of working conditions and adequate functioning of the school: compliance with regulations and statistical processes (assessment by inspection of the Ministry of Education) (2%)
- Equality of opportunities: Student passing and retention rates; enrolment of students with special needs and learning difficulties; existence of school insertion programme, absence of discriminatory policies (22%). Sources of information include regular education statistics at the school level and a SNED questionnaire.
- Participation of teachers and parents in the development of the school's educational project (5%)

  Examples of indicators are: existence of a General Teacher Council; existence of a Parents' Association; functioning of Student Centre; school initiatives to engage school community. The main source of information is a SNED questionnaire.

In order to ensure greater fairness, in each region, schools are ranked according to the SNED performance index within *homogeneous* groups, i.e. groups of schools which are broadly comparable in terms of the socio-economic characteristics of their student populations and other school-level characteristics. The variables used to define the groups are the following:

- region
- geographical area (urban or rural)
- level and type of education (primary education only; secondary education with or without primary education, special education)
- Schooling Vulnerability Index (*Indice de Vulnerabilidad Escolar*, IVE, computed on the basis of an annual questionnaire filled out by students in Year 1 and Year 9 within the subsidised school sector in the context of School Assistance and Scholarships, JUNAEB)
- average household income of students' families (SIMCE's questionnaire to parents)
- average schooling of parents (SIMCE's questionnaire to parents).

In the 2010-11 application of SNED, there were 125 groups across the country. For example, in the Metropolitan Region of Santiago, for a total of 11 groups, the distribution was as follows: 3 groups for urban primary schools; 3 groups for rural primary schools; 3 groups for urban secondary schools, 1 group for rural secondary schools, and 1 group for special education.

Use of evaluation results

Schools within the top 35th percentile (of student population within each homogeneous group) receive the "Subsidy for Performance of Excellence", with the level of the subsidy depending on the position in the ranking: 100% of the subsidy if the school is within the top 25th percentile; and 60% otherwise. Rewards are distributed among teachers and education assistants within each rewarded school. Regulations specify that 90% of the Subsidy for Performance of Excellence is to be distributed to teachers in proportion to the number of individual contract hours. The remaining resources may be distributed according to special incentives programmes designed by individual schools.

Implementation

In the 8th application of the SNED in 2010-11, the number of schools rewarded was 2 656, benefitting 58 597 teachers who received an average annual extra amount of USD 1 590. These rewards also benefitted 28 455 education assistants with an average annual extra amount of USD 267. Of the total schools rewarded in 2010-11, 52.7% are within the municipal sector, 46.0% in the private-subsidised sector, and 1.3 are schools with delegated administration. Also, of all the schools evaluated in the 2010-11 SNED, 57% had been rewarded at least once in the eight applications of the SNED since 1996-97.

Teacher evaluation internal to the school

School organising bodies (municipalities, delegated administrations and private owners) are free to design and implement teacher evaluation processes that complement the formal evaluation processes described previously. In the municipality of Concepción, for example, there is a technical team at the municipality level that maintains contact with teachers and visits schools to observe classrooms. The municipality also conducts trial SIMCE tests to obtain information about learning outcomes across schools and classrooms. A number of municipalities also use the SIMCE student results to understand the performance of individual teachers.

Private schools (both subsidised and non-subsidised), which are not part of the teacher performance evaluation system, autonomously organise their own performance teacher evaluation systems. According to the Private Schools of Chile (*Colegios Particulares de Chile*, CONACEP), most schools have quite a long tradition of carrying out evaluation of administrative issues such as punctuality. But, more recently, many private subsidised schools have introduced evaluation of actual teaching practices, where technical teams observe teachers' classroom practices and evaluate various aspects of teaching linked to criteria agreed upon by the teaching staff. This is followed by feedback to individual teachers. The typical practice would be for department heads to meet and design the evaluation grid and then have it approved by the school staff and apply it consistently. According to CONACEP, such practices are now in place in the majority of private subsidised schools. Overall, there is little documentation about teacher evaluation undertaken in the private school sector.

Many municipal schools (and schools with delegated administrations) also organise extra evaluation procedures, which tend to be more informal processes of feedback for improvement. To a great extent there is an expectation that school leaders in all schools undertake regular internal evaluations of the teachers in their school. There are indications that observation of classes as well as the associated feedback to teachers is somewhat common in Chilean schools, according to the perceptions of school directors of municipal schools (and subsidised private schools). According to a survey by the Centre for the Study of Educational Policies and Practices (CEPPE), 56.5% of school directors in municipal schools stated that they observe classes and provide feedback to teachers at least once a month (the corresponding figure for subsidised private schools is 46.6%) (CEPPE, 2010) Also, as a result of the 2011 Quality and Equality Education Law, schools can develop internal management tools which may include internal teacher evaluation processes and incentive programmes for teachers. The law highlights the need for all aspects of such internal evaluation systems to be transparent. Overall, there is little documentation about the teacher evaluation processes designed and implemented at the school level.

Current policy initiatives

New career structure for teachers

A significant initiative of the Chilean Government in 2012 has been the development of a draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers. The draft law was submitted to Parliament in March 2012 and is currently undergoing discussions. The draft law proposes major changes in the organisation of the teaching profession:

- ***Career structure for teachers in the municipal school sector***

  The draft law proposes a new multilevel career structure, with a salary scale for each career level. It will cover new teachers and, on a voluntary basis, current teachers. Four career levels are proposed:

  – Initial (*Inicial*)

  – Prepared (*Preparado*)

  – Advanced (*Avanzado*)

  – Expert (*Experto*)

Each career level has its own professional profile. As the teacher advances in the career structure, he or she has access to positions with greater responsibilities within schools. Each career level has its own minimum basic salary scale, to which a range of salary allowances are added. Within each minimum basic salary scale, the salary level depends on hours worked and seniority. The multilevel career structure is associated with a certification system. Access to as well as maintenance in a given career level involve a centrally managed process of evaluation for certification.

Salary allowances include the allowance for difficult conditions of work, the zone supplement, the responsibility allowance, the allowance linked to the needs of the educational project and the teaching performance allowance. The latter is provided on the basis of a municipally based and school-managed teacher performance evaluation process.

The new salary scales are designed so that high-performing teachers in the new career system can benefit from significant salary raises relative to the current salary system. The salary of beginning teachers is also increased.

- ***Structure for teacher evaluation***

  It is proposed to have a dual teacher evaluation system in the municipal school sector:

  – Teacher evaluation for certification

    The Ministry of Education will take responsibility for organising the teacher evaluation process determining the access to or maintenance in each career level. This certification process will evaluate teacher knowledge and abilities through an examination. The results of the evaluation will also be used in teacher selection processes as well as teachers' access to positions with greater responsibilities within schools.

  – Teacher performance evaluation

    The municipalities will take responsibility for designing their own systems of teacher performance evaluation (in consultation with school directors in the municipality), which are then implemented at the school level. The school director as well as the head of the technical-pedagogical unit will take responsibility for the annual evaluation of individual teachers using the framework designed at the municipal level. Teachers are to be rated in four possible categories with quotas for the top categories at the municipal level (e.g. the top category cannot concentrate more than 20% of the teachers in the municipality). The results of the teacher performance evaluation will determine access to the teaching performance allowance (only teachers rated in any of the two top categories will receive the allowance). They may also lead to sanctions for underperforming teachers, including dismissal.

    The Ministry of Education will make available to the municipalities a bank of evaluation instruments. The new system also provides for the possibility of acquiring new responsibilities within the school such as head of department or subject co-ordinator as a non-monetary benefit resulting from high performance.

- ***Conditions to be a teacher in the subsidised school sector***

  Conditions to become a teacher in the subsidised private sector are matched to those to teach in the municipal sector: *(i)* take the university selection test (PSU); *(ii)* obtain a degree from an accredited teacher education programme; and *(iii)* pass the initial pedagogical excellence examination.

  The initial pedagogical excellence examination (*Examen Inicial de Excelencia Pedagógica*) becomes mandatory for access to the teaching profession in the subsidised school sector. This examination will focus on the assessment of knowledge and teaching abilities and will be the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. It draws on the experience of the graduation test of the INICIA programme (see below).

- ***Teacher recruitment into the municipal school sector***

  In the municipal school sector, a greater say is given to schools in the selection of permanent teachers. Permanent posts will be filled through public competitions based on profiles developed by the school director and the head of the technical-pedagogical unit which receive the approval of municipal education authorities. Selection is then made by a Commission constituted of the school director, the head of the technical-pedagogical unit and a teacher from a school within the municipality selected by the school director.

- ***Classroom teaching hours and extra responsibilities***

  Full-time teachers (i.e. teachers working 44 hours a week) in both the municipal and the subsidised private school sectors will be required to teach at most 31 hours. The remaining working hours are to be dedicated to non-classroom activities for better preparation of classes.

The introduction of the new career structure for teachers is supported by the expansion of resources in the school system, with the objective of increasing the public school subsidy per student by 25% in the next ten years. It builds on more attractive teacher salaries and greater municipality and school autonomy. It should also be noted that the private school sector is not required to adopt the new career structure and the associated teacher evaluation processes, even if private schools can do so on a voluntary basis.

Programme for the promotion of quality in initial teacher education

In 2009, the Chilean government launched the Programme for the Promotion of Quality in Initial Teacher Education (*Programa de Fomento a la Calidad de la Formación Inicial Docente*, *Programa* INICIA) as part of its efforts to improve the quality of the teaching workforce. The objective is to improve the quality of graduates from initial teacher education through the improvement of the training provided by teacher education institutions. This initiative is implemented alongside the mandatory accreditation of teacher education programmes by quality assurance procedures within higher education. The INICIA programme relies on three distinct initiatives: *(i)* Graduating Teacher Standards; *(ii)* Graduation Test; and *(iii)* Support the improvement of teacher education programmes. These are detailed below.

Graduating Teacher Standards

A core component of the INICIA programme is the set of Graduating Teacher Standards (for pre-primary, primary and secondary education) developed to guide the organisation and structure of initial teacher education programmes. The Graduating Teacher Standards define the set of basic competencies and knowledge that all graduates should acquire as part of their initial teacher education. These standards have been developed for pre-primary education, primary education (in the areas of language and communication; mathematics; history, geography and social sciences; and natural sciences) and secondary education (in the areas of language and communication; mathematics; history, geography and social sciences; biology; physics; and chemistry). The development of the Graduating Teacher Standards involves educational experts based in universities, in particular the Catholic University of Chile and the University of Chile.

The Graduating Teacher Standards for students graduating from the primary education teaching career in the areas mentioned above are organised in two categories: pedagogical standards and disciplinary standards. The two categories complement each other with the aim of providing to the future teacher the necessary knowledge and core competences enabling him/her to practice the teaching profession. The pedagogical standards as well as the example of the disciplinary standards for natural sciences are listed in Table 2.11. The format of each standard includes a description giving a general idea of what graduated teachers should know and do. There is also a set of indicators that gives specific details about how the achievement of certain knowledge and competences are shown in the field covered by the standard.

Table 2.11 Graduating Teacher Standards: Pedagogical standards and Disciplinary standards for natural sciences for primary education

	Pedagogical standards (the future teacher should:)	Disciplinary standards for natural sciences (the future teacher should:)
1	Be familiar with primary education students and know the way they learn	Know how primary education students learn the subjects of natural sciences
2	Be prepared to promote the personal and social development of the students	Understand the fundamental ideas of natural sciences and the characteristics of scientific knowledge
3	Be familiar with the primary education curriculum and use the various instruments available to analyse and submit proposals for pedagogical and assessment processes	Understand the concepts relating the structures with their functions in living beings, and be prepared to teach them
4	Know how to design and implement teaching and learning strategies in line with the learning objectives and relevant to the context	Understand the fundamental concepts of the interaction of organisms with their environments, and be prepared to teach them
5	Be prepared to manage the class and create an adequate environment for learning according to the context	Understand the fundamental concepts of force and movement, and be prepared to teach them
6	Know and be able to apply methods to assess students' progress, and know how to use assessment results to get feedback for his/her own learning and pedagogical practice	Understand the fundamental concepts related with the matter and its transformations, and be prepared to teach them
7	Know how school culture is generated and transformed	Understand the fundamental concepts of the earth and space sciences, and be prepared to teach them
8	Be prepared to embrace diversity and promote integration within the classroom	Show scientific thinking skills that he/she should develop in his/her students
9	Be prepared to communicate effectively orally and in writing in the different situations of the teaching profession	Be prepared to develop scientific skills in his/her students
10	Be part of a permanent learning process and reflect about his/her methods and role within the education system	Be able to motivate students so that they can establish relationships between their daily lives and scientific knowledge

Graduation Test

A second component of the INICIA programme is a diagnostic test targeted at students about to graduate from initial teacher education programmes which assesses disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical abilities. The INICIA test uses the Graduating Teacher Standards as its reference. The test, originally to be taken on a voluntary basis, seeks to provide information to institutions and students in view of promoting improvements in initial teacher education programmes. The INICIA test organised in 2010 involved the voluntary participation of 43 of the 59 institutions offering initial teacher education for pre-primary and primary education and a total of 4 861 students. The test covered a range of aspects: knowledge of the discipline; pedagogical knowledge; written communication; and ICT in a pedagogical environment.

According to the draft law submitted to Parliament in March 2012 on the new career structure for teachers, and in the context of a set of policy initiatives to improve initial teacher education, the INICIA test will become mandatory for access to the teaching profession in the subsidised school sector. The test (initial pedagogical excellence examination) will assess knowledge of the relevant discipline studied as well as teaching abilities.

Support for the improvement of teacher education programmes

The third component of the INICIA programme is a support programme providing institutions with additional resources to improve their initial teacher education programmes, including through the hiring of staff, the introduction of new courses or establishing links to schools. The programme involves a competition among institutions which considers the establishment of the Graduating Teacher Standards in institutions as well as their average result in the INICIA test. A pilot of this programme in 2010 supported nine projects.

Initiatives to improve the attractiveness of teaching

The Teacher Vocation Scholarship (*Beca Vocación de Profesor*, BVP) provides academically talented secondary education graduates with a scholarship and other benefits if they choose teacher education as a higher education degree and teach in a subsidised school at least two years. The extent of the benefit depends on the score obtained in the university selection test (PSU). It includes at the minimum the payment of 100% of tuition fees if the student is above a given cut-off score. But it can also include a monthly stipend (if above a higher cut-off score) and a semester studying abroad (if above an even higher cut-off score). There are indications that, as a result of this initiative, the average PSU score of students entering teacher education has increased in 2011. A further initiative is the "Choose to Teach" (*Elige Educar*) campaign which seeks to promote teaching through a variety of actions, including the monitoring of the social status of teaching, scholarships for individuals with experience outside education who would like to join teaching, and interventions in schools to provide information about teaching and raise awareness among school agents of the importance of teaching as a profession.

Notes

1. Not only did Praxis III inspire Chile's Good Teaching Framework, it also provided the launch-pad of the Danielson "Framework for Teaching" which has been widely adopted by states in the United States as the official definition of teaching for the purposes of teacher evaluation. This framework shares the same "architecture" as Chile's Good Teaching Framework, but was modified to describe the work of all teachers – not only teachers in their first year of practice – and has evolved in the intervening years to reflect advances in knowledge regarding effective teaching.

2. There might be exceptional cases in which a teacher from the same teaching area is not available to act as peer evaluator, in which case a teacher from the same education level plays such role.

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Chapter 3

Design and governance of teacher evaluation

Teacher evaluation is recognised as an important policy lever to improve student learning. This is reflected in the substantial work on teaching standards, the very comprehensive approach to teacher evaluation in municipal schools and the multitude of reward programmes in the subsidised school sector. However, while the intended original objective of Docentemás was to conceive teacher evaluation as a formative process, teacher evaluation, as implemented, is presently perceived mostly as an instrument to hold municipal teachers accountable. Also, the teacher evaluation framework remains incomplete. A major gap is that it is not publicly guaranteed that all teachers in the school system undergo a formal process of performance evaluation since teachers in the private school sector (over 50% of Chilean teachers) are not required to undergo a Docentemás evaluation and teacher evaluation procedures in private schools are not validated by public education authorities. Also, there is no formal teacher evaluation which focuses on teacher development and feedback for the improvement of practices. Teachers are generally open to external feedback but few opportunities are available and teacher evaluation generates little professional dialogue. The creation of the Quality of Education Agency is an excellent development to complete and integrate the overall evaluation and assessment framework. However, the conception of the Agency's activities as it starts its operations emphasises the accountability function of evaluation. Another challenge is that formal teacher evaluation processes require little engagement from local agents. In particular, school leaders play a relatively small role, making little use of the results of Docentemás to coach their teachers and inform their school development plans.

This chapter looks at the design and governance of teacher evaluation in Chile, i.e. the objectives, functions, design and overall structure of the teacher evaluation system as well as the distribution of responsibilities within it. It identifies the main strengths and challenges of teacher evaluation design and governance together with recommendations for improvement.

Strengths

There is a general consensus about the need for teacher evaluation

In Chile, teacher evaluation is recognised as an important policy lever to improve student learning and is central in the overall evaluation and assessment framework. This is reflected in the substantial work on teaching standards, the very comprehensive approach to teacher evaluation in municipal schools and the multitude of reward programmes in the subsidised school sector. Over ten years of experience with formal teacher evaluation have produced a conviction among most teachers about the need for teachers to be evaluated, receive professional feedback, improve their practice and have their achievements recognised. The recognition of teacher evaluation as a positive and necessary process by most teachers is an important outcome of the experience thus far with teacher evaluation. While there are strong views about adjustments to be made to teacher evaluation, the idea and intention of creating an evaluation culture within schools and developing the professional capabilities of teachers appears widely shared.

During the meetings held with the OECD Review Team, actors at different levels of the education system referred to the progress achieved in ensuring teacher evaluation as being perceived positively as a regular component of teachers' careers. Several studies indicate that the consolidation of the teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*) strongly benefited from the fact that all key actors were part of the negotiations (municipalities, teacher union and the Ministry of Education) and there was extensive consultation among teachers with several years for implementation (Avalos and Assael, 2006).

There is a variety of mechanisms to evaluate and recognise good teacher performance

Teacher evaluation develops in a context of considerable national policy attention to improving teacher quality. This is reflected in significant initiatives in the following areas: attracting the best secondary education graduates to initial teacher education; improving the quality of initial teacher education; developing teaching and school leadership standards; creating a teacher career structure; and improving retention by rewarding quality teachers and school leaders. As a result, the government accords great importance to teacher evaluation within the general education improvement agenda.

This is reflected in the multiple mechanisms currently in place that deal with teacher evaluation, covering a variety of purposes: selecting graduates into teaching (initial pedagogical excellence examination), assessing performance in view of improving practices and identifying underperformance (teacher performance evaluation system in municipal schools), and rewarding good or excellent performance (Variable Individual Performance Allowance in municipal schools; the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence in the subsidised school sector; and the National System for Performance Evaluation which rewards groups of teachers in subsidised schools). Also, two new teacher evaluation programmes for municipal schools are in the process of being defined as the new career structure for teachers is introduced (for new teachers and, on a

voluntary basis, current teachers): teacher evaluation for certification to determine access to each career level; and teacher performance evaluation to be designed by municipal education authorities and implemented by individual schools in view of determining access to the teaching performance allowance (and identifying underperformance). These initiatives attest to extensive experience in evaluating teachers and convey a strong message about the need for teachers to have their performance evaluated at all stages of their career. However, as will be explained later, teacher evaluation has become complex and fragmented and does not integrate the private school sector.

The teacher performance evaluation system is rooted in some good principles

As explained above, the Chilean municipal education system has developed a comprehensive teacher evaluation system. The overall teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*) is based on some good principles reflecting what has been identified as good teacher evaluation practice internationally:

- **A focus on improving the quality of teaching**. Appropriately the teacher performance evaluation system has as its main objectives the improvement of the quality of the teachers, the enhancement of teaching practices in schools and, as a result, growth in student learning. It was originally conceptualised as having a formative function. However, its accountability function is significant as its results are used to give teachers access to rewards and to identify underperformance (with possible sanctions for teachers).
- **A clear reference for good teaching performance**. The Good Teaching Framework provides an overall reference for teacher evaluation and is the key element to ensure consistency in the assessment of teaching performance (see also Chapter 4). Professional standards are essential to guide any fair and effective system of teacher evaluation, given the need to have a common reference of what counts as accomplished teaching (OECD, 2005). The lack of such a framework weakens the capacity for the system to effectively appraise teachers.
- **Multiple sources of evidence and multiple evaluators**. The teacher performance evaluation system is comprehensive, includes most domains of teacher performance, a range of sources of data, provides for more than one evaluator and includes peer review (see Chapter 4). All these elements contribute to meeting the need for accuracy and fairness in the evaluation process (Isoré, 2009). It has also the advantage of introducing externality to the school with external trained peer evaluators and portfolio markers, which has the potential to provide some consistency of judgement of teaching performance across schools.
- **Recognition of the importance of classroom observation**. As teaching practices and evidence of learning are probably the most relevant sources of information about professional performance, it is fundamental to give a key role to classroom observation in teacher evaluation. This is recognised through the inclusion of the video recording of a class in the teacher portfolio.
- **The importance of self-reflection**. The inclusion of self-evaluation as an instrument of *Docentemás* reflects the importance accorded to teacher self-reflection. The perspective of the teachers being evaluated is essential for them to reflect on the personal, organisational and institutional factors that had an impact on their teaching. However, the current approach to self-evaluation is problematic

as it provides little incentive for an authentic reflection about teaching practices (see Chapter 4).

- **Transparency of processes**. Rules for the implementation of the teacher performance evaluation are clearly set in the legislation. In addition, teacher evaluation processes are described in extensive documentation, including guidelines for the use of instruments, criteria to rate teachers and results reports provided to different groups (including the teacher being evaluated). However, as explained in Chapter 4, the evaluation rubrics to rate teachers are not known to the teachers which jeopardises the improvement function of teacher evaluation.
- **Awareness of the importance of capacity for evaluation**. The teacher performance evaluation system provides for the selection and extensive training of portfolio markers and peer evaluators, as a key element for its successful implementation. However, less attention is given to the training of school leaders and the teacher being evaluated (see Chapter 5).

Teachers are generally open to external feedback from a trusted source

Interviews with teachers confirmed that they were generally interested in and open to receiving feedback on their performance when that feedback came from someone teachers trusted. In general, teachers liked the idea of having direct feedback on their classroom practice from someone within their school or someone who understood their teaching context. In some schools teachers are observed periodically by the leadership team, and receive feedback on those observations. While this appears to be a valuable (and valued) practice, it has not been integrated into the culture of most schools. Moreover, there appears to be little training for those who conduct the observations. Besides requiring a change in school culture, such observations and feedback sessions might require time for feedback sessions, and teachers seem to have virtually no time during the school day that could be devoted to professional reflection.

Also, the teacher performance evaluation system provides for some feedback to teachers. Thus, the design of the evaluation system permits "closing the loop" on teacher performance, enabling teachers to strengthen their practice based on feedback they receive on various aspects of their teaching.

There is a commitment to building teacher evaluation on research evidence

A strength of teacher evaluation in Chile is that it considerably builds on research evidence. In the implementation of *Docentemás*, the Centre for Pedagogical Training, Experimentation and Research (CPEIP), within the Ministry of Education, is required to receive independent technical advice provided by higher education institutions with proven expertise in the area of teacher education and teacher evaluation. Indeed, the *Docentemás* team, based in the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile*, brings technical expertise, academic rigour and research evidence into the implementation of teacher evaluation. It also investigates the functioning and impact of teacher evaluation as with the publication *La Evaluación Docente en Chile* (Manzi et al., 2011). This translates into desirable independence *vis-à-vis* the range of stakeholders with an interest in teacher evaluation and the potential to introduce modifications on the basis of identified best practices. In addition, the Ministry of Education through the CPEIP and its Planning unit conduct a range of studies about the impact of educational policies, including teacher evaluation, and best practices in teaching and learning.

The creation of the Quality of Education Agency will integrate teacher evaluation in a broader framework

The creation of the Quality of Education Agency is a fundamental step in consolidating an evaluation and assessment framework bringing together student assessment, teacher evaluation, school leader evaluation, school evaluation, and education system evaluation. The full potential of evaluation and assessment will not be realised until the overall evaluation and assessment framework is fully integrated and is perceived as a coherent whole. This includes achieving proper articulation between the different evaluation components.

The Quality of Education Agency will focus on the school as its main unit for analysis but with proper consideration of the links to the quality of teaching and teachers, student outcomes, and the performance of school leaders. As a result the Agency's activities have the potential to integrate teacher evaluation in a broader evaluative framework. The evaluation of individual schools will allow a greater understanding of individual schools' contexts, involve the assessment of teaching and learning in individual schools, emphasise the role of school leadership, and foster activities of classroom observation. It might also potentially involve the validation of internal teacher evaluation processes, lead to a greater role of school leaders in teacher evaluation, improve linkages between teacher evaluation and school development and involve more systematic support for teachers to follow up on their evaluation results. In addition, through the intended validation of teacher evaluation procedures, on a voluntary basis, in private schools (both subsidised and non-subsidised), it promises a certain degree of integration of these schools in the teacher evaluation framework.

There is some balance between national direction and local adaptation

The teacher performance evaluation system in municipal schools is mostly centrally operated. Processes are standardised at the national level, including the reference standards, instruments to be used, marking criteria and follow-up processes. This strengthens the consistency of teacher evaluation procedures across municipal schools contributing to a more uniform implementation of the national education agenda. However, the system allows for some degree of adaptation to local needs and specificities. This is mostly accomplished by the co-ordination of teacher evaluation at the local level by the Municipal Evaluation Commission, which is empowered to ratify or modify the specific rating of individual teachers assigned centrally. This allows taking into account the context faced by individual teachers and reserves some judgement to agents who are more familiar with local realities. Similarly, the third-party reference report by the school director and the head of the technical-pedagogical unit provides a further opportunity for the local perspective to be considered.

There is support and guidance at the national level

The Ministry of Education invests important resources in communication and information about the different teacher evaluation programmes it operates. This is done through websites (such as *www.docentemas.cl*, *www.aep.mineduc.cl* or *www.avdi.mineduc.cl*), training courses, materials and catalogues distributed to teachers and schools, and other types of documentation. Teachers benefit from extensive documentation about each teacher evaluation programme, including extensive instructions on the processes involved, explanation of the reference standards, guidelines

to use evaluation instruments and reports with their results. Similarly, schools and municipalities receive reports with results concerning their teachers.

The Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence is a recognised programme to identify teachers of excellence

The Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence (AEP) seems to be a recognised way to identify teachers of excellence – it has credibility in the eyes of teachers. Teachers like that they may choose to participate or not, and the approximately 20% who succeed are publicly acknowledged. The accreditation signals that the teacher has standing as a professional and can serve as a mentor for other teachers.

Challenges

The developmental function of teacher evaluation has been subsumed into the accountability aim as the system was implemented

At present, the accountability function of teacher evaluation is dominant and constrains the extent to which evaluation processes help teachers strengthen their practice. The original stated objective for the *Docentemás* system is to improve teachers' practice and promote their continuing professional development in view of improving student learning. However, attributing high stakes to the results of *Docentemás* has led the developmental function of teacher evaluation to become subsumed into the accountability aim of the system. Indeed, the *Docentemás* evaluation has clear stakes for teachers: it identifies underperformers, possibly leading to dismissal from their teaching post (as a result of a second consecutive *Unsatisfactory* rating or following a decision by the school director, who can dismiss up to 5% of the teaching staff among teachers who were rated *Unsatisfactory*) along with specifically designed professional development plans; and rewards top performers by giving them access to the Variable Individual Performance Allowance programme (AVDI) and priority to enter certain professional development programmes such as internships abroad or academic seminars. In addition, other programmes such as the AVDI, the programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence Allowance (AEP), and the National System for Performance Evaluation (SNED) involve rewards to teachers. During its visit the OECD Review Team encountered considerable anxiety on the part of municipal teachers with respect to undertaking their performance evaluation, particularly among those who had not yet participated in it.

Combining both the developmental and accountability functions into a single teacher evaluation process such as *Docentemás* raises difficult challenges. When the evaluation is oriented towards the improvement of practice within schools (e.g. with the use of results limited to the preparation of a professional development plan), teachers are typically open to reveal their weaknesses, in the expectation that conveying that information will lead to more effective decisions on developmental needs and training. However, when teachers are confronted with potential consequences of evaluation on their career and salary, the inclination to reveal weak aspects of performance is reduced, i.e. the developmental function is jeopardised. Using the same evaluation process for both purposes undermines the usefulness of some instruments (e.g. self-evaluation), and creates an additional burden on evaluators as their decisions have somewhat conflicting consequences (tension between improving performance by identifying weaknesses and affecting the teacher's career and pay). This tension is evident in the use of self-evaluation in the *Docentemás* system. Given the high stakes for them, teachers invariably rate themselves highly in their

self-evaluation, which raises concerns about the validity and usefulness of such instrument (see Chapter 4). In practice, countries rarely use a pure form of teacher evaluation model but rather a unique combination that integrates multiple purposes and methodologies (Stronge and Tucker, 2003).

While the intended original objective was to conceive teacher evaluation as a formative process, teacher evaluation, as implemented, is presently perceived mostly as an instrument to hold municipal teachers accountable. Most teachers do not believe that the activities of the teacher performance evaluation system contribute to their learning. The overall impression formed by the OECD Review Team, from speaking with teachers, was that the evaluation was either of limited relevance to them, or it was an exercise of which they were fearful – neither of these conditions contributes to professional learning. Among education stakeholders, as communicated in meetings with the OECD Review Team, improving teaching quality was often limited to "getting rid of underperforming teachers" and less associated with developing the skills of those in the teaching profession. This results from the emphasis on possible sanctions for underperformance (reinforced recently through the strengthened discretion for school directors to dismiss the teachers underperforming in their schools) and on rewards for teachers.

The feedback for improvement teachers receive from the *Docentemás* evaluation is limited (and non-existent in AVDI, AEP and SNED), there is little professional dialogue around teaching practices that occurs as a result of teacher evaluation (see below), teacher evaluation results are not systematically used to inform a professional development plan for all teachers and the concept of feedback is not yet fully ingrained among school agents. The idea that the ultimate objective of teacher evaluation is to improve students' learning through strengthened teaching practices is not yet fully matured among Chilean education agents. Overall, the potential of professional development of teachers is underestimated. This translates into more limited local engagement in self-evaluation activities, incipient practices of evidence-informed inquiry, and teacher evaluation results not used to their potential. The emphasis on accountability risks leading to a compliance culture where teacher evaluation becomes an administrative burden with reduced potential to improve teaching practices.

Teacher evaluation involves little professional dialogue around teaching practices

Formal systems of teacher evaluation in Chile involve little or no professional dialogue around teaching practices and, as such, have more limited value for informing improvement. In *Docentemás*, the peer interview does not involve an interaction between the evaluator and the teacher being evaluated but rather the rating of recorded answers following a set of pre-established questions; the third-party reference report by school leaders entails a rating on a pre-defined set of teaching competencies with no prior dialogue with the evaluated teacher; and the teacher performance portfolio provides no room for the interaction of the teacher with another teaching professional (as the class is recorded and the preparation of the learning unit plan is not discussed). In addition, there is little evidence that the limited feedback the teacher receives in writing is discussed at the school level with peers and school leadership in order to identify professional development strategies leading to the improvement of practices. Also, the AVDI, the AEP and the SNED do not involve any professional dialogue around teaching practices as part of the respective evaluation processes. Besides, the standardised teacher tests associated with the AVDI and the AEP are limited in terms of the feedback they can provide on disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical practices given their reliance on multiple-choice questions.

Formative teacher evaluation is a process by which evaluators give constructive feedback to the teacher, pointing out at what level the teacher is performing on each of the relevant criteria, and suggesting ways to enhance practices. Conversations with evaluators or colleagues engage teachers in self-reflection about their work and challenge their own practices. As put by Danielson and McGreal (2000) "As teachers consider the wording of different components of teaching and their elements and compare their impressions and practices with one another, they trade techniques and learn new strategies from their colleagues. These conversations are rich – focused on the quality of teaching and contributing much to the professional learning of those participating". Teacher evaluation frameworks in other countries involve approaches which facilitate the professional dialogue around teaching practices. These include observations of classroom practice followed by immediate discussion between the teacher and the evaluator of what was observed in class; an interview between the evaluator and the teacher about teaching practices (possibly to set objectives for the teacher or as a discussion of the self-evaluation report); and feedback by the school director or peers on the content of the teacher portfolio (see OECD, 2013a).

Overall, there is little or no opportunity for discussion within the teacher evaluation system, meaning there is limited opportunity for professional learning. Hence, the developmental function of teacher evaluation whereby the results of evaluations are used to systematically inform the professional development of teachers and foster the professional dialogue among school actors around teaching practices is yet to receive proper attention.

Teachers have few opportunities for feedback

Chilean teachers have relatively few opportunities for professional feedback. In the municipal school system, the feedback given by the teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*) to the individual teacher seems not to be specific enough to be of value in informing their practice (see Chapter 6). Teachers receive an Individual Evaluation Report of about ten pages. This report provides the overall rating for the teacher as well as ratings across evaluation instruments. The more descriptive feedback concerns the portfolio results with an account of strengths and weaknesses across its eight dimensions. In general, during the interviews with the OECD Review Team, most teachers expressed scepticism about the value of the feedback received to guide the improvement of their practices. In addition, as indicated earlier, there is little evidence that this feedback is used at the school level to inform professional development plans (except for those teachers whose underperformance was identified); and, as discussed above, the evaluation process itself involves little professional dialogue. In private schools, little systematic information exists about formal evaluation procedures but, given that they occur at the school level, they are more likely to involve professional feedback and learning.

The other main opportunity to receive feedback on their practices consists of the informal non-systematic school-level evaluation undertaken by the school leadership. Given that they are the responsibility of each individual school, school-level informal feedback practices vary across the system. The quality and extent of informal feedback in individual schools depend on the capacity and leadership style of the school directors. However, school directors are typically overwhelmed with tasks at the school and, in general they do not seem to have the time to engage properly in the coaching, monitoring, and evaluation of teachers. For example, classroom observations by school directors seem to be relatively occasional. Overall, there is no mechanism to ensure that each individual teacher receives proper professional feedback.

The private school sector is not sufficiently integrated in the teacher evaluation framework

The Chilean education system places strong emphasis on parental freedom of school choice through its voucher programme involving the public subsidy of private school attendance at those private schools which are part of the programme. Participation in the voucher programme involves a number of pre-requisites including the adherence to the curricular frameworks defined by the Ministry of Education, the observance of national learning standards, the enrolment of a minimum proportion of students coming from a disadvantaged background and the inability to select children by academic ability, socio-economic background, ethnicity and religious affiliation up to Year 6. By contrast, the integration of the publicly subsidised private sector within the overall teacher evaluation framework is considerably limited.

Teacher performance evaluation (*Docentemás*) is not required for teachers in private schools, including those which are publicly subsidised. The typical approach for teacher evaluation in the private school sector consists of giving independence to school providers to run their own procedures, which are not validated externally by public education authorities. This means that there is no public assurance that the majority of teachers in Chile (who work in the private school sector) have their work evaluated once they enter the profession. However, teachers in private subsidised schools have access, on a voluntary basis, to the AEP and SNED programmes.

The OECD Review Team formed the impression that there is room to improve the degree of integration of the private school sector in the overall teacher evaluation framework while respecting the freedom of organisation of private schools. The risk of a limited integration is that there is little guarantee that teacher evaluation procedures in the private sector rely on the agreed national understanding of good quality teaching (the Good Teaching Framework) and are sufficiently aligned with student learning objectives and educational targets at the national level. Given that private subsidised schools receive public funds for their operation, the rationale to integrate them to some degree into a national teacher evaluation framework is compelling.

The changes being introduced to teacher evaluation as the teacher career is reformed do not provide for the integration of private schools in the teacher evaluation framework, which seems a missed opportunity. The only progress made regarding this integration refers to the conditions for teachers to enter the subsidised school sector, with identical requirements in municipal and private subsidised schools: take the university selection test; obtain a degree from an accredited teacher education programme; and pass the initial pedagogical excellence examination.

There are gaps in the teacher evaluation framework

Despite the comprehensiveness of the teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*) and the complementary reward programmes AVDI, AEP and SNED, the teacher evaluation framework in Chile has a number of gaps. A major one, as indicated above, is that it is not publicly guaranteed that all teachers in the school system undergo a formal process of performance evaluation since teachers in the private school sector (over 50% of Chilean teachers) are not required to undergo a *Docentemás* evaluation and teacher evaluation procedures in private schools are not validated by public education authorities. Also, there is no formal teacher evaluation which focuses on teacher development and feedback for the improvement of practices (with no high stakes for teachers). Informal feedback for improvement might be undertaken at the school level

(through school directors and heads of technical-pedagogical units) but there is no external formal validation of such practices. Also, regarding the implementation of *Docentemás*, there seems to be insufficient coverage of teachers in technical/vocational secondary education as a small proportion of these teachers seem to have been evaluated by *Docentemás* thus far.

It should also be noted that, at least in municipal schools, there is no probationary period for teachers who enter the profession. Hence, the school system does not have mechanisms to identify those new recruits who struggle to perform well on the job or find that it does not meet their expectations. This goes alongside the absence of induction processes for new teachers to support them as they enter the profession. In broader terms, there is the lack of a regular certification/licensing system to confirm teachers as fit for the profession – i.e. processes to ensure minimum requirements are met by practising teachers. This is now being addressed by the draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers, through the introduction of teacher evaluation for certification, giving access to the different levels in the new teacher career structure, and an examination to access the profession upon graduation from initial teacher education (the initial pedagogical excellence examination).

There is some duplication in the teacher evaluation framework

There is some duplication of efforts across components of the teacher evaluation framework. First, both the AEP and the AVDI provide monetary rewards to individual teachers and, to a great extent, use similar instruments (a portfolio – specific to AEP and from *Docentemás* for AVDI – and a written test). Hence, teachers are being rewarded for results of tests measuring similar aspects (disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge) and the assessment of portfolios with a similar content, through two different channels. Both programmes assess excellence in teaching even if the AEP seems to be considerably more selective. *Vis-à vis* the *Docentemás* evaluation, it is not clear the rationale for the additional test associated with the AVDI. It appears there is a great deal of work involved for teachers which is not sufficiently offset by the rewards. As a result, about a third of teachers in a position to apply to the AVDI do not do so (see Chapter 2). Hence, the need to have both the AEP and the AVDI as reward programmes for excellent teachers seems unclear.

Second, there seems to be considerable overlap between the portfolio associated with the *Docentemás* system and the portfolio associated with the AEP process. This indicates some room to combine part of both portfolios or conceive the AEP portfolio as a complement to the *Docentemás* portfolio.

Risk that the Quality of Education Agency reinforces the emphasis on accountability

The creation of the Quality of Education Agency is an excellent development to complete and integrate the overall evaluation and assessment framework. In particular, it promises to fill in a gap with the organisation of the external evaluation of individual schools. It will also give teacher evaluation a broader evaluative framework. However, the OECD Review Team perceived that the conception of the Agency's activities as it starts its operations emphasises the accountability function of evaluation. This is reflected in its intentions to develop indicators of school performance (with particular emphasis on SIMCE results, which becomes a responsibility of the Agency), to position schools in four performance categories, to make information about school performance public, and

to focus intervention in schools with low performance. Procedures for a comprehensive review of school processes by teams of trained reviewers with the objective of generating a school improvement plan seem to be receiving considerably less attention in the planning of the Agency's activities.

It would be unfortunate if the improvement function of the Agency's evaluative activities is neglected as the perception of evaluation as an instrument for compliance and control among Chilean education agents would then be reinforced. It is important to complement quantitative information about individual schools with qualitative analysis published in school evaluation reports produced by teams reviewing school processes within their specific contexts. In addition, it is important that the Quality of Education Agency invests substantial resources in supporting schools in their improvement actions, as there seems to be a deficit of structures for the evaluation activities which are closer to the place of learning, in view of supporting schools' work. In a few words, the Agency needs to adequately balance the developmental and accountability functions of evaluation.

Linkages between school-based (informal) teacher evaluation and centrally managed teacher evaluation are not established and there is no articulation between teacher evaluation and school evaluation

While some school-based informal teacher evaluation occurs in schools, these processes bear no relation to in-service formal teacher evaluation organised centrally (*Docentemás*). For instance, for municipal schools, the teacher performance evaluation system could take into account qualitative assessments undertaken informally at the school, even if this might be the case through the assessment by school leaders in the third-party reference report. Also, there is no guarantee that the results of the *Docentemás* evaluation inform school-based teacher evaluation procedures. It would also be ideal to ensure that school-based teacher evaluation relies on the Good Teaching Framework so there is some alignment with *Docentemás* of what is conveyed as important attributes and practices for teachers.

Also, the fact that there are no well established school evaluation processes precludes any articulation between school evaluation and teacher evaluation. The only existing relationship is between SIMCE results at the school level and rewards for groups of teachers as part of SNED. This does not allow developing external school evaluation processes to validate internal teacher evaluation practices, stressing the centrality of the evaluation of teaching quality across whole individual schools through school evaluation, and using teacher evaluation results to inform school self-evaluation and school development. The creation of the Quality of Education Agency creates an opportunity to establish these links.

There are limited connections to actual classroom practices

In-service teacher evaluation in Chile relies on instruments – mostly portfolios, peer assessments and teacher standardised tests – which, while mostly focusing on learning and teaching, lack interaction with the real school-classroom world. As teaching practices and evidence of learning are probably the most relevant sources of information about professional performance, giving a role to classroom observation through the inclusion of the video recording of a lesson in the *Docentemás* portfolio seems adequate. However, there are concerns that such lesson does not reflect authentic teaching. Teachers the OECD Review Team talked to feel that the recorded lesson is not a true reflection of their teaching and does not reflect everyday school life. Also, the self-evaluation element is

distorted by the high stakes of the teacher performance evaluation system and does not lead teachers to genuinely reflect on their own practices.

In addition, instruments such as the peer interview and the third-party reference report are limited in the extent to which they are embedded in everyday school life. Nonetheless the third-party reference report is undertaken by evaluators who are in a better position to understand the teacher's specific circumstances – the school director and the head of the technical-pedagogical unit. Finally, the teacher standardised tests undertaken in the context of the AVDI and AEP programmes do not account for the particular context faced by teachers and ignore the specific objectives of the schools in which the teachers work. In a few words, the instruments currently used are not well integrated with regular classroom practice.

Teacher evaluation is not embedded in a clearly defined teacher career

Presently, in Chile, there is no career path for teachers in the municipal sector. There is a unique career stage with a single salary scale. Pay differentiation is achieved through a range of salary allowances. Roles involving promotion are limited to head of technical-pedagogical units, senior management posts and school director, all of which involve an extra salary allowance. Hence, within a teaching role there are few opportunities for promotion, greater recognition and more responsibility. There are no career steps in teacher development (e.g. beginning; classroom teacher; experienced teacher), which would permit a better match between teacher competence and skills and the tasks to be performed at schools. This is likely to undermine the potentially powerful links between teacher evaluation, professional development and career development.

Also, the system of salary allowances for teachers has become incomprehensible given the multitude of allowances (over 15) as well as the complexity of the eligibility requirements to obtain them. For instance, it is not clear why there are separate allowances for "difficult conditions of work", for "working in rural areas" and for teaching in localities "where subsidies for education were increased as a result of the characteristics of those localities" ("zone supplement") (see Table 2.3). A multi-level career structure would permit the simplification of the teacher allowance system.

It should be noted that the concerns expressed above are currently being addressed by the 2012 draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers. This draft law proposes a career structure with four levels and a formal evaluation process to access each of the levels in addition to a school-based teacher evaluation process to receive the teaching performance allowance. At the same time, it also proposes simplifying the system of teacher salary allowances.

There is a limited role in teacher evaluation for local agents

Current formal teacher evaluation processes require little engagement from local agents. In particular, school leaders play a relatively small role as they only contribute to the third-party reference report in the *Docentemás* system. The OECD Review Team also formed the impression that school leaders make little use of the results of *Docentemás* to coach their teachers and inform their school development plans. The introduction of *Docentemás* was not used as an opportunity to further engage school leaders in leading instruction in their schools (see also Chapter 5). Overall, the teacher performance evaluation system does not generate professional discussions within individual schools and does not lead to mutual support between teachers. Also, while municipal evaluation commissions manage *Docentemás* locally, making the final decision regarding the overall rating for each

teacher, they have little capacity to follow up on teacher evaluation results and integrate these in municipal education plans. The exception to the latter is the preparation of professional development plans for those teachers who are rated *Basic* or *Unsatisfactory*.

Resources for teachers to undertake their evaluation might be limited

In the course of the visit, it became apparent to the OECD Review Team that teachers struggle to find the time to adequately prepare and respond to all the requirements for their performance evaluation (*Docentemás*), which is perceived as unfair and a major source of stress. In Chile, a full-time teacher typically works 44 hours a week, 25% of which are to be devoted to non-classroom activities, including preparation for classes. A 2009 survey of teachers organised by the *Centro de Microdatos* of the University of Chile revealed that teachers spent an average of 5.2 hours a week preparing their lessons, with 50% of them stating that they had little or no time for the preparation (Ministry of Education, forthcoming). In Chile, statutory working time in a year is 1 998 hours at both primary and secondary levels, above the OECD average of 1 670 hours (OECD, 2013b). In terms of net statutory teaching time in municipal schools, Chile stands out in the OECD area as the top country with 1 120 hours per year in 2011 (in both primary and secondary education). The OECD averages are 790 hours at the primary level and 709 hours at the lower secondary level (OECD, 2013b). In their interviews with the OECD Review Team, teachers conveyed that inevitably, to do it properly, the preparation of the *Docentemás* evaluation needs to be done, at least in part, outside official working hours. One of the main claims of the teacher union (*Colegio de Profesores*) is that the teacher performance evaluation system increases teachers' workload considerably, being part of their argument to demand the reduction of the number of in-classroom teaching hours. This demand is being taken into consideration in the draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers which includes a reduction in two hours of the required weekly teaching hours (from 33 to 31).

Furthermore, in the last few years, Chile implemented a range of educational reforms that require additional time from teachers. These include the implementation of the full school day (*Jornada Escolar Completa*), the enlargement of secondary education, and a curriculum reform. The additional demands on teachers come in a particular context where the status of the teaching profession in Chile has deteriorated (Bellei and Valenzuela, 2010) and there are increasingly signs of negative public perceptions of the education system (Martinic and Elacqua, 2010).

Policy recommendations

Chile's system of teacher evaluation has many important strengths, which means that efforts to consolidate it can build on them. An important research paper by the Ministry of Education and UNDP (Alvarado et al., 2012) about the validity of the teacher performance evaluation system indicates that the teacher evaluation results are positively and significantly correlated with SIMCE test scores for students of the evaluated teachers. Similarly, a study by Bravo et al. (2008) suggests a positive association between SIMCE scores and teacher evaluation results, further indicating that the estimated SIMCE score difference between students taught by teachers rated as *Outstanding* and students taught by teachers rated as *Unsatisfactory* is comparable to a performance difference typically observed between students with parents with higher education and students with parents with secondary education only (Bravo et al., 2008). Overall, studies undertaken tend to support the validity of the teacher performance evaluation system, even if more solid

evidence supports the validity of the system mostly in differentiating between teachers at the two rating extremities (i.e. between *Outstanding* and *Unsatisfactory* teachers) (Taut et al., 2011).

Therefore, because of the considerable experience accumulated thus far, the work of improving the teacher evaluation system will not require returning to first principles. However some modifications to the overall approach and its implementation, as suggested below, might be worth considering.

Reinforce teacher evaluation: draw on what has been achieved and develop a medium term vision

Authentic teacher evaluation, by which we mean that which comes to an accurate assessment of the effectiveness of teaching, its strengths and areas for development, followed by feedback, coaching, support and opportunities for professional development, is central to establishing a high performing education system. It is also essential to celebrate, recognise and reward the work of teachers. Promoting teacher evaluation is clearly in the national interest as well as serving students and their families and communities. Chile has made remarkable progress in implementing teacher evaluation and developing an evaluation culture among the teaching workforce. Placing teacher evaluation at the core of school reforms achieved a large consensus among the teaching profession that meaningful teacher evaluation is indispensable. An impressive capacity was accumulated in developing instruments, preparing guidance materials, marking instruments, designing information systems, and reporting results. Although the development of teacher evaluation requires adjustments, it is important not to lose the ground that has been gained.

As analysed previously, in Chile teacher evaluation has thus far emphasised the identification of underperformance and the provision of rewards as its main functions, does not yet cover all the teaching force, and gives prominence to the accountability function. The developmental (or improvement) function of teacher evaluation whereby the results of evaluations are used to inform the professional development of teachers and foster the professional dialogue among school actors around teaching practices is yet to receive proper attention. The biggest need is to embed teacher evaluation as an on-going and indispensable part of the professionalism of teachers. In the medium term, the approach to teacher evaluation which holds greatest promise of sustained high impact on student learning is one where teachers engage in authentic reflective practice, study their own practices, and share their experience with their peers as a routine part of professional life.

Recognising the achievements to date, this Section proposes a medium term vision for teacher evaluation in Chile. The approaches developed thus far provide a good basis for further development and the expertise gained is not to be lost. However, in our view, some adjustments are needed to bring meaningful teacher evaluation to fruition, with considerably more focus on its developmental function. The following approach is proposed:

- Keep the Good Teaching Framework as the main guiding pillar for teacher evaluation and development.
- Strengthen teacher evaluation for improvement with the introduction of a component predominantly dedicated to developmental evaluation, fully internal to the school (but within a framework defined at the municipal level), for which the

school director would be held accountable, to be used for internal performance management, and to provide an assessment (only) of a qualitative nature to inform professional development plans.

- Create a teacher career structure with different career paths associated with different roles and responsibilities.
- Establish teacher evaluation for career progression as a model of certification of competencies for practice within and across career paths, to be associated with career advancement and to include a probationary period.
- Introduce an examination to regulate entry into the teaching profession, in light of the concerns of the quality of initial teacher education.
- Maintain the programme to reward groups of teachers for their contribution to student learning progression.
- Ensure links between developmental evaluation and career-progression evaluation.
- Ensure appropriate articulation between school evaluation and teacher evaluation.

Table 3.1 summarises the proposed approach. The detailed suggestions and the associated arguments are provided below.

Consolidate the Good Teaching Framework as the main pillar for teacher evaluation and development

Chile has developed a solid reference for teacher evaluation: the Good Teaching Framework. It provides a common basis to guide key elements of the teaching profession such as initial teacher education, teacher professional development and, of course, teacher evaluation. This includes the alignment of its different components (*Docentemás*, AEP, AVDI) and its potential to bring some consistency to school-based teacher evaluation across schools. Clear, well-structured and widely supported professional standards for teachers can be a powerful mechanism for aligning the various elements involved in developing teachers' competencies (OECD, 2005).

The Good Teaching Framework should be consolidated as the main pillar to guide teacher evaluation and development. Efforts should go into its further improvement through clear feedback mechanisms involving teachers, education experts, municipal education authorities and units in charge of teacher evaluation. Teaching standards need to be continuously informed by research and express the sophistication and complexity of what effective teachers are expected to know and be able to do (see also Chapter 4). Periodical revisions to the standards should be undertaken to ensure they remain relevant and aligned with other elements of the system. Also, as suggested in Chapter 4, further work needs to be undertaken to ensure the Good Teaching Framework contains the relevant criteria and indicators and that these are adequately aligned with the evaluation instruments. Furthermore, it is fundamental to embed the teaching standards in teachers' everyday work in the classroom. Extensive socialisation of standards at several stages of teachers' careers such as initial teacher education and the early years in the profession is needed and should preferably involve training for in-service teachers on the use of standards and their implications for classroom practice (see also Chapter 4). The standards could also express different levels of performance and responsibilities expected at different stages of the teaching career (see below).

Table 3.1 A framework for teacher evaluation in Chile

Evaluation		Purpose	Evaluee	Nature of evaluation	References and criteria	Instruments	Evaluators	Frequency	Consequences
Entry examination (Entrance into the profession)		Examination to identify candidates fit to enter the teaching profession	Individuals with teacher qualifications who wish to enter teaching	Examination defining the necessary minimum level of disciplinary and pedagogical knowledge to enter teaching	Graduating Teacher Standards	Standardised examination	Centrally managed by the Ministry of Education	Once, upon entrance into the teaching profession	Scoring above a certain threshold makes candidates eligible to enter the teaching profession
Probation (certifying fitness for profession)		Certification to confirm access to a permanent post	Beginning teachers at the end of a 1- or 2-year probation period, following an induction process	Mostly external, with an internal input and covering teaching performance	Good Teaching Framework, with account of school context (including school plan)	Self-evaluation, portfolio, classroom observation, interviews and reports by school director and teacher's mentor	Accredited commission formed by the Quality of Education Agency, involving the municipality and input by school director and the teacher's mentor	Once, upon completion of the probationary period	(1) Decision on whether or not the teacher obtains confirmation of the permanent post; (2) If teachers do not pass the probationary period they might benefit from another attempt with a year of additional induction into the profession; (3) If teacher fails the probation a second time, then the permanent post is not confirmed.
Career progression evaluation (certifying practice and access to new roles)	**Within same career path**	Career progression within the same career path – with input into development plan	All individual permanent teachers	Mostly external, with an internal input and covering teaching performance	Good Teaching Framework, with account of school context (including school development plan)	Self-evaluation, portfolio, classroom observation, interview with and report by school director	Accredited commission formed by the Quality of Education Agency, involving the municipality and input by the school director	Regular 4-year cycle	(1) Speed at which teacher progresses in the career within the same career path [e.g. if *outstanding*, progresses two steps; if *competent*, progresses one step (the regular step); if *unsatisfactory*, does not progress]; (2) if poor evaluation, professional development plan and new evaluation the following year; (3) if two consecutive poor evaluations, removed from post; and (4) Input into the professional development plan.
	Access to another career path	Career progression to access a new career path – with input into development plan	Voluntary – permanent teachers for access to a new career path	Same as above	Same as above	Same as above	Same as above	Voluntary process once teacher is eligible to access new career path	(1) Decision on whether or not the teacher accesses new career path; (2) If teacher does not access the new career path, he/she benefits from feedback about what competencies need improvement so access to the new career path can be granted.
Developmental evaluation (guiding improvement of practice)		Continuous improvement of teaching practices	All individual teachers	Internal within a framework at the municipal level, covering teaching performance	Good Teaching Framework, school dev. plan, school objectives	Self-evaluation including portfolio; classroom observation; interviews with analysis of student results	Line managers; senior peers; school leadership, within a framework determined at the municipal level	Once a year or less frequently for some teachers	(1) Feedback on teaching performance and the overall contribution to school development and establishment of a prof. development plan; (2) potential identification of underperformance; (3) qualitative assessment to inform career-progression evaluation.
Incentives programme (rewards for collectives of teachers)		Reward to collectives of teachers for student results	Voluntary participation of collectives of teachers	Based on school-level indicators	Student learning objectives	Student standardised assessment value-added results (SIMCE) and other indicators	Centrally managed by Ministry of Education	Once a year / once every two years	Monetary rewards (or other resources) to schools with the highest contribution to student learning progression.

Articulation between school evaluation and teacher evaluation

School evaluation (both self- and external evaluation) to include an assessment of school internal mechanisms to assess the quality of teachers and teaching. In particular the external evaluation of a school should include an assessment of the school's teacher developmental evaluation procedures in a formal validation process, provide recommendations for improvement and hold the school director accountable if such procedures are deemed inadequate. School evaluation should also include an assessment of the quality of the teaching and learning at the school. Another articulation consists of ensuring teacher evaluation results feed into school self-evaluation. Also, school self-evaluation needs to put emphasis on assessing the appropriateness of mechanisms both for internal teacher developmental evaluation and for following up on the results of evaluation for career progression.

Embed evaluation for teacher development and improvement in regular school practice

There needs to be a stronger emphasis on teacher evaluation for improvement purposes (i.e. developmental evaluation). Given that there are risks that the developmental function is hampered by high-stakes teacher evaluation (to take the form of a certification process as suggested below), it is proposed that a component predominantly dedicated to developmental evaluation, fully internal to the school, be created. As explained in OECD (2005) "Ongoing, informal evaluation directed at teacher improvement must be distinguished from the evaluation needed at key stages in the teaching career, such as when moving from probationary status to established teacher, or when applying for promotion. Such evaluations, which are more summative in nature, need to have a stronger external component and more formal processes, as well as avenues for appeal for teachers who feel they have not been treated fairly."

This developmental evaluation would have as its main purpose the continuous improvement of teaching practices in the school. It would be an internal process carried out by line managers, senior peers, and the school leadership. The reference standards would be the Good Teaching Framework but with evaluation rubrics developed at the school level to better account for the school objectives and context. The main outcome would be feedback on teaching performance and the whole contribution of the teacher to school development which would lead to a plan for professional development. It can be low-key and low-cost, and include self-evaluation (possibly through the preparation of a portfolio), classroom observation, and structured conversations and regular feedback by the leadership and experienced peers. It should include a qualitative analysis of student results. It could be organised once a year for each teacher, or less frequently depending on the previous assessment of the teacher. The key aspect is that it should result in a meaningful report with recommendations for professional development and not involve a quantitative rating.

There are advantages to having the school leaders and/or other teachers as the assessors in developmental evaluation given their familiarity with the context in which the teachers work, their awareness of the school needs and their ability to provide quick and informed feedback to the teacher. However, it might prove difficult for directors to undertake the thorough evaluation of each teacher in the school. In addition, most directors (or other members of school leadership) have typically no prior training in evaluation methods and might not have the content expertise relevant to the teaching areas of the teacher being evaluated. Hence, it might prove valuable to build capacity in evaluation methods at the school level by preparing members of the leadership group or accomplished/expert teachers to undertake specific evaluation functions within the school. School-based teacher developmental evaluation could be conceived as part of a framework defined at the municipal level. Municipal education authorities could develop such framework in consultation with school directors and experienced teachers. The framework could define general principles for the operation of procedures while allowing flexibility of approach at the school level within the agreed parameters to better meet local needs. This is in the spirit of giving municipal education authorities a greater role in teacher evaluation, as in the draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers. Also, building on the extensive experience with teacher evaluation instruments designed at the national level, the Ministry of Education could create a bank of instruments for schools to use in their internal processes.

In order to guarantee the systematic and coherent application of developmental evaluation across Chilean schools, it would be important to undertake the external validation of the respective school processes for developmental teacher evaluation. An option is that the Quality of Education Agency, in its monitoring of the quality of teaching and learning in individual schools, includes the audit of the processes in place to organise developmental teacher evaluation, holding the school director accountable as necessary. The Quality of Education Agency and municipal education authorities would play an important role of support ensuring that schools develop ambitious developmental teacher evaluation processes to be properly documented in school activity reports.

Create a teacher career structure with distinct pathways and salary steps

We have noted that the absence of career opportunities for effective teachers in schools undermines the role of teacher evaluation. In Chile, there are few opportunities for promotion or to diversify roles for teachers who would like to remain in the classroom. As a result schools and teachers could benefit from a career structure for teachers that comprised (say) three career pathways: competent teacher; established teacher, and accomplished/expert teacher. The different career pathways should be associated with distinct roles and responsibilities in schools in relation to given levels of teaching expertise. For instance, an established teacher could assume responsibility for the mentoring of beginning teachers and an expert teacher could take responsibility for the co-ordination of professional development in the school. Access to each of the career pathways should be voluntary and be associated with formal processes of evaluation through a system of teacher certification, as proposed below. Also, each of the career pathways should be organised according to steps indicating a clear salary progression. A teacher who would like to remain in the classroom and not assume new responsibilities should be given the opportunity to progress within the "competent teacher" or the "established teacher" career paths. Such progression within career paths should also be regulated through a process of teacher certification. This recommendation supports the current government plans to introduce a new career structure for teachers in the municipal school sector. The 2012 draft law proposes a new multilevel career structure (with four career levels: initial, prepared, advanced, expert), with a salary scale for each career level, in association with a teacher certification process and considering distinct roles and responsibilities.

An important objective should be to align expectations of skills and competencies at different stages of the career (as reflected in teaching standards) and the responsibilities of teachers in schools (as reflected in career structures). This would strengthen the incentive for teachers to improve their competencies, and reinforce the matching between teachers' levels of competence and the roles which need to be performed in schools to improve student learning. Such alignment can be achieved by ensuring the Good Teaching Framework allows the recognition of the different levels of teaching expertise needed in schools; and ensuring levels of teaching expertise match the key stages of the career structure. The career structure for teachers should then match the different levels of expertise which can be recognised through an assessment against the Good Teaching Framework. Such alignment would reflect the principle of rewarding teachers for accomplishing higher levels of expertise through career advancement and would strengthen the linkages between roles and responsibilities in schools (as reflected in career structures) and the levels of expertise needed to perform them (as reflected by an assessment against the teaching standards).

Set up a system of teacher certification to determine career progression, which includes entrance requirements and a probationary period

The summative (or accountability) function of teacher evaluation that is currently being achieved through the *Docentemás* system, the AVDI and the AEP could be brought together into a single process of teacher evaluation for career progression through a certification process associated with the teacher career structure suggested above – with progression within career paths and access to distinct career paths. This would formalise the principle of advancement on merit associated with career opportunities for effective teachers. The reward dimension would be captured through faster career advancement (leading to a higher salary) rather than a salary bonus (as is currently the case with the AVDI and the AEP). This recommendation is in line with the current plans by the government to introduce teacher evaluation for certification in association with a new career structure for teachers, as proposed in the 2012 draft law, even if a different approach to its operation is proposed below.

Each permanent teacher in the system would be required to periodically (say every four years) be the subject of a formal evaluation for certification (or re-certification). The purpose would be to certify teachers periodically as fit for the profession. The evaluation would also influence the speed at which the teacher progresses within a career pathway (e.g. if outstanding, the teacher would progress two salary steps at once; if competent, the teacher would progress one salary step (the "regular" step); and if unsatisfactory, the teacher would remain in the same salary step). In this way teacher evaluation would determine salary levels only indirectly through career advancement (instead of teacher salary bonuses). This is a desirable option as direct links between teacher performance and pay have produced mixed results, according to the research literature (Harvey-Beavis, 2003; OECD, 2005) (see also, Chapter 6). Such evaluation would also identify underperformance – i.e. if poor evaluation, a mandatory professional development plan would be established and a new evaluation would be required one year later; and two consecutive poor evaluations could lead the teacher to be removed from the post.

Once teachers meet certain requirements (related to experience and performance), they could also voluntarily request a formal evaluation to access a new career path (as "established" or "accomplished/expert" teacher). If the teacher does not succeed the access to the new career path, he or she should benefit from feedback about what competencies need improvement so access to the new career path becomes feasible. Both the evaluations for certification and to access a new career path, which are more summative in nature, need to have a strong component external to the school and more formal processes. These processes could be governed by an accredited commission organised by the Quality of Education Agency. Such commissions could be formed by distinguished teachers and recognised school leaders as well as representatives of municipal education authorities. The evaluators would need to receive proper training and be accredited by the Quality of Education Agency. The evaluation of a given teacher should also be informed by the input by the respective school director.

Teacher evaluation for certification (or career progression) would have as its main purposes holding teachers accountable for their practice, determining advancement in the career, and informing the professional development plan of the teacher. This approach would convey the message that reaching high standards of performance is the main road to career advancement in the profession.

The evaluation system associated with the certification process should be founded on the Good Teaching Framework. However, it is important that teacher evaluation for certification (or career progression) takes account of the school context, including through the views of both the school director and the representative of municipal education authorities. Schools have to respond to different needs depending on the local context and face different circumstances, especially in a system as diverse and decentralised as Chile. As suggested in detail in Chapter 4, evaluation for certification should rely on a variety of instruments to reflect teachers' authentic classroom practices. Particular emphasis should be placed on classroom observation together with portfolios, evidence of student learning, and interviews with and reports by the school leadership. It is also recommended that student results are taken into account in more qualitative ways as with the analyses of portfolios, self-evaluations and interviews with the teachers. Student assessment results (e.g. SIMCE) can be used more meaningfully at an aggregated school level, especially if "value-added" techniques are used. This suggests keeping the teacher collective incentive of the National System for Performance Evaluation (SNED), particularly if student progress and other performance indicators (e.g. equality of opportunities) are used to measure each school's merits.

As the opening step in the certification process, and as long as there are concerns about the quality of initial teacher education programmes, an entry examination to identify candidates fit to enter the teaching profession should be organised. The current initiative of introducing the initial pedagogical excellence examination is positive and can help ensure some quality control of initial teacher education programmes (in the absence of a robust quality accreditation system in higher education) (see also Chapter 4). As proposed in the draft law introducing a new career structure for teachers, a further requirement should be an initial teacher education degree from an accredited programme.

As a second major step in the certification process, a formal probationary process for new teachers should be introduced. It can provide an opportunity for both new teachers and their employers to assess whether teaching is the right career for them. The satisfactory completion of a probationary period of one to two years teaching should be mandatory before certification (at the first level of the certification system as "competent" teacher), leading to the confirmation of the permanent teaching post. Beginning teachers should be given every opportunity to work in a stable and well-supported school environment and the decision about certification should be taken by an accredited commission which is well trained and resourced for evaluating new teachers (as suggested above) with an input by the teacher's mentor at the school. Alongside the introduction of a probationary period, induction processes for beginning teachers should become systematic in Chilean schools.

Ensure links between developmental evaluation and career-progression evaluation

Developmental evaluation and evaluation for certification (or career progression) cannot be disconnected from each other. A possible link is that evaluation for certification needs to take into account the qualitative assessments produced through developmental evaluation, including the recommendations made for areas of improvement. This could possibly be done through the input by the school director. Developmental evaluation should also have a function of identifying sustained underperformance. Similarly, results of teacher certification evaluations can also inform the professional development of individual teachers.

Integrate, to some degree, the private school sector in the teacher evaluation framework

Given that the majority of teachers are employed in the private school sector, teacher policies, namely approaches to teacher evaluation, covering only the municipal school sector will inevitably have only partial effects on student learning in Chile. In spite of the existence of teacher evaluation practices in private schools, there is limited guarantee that those practices are aligned with the national student learning objectives. This is debatable in light of the fact that most of these teachers work in private schools which receive public funds, most of which at levels similar to those received by municipal schools. The receipt of public funds provides a strong case for private subsidised schools to be integrated, to some degree, in the teacher evaluation framework.

There are a range of possible approaches to integrate the private school sector in the overall teacher evaluation framework. One possibility is to require private schools to comply with the approaches followed within the teacher evaluation framework, with a much stronger case for those schools which receive public subsidies. This would mean requiring teachers in private schools to undertake the same evaluations as municipal teachers. Another possibility is for the private sector to be part of protocol agreements which specify general principles for the operation of teacher evaluation while allowing flexibility of approach within the agreed parameters – with a stronger case for requiring private subsidised schools to join these agreements. The Quality of Education Agency could then audit whether private schools are complying with the agreement. This should include the validation of internal processes for teacher evaluation in private schools, as suggested above. Also the option of joining the municipal teacher evaluation framework should remain available to private schools in any circumstance. The degree of integration of the private school sector within the teacher evaluation framework should relate to the extent to which it receives public subsidies; recognise the degree of market-based accountability private schools are exposed to; respect its freedom of organisation; and acknowledge the potential advantages of some diversity of approaches to teacher evaluation in the private sector. Regardless of the type of requirements for private schools to be integrated in the teacher evaluation framework, it is suggested that they are required to adopt the Good Teaching Framework in their everyday's school and teaching practices, including for their internal teacher evaluation processes.

At the system level, and in order to monitor their performance, private schools could also be compelled to adhere to public administrative data collections and be part of common performance reporting for schools in all sectors.

Give the Quality of Education Agency a prominent role in supporting teacher evaluation

The Quality of Education Agency is well placed to co-ordinate the overall evaluation and assessment framework and support evaluation and assessment procedures within the school system. As such, it is in a good position to situate teacher evaluation within the broader evaluation and assessment framework, shaping its specific role in the broader evaluative context and articulating it with other components of the evaluation and assessment framework (i.e. student assessment, school evaluation, school leader evaluation, education system evaluation) to build complementarities, avoid duplication of efforts and ensure consistency of objectives. Agencies in other countries with this role include the National Institute for Education Assessment and Evaluation in Mexico, the

National Institute for Educational Evaluation in Uruguay, the Quality and Supervision Agency in Denmark and the National Agency for Education in Sweden.

A priority for the Agency should be to emphasise the developmental function of evaluation and assessment and reflect on the best ways for evaluation and assessment activities to improve student learning. This would avoid the risk that evaluation and assessment are perceived mostly as instruments to hold school agents accountable, to "control" and assess compliance with regulations. This requires communicating the idea that the ultimate objective of evaluation and assessment is to improve students' learning and teachers' teaching. It also entails establishing strategies to strengthen the linkages to classroom practice, where the improvement of student learning takes place. Channels which are likely to reinforce such links include an emphasis on teacher evaluation for the continuous improvement of teaching practices; and involving teachers in school evaluation, in particular through conceiving school self-evaluation as a collective process with responsibilities for teachers.

The more specific role of the Agency in teacher evaluation could be considerable. First, the Agency is in a good position to undertake the external audit of school-based teacher evaluation procedures and, in particular, of the teacher developmental evaluation processes recommended above. This should include both the municipal and private school sectors. Second, another key role, as suggested above, should be the accreditation of external evaluators involved in teacher evaluation for certification. This would be done in collaboration with both the Ministry of Education (in particular, the CPEIP), municipal education authorities, and private providers (if these are required to adhere to the teacher evaluation for certification system). Third, the Agency should have an important role in supporting agents in the implementation of teacher evaluation procedures. This includes supporting municipal authorities in the development of their capacity for educational evaluation (e.g. for designing frameworks for teacher evaluation), giving feedback to schools on how they can improve their internal approaches to teacher evaluation (in the context of school evaluation), and developing functions such as school leadership and the monitoring of teaching and learning which directly influence teacher evaluation. Fourth, the Agency should have an eminent role in modelling, identifying and disseminating good practice in teacher evaluation and in using relevant research to improve evaluation practices. This requires the Agency to acquire a strong technical capacity.

Finally, another major function of the Quality of Education Agency is to articulate the different components of the evaluation and assessment framework. A particularly important link is the one between teacher evaluation and school evaluation, which needs to be strengthened in the Chilean school system. Analysis from TALIS (OECD, 2009) suggests that school evaluations can be an essential component of an evaluative framework which can foster and potentially shape teacher evaluation and feedback. Given that the systems of school evaluation and teacher evaluation and feedback have both the objective of maintaining standards and improving student performance, there are likely to be great benefits from the synergies between them. To achieve the greatest impact, the focus of school evaluation should either be linked to or have an effect on the focus of teacher evaluation (OECD, 2009). This indicates that the external evaluation of schools should comprise the monitoring of the quality of teaching and learning, including the observation of classes. Also, as indicated above, school evaluation should comprise the external validation of the processes in place to organise developmental teacher evaluation, holding the school director accountable as necessary. As part of school evaluation, attention should also be paid to the school's use of teacher evaluation results

for school development. In the context of school self-evaluation, it is also important to ensure the centrality of the appraisal of teaching quality and the evaluation of individual teachers. The quality of teaching and the learning results of students are predominantly regarded as a responsibility of groups of teachers or of the school as a whole. In this light, school self-evaluation needs also to put emphasis on assessing the appropriateness of mechanisms both for internal developmental evaluation and for following up on the results of evaluation for certification (or career progression).

Grant conditions for successful implementation

To a great extent, the challenges facing Chile in its system of teacher evaluation are related to implementation. Indeed, these challenges are not surprising given the large and diverse country with many areas difficult to reach, the extent of decentralisation of decision-making, the deficit in school agents' capacity for evaluation, the limited resources, and the still developing evaluation culture. Hence, addressing the challenges of implementation should receive careful attention, including with the following strategies:

- *Supporting teachers in understanding and appropriating the evaluation*. Teacher evaluation and the resulting feedback, reflection and professional development will only work if teachers make it work. To a great extent it is the motivated teacher who ensures the successful implementation of reforms in schools. Hence, it is imperative to find ways for teachers to identify with the goals and values of teacher evaluation arrangements and practices (OECD, 2006). Teachers must be supported in understanding what the evaluation expects from them to be recognised as good teachers and in preparing adequately for the evaluation process. This includes giving teachers advice to help them succeed (e.g. what to include in a portfolio, examples and ideas from past evaluations). This would ensure that teachers appropriate the process through support and coaching (see also Chapters 4 and 5).
- *Involving teachers at every stage of the process*. The implementation of teacher evaluation should involve feedback loops that allow adjustments to be made. Teachers should be provided with opportunities to express their perceptions and concerns on the evaluation process as it is implemented. Interviews and surveys are common methods which can be used to collect teacher feedback on the evaluation system. The items generally include the understanding of the process, the acceptance of the standards, the fairness of the process and of the results, the capability and objectivity of the evaluators, the quality of the feedback received, the perceived impact of the evaluation process on teaching and the overall impression of the system.
- *Releasing both evaluators and teachers from other tasks*. Comprehensive teacher evaluation systems require time and other resources. This may be costly but is indispensable for designing a consistent and fair system, supported and appropriated by the teachers. A consequence is that both teachers and evaluators should be partly released from other duties. Teachers should have time to reflect on their own practice, especially when the process requires the constitution of a portfolio. Another aim should be reducing the administrative workload for evaluators, especially school leaders, in order to provide them with more time for teacher evaluation, feedback and coaching.

One of the key features of strong educator evaluation systems is that there are mechanisms to evaluate the performance of the evaluation system itself – including all of the instruments used, the processes for using them, scoring rules, policies around who is evaluated and when, etc. For example, several states in the United States have developed formal mechanisms for evaluating their teacher evaluation system and using that information for continuous improvement, aiming for increasing validity of the system. Rhode Island has a sophisticated set of standards which are used to guide the evaluation of the educator evaluation system (see Box 3.1). The results of that evaluation are used to continually refine instruments and processes over time as new information is collected and analysed.

Box 3.1 The Teacher Evaluation System of Rhode Island, United States

Rhode Island's Teacher Evaluation System ensures that every teacher is evaluated regularly on both their teaching practice and their contributions to student learning growth. Besides teacher performance standards, Rhode Island has also created standards for evaluating the system itself ensuring that all aspects of the teacher evaluation system are performing as expected to yield fair and valid results. Standards used to guide the evaluation of the educator evaluation system are provided at *www.ride.ri.gov/Portals/0/Uploads/Documents/Teachers-and-Administrators-Excellent-Educators/Educator-Evaluation/Ed-Eval-Standards/EdEvalStandards.pdf*.

School districts may choose to adopt the state teacher evaluation system or may use their own, as long as it meets key requirements set by the state. The key features of Rhode Island's teacher evaluation system are:

- Rhode Island focuses on ensuring that everyone conducting classroom observations has been trained and calibrated. Using highly trained observers ensures comparable results across teachers and schools and gives teachers more confidence in the fairness and accuracy of the evaluation.
- Rhode Island recognised that not everything that is valued in student learning can be measured with a standardised test. Thus, teachers' contributions to student learning are measured with multiple sources of data on student learning, including portfolios and teacher-made assessments. Even teachers whose students take standardised tests must also examine student learning through other methods.
- Student learning objectives are used to measure teachers' contribution to student learning growth in all subjects. School directors approve teachers' objectives and their choice of assessments. Those teaching the same subject and grade within a school meet together and agree on objectives and assessments, which ensures that at least within the school, results for teachers of the same subject and grade can be compared.
- To provide oversight to the schools and ensure that evaluations are carried out in accordance with state policies, each school district within the state must have a District Evaluation Committee that includes teachers, support professionals, administrators, and union representatives. The Committee reviews validity and utility of the results from the evaluation process and determines whether the decisions made using evaluating data are fair, accurate and consistent.

Source: Rhode Island Department of Elementary and Secondary Education. Further information can be found at *www.ride.ri.gov/TeachersAdministrators/EducatorEvaluation.aspx*, accessed 15 July 2013.

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Chapter 4

Teacher evaluation procedures

There is a clear definition in Chile of what constitutes good teaching, as described in the Good Teaching Framework (GTF). Moreover, there are clear statements as to what constitutes levels of performance on the standards. As implemented, however, the GTF faces some challenges. For example, it displays poor alignment between some of the criteria and the descriptors supposedly intended to illustrate them. At the same time, the understanding of the GTF is not well disseminated throughout the system. A strength of Docentemás, as designed, is the rich combination of various sources of evidence of teaching practice (self-evaluation, planning documents, video of a class, a peer interview and a third-party assessment) as well as the existence of different evaluators (teacher, peers, school leaders, and portfolio markers). However, self-evaluation is a poor instrument, there is room to strengthen the peer interview, the third-party evaluation might not be effective and a number of adjustments can be made to the teacher performance portfolio.

This chapter looks at the specific procedures used in teacher evaluation in Chile, i.e. the reference standards, the mix of instruments and sources of information, the aspects evaluated and the evaluation criteria. It identifies the main strengths and challenges of teacher evaluation procedures together with recommendations for improvement.

Strengths

There are clear standards of practice

There is a clear definition in Chile of what constitutes good teaching, as described in the Good Teaching Framework (GTF). It is impossible to emphasise what a source of strength this is: in jurisdictions without such a clear definition, both teachers and evaluators are "in the dark" as to how performance should be judged. Clarity on the definition of good teaching is the first, and in many ways, the most important, element of a robust system of teacher evaluation. In its absence, evaluators are not sure how they should evaluate practice, and teachers are obliged to guess what the criteria are; they are placed in the position of "reading the minds" of the evaluators. Uncertainty on this point is, therefore, a source of great anxiety and stress; clarity is a necessary foundation on which to construct a strong and defensible system of teacher evaluation.

Not only does Chile have a clear definition of good teaching, but it is intended, around the country, to result in a shared understanding of what is meant by good teaching. Ideally, it is used as the benchmark for understanding practice, whether it is in the preparation of teachers, in organising programmes of professional development, or in the evaluation of teachers' skills. This shared understanding, if it is truly shared, enables a common language to develop around the definition of good teaching, and, with that, professional conversation. None of this is possible without clear standards of practice, which are widely understood and whose underlying values are shared by both academics and practitioners.

The GTF offers Chilean educators a comprehensive definition of good practice, based on a solid research foundation. It is organised into four domains and 20 criteria, encompassing all the important aspects of teaching such as planning, creating a classroom environment conducive to learning, effective teaching, and professional responsibilities (see Chapter 2). Each criterion is accompanied by a description of its meaning, and examples of how a teacher might demonstrate skill, either through their teaching in the classroom or through the plans they create, or through other artifacts reflecting their professionalism.

There are clear statements as to what constitutes levels of performance on the standards

In addition to a shared understanding of standards of practice, each criterion/descriptor of practice in the GTF is elaborated by performance levels. These are written in behavioural language, which permits both teachers and school leadership to translate the standards into actual events in the classroom, or in instructional planning. Such levels of performance are essential in evaluating complex performance. That is, for some aspect of teaching, such as "creating a safe environment for students", teachers don't either do it or not do it; they do it either well or poorly. That is, performance of teaching (as in all complex performance) occurs along a continuum of expertise and skill. Levels of performance are needed to differentiate the quality of performance and will

reflect, to some degree not only the amount of experience of a teacher, but the teacher's expertise.

In any such approach, if one describes levels of performance, a decision must be made as to how many such levels there should be. This is a matter for some discussion in the United States at the moment, as there are clear trade-offs in different approaches. Naturally, the more levels there are, the more finely the differences from one level to the next can be described. At the same time, however, while the differences between the different levels are described at a very fine grain size with a large number of points on the scale, it turns out to be very difficult to train evaluators to correctly identify the correct level of performance. When the results of an assessment of practice are used for high-stakes personnel decisions, this is a serious drawback.

Experts in the measurement community are quick to remind practitioners of the phenomenon of "central tendency," that is the common practice for evaluators to "land" on the middle point of a scale. This suggests that it is preferable to design systems with an even number of points (typically four, as is the case of the teacher performance evaluation system in Chile) to avoid the difficulties of central tendency without having a system with so many points that distinctions cannot be reliably made between them.

However, the OECD Review Team was obliged to presume that the performance levels exist for all the criteria in the GTF, since only one example of these was provided, which appeared to be for illustrative purposes only (see Chapter 2). For a robust system, it is essential that the performance levels be elaborated for each of the criteria. It is the performance descriptors that form the elaborated definition of the meaning of the criteria and serve as the foundation of evaluator training. And this evaluator training, ensuring accuracy of judgement is the only way to ensure consistency and equity in the system as a whole, which in turn inspires confidence on the part of teachers in the system.

A mix of instruments is used to evaluate the performance of a teacher

The teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*), as designed, includes a rich combination of various sources of evidence of teaching practice (self-evaluation, planning documents, video of a class, a peer interview and a third-party assessment) as well as different evaluators (teacher, peers, school leaders, and portfolio markers). This wide range of both data sources and evaluators permits a valuable variety of perspectives on a teacher's performance, providing, in effect, multiple measures, and thus adding to the validity of the system as a whole. This validity is a consequence of the variety of perspectives provided by the different evaluators; peers will recognise aspects of a teacher's performance that may be different from those ascertained by the school leader in the third-party reference report, or than those revealed by the teacher in a self-evaluation. That is, the range of perspectives provides, in effect, a 360-degree view of the teacher's performance. Because teaching is such a complex task, there is no single measure that will suffice to capture everything we need in order to assess teachers' performance. Instead, a combination of measures that allows for the examination of teachers' performance on high-quality standards allows a more accurate and complete picture. However, judgements are only as accurate as the skill of those doing the assessments. When multiple flawed judgements are combined, the flaws tend to multiply.

An important research paper by the Ministry of Education and UNDP (Alvarado et al., 2012) provides evidence of the explanatory power of the instruments used in the teacher evaluation performance system. The analysis looks at associations between teacher evaluation results and SIMCE results for students taught by the evaluated

teachers. It indicates that the portfolio is the instrument whose evaluation results are more strongly associated with student results and that both the third-party reference report and the peer interview effectively add information about teaching performance. The study suggests that the instruments with explanatory power (portfolio, peer interview and third-party reference report) capture different aspects of teaching practices.

An important feature of multiple measures is that they are measuring different knowledge and skills; thus, you get a more comprehensive picture of teachers' abilities by using multiple measures (Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, 2010; Goe et al., 2008; Peterson, 1987; Rockoff and Speroni, 2011; Steele et al., 2010), particularly for high-stakes decisions such as teacher tenure (Sykes and Winchell, 2010). A large national project in the United States found that different measures added different and valuable information about teacher performance to the overall evaluation (Kane and Staiger, 2012). Another reason to use multiple measures is that they bring more perspectives into the evaluation process. School directors' assessments of teacher performance may be just as accurate as that of highly trained external evaluators, though their evaluations tend to reflect greater leniency (Sartain et al., 2010), perhaps because they are more aware of context variables that may impact teacher performance. With portfolios, teachers have an opportunity to provide meaningful information that they believe best represents their practice (Attinello et al., 2006; Pecheone et al., 2005; Tucker et al., 2003; van der Schaaf et al., 2008). Parent surveys may capture perspectives missing from other measures (Peterson et al., 2003). Peer evaluation can also be important both for providing evidence about teachers' practice and for providing support for professional growth (Goldstein, 2007; Goldstein and Noguera, 2006; Milanowski, 2005; Wei et al., 2009), and peers often learn best from each other (Coggshall et al., 2011; Jackson and Bruegmann, 2009). Finally, measures of teachers' contributions to student learning growth add important information about teachers' success in helping students master content knowledge (Berry et al., 2007; Glazerman et al., 2011; Steele et al., 2010).

In addition, in the Chilean teacher performance evaluation system, valuable information on teaching context is captured in several ways, including the self-evaluation, portfolio, peer evaluator interview and third-party reference report. Such context information is essential for a fair consideration for teachers who are working in varied circumstances with challenges unique to the place or situation.

The development of Graduating Teacher Standards contributes to national consistency on forming teacher professional expertise

Chile has recently adopted Graduating Teacher Standards for teacher preparation (see Chapter 2). This is an important development, since it goes a long way towards ensuring national consistency on developing professional expertise. They are not, of course, perfectly aligned with the GTF, because the purpose is different. The Graduating Teacher Standards refer to individuals before they have begun teaching, so it is not possible to ensure that they are, in fact, effective in their classroom work. The co-existence of the two sets of standards would be more powerful if they used the same language. But in general, the two sets of standards cover the same territory, as illustrated in the following table.

Table 4.1 Relationship between the Pedagogical Graduating Teacher Standards and the Good Teaching Framework

Pedagogical Graduating Teacher Standards	Criteria of the Good Teaching Framework
1. Be familiar with Primary Education students and know the way they learn	A2. Know the characteristics, knowledge and experiences of his/her students.
2. Be prepared to promote the personal and social development of the students	B1. Create an environment dominated by values such as acceptance, equality, trust, solidarity and respect. B2. Show high expectations about the learning possibilities and development of all of his/her students
3. Be familiar with the Primary Education curriculum and use the various instruments available to analyse and submit proposals for pedagogical and assessment processes	A1. Master the subjects taught and the national curricular framework. A3. Master the didactics of the subjects or disciplines taught by him/her.
4. Know how to design and implement teaching and learning strategies in line with the learning objectives and relevant to the context	A4. Organise the objectives and contents consistently with the curricular framework and the characteristics of particular students. C2. Design challenging and consistent teaching strategies that are relevant for the students.
5. Be prepared to manage the class and create an adequate environment for learning according to the context	B3. Create and keep consistent regulations about classroom coexistence. B4. Create an organised working atmosphere and make available the spaces and resources required by the learning process.
6. Know and be able to apply methods to assess students' progress, and know how to use assessment results to get feedback for his/her own learning and pedagogical practice	A5. Use assessment strategies that are consistent with the learning objectives, the subject taught, and the national curricular framework, and allow all students to show what they have learnt. C6. Evaluate and monitor the process of understanding and the appropriation of contents by the students
7. Know how school culture is generated and transformed	
8. Be prepared to embrace diversity and promote integration within the classroom	B1. Create an environment dominated by values such as acceptance, equality, trust, solidarity and respect.
9. Be prepared to communicate effectively orally and in writing in the different situations of the teaching profession	D2. Build a professional and team relationship with his/her peers. D5. Manage updated information relevant to the teaching profession, the educational system and the current policies.
10. Be part of a permanent learning process and reflect about his/her methods and role within the education system	D1. Reflect systematically about his/her teaching skills.

Criteria in the GTF not included in the Pedagogical Graduating Teacher Standards are:

- C1: Be able to communicate the learning objectives in a clear and accurate way.
- C3: Treat the classroom contents with the right conceptual focus and using terms that students are able to understand.
- C4: Optimise the time available for teaching.
- C5: Promote the development of thought.
- D3: Take up responsibilities regarding student counselling.
- D4: Promote respect and carry out co-operation actions with his/her students' parents and guardians.

Teacher evaluation is not overly reliant on standardised student results

Using student learning outcomes as one measure of teacher effectiveness in a teacher evaluation system is gaining popularity in many countries, particularly in the United States. Student learning outcomes, including student results in standardised assessments, are an appealing measure to assess teaching performance, since the ultimate goal of teaching is to improve student learning. Teacher evaluation systems based on student assessment results are supposed to strengthen incentives for teachers to commit themselves to helping all students to meet important centrally defined standards and fulfil goals within the national curriculum. Braun (2005a) argues that considering student results is a promising approach for two reasons: first, it moves the discussion about teacher quality towards student learning as the primary goal of teaching, and second, it introduces a quantitative measurement of teacher performance. However, Braun also urges caution since the tests being used for value-added have not been validated for that purpose.

In spite of its attractiveness, using student standardised assessment scores as an instrument for teacher evaluation is faced with numerous challenges. A major challenge is that student learning is influenced by many factors. These include the student's own skills, expectations, motivation and behaviour along with the support they receive from their families and the influence of their peer group. In addition to the quality of teachers, other school-related factors which influence student learning include school organisation, resources and climate; and curriculum structure and content. The effect of teachers is also cumulative, i.e. at a given moment in time student learning is influenced not only by the current teachers but also by former teachers. As a result, at a given point in time, raw standardised student scores carry much more than the impact of the current teacher and also reflect, for instance, the impact of the student's family, the student's previous learning or the resources of the school (Isoré, 2009).

Given that a wide range of factors impact on student results, the development of "value-added" models represents significant progress as they are designed to control for the individual student's previous results, and therefore have the potential to identify the contribution an individual teacher made to a student's achievement. However, most authors are not convinced that the current generation of value-added models is sufficiently valid and reliable to be used for fairly evaluating individual teachers' effectiveness (Braun, 2005b; Aaronson et al., 2007; Goe, 2007). Research on the association between teacher observation scores and student learning growth has generated mixed results, though more recent research has suggested significant correlations between them. For example, in a large-scale study undertaken in the United States, teachers' scores on Danielson's Framework for Teaching and several other classroom observation instruments have been found to be modestly correlated with student learning gains (Kane and Staiger, 2012). However, overall, research has identified a range of areas of concern about the reliability and validity of using value-added models for assessing the effectiveness of individual teachers.

First, there are a range of statistical challenges:

- Value-added models require vast amounts of data

  These have to be frequently collected through large scale system-level student standardised assessment across levels of education and subjects, an option with considerable costs.

- Sampling variations impact on the measured value added

  Sampling variations can cause imprecision in test score measures; this problem is particularly striking in primary schools, where the limited number of students per classroom creates large idiosyncrasies of the particular sample of students being tested (Kane and Staiger, 2002). Also, teachers are not randomly assigned to students, an assumption that most value-added assessments make (Rothstein, 2007).

- Value-added scores are unstable from year to year

  As teachers gain experience in the first five years or so of teaching, their value-added scores typically improve. After that, however, one would not expect to see much fluctuation among teachers' scores from year to year or from class to class for teachers who teach multiple sections of the same subject. However, some research has suggested that these scores do fluctuate considerably, causing a teacher who is rated effective one year to be deemed less effective in another year, and vice versa (Schochet and Chiang, 2010).

Second, there are a number of methodological challenges:

- Value-added models cannot control for all factors which influence student achievement scores other than the teacher's impact

  Student characteristics, school attendance, peer and classroom climate, school policies, availability of adequate materials, supports such as teacher aides and tutors, and children effects, among others, influence student learning and are difficult to integrate in value-added models (CAESL, 2004; Ingvarson et al., 2007; Goe, 2007). Value-added models may take some of these factors into account, but are less successful at controlling for factors such as classroom level effects (e.g. peer effects within a particular classroom). For example, one study found that teachers who taught the same subject to classes of students with varying backgrounds had value-added scores that were lower when teaching the more disadvantaged students (Newton et al., 2010). Also, specific factors at the time of the test – "a dog barking in the playground, a severe flu season, a disruptive student in a class" – can also affect one student's results independently from the teacher's contribution (Kane and Staiger, 2002).

- Student standardised assessment does not capture all the goals of learning

  Because standardised assessments are limited in scope, with only a few items included to measure important concepts, not all important learning objectives can be measured in any one assessment. A study of the match between curriculum standards and tests in the United States revealed that only about half the mathematics standards were tested (Polikoff, 2011). Thus, teachers who focus on teaching all of the curriculum standards may be at a disadvantage compared to teachers who focus primarily on the standards that are most likely to be tested. Students in the former class may achieve a more well-rounded understanding of the subject, while students in the latter class may have better test scores because they have narrowly focused on tested content. Also, teaching impact on students is broader and includes the transfer of psychological, civic and lifelong learning skills (Margo et al., 2008).

- Value-added models do not capture the cumulative impact of a teacher

  Good teachers are likely to have an impact on student's achievement during several years after having taught them; and conversely, after several years of ineffective teachers, students may never be able to catch up academically. These teacher "cumulative effects" cannot be accurately measured at discrete points in time (Hanushek, 1986; Sanders and Rivers, 1996; CAESL, 2004).

- Student standardised assessments may vary in which content is emphasised

  Student assessments may vary in which constructs are tested and how much weight the constructs receive in the final scoring. For example, a mathematics test may have a construct to measure students' "operations" knowledge, i.e. a student's ability to perform accurate calculations. Another construct might focus on "applied" knowledge, i.e. a student's ability to analyse a problem and determine which operations are needed to arrive at the correct solution, in which order, etc. Teachers' skill at teaching those constructs to students may vary considerably. Research has shown that students taught by a specific teacher vary in their scores on operations vs. applied mathematics, suggesting that some teachers have different teaching skills and content knowledge and may emphasise different aspects of the curriculum (Lockwood et al., 2007). The concern is that student results, as well as teachers' value-added, may be affected by the match between the teacher's skill or emphasis in teaching particularly constructs compared with the emphasis (weight) the test-maker has placed on those constructs.

- There might be difficulties in linking individual teachers to students

  In order to attribute student learning growth to a teacher, there must be accurate links between a teacher and all of the students he or she has taught. Some studies in the United States have noted the difficulty in gathering and verifying such linked data. Unless the teacher and administrator have checked and verified that the teacher did in fact instruct those students, there is great potential for introducing error into the value-added scores. An additional difficulty is that of multiple teachers when students have more than one teacher in a year.

Third, theoretical limitations also need to be acknowledged:

- Students' standardised assessment scores have not been validated as a measure of teachers' performance

  Standardised assessments used to differentiate students are not specifically designed for the purpose of evaluating teachers. Following Popham (1997), Goe (2007) argues that standardised assessments are not engineered to be particularly sensitive to small variations in instruction or to sort out teacher contributions to student learning. Thus they do not necessarily provide a solid basis on which to hold teachers accountable for their performance.

- Using student assessment scores to evaluate teachers has potential detrimental effects

  Using student assessment scores to evaluate teachers may induce strategic responses on the part of teachers such as: *(i)* teachers focussing only on the learning outcomes that will be assessed in the standardised assessment rather than the full range of competencies of the curriculum ("teaching to the test" and

"narrowing of the curriculum"); *(ii)* teachers ignoring the important cross-curricular learning outcomes; *(iii)* time diverted from regular curriculum for special preparation of the assessment; *(iv)* pre-emptively retaining students and increasing special education placements of low-performing students in special programmes which are outside the standardised assessment system; *(v)* teachers encouraging only the more able students to be present when the assessment is administered; *(vi)* negative effects on teacher-based student assessments and student engagement in rich curriculum tasks through which teachers can genuinely understand student learning; and *(vii)* teacher cheating as with the assistance teachers may provide students during the assessment (see Morris, 2011, and Rosenkvist, 2010, for a detailed discussion). In Mexico, where raw student standardised assessment results are used in teacher evaluation, there is evidence of considerable detrimental effects in teacher and school practices (Santiago et al., 2012).

As a consequence, despite the attractiveness of the idea, there are numerous caveats against the use of student standardised assessment results to "mechanically" evaluate teachers. In particular, there is a wide consensus in the literature around two specific directions: student scores should not be used as the *sole* measurement of teacher performance; and student scores should not be naively used for career decisions concerning the teacher, including the link to pay, because this incorporates a substantial risk to punish or reward teachers for results beyond their control (Kane and Staiger, 2002; McCaffrey et al., 2003; CAESL, 2004; Braun, 2005b; Ingvarson et al., 2007). The evidence shows that value-added results – in combination with other measures – may serve as a basis for distinguishing between high and low performing teachers (Harris, 2009), but are yet to be validated for use in high-stakes evaluation systems (Herman et al., 2011).

At present, using student assessment scores as an evaluation instrument is likely to be more relevant for whole-school evaluation than for individual teacher performance evaluation. As Darling-Hammond (2012) concludes "I have since realised that these ["valued-added methods" for assessing teacher effectiveness] measures, while valuable for large-scale studies, are seriously flawed for evaluating individual teachers, and that rigorous, on-going assessment by teaching experts serves everyone better". She also notes that reviews by the National Research Council (2009), the RAND Corporation (McCaffrey et al., 2003) and the Educational Testing Service (Braun, 2005a) have all concluded that value-added estimates of teacher effectiveness should not be used to make high-stakes decisions about teachers.

In addition to the practical challenges outlined above, value-added models for measuring the effectiveness of individual teachers have four major restrictions. First, value-added has poor "face validity", i.e. it is hard to explain to teachers and school leaders how it works and justify its use in an accountability system. Second, value-added results alone are unhelpful to teachers in improving their practice, or to provide school leaders with information to guide them in assisting their teachers. The value-added score does not help teachers identify areas where they could improve (if their score was low) and offers nothing to identify or affirm good practices that helped students learn at high levels (if their score was high). Thus, value-added is extremely limited as a formative tool. Third, value-added can only be used as a measure of teachers' contribution to student learning growth in subjects where standardised assessments are routinely used to measure students' competencies. In most countries, mathematics and reading/language are routinely tested, and in some countries, science is tested regularly. But few other subjects are tested, meaning that unless additional standardised assessments in the non-tested subjects and grades are created, a dual evaluation system will be the result – those teachers who are

evaluated with standardised assessment results and those who are not. Fourth, value-added measurement is costly. In addition to requiring students to undertake standardised assessment in a range of subjects at most Year levels, it often requires an outside research partner to help measure value-added performance (Meyer and Christian, 2008).

Because SIMCE is only given to students in few Year levels each year (until 2012, in Year 4; and Year 8 or Year 10, alternately) in a few subjects, the assessment results could not be used for teacher evaluation purposes, since growth can only be established between two points in time and prior results are not available to be used as predictors. Students' proficiency in a subject is not useful for teacher evaluation unless one can know what the students' proficiency was when they began receiving instruction in a particular teacher's classroom. Thus, a pre-test or a test of the same subject from the previous year would be needed to establish growth. In addition, there is no evidence that student standardised tests scores are valid as a measure of teachers' performance. Even if Chile develops yearly vertically and horizontally aligned tests in academic subjects, they can be used only as one source of evidence in a system of multiple measures. Besides, even if student standardised assessments covered more Year levels and subjects (as is the case since 2012), given the evidence provided above, value-added models would not be adequate for use in a high-stakes teacher evaluation system. It is therefore wise to focus on other measures of teaching performance that are known to be predictors of student learning gains, as suggested by Alvarado et al. (2012) for the portfolio, peer interview and third-party reference report in relation to the *Docentemás* system. Thus, ensuring the use of high-quality instruments and processes is most important for the time being.

The introduction of the initial pedagogical excellence examination might prove helpful to ensure the quality of initial teacher education

The draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers, as discussed in 2012, intends to make the initial pedagogical excellence examination (INICIA test) mandatory for access to the teaching profession in the subsidised school sector. Given variations in selectivity among teacher preparation programmes as well as in the quality of the instruction and courses offered, such an entry test is adequate to ensure that all teachers are prepared at an adequate and comparable level. Of course, this presupposes that the test is shown to be reliable and valid for the intended use. The INICIA test to enter the profession is intended to screen the teacher candidates who may not have acquired sufficient basic and fundamental knowledge at the teacher education programme. It results from concerns about the quality of some initial teacher education programmes.

Challenges

The Good Teaching Framework is of uneven quality

The Good Teaching Framework (GTF) displays poor alignment between some of the criteria and the descriptors supposedly intended to illustrate them. The GTF is organised in a hierarchical manner; that is, there are four major domains identified, each with criteria and descriptors that are intended (one assumes) to explicate what is meant by the domain, and furthermore, taken together, should fully describe the range of competencies included in the domain. Some such frameworks, such as the Danielson Framework for Teaching (Danielson, 1996 and 2007), includes an additional level, in which each of the aspects of teaching – equivalent to the descriptors in the GTF – is further elaborated by anywhere from two to five smaller elements. In several places in the GTF, at least several of

the descriptors seem to have little to do with the criterion where they appear. For example, Criterion C5 states that "The teacher should be prepared to promote the development of thought", and includes the following descriptors, among its five descriptors:

- The teacher considers errors as an opportunity to keep developing the learning process.
- The teacher promotes among his/her students the knowledge of other subjects linked to the curriculum's transversal objectives with the purpose of contributing to the process of value acquisition.
- The teacher promotes the use of an oral and written language that gradually becomes more precise and relevant.

It is not at all clear that these aspects of teacher performance, while important, are aspects of teaching students to develop skills of critical and creative thinking.

It's also important that each of the aspects of teaching, on which teacher performance will be evaluated, be of roughly the same level of detail, or grain size. When viewed in this light, certain of the criteria in the GTF appear to be much "bigger" than others. For example, Criterion C1 states that "The teacher should be prepared to communicate the learning objectives in a clear and accurate way," and it consists of only two descriptors, dealing with the learning objectives ("The teacher tells the students the objectives of the class and the learning to be achieved") and the criteria for assessing student work ("The teacher explains clearly to the students the criteria used for both self-assessment and the assessment carried out by the teacher"). On the other hand, C2, which addresses the teacher's use of teaching strategies ("The teacher should be prepared to design challenging and consistent teaching strategies that are relevant for the students"), includes a much larger set of competencies (in four descriptors).

Moreover, the meanings of the criteria should be very clear; this is not always the case with the criteria in the GTF. For example, Criterion C4 states that: "The teacher should be prepared to optimise the time available for teaching" and the descriptors state that: *(i)* "The teacher uses the time available for teaching in line with the classroom objectives"; and *(ii)* "Time is organised according to the students' learning needs". It is not at all clear what these descriptors mean in practice. The first one suggests that the class begins promptly, without much wasted time; it is not at all clear what would count as evidence of the second. Furthermore, some aspects of time management, such as smooth transitions between different parts of a lesson, or the distribution of materials (which can consume a lot of time) do not appear to be included at all.

In addition, some of the descriptors appear to be misplaced. For example, criterion B2 states that "The teacher should be prepared to show high expectations about the learning possibilities and development of all of his/her students", which includes the following descriptor among its four descriptors: "The teacher presents challenging learning situations which are relevant to his/her students." However, criterion C2 states that "The teacher should be prepared to design challenging and consistent teaching strategies that are relevant for the students." The descriptor for B2, in other words, would seem to be a descriptor better suited to C2 than B2.

In sum, while Chile is unusual among nations in having adopted a set of teaching standards to guide the preparation of teachers, their ongoing professional development, and the evaluation of their practice, a modest effort could greatly improve their quality, by tightening the relationships of the descriptors to the criteria, and by ensuring that the

criteria and descriptors are suitably placed. Only when this is done in a coherent manner can educators learn to "speak the language" of the GTF with assurance.

Understanding of the Good Teaching Framework by educators is uneven

In the interviews and conversations with numerous policy makers, researchers, and practitioners, the OECD Review Team formed the view that while the GTF is intended to serve as the foundation for defining good teaching in Chile, understanding of it is not well disseminated throughout the system. For example, it is not taught in some initial teacher education programmes, nor is it used by teachers on a regular basis. It has not become, in other words, the "common language" to describe, understand, and improve practice. Indeed, in some schools, the teachers, while they knew of the existence of the GTF, could not cite anything specific in it. In other schools, in contrast, dog-eared (apparently well-used) copies were in evidence.

An additional question was raised as to the timeliness of the standards. They are based on research conducted in the United States during the early 1990s. It is possible that the standards should be updated and linked to more recent research. At least this is a question worthy of consideration. An important example of such a development is the use of formative assessment in the instructional process. Traditionally, educators (and the general public) have thought of assessment – often in the form of a test – as signalling the *end* of instruction; research, notably by Black and Wiliam (1998) in the United Kingdom, have demonstrated the powerful use of assessment not as the *end* of instruction, but an integral part *of* instruction. Some of this is included in criterion C6, but that aspect of it could be strengthened, to include students developing the skills to monitor their own learning and to initiate improvements against clear standards.

There is not a thorough knowledge of the levels of performance

Although it is a concept central to the equity and the effectiveness of an evaluation system, the OECD Review Team found that most teachers were unfamiliar with the levels of performance as reflected in the rubrics for the different criteria/descriptors in the GTF. We were assured that such levels of performance exist, and indeed we were shown one of them (outlined in Chapter 2, Table 2.5), it appeared for purposes of illustration only, not as a tool to guide practice and, indeed, ongoing professional learning. In fact, in some of our interviews with both policy makers and researchers, we discovered a surprising belief that the levels of performance should remain secret.

Experience in other countries, notably the United States, has found that the levels of performance are, all by themselves, and even in the absence of focused professional development, an important catalyst for teacher learning. In fact, it is almost certainly the case that the levels of performance in the Danielson Framework for Teaching is a major reason it has been so widely adopted and embraced by the professional community in the United States. When teachers first encounter the levels of performance, they appear to immediately "find themselves" in the rubric. That is, they engage in a quick self-evaluation on one of them, and ascertain where their performance falls. Then their eye drifts to the next higher level, and they have the universal reaction of "Oh, I could do *that;* I just never thought of it". For this reason alone, it is important that the levels of performance be widely shared with teachers so they can engage in their own self-evaluation and professional learning, and have benchmarks that describe best practice.

There are no clear links between the standards of practice and the instrument used for assessing teacher practice

At present, it is not clear what are the sources of evidence for each of the standards. The overall "architecture" of the teacher performance evaluation system appears opaque. For example, the detailed directions for completing the portfolio make clear which criteria in the GTF are assessed by the pedagogical unit (Module 1) and which by the video of a class (Module 2). But many of the criteria are assessed by both modules, and teachers are not told how the scores from the two sources of evidence are combined in the event of a discrepancy. Furthermore, it is not explicit to teachers being evaluated which of the GTF criteria are assessed through the peer interview and the third party reference report. This analysis is provided to evaluators, and there is no reason why it could not be shared with teachers, but it appears to not have been.

This opacity is unfortunate, since if teachers had a more accurate idea about which aspects of their teaching were to be evaluated through which evaluation instruments and if they had the rubrics that describe good practice in each of the criteria within each domain, then they could be sure to give it "their best shot" at demonstrating high levels of performance. Without that support, teachers are not sure what they should be demonstrating through each of the assessment activities.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards assessments, in the United States, uses a similar matrix sampling technique. That is, each candidate submits about 12 portfolio entries which, taken together, provide evidence for all of the teaching standards. The entries are assessed by trained and certified markers, and the resulting scores are added to arrive at an overall score. Candidates must earn more than a certain number of points (known in advance to the candidates) in order to pass the assessment (see Box 4.1). It is likely that such a system is in place in the Chilean *Docentemás* system, but if so, there is no reason why teachers should not be made aware of it.

Box 4.1 The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards in the United States

In the United States, experienced teachers may voluntarily seek national certification through the privately run, but largely government-funded, National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) (*www.nbpts.org*). This credential, known as National Board Certification, is designed to provide recognition to teachers who demonstrate superior knowledge and teaching skills. Teachers enter an extensive application process which consists of two major parts: the portfolio of their work including a videotape of a lesson they have taught; and the assessment centre exercises where teachers address a set of questions that relate to the specific content of their field.

The assessment is undertaken against detailed teaching standards established by NBPTS. These are based on NBPTS' five core propositions: *(i)* teachers are committed to students and their learning; *(ii)* teachers know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students; *(iii)* teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring student learning; *(iv)* teachers think systematically about their practice and learn from experience; and *(v)* teachers are members of learning communities. The standards are developed and reviewed by teachers and other experts. The National Board Certification is designed to consider a wide range of teacher competencies, using videos submitted by the teachers to evaluate classroom practice and along with portfolio entries focused on teaching practice and constructed response assessments of content knowledge. Submitted materials are reviewed by trained teachers who are experts in the teachers' content areas.

Box 4.1 The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards in the United States *(continued)*

In the United States, the NBPTS has been the chief means of certifying that classroom teachers are performing at high levels. It has been considered as a model for other countries who are interested in standards-based certification systems for teachers (Harris and MacKenzie, 2007; Ingvarson and Hattie, 2008). Nearly all states in the United States allow teachers to take the NBPTS examination as a mechanism for increasing their salary, tying National Board Certification to higher salaries. As of October 2012, the National Board had certified 97 000 teachers nationwide, and more than 6 000 became National Board certified in 2011. The Certification is good for ten years and then the teacher must reapply.

Studies relating to the NBPTS show that teachers apply in the classroom what they learned from the NBPTS evaluation process (Bond et al., 2000; Lustick and Sykes, 2006). Teachers who successfully go through the evaluation process are also likely to contribute to school leadership by adopting new roles including mentoring and coaching of other teachers (Petty, 2002; Freund et al., 2005). Hakel et al. (2008) indicate that NBPTS has had a positive impact on student achievement, teacher retention, and professional development. There is some evidence that teachers certified by the Board were more effective than their non-certified colleagues at increasing student achievement and that NBPTS is successfully identifying the more effective teachers among applicants (Goldhaber and Anthony, 2004). The authors note, however, that since the process is relatively costly in terms of both evaluation process and the higher salaries that certified teachers generally earn, its effectiveness should be judged against other means of identifying and rewarding quality teaching. According to a study in Maine, the top reasons why eligible teachers have not applied for NBPTS certification are: *(i)* lack of time due to personal commitments; *(ii)* lack of time due to professional commitments; and *(iii)* lack of information about the application process (Harris and MacKenzie, 2007). In a similar vein, Goldhaber et al. (2004), noted that "[NBPTS] certification is a demanding process, and there is some concern that teachers in low-achieving, high-poverty schools (i.e., those most in need of high-quality teachers) may lack the time and resources necessary to seek, and gain, certification".

Sources: OECD (2005), *Teachers Matter: Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers*, OECD Publishing, Paris; NBPTS website, www.nbpts.org, accessed 15 July 2013.

Self-evaluation is a poor instrument for high-stakes evaluation

In order for self-evaluation to have value for teachers, and for the profession, it is essential that teachers be able to conduct their self-evaluation in private, with nothing hinging on the results. Otherwise, it is highly unlikely that teachers, even if they were accurate in their self-evaluation (which is by no means assured), would be honest. That is, if they honestly assess their own practice as poor, it is likely to be used against them. This is visible in the *Docentemás* system. For instance, for each of the years in the period 2007-2010, over 99% of teachers rated themselves as *Competent* or *Outstanding* (Manzi et al., 2011). The investigation of the power for *Docentemás* instruments to explain SIMCE results undertaken by the Ministry of Education and UNDP (Alvarado et al., 2012) suggests self-evaluation provides little information to identify good teaching performance. Ratings in self-evaluation show no correlation to SIMCE results for students of evaluated teachers.

In addition, the scoring by teachers of the descriptors/indicators provided (see Chapter 2) leaves much room for improvement. Each assessed descriptor has four indicators. However, some indicators are not directly related to the descriptor they are meant to illustrate. For example, descriptor A.2.3 ("The teacher knows the strengths and

weaknesses of his/her students regarding the contents taught by him/her"), has indicators dealing not with the teacher's knowledge, but his/her use of that knowledge, in the design and implementation of lessons (see Chapter 2).

Furthermore, the manner in which the self-evaluation is scored assumes that the ratings are quantitative and cumulative, as well as reliable and valid. That is, if a teacher demonstrates all four indicators the score is *Outstanding*; with three it is *Competent*; with two it is *Basic*; and with one it is *Unsatisfactory*. This is, from a measurement point of view, highly suspect; there is no way to know that the different indicators are equally important, nor that a teacher's performance on them is additive.

But the greatest difficulty with the self-evaluation is that it cannot, by its nature, serve an evaluative function. That is, validity and reliability are problematic because there is no mechanism within the system to verify, or disprove, a teacher's assertions in the self-evaluation, so it is impossible to use the results as statements that reflect reality. Furthermore, the practices cited are used, almost certainly, by most teachers some of the time. But how much is enough to qualify as being used as an "integral" part of one's practice?

But just because the self-evaluation is not a valid evaluation is not to suggest that it has no value. In fact it has a great value in promoting learning. But the answers to the questions cannot be "yes" or "no". Instead, the questions would be stronger if they were written as "To what extent…" Even better, from the point of view of contributing to teachers' professional growth and learning would be to write the questions using the form of "Describe how you…." For example, if teachers were asked to describe how "I plan my classes and take into account the learning contents that I know will present a problem for my students" they would have to think seriously about likely misconceptions and difficulties students typically experience and how they plan to navigate around these. This is a valuable exercise for teachers, and is likely to result in valuable learning. So while it is a self-evaluation, its purpose is not for accountability but for professional growth.

There is considerable room to strengthen the peer interview

There are some important advantages in having peer evaluators interview teachers as part of the evaluation process. The process is likely to reveal different aspects of a teacher's practice than what would be evident from an observation alone. This is suggested by Alvarado et al. (2012) as they show that ratings in peer interviews are associated with SIMCE scores for students of evaluated teachers – however, this is the case to a lesser extent than with the third-party reference report and the portfolio. Also, studies of validity of *Docentemás* undertaken by the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile* reveal that peer teachers tend to provide a global appraisal of performance with little differentiation associated with GTF domains (Taut et al., 2011).

There are some limitations to the practice as peer interviews are implemented. First, it is extremely time-consuming. Those conducting the interviews are advised to schedule only three per day (60 minutes for each interview and 30 minutes to code the responses). This represents an enormous investment of manpower; it should be clear that the investment is worth it. On the other hand, with only six questions, if they do require a full hour to discuss, it must be the case that the teachers are quite talkative.

Second, there seems to be poor alignment between some questions and the criteria to which they are (supposedly) linked. For example, in question 4 of the 2011 application of

the teacher evaluation system, the interviewer states: "We use a number of teaching strategies in the classroom". And then asks: "What advantages does it have for the students to work with different teaching strategies?" The teacher's answer is intended to provide evidence for descriptor A.2.4 ("The teacher knows the students' different ways of learning") and descriptor A.4.2 ("The teacher takes into account the educational needs and interests of his/her students"). However, it would be possible to answer the question literally, and describe the advantages to the students in working with different teaching strategies, and never mention anything about the teacher's knowledge of the students' different ways of learning and their different educational needs and interests. That is, the question asks for the benefits to *the students* while the correct answer appears to be the *use the teacher makes* of information about the students.

Third, the rubrics used to define the four performance levels are additive, and answers are required to include an increasing number of the elements in order to be evaluated at increasingly high levels (see example in Chapter 2). Presumably, the teachers do not see the rubrics, since this might be seen as "giving them the answers". If the teachers do not know the rubrics, then they are obliged to, quite literally, guess what is in the rubrics in framing their answers. In light of this opacity, it is understandable that some teachers would elect to become peer evaluators for the sole reason of learning the rubrics, and how they are applied to teachers' responses, for the purpose of being in a stronger position for the next time they are to be evaluated.

A better approach would be to give teachers access to the rubrics, and ask them to describe a specific instance in which they achieved the different elements. This approach would help teachers be more reflective, and would contribute to their professional development. A major study conducted in the United States, by the Consortium for Chicago School Research (CCSR), affiliated with the University of Chicago, investigated a three-year pilot of a new evaluation system in the Chicago Public Schools. In that study, both school directors and peer evaluators were trained to conduct observations of classroom teachers, and to evaluate their performance. They also conducted conversations with the teachers following the observed lessons. The Chicago pilot project was using the Danielson Framework for Teaching (similar to the GTF) as the basis of the observations and evaluations of practice. Not only were the observers trained in the use of the framework, but all teachers received a copy of the evaluation instrument, and some degree of training on it. Both teachers and school directors commented, during interviews conducted as part of the study, that the most valuable aspect of the entire project was the teacher's self-evaluation of the lesson against the instrument, and the conversation with the observer (Sartain et al., 2011).

Third-party evaluation in Docentemás might not be effective

The third-party reference report in *Docentemás* might not be effective as a result of the limited weight given to the views of the school director and the head of the technical-pedagogical unit. The form to be completed by the evaluators is extensive, but it is valued at only 10% in the total rating for a teacher. Indeed, the study by the Ministry of Education and UNDP (Alvarado et al., 2012) on the explanatory power of *Docentemás* instruments highlights the third-party evaluation as second among the instruments in the ability to predict student SIMCE scores (after the portfolio) and suggests that it should receive greater weighting in the overall teacher performance evaluation system. This limited role for the school leadership in teacher evaluation is likely a direct reflection of school culture in Chile which casts school leaders in the role of administrators with little involvement in day-to-day instructional activities. School directors reported that their role

was primarily to ensure the smooth operations of the school, manage liaisons with education authorities and ensure that school conditions were adequate for learning. There appears to be no culture in Chile of school leaders as instructional, pedagogical, and curricular leaders (see also Chapter 5). Thus, while they can provide considerable information about a teacher from an administrative point of view (the teachers' professional behaviour), they are less likely to provide information about whether students are receiving high-quality instruction from their teachers. This is partly compensated by the fact that the head of pedagogical affairs also contributes to the third-party reference report.

The third-party evaluation also assumes that the school director has considerable familiarity with the teacher's practice and thus can adequately respond to the various aspects of the teacher's work addressed in the evaluation, which cover a lot of ground. Given that there is not always a school culture of school leaders observing teaching practice, it may be difficult for third-party evaluators to accurately gauge teachers' competence in, for example, the creation of a learning environment that is engaging and considers differential learning needs of the students. Indeed, studies of validity of *Docentemás* undertaken by the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile* reveal that school leaders tend to provide a global appraisal of performance with little differentiation associated with GTF domains (Taut et al., 2011). This raises questions about the validity of the results. It may be necessary to either ensure that third-party evaluators have access to all aspects of teaching that they are being asked to judge or to consider removing those aspects from the third-party reference report.

Another concern about the third-party reference report is consistency across evaluators. Third-party evaluators receive no training for their function. There are several reasons why lack of training is problematic. In particular, training in what evidence to consider and how to rate that evidence is essential to the validity of the results. Preventing biased and idiosyncratic interpretations of the scoring rubrics is another important reason for training. Specifically, training is necessary to ensure that the evaluator knows and looks for the necessary evidence to make appropriate judgements about the teacher and that the evaluator scores the evidence accurately. Good training promotes accuracy by ensuring that the third-party evaluators all agree on what the evidence is and how it should be scored.

A number of adjustments can be made to the teacher performance portfolio

The teacher performance portfolio is the core instrument in the teacher performance evaluation system. It has the potential to generate reflective practices among teachers, it is comprehensive in the areas of teaching expertise addressed and it goes to the heart of teachers' work: classroom teaching. There are also indications that it has some power in predicting good teaching performance. The study of the Ministry of Education and UNDP which analysed the associations between ratings in the *Docentemás* instruments and SIMCE scores for students of evaluated teachers identifies the portfolio as the instrument with the most significant association: a one-point increase in the portfolio rating is associated with a 8-point increase in the mathematics test of SIMCE and a 6-point increase in the reading test of SIMCE (Alvarado et al., 2012). This is considerably above the explanatory power of the other instruments of *Docentemás*. However, there are some challenges to its implementation.

It is not clear how the various contributors to a single criterion will be assembled to yield a single score for each criterion; that is, there are a number of different elements to

the portfolio, but the directions do not indicate how the different "pieces' will be combined together to create a single "score". And since the OECD Review Team was unable to review the training programme for portfolio markers, it is impossible to know whether it is included in their training, or, indeed, whether it is transparent in the overall system.

Moreover, the directions for completing the portfolio appear to be needlessly rigid. For example, the unit must be for eight pedagogical hours. If it is any more or less, the teacher's rating will be lower than it would be otherwise. Also, the system requires that teacher performance be judged in part based on a 40-minute (precisely) video of their teaching. This requirement has caused a great deal of anxiety among teachers, some of whom evidently had a rather short amount of time to prepare for the arrival of a video crew. And, during the Review visit, many of them reported apprehension that their students would not be at their best, that the lesson would go less well, that something would happen in the school (or at home) on that day that would have an adverse impact on student behaviour and therefore their rating. Alternatively, they were fearful that their lesson would not fit precisely into the required time, and that their performance would be judged harshly because of what they saw as, ultimately, not a very important indicator of quality, namely, that the lesson lasts precisely 40 minutes. Besides, teachers believe that it is a "performance" rather than an authentic lesson. They noted that the presence of a camera and videographer in the classroom was stressful to them and a distraction to their students. Some teachers reported that the normal classroom interactions such as question-and-response were stifled by students' and teachers' nervousness about being filmed. Thus, teachers were adamant that the lesson they prepared and taught for *Docentemás* was not a true reflection of their teaching, and this concerned them greatly. They felt strongly that they should be judged as professionals on their everyday practice, not on a single "show" lesson.

In addition, the directions received by teachers to prepare the portfolio cause one to wonder whether their very detail makes them daunting for some teachers. The OECD Review Team perceived that teachers who were to submit portfolios dreaded the process; many of the interviewed teachers said that they were unsure of the procedures to be followed, and how their responses to questions would be judged. We visited schools where some of the teachers had completed the portfolio whereas others had not; the ones who had not yet done it had enormous anxiety as to whether they would be able to compile it accurately and completely. In fact extensive practical support is provided on line, but the teachers we spoke to seemed unaware of this resource. The guidelines for teachers to complete their portfolio are also comprehensive and detailed. However, teachers felt they needed in-person school-level guidance and an opportunity to ask questions about the process.

It appears that while the evaluators were trained (through a fairly rigorous process, see Chapter 5) to evaluate the portfolios, many teachers expressed concern that the evaluators were not experts in the subjects taught by the teachers whose portfolios they were evaluating and they were not familiar with the contexts in which many of the teachers are employed – contexts which may justify their instructional decisions but which may not be obvious to the evaluators. Hence, the teachers were not sure that they could trust the judgement (and therefore value the feedback) of the evaluators. Overall, the process would be more successful, and would lead to more learning for teachers if there were models of portfolio elements, with their scores and annotations as to why they were awarded the scores they were. For example, which elements of the different score points were present, and which absent.

Also, the system can be "gamed", for instance, teachers can purchase a portfolio. There was conflicting evidence regarding the seriousness of this issue. Some teachers told us that it was a common practice around the country, and that everyone knew whom they could buy a good portfolio from. Others indicated that the practice is not wide-spread.

Finally, many teachers felt that completing the portfolio was far too time-consuming and they were not given release time in school to complete it. Given the number of hours of instruction that teachers in Chile are responsible for each day, in addition to preparing lessons and marking tests, they state that they have little time to spend the eight to ten hours that they believe is necessary to complete the materials for the portfolio. In addition, some teachers felt that it was not a good use of their time since it was not an accurate reflection of their teaching practice but rather a "show lesson" designed to make the teacher look good for the video.

Policy recommendations

Review the criteria and performance levels in the Good Teaching Framework to ascertain the extent to which they reflect most recent research regarding good practice

The standards of the GTF are grounded in what was understood about good teaching from the very early 1990s. While educational research does not move with the speed of research in, for example, the hard sciences, it is also not stagnant. There are multiple international studies of teaching practice, and of which specific aspects of teaching show the highest correlations with student learning. The largest such effort currently underway is the Measures of Effective Teaching (MET) project in the United States (*www.metproject.org*), funded by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, and consisting of the analysis of about 23 000 lessons against five observation protocols (one of these, Danielson's Framework for Teaching, shares many characteristics of Chile's GTF, but represents, in effect, an updated version of it). The results from this study will shed important light on the state of understanding of good practice. It would be important for the Ministry of Education to examine the fruits of this and other research and determine whether the GTF should be slightly revised.

One important aspect of this matter concerns the evidence, from classrooms, of student active engagement in learning. The GTF describes important aspects of teaching, and of teacher practice. These could be somewhat updated, as described above, to include such things as the integration of assessment into instruction. But a larger issue concerns the active role of students. The research studies (MET study and the CCSR Chicago study) published recently in the United States, show high correlations between teacher practice and student learning only at the highest levels of teacher performance. The most important characteristic of that level of performance according to the MET study, using the Danielson Framework for Teaching as the observation protocol, is the active role that students play in the classroom. They are highly invested in the "community of learners" and do such things as initiate inquiry, formulate high-level questions, and make independent improvements in their work.

Another interesting finding from the MET study is the accuracy of student perceptions in identifying the most effective teaching. That is, when asked to comment on such statements as the extent to which "My teacher explains things clearly" or "My teacher expects me to work hard" the positive responses to those statements correlate very

highly with learning results. Furthermore, those sentiments from students provide very important feedback to teachers on their practice.

Use common national criteria to ensure common teacher preparation and consistency across schools

A defensible system of teacher evaluation depends, first of all, on consensus and shared understanding, by all parties, of the standards by which teacher practice will be assessed. Whether revised in light of recent research or not, the GTF should serve as the nation's agreed-upon definition of teaching, informing all the efforts to describe and strengthen practice. It is, after all, impossible to improve teaching if it has not even been *defined*. That is the value of Chile's GTF; there is general acceptance around the country that there should be consensus around good teaching, and that the GTF captures what is important about good teaching.

Therefore, the GTF must inform programmes of teacher preparation, to ensure that when teachers enter the profession they already understand what is important for them to know and be able to do. Indeed, the strongest programmes of teacher preparation are those whose content of coursework, observations of teaching, and clinical practice, are all informed by the GTF. In that way, by the time teachers begin their own practice, they are conversant with the GTF, and reflect its provisions in their own teaching.

Furthermore, if the GTF is to be embedded into professional conversations across the country, it needs to become the language of instruction throughout the nation's schools. Therefore, it is not only in the preparation of new teachers that the GTF should be used to describe good practice, but across the country. This has obvious advantages for the quality of discourse within a school. However, the benefits extend beyond the walls of any individual school; if teachers shift to a new position in a new school, they can be confident that their teaching will be evaluated against criteria with which they are already familiar.

Improve the understanding of all parties of the components of the Good Teaching Framework

One of the fundamental principles of evaluation is that an individual whose performance is being assessed should know the basis of such an assessment. There is no justification for anyone (certainly not teachers) to be "in the dark" as to what is expected of them in their practice, and how that practice will be evaluated throughout their careers.

However, as noted above, the OECD Review Team found uneven understanding of this definition of good teaching, as captured in the GTF. Ideally, this should begin with teachers-in-training, during their preparation, and extend throughout their careers. And if the GTF is itself critically examined and possibly revised as part of this process, the revisions could be incorporated into the communications and education effort undertaken by the Ministry of Education.

Teachers should know what they are supposed to do for their evaluation, that is the procedures they should follow and the documents they should produce. Additionally, they should know how these will be evaluated by assessors. It is important that the levels of performance as reflected in the rubrics and indicators of the different criteria/descriptors in the GTF be shared with teachers. There are various tools that can contribute to this understanding: for classroom-based aspects of teaching (areas B and C of the GTF), short video clips illustrating high and low performance are extremely valuable. For the artifact-

and interview-based criteria of the GTF, some sample portfolio entries, with an assessor's comments, and a teacher's responses to interview questions with an assessor's interpretation, would prove extremely helpful to teachers. This would allow teachers to reflect on their own practices and engage in professional learning. It is, after all, a fundamental principle of assessment that people should not be evaluated on things of which they are ignorant. That feels like, and indeed is, a "gotcha." In addition, teachers could better focus on improving their practice if they were provided the levels of performance.

Link teaching standards with evaluation instruments

It became clear to the OECD Review Team in the conversations with teachers that they were uncertain not only about what they should do in compiling their portfolio, but which elements of the portfolio served to provide evidence of which of the criteria of the GTF. It is equally mysterious to them how their submission will be judged, all of which contributes to considerable anxiety and a missed opportunity for valuable teacher reflection on practice. The same general comments apply to other components of the evaluation system, including the self-evaluation, peer interview, and lesson video. Teachers are not sure what these are designed to assess, and therefore how they can be created to reflect high quality.

This is a pity, since it is quite possible to provide this information to teachers. A simple "crosswalk" between the evaluation instruments and the GTF, provided in table form, would help teachers understand both the evaluation criteria and the requirements for the instruments. Furthermore, it would, at least implicitly, help teachers understand how their submissions will be evaluated, and what, therefore, comprises a submission of high quality. Such a crosswalk almost certainly exists, since it must have formed the foundation of the original design of the evaluation system. Hence it is recommended that the alignment between the evaluation instruments and the criteria of the GTF be made known to teachers.

A "crosswalk" typically involves gathering a team of education experts and having them consider each standard and what types of instruments would be most useful to assess a teacher's performance on that standard. For many standards, more than one type of instrument will be appropriate, in which case considerations such as the cost of using the instrument may help determine which instrument to use. For some important standards, it may be desirable to use more than one instrument as a validity check. One key reason to do a crosswalk is to ensure that the right mix of instruments is being used. Another critical reason is to ensure that resources used on particular instruments are proportional to their coverage of important standards. For example, if teachers' performance on the bulk of standards can best be seen in teachers' day-to-day instructional practice, then the great majority of resources should be focused on ensuring that day-to-day instructional practice is thoroughly and accurately measured. Currently, Chile is expending considerable resources to capture and score a single "staged" lesson which can provide limited information about a teacher's overall performance on key teaching standards. Further, crosswalking and aligning all instruments with the teaching standards in the GTF should ensure that throughout their careers, teacher candidates and teachers focus on the practices that Chile values most.

Firmly root all teacher evaluation in classroom observation

The quintessential work of teachers is teaching and it can be observed. Hence, the observation of teaching by trained (and certified, if the subsequent evaluations will result in high-stakes decisions regarding teachers' careers) is central to a robust system of teacher evaluation. Other artifacts of teaching such as planning documents, evidence of communication with families, etc. are not irrelevant to a teacher's practice, but they do not hold the same central position as does the observation of classroom teaching.

Of course, in order for the live observation of classroom practice to hold a central position in a system of teacher evaluation, each school must have the internal capacity to do so accurately. This suggests an extensive investment in training for leadership teams in schools in order for them to conduct observations, and engage in professional conversations with teachers. That training should include teachers as well, since it is critical for them to understand how their performance will be assessed. A high-quality observation system with trained observers can provide predictive information about student learning gains. The link between teacher observation scores and student learning growth on standardised tests is becoming increasingly apparent in the research, though it is highly dependent on having both excellent instruments and very well-trained observers (Holtzapple, 2003; Kane and Staiger, 2012; Kane et al., 2010, 2011; Milanowski, 2004).

In other countries the bulk of observations are conducted by school-based personnel, generally school directors. Because they are situated in the school, they are (at least theoretically) able to observe classrooms on any day. But when school personnel conduct observations of classroom practice, there are many decisions to be made: how long should the observed lessons be? Should they be announced or unannounced? How many lessons should be observed in order for evaluators to make accurate judgements? There has been some important research that can help to answer some of these questions, primarily from the Measures of Effective Teaching (MET) study in the United States. What emerged from that research is that a short observation (15 minutes) is as reliable as a longer one, although reliability is only one factor. The validity of the observation for purposes of evaluation rather than research may require a full-class observation. It is important to conduct a number of observations (at least three, and four is better) to achieve high levels of accuracy. And the results of announced and unannounced observations are not very different. Other research suggests that teachers score somewhat lower when observations are "unannounced," i.e. the observer comes to the teacher's classroom to see authentic, day-to-day instruction rather than an elaborately prepared lesson (Sartain et al., 2011).

Because classroom observation instruments were often designed in conjunction with teaching standards, they are more likely to collect information across most teaching standards (e.g. Danielson's Framework for Teaching). Other instruments tend to measure fewer standards, and some, like measures of student learning growth, measure only one. Chile's teacher performance evaluation system currently relies on a single observation for which a teacher has extensively prepared whereas research has shown that multiple observations and multiple observers greatly increases the accuracy of the scores on many observation instruments (Hill et al., 2012; Kane and Staiger, 2012). Also, the observation and feedback cycle is not currently part of the culture of most Chilean schools. Teachers may receive some informal feedback from school leaders, but the usefulness of this feedback may vary across schools. It is the day-to-day instruction that is most likely to reveal a teacher's true strengths and weaknesses, and those weaknesses can then be diagnosed and addressed in order to improve teaching and learning. Of course, this means

that teachers must have an opportunity to discuss the evidence collected during the observation with the person who observed them and they must then be given appropriate guidance and support to address any identified inadequacies in their performance. The current system does not provide for such interactions, and the costs of finding and training full-time observers is substantial. Chile should consider moving towards an evaluation system that is designed to improve teaching practice through regular observations using an instrument such as Danielson's Framework for Teaching rubrics and feedback conversations which focus on specific practices likely to improve student learning. The observation/feedback cycle should occur more frequently for inexperienced or less effective teachers in order to improve their practices quickly.

Promising research suggests that it is possible to identify effective teacher practices, i.e. those practices most likely to result in student learning growth (Kane et al., 2010). Ongoing research on "high-leverage practices" by Ball and Forzani (2011) as well as Lemov's identification of 49 techniques for teaching that result in better student learning (Lemov, 2010) provide teachers and those who train and evaluate them with key guidance. By focusing on the practices that are most firmly linked with student success, teacher evaluation which includes feedback from trained observers holds promise to improve teaching practices and student outcomes.

Rethink the mix of instruments for both career progression teacher evaluation and developmental teacher evaluation

A key decision is the mix of instruments to use in teacher evaluation. Considerations of two types need to be taken into account to take this decision. First, while the multiplication of instruments and evaluators is more likely to provide a solid basis to evaluate teachers, limited resources make trade-offs inevitable. Comprehensive teacher evaluation programmes imply greater direct and indirect costs at every stage of the process: reaching agreements on the design of the system requires time for discussions and consultations with all stakeholders; training evaluators is expensive; and conducting evaluation processes induces additional workload for both teachers and evaluators (Isoré, 2009). Hence, resource constraints inevitably influence the number and nature of the instruments and evaluators in a teacher evaluation process.

Second, the choice of instruments and evaluators also depends on the specific purpose of the teacher evaluation system, namely whether summative or formative purposes are emphasised. There is considerable debate in the literature about the adequate instruments for achieving each of these purposes of teacher evaluation. Instruments such as student outcomes, teacher tests, questionnaires and surveys completed by parents and students seem to be more summative in nature, whereas interviews with the teacher and documentation prepared by the teacher are generally more useful for formative purposes. When the purpose is to help teachers improve their practices and provide them with professional growth opportunities, qualitative and customised instruments and criteria are preferred. These must allow both to identify domains of strength and weakness in teaching and to give the teacher a constructive feedback including possible ways of improvement, according to the teacher's level of experience and the school context. Also, teacher evaluation with high stakes for teachers should draw on several types of evidence, rely on multiple independent evaluators and should encompass the full scope of the work of the teacher.

Teacher portfolios are particularly interesting to the extent that they contain artifacts of teacher work which can be differently combined according to the purpose emphasised. On the one hand, Klecker (2000), Campbell et al. (2000) and Tucker et al. (2002) argue

that portfolios provide assessment information to hold teachers accountable for meeting educational standards. On the other hand, Darling-Hammond (2001) argues that teacher development should take precedence in designing portfolios and that "narrative reflection" is the best way to foster such development. Beck et al. (2005) observe that portfolios that focus on teacher development better support professional outcomes. Portfolios are particularly adequate instruments for teacher self-reflection because the proper decision made by the teacher to include particular artifacts (lesson plan, videotape of lesson, sample of student work, narrative comments) instead of others is a judgement that requires determining how the features of one artifact are superior to others (Danielson, 1996, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2001; Mansvelder-Longayroux et al., 2007). However, combined with other evaluation instruments, documents prepared by the teacher may be used for a summative purpose.

The experience with the diverse instruments used in *Docentemás* is a good basis for further development. Vast expertise has been developed in the design and use of the instruments across the municipal school system in the implementation of *Docentemás*, which is not to be lost. There are also some studies which provide useful indications such as the study by the Ministry of Education and UNDP which, for instance, reveal that the portfolio is able to capture performance differences among teachers and that the third-reference report deserves a greater weighting in the overall system (Alvarado et al., 2012). Hence, the advancement of teacher evaluation in Chile should considerably draw on the experience with the instruments currently used. However, in the view of the OECD Review Team, some adjustments are needed to improve the effectiveness of teacher evaluation in particular through a greater emphasis on its formative function. An important aspect is to recognise that career progression teacher evaluation and developmental teacher evaluation, as proposed in Chapter 3, require different sets of instruments and evaluators.

A priority should be to give vast prominence to those instruments better capturing the quality of teachers' practices in the classroom and which are richer to inform the improvement of teaching practices. As emphasised earlier, teacher evaluation should be firmly rooted in classroom observation. Most key aspects of teaching are displayed while teachers interact with their students in the classroom. Other instruments that can be used to capture teachers' actual classroom practices include: self-evaluation, teacher portfolios, evidence of student learning and interviews.

Teacher evaluation should involve an opportunity for teachers to express their own views about their performance, and reflect on the personal, organisational and institutional factors that had an impact on their teaching, through a self-evaluation instrument. This is particularly the case when teacher evaluation emphasises professional development purposes. However, it can also be used for summative purposes as long as it is not limited to self-rating as is currently the case with *Docentemás*. Self-evaluation in a high-stakes context should be qualitative in nature and involve the answering of questions such as "To what extent…" or "Describe how…" in addition to providing the teacher with opportunities to explain the particular context he or she faces.

A portfolio could be used in both summative and formative contexts. For summative purposes, a portfolio should require teachers to mention specific ways in which they consider that their professional practices are promoting student learning, and could include elements such as: lesson plans and teaching materials, samples of student work and commentaries on student assessment examples, teacher's self-reported questionnaires and reflection sheets. For formative purposes, teachers could develop a simplified but

well-structured portfolio with specific evidence about key aspects of their teaching. The main objective is that the portfolio plays a role in supporting a reflective approach to teaching practice.

A possible mix of instruments and evaluators for both the career progression teacher evaluation and the developmental teacher evaluation is as follows:

- *Career progression teacher evaluation*: *(i)* document-based teacher portfolio involving teacher qualitative self-reflection (to be evaluated by trained portfolio markers); *(ii)* classroom observation by accredited evaluators (peers or school leaders from a different school) involving professional dialogue, possibly including a peer interview about practice in general; *(iii)* third-party reference report by school leaders to provide linkage to the teacher's school.
- *Developmental teacher evaluation*: *(i)* self-evaluation to include a simple well-structured portfolio; *(ii)* classroom observation by school leader and/or teacher peers to include feedback; *(iii)* Structured interview with school leader(s). The evaluation would result in a professional development plan, as described in Chapter 2.

Instruments used in teacher evaluation should be:

- directly and explicitly aligned with teaching standards, as suggested above
- piloted in the field to determine whether they effectively capture the information that the instruments are designed to measure
- validated through a process of determining whether the measures accurately differentiate among teachers who are more or less successful and whether the basis for those differences are related to teaching skills and abilities rather than extraneous factors
- used only by those who have been trained to administer the instrument correctly
- focused on important aspects of teacher practice and/or student outcomes related to teacher practice
- scored only by those who have been appropriately trained and calibrated for valid and consistent scoring
- introduced to teacher candidates as part of teacher education programmes and to teachers as part of professional development programmes to ensure that teachers thoroughly understand what they will be held accountable for and what will be expected of them during the evaluation process.

It is important to note that the instruments themselves, while important, are only valid within a system of evaluation that ensures they are being used with fidelity (Goe et al., 2011; Hill and Herlihy, 2011).

Design the portfolio requirements in such a way that the contents represent more of a "natural harvest" of teachers' everyday practice

Many teachers commented that they saw little relationship between the requirements of the portfolio (as they understood them) and their day-to-day work; they felt they were producing documents and a video simply to satisfy the requirements of the portfolio

(whose evaluative criteria were not clear to them). Hence, a priority should be for teacher evaluation to draw on instruments which capture more authentic teaching practices.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, in the United States, offers recognition to teachers who satisfy demanding requirements for a portfolio submission. It is offered in a number of different levels and disciplines (for example, secondary school mathematics, early childhood education), and requires a total of 13 entries for each full submission. It is a major undertaking for teachers, although those who embark on it find it to be a rewarding experience. The reason that is the case is that the portfolios have been designed in such a way that they reflect what can be thought of as a "natural harvest" of the teacher's work. Hence, the planning documents describe a unit or lesson that the teacher is actually teaching; the video, and accompanying commentary, are of a lesson the teacher is doing with his or her class. This feature of "natural harvest" results in the entire requirement feeling far less burdensome to teachers than would be the case if it were perceived as an add-on to their normal responsibilities. Chile could consider implementing this approach in its teacher performance evaluation system.

As indicated above, in a teacher evaluation system where two components exist (career progression evaluation and developmental evaluation, as proposed in Chapter 3), each of the components requires a portfolio adapted to its specific purpose (summative or formative). For developmental evaluation, such portfolio should seek to foster the teacher's honest self-reflection on his or her practices in view of developing a professional development plan. For career progression evaluation, the portfolio should give the teacher the opportunity to provide evidence that his or her practices are promoting student learning.

While portfolios for developmental purposes should only involve a qualitative assessment, portfolios for career progression require clarity about how each GTF criterion will be scored on the basis of the different elements of the portfolio. Regarding the latter, teachers should also receive comprehensive instructions, possibly with some support at the school level to complete their portfolios. Teachers also need to be given the necessary release time to complete their portfolios.

Make the peer interview more meaningful

In the peer interview, teachers are asked a series of questions and their responses are coded according to the degree to which they conform to the "desired" answers. But since teachers do not know which aspect of the GTF each question is designed to provide evidence for, they are "in the dark" about how best to respond. A better approach would be to give teachers access to the rubrics, and ask them to describe a specific instance in which they achieved the different elements. This approach would help teachers be more reflective, and would contribute to their professional development. Also, the peer interview does not involve any professional dialogue between the teacher and his or her peer, which eliminates the possibility of feedback for the improvement of practice. A more interactive and open discussion around professional practice would greatly improve the meaningfulness of the peer interview.

It is suggested that in an adjusted teacher performance evaluation system, the peer interview is combined with classroom observation – in both the cases of career-progression teacher evaluation and developmental evaluation (as proposed in Chapter 3). The objective is to establish a professional dialogue between peers which includes the information generated by the direct observation of practice. In the context of career-progression evaluation it might be combined with a discussion of general practice while in the context

of developmental evaluation it should generate an open and frank discussion about the strengths and weaknesses identified by the evaluator. Peer evaluators for career progression evaluation should be accredited following participation in a comprehensive training programme. Teachers' propensity to reveal their real weaknesses and fears during interviews depends on their confidence in the interviewer and their perceptions of the possibility to receive relevant and constructive feedback from the evaluation process.

The use of peer interviews in the Chile model is a true innovation; while there is provision in some other countries for peer evaluation, those generally rely on peer observation only rather than an interview about practice in general. But if the peer interview were strengthened in the manner suggested here, to promote teacher reflection on practice, this would constitute a true contribution to the field.

Teachers perform better in terms of student learning outcomes when they are in schools with effective peers, called the "spillover effect" (Jackson and Bruegmann, 2009). The spillovers are most pronounced for the least experienced teachers and continue over their careers, suggesting that a teacher's colleagues have a profound impact on their practice. The researchers found that about 20% of a teacher's value-added score can be explained by the spillovers. This research focused on schools in the United States which varied widely in the supports they offered to teachers to learn from each other through observing each other's classrooms and participating in structured professional learning communities. The results of the study may suggest that in schools with highly effective teachers, efforts should be made to leverage the impact of these teachers on new or less effective teachers. Making highly effective teachers' classrooms into "learning labs" where other teachers can observe is one mechanism to increase the effective teachers' influence. Similarly, providing time for these "master teachers" to observe and give feedback to inexperienced teachers may promote better teacher practices and student outcomes.

Use the third-party reference report by school leaders to link developmental evaluation to career-progression evaluation

In career-progression teacher evaluation it is important to ensure that the views and perspectives of an evaluator familiar with the teacher's school context are also given consideration. This is ideally carried out in a third-party reference report by the leadership of the teacher's school. This would provide a link between developmental evaluation and career-progression evaluation as school leaders (directors and heads of technical-pedagogical units) would use information from the internal developmental evaluations as an input to prepare their third-party reference reports. The advantage is that the existence of internal developmental teacher evaluation ensures that the school leadership has familiarity with the teacher's practice and can therefore respond to the various aspects of the teacher's work addressed in the career-progression evaluation.

It is premature to use standardised student results as an instrument for teacher evaluation

The OECD Review Team considers that at this stage it is premature to use student standardised assessment results as direct measures to evaluate the performance of individual teachers. Student results are fundamental, but given the current limitations of value-added models, they are more relevant for whole-school evaluation than for individual teacher performance evaluation. In addition, Chile does not yet have in place the necessary pre-requisites to engage in the measurement of individual teachers'

contributions to student learning growth. This would require a considerable investment of resources by Chilean education authorities, including:

- More frequent standardised assessment covering more Year levels in mathematics, languages and sciences (and, possibly other subjects), an option with substantial costs.
- The creation and/or strengthening of data linking and verification mechanisms to ensure that teachers are accurately matched to assessment scores for the students they taught.
- The assurance that standardised assessments are covering important curriculum standards and that the most crucial constructs are properly weighted in the assessment.
- Convincing teachers that the system is fair and benefits them.
- Developing sophisticated value-added models that control for most factors which influence student achievement scores other than the teacher's impact. This requires detailed data on aspects such as student backgrounds, school policies or availability of resources at the school which can be linked to the teacher being evaluated.
- Studies validating students' standardised assessment scores as a measure of teachers' performance.
- Monitoring of the potential detrimental effects resulting from strategic responses on the part of teachers (e.g. "teaching to the test").

It might be best to direct such investment into building capacity for evaluation across the Chilean education system as with intensive training for school leaders and teachers on teacher observation and the provision of feedback. The advantage of such investment is that it builds on the professionalism of educators and contributes to their development. Engagement with using student results as a direct measure of teacher performance should only be considered, in some schools, as a low-stakes experimental pilot project in a few Year levels and subjects.

However, this recommendation does not imply that teachers are exempted from providing evidence to demonstrate student progress in their classrooms, but considers that it can be provided, for instance, through specific evidence such as student portfolios, performances and projects. A possibility, at the school level, is for teachers to meet with their school leaders and agree specific goals for the learning of their students as well as ways for student achievement towards the goals to be assessed (as with the Student Learning Objectives of New York State's teacher evaluation system, see Box 4.2). This then allows the teacher to be evaluated by school leaders on the progress his or her students made towards the learning goals. The latter are designed as a way to provide teachers with incentives for successful goal-driven instruction. Working with their school leadership and with other teachers in the same subject and year level, teachers identify measurable, rigorous learning and performance goals for the entire class as well as for groups of students. For example, a teacher with many struggling students may have both a class goal and a goal specifically for the struggling students. It is important that teachers not be penalised for setting high goals that are not always met because that might result in teachers setting less-challenging goals for their students. Rather, the students' success and progress, even if they fall short of the goals, should be the basis for measuring teachers' contributions to student learning growth.

Box 4.2 The Teacher Evaluation System of New York State, United States

New York State's Teacher Evaluation System is typical of most state evaluation systems in that it provides considerable flexibility to school districts (local education agencies) in selecting instruments for teacher evaluation purposes. However, the state maintains control over the weighting of the multiple measures used in the evaluation process. In addition, the state approves some instruments (observations and surveys) while giving the district greater discretion in approving measures of teachers' contributions to student learning growth.

The key features of New York's teacher evaluation system are:

- Multiple measures of teacher performance are required for teacher evaluation, including classroom observations and evidence of teachers' contribution to student learning growth (standardised test score growth in tested subjects and year levels along with district-approved measures of student learning growth for all teachers). Student growth measures constitute 40% of teacher evaluation scores while other state-approved measures such as classroom observations, surveys and portfolios constitute the remaining 60%.
- Student learning objectives (SLOs) are used to measure teachers' contribution to student learning growth in all subjects. Teachers receive guidance in setting appropriate learning objectives for their students and districts exercise considerable discretion in approving appropriate assessments and measures to determine student growth.
- Observations must be at least 31% of the 60%, and a minimum of two observations must be conducted each year for each teacher. Anyone conducting classroom observations must be trained and certified to ensure that results of such observations are consistent across classrooms. Districts may select from a variety of state-approved observation protocols (such as Danielson's Framework for Teaching, CLASS, Marzano's Causal Teacher Evaluation System, etc.).
- State-approved parent and/or student surveys may be used as part of the 60%, as well as structured review of lessons plans, portfolios and/or other teacher artifacts.

For more information, see *www.engageny.org/teacherleader-effectiveness*.

The use of surveys of students and parents needs to be approached with considerable caution

Parents' surveys might be more relevant for whole-school evaluation than for individual teacher performance evaluation. As explained by Isoré (2009), the little current evidence on this subject shows that parents value teacher characteristics that surprisingly depart from student achievement: "the teacher's ability to promote student satisfaction" (Jacob and Lefgren, 2005), "humane treatment of students", "support for pupil learning", and "effective communication and collaboration with parents" (Peterson et al., 2003). Even if parents' perspectives could be taken into account, their lack of understanding of teaching professional standards, their distance from practices in the classroom, and their emotional implication suggest that their judgements might not be adequate to evaluate individual teachers.

By contrast, student surveys may have substantial benefit to teachers by increasing their understanding of how students perceive the learning environment, their relationship with the teacher, the teachers' style of interacting with students, and students' engagement with the content. This type of information can be very useful to teachers in determining their professional growth goals and is therefore particularly relevant as a

formative instrument of teacher evaluation. The use of student surveys in the summative evaluation of teachers is more controversial given that students are not necessarily teaching experts, lack an understanding of teaching standards and have an emotional involvement with the teacher's practice. However, there is some evidence from the United States that high-quality student surveys can provide useful information to triangulate with other measures of teacher performance within a system of multiple measures (Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, 2010; Peterson et al., 2000).

Complement the initial pedagogical excellence examination with other policies

Chile is planning to establish the initial pedagogical excellence examination (INICIA test) as mandatory for entering the teaching profession, which will play an important role in screening out candidates who lack the fundamental skills. The examination is designed to ensure that less-selective or less effective teacher preparation programmes are not producing teachers who are inadequately prepared for their roles. This is an important step to address concerns about the quality of a number of teacher education programmes. However, it is important to strengthen the policies more commonly used to assure the quality of initial teacher education programmes. These include the strengthening of the selection into initial teacher education, diagnostic tests during the studies to identify those in need of support, and rigorous processes of accreditation of initial teacher education programmes. Chile has established as mandatory the accreditation of initial teacher education programmes but these accreditations are still in the process of being completed.

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Chapter 5

Competencies for teacher evaluation

At the central level, teacher evaluation relies on the competencies of several agencies that co-operate regularly so as to assure the quality of the process. While the Ministry of Education holds the political and management responsibility for teacher evaluation, the technical co-ordination of the process is exercised by a dedicated unit within the Ministry (CPEIP), which in turn is required to receive independent scientific advice from universities with expertise in the area. In particular, the close association with the Docentemás team, located at the Measurement Centre of the Catholic University of Chile, ensures that the system is based on scientific advice as well as national and international research evidence. There is a perception that the Docentemás system is run with strong technical capacity. Also, the management of public schools by the municipalities offers the potential for closer monitoring of teacher evaluation practices than a centralised system would allow while also providing opportunities to recognise local realities and constraints. However, it appears that there are large variations in the extent to which municipalities have the capacity to fulfil their roles in teacher evaluation effectively. A positive development has been the considerable attention given to school leadership. However, a range of concerns remain about whether school leaders have the competencies necessary to lead the effective implementation of teacher evaluation at the school level. One of the strengths of the Docentemás teacher evaluation approach is the high involvement of practising teachers as evaluators in two main roles: as markers of teacher portfolios; and as peer evaluators who conduct peer interviews and participate in the Municipality Evaluation Commissions. For both roles, intensive preparation processes have been set up to build the capacity of those selected. However, there are a number of areas where there is room for improvement of teachers' evaluation competencies (e.g. capacity of teachers to undertake effective self-evaluation; teachers' limited understanding of the Docentemás system). Another concern is that there is little trust in the competencies of portfolio markers among evaluated teachers.

Effective teacher evaluation relies to a great extent on the competencies of those involved in the process – both to evaluate and to use evaluation results. This chapter looks at issues related to the development of competencies necessary to design and implement effective teacher evaluation processes. As explained in Chapter 2, responsibilities for teacher evaluation are shared between four levels: (1) the central level (Ministry of Education) designing teacher evaluation policies and implementing teacher evaluation procedures; (2) the municipality level designing its own local systems for teacher evaluation and also heading the Municipal Evaluation Commissions of the *Docentemás* system; (3) the school leaders and teacher peers making judgements about teacher performance; and (4) the teachers themselves who, as part of the *Docentemás* process, undertake a self-evaluation, prepare a teaching performance Portfolio and are expected to use evaluation results for self-improvement.

A critical component of a rigorous system of teacher evaluation consists of training for evaluators, to ensure accuracy and consistency. It is clear that those who designed Chile's system were well aware of the pivotal position held by evaluators and, therefore, the imperative to train them well; the success of the system depends on their skill. In the absence of such training, and of a system to ensure that the training has been successful, the system as a whole collapses. That is, everyone (including non-educators) has an idea of what constitutes good teaching, as a result of the fact that they have all attended school. However, there is no assurance that everyone's view of good teaching is the same; indeed, there is every reason to suppose that they are not. Therefore, in the absence of training to ensure consistency, every evaluator applies his or her own idiosyncratic ideas to the work of evaluation.

Strengths

The system relies on the competencies of several central agencies and academic institutions

At the central level, teacher evaluation relies on the competencies of several agencies that co-operate regularly so as to assure the quality of the process. While the Ministry of Education holds the political and management responsibility for teacher evaluation, the technical co-ordination of the process is exercised by CPEIP, which in turn is required to receive independent scientific advice from universities with expertise in the area. During the Review visit, a range of stakeholders commented on the efficient central management of the teacher evaluation process. It was generally appreciated that the process is being managed by a dedicated unit within the Ministry (CPEIP), which is linked to a pool of prestigious universities supporting the management of the process. There is recognition at the central level that the implementation of teacher evaluation is a very complex process including a range of both scientific and logistical tasks that could not have been fulfilled effectively by the Ministry or CPEIP alone.

In particular, the close association with the *Docentemás* team, located at the Measurement Centre of the Catholic University of Chile, ensures that the system is based on scientific advice as well as national and international research evidence. The *Docentemás* team consists of 36 staff including professionals, technicians and administrative staff, most of them with a background in education or psychology. Under the supervision of the CPEIP, the *Docentemás* team collaborates in all aspects of the process, such as the design of assessment instruments and guidelines, logistical aspects of the implementation, selection and training of peer evaluators, marking of the teacher portfolios, development and maintenance of information systems and preparation of

results reports. In general, key stakeholders perceived the *Docentemás* team as independent and possessing the strong technical capacity needed to run the teacher performance evaluation system effectively. Procedures for collecting and scoring evidence about teaching practice show a thoughtful design, including training of assessors as well as providing instructional documents to teachers to guide them through the process. There is willingness for continuous learning and development, as is reflected in the fact that the *Docentemás* team uses feedback from teachers who were evaluated to continuously improve the capacity of its own staff. There is considerable expertise within the *Docentemás* team on which to build.

In addition, a number of universities providing initial teacher education are closely associated to the process. In particular, the portfolio Assessment centres are located within a number of universities across the country. According to CPEIP, involving the universities in the process is essential to make the process legitimate in the eyes of the profession. It also allows building capacity and generating institutional learning within the universities themselves, which may help them align initial teacher education with the expectations of the teacher evaluation process. Overall, there is the perception of technical competency and independence in the management of the teacher performance evaluation system at the central level.

The municipal school sector has the potential to foster systemic learning on teacher evaluation

The management of public schools by the municipalities offers the potential for closer monitoring of teacher evaluation practices than a centralised system would allow while also providing opportunities to recognise local realities and constraints. While the capacity of many municipalities in the area of evaluation and quality assurance is still limited, there appears to be growing awareness and interest among municipalities in these functions. A recent survey of Heads of municipal education authorities revealed that most municipalities would indeed be eager to take on more responsibility in human resource management including teacher evaluation. Indeed, 83% of them indicated that more responsibility in evaluating personnel would facilitate the municipal management of schools (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Perceived influence of increased responsibilities in selecting, evaluating, dismissing and rewarding teaching staff on facilitating the municipal management of schools

	More responsibility in selecting staff	More responsibility in dismissing staff	More responsibility in fixing salaries	More responsibility in evaluating staff	More responsibility in creating a performance bonus system
More difficult	1.78%	4.75%	8.31%	3.26%	3.56%
As easy or difficult	17.21%	16.62%	28.49%	13.95%	13.35%
Easier	81.01%	78.64%	63.20%	82.79%	83.09%

Source: Survey of heads of municipal education departments and corporations, in Raczynski and Salinas (2009), "Prioridades, actors y procesos en la gestión municipal de la educación", M. Marcel and D. Raczynski (eds.), *La Asignatura Pendiente: Claves para la Revalidación de la Educación Pública de Gestión Local en Chile,* Colección Cieplan, Santiago, Chile.

The municipal school sector has the advantage of providing a range of opportunities for enhanced systemic learning on teacher evaluation. While private subsidised schools may face challenges of isolation, in the municipal sector the local authorities can play a key role in supporting the creation of networks among schools, allowing both school leaders and teachers to meet with their peers from schools in the municipality. Such networks can be a

platform to share pedagogical experiences across schools, analyse results from SIMCE and from the teacher evaluation system and develop common projects, materials and approaches. It can also be a starting point to identify professional development needs within the municipality and develop common strategies for capacity development.

The recent emphasis on improving school leadership competency helps building stronger evaluation cultures at the school level

School leaders, if they are well selected and prepared, can play a key role in evaluating teachers and providing constructive feedback for improvement. While their role in the *Docentemás* system is small, school leaders are also expected to develop their own school-based approaches to teacher evaluation. Over the last few years, the Ministry of Education has made the improvement of school leadership an important policy priority. This is reflected in a whole range of recent initiatives, which also have the potential to contribute to more effective teacher evaluation processes in schools.

A focus on pedagogical leadership in national legislation and standards

First, there is a legal emphasis on the pedagogical leadership role of school directors. In particular, the General Education Law specifies that school leaders must engage in the supervision of teachers in the classroom. According to current regulations, the school director's main role is to oversee and lead the schools' educational project. This includes setting and monitoring school goals, study programmes and implementation strategies; organising and guiding the technical-pedagogical work and professional development of teachers; and ensuring adequate reporting to parents about their children's progress (Weinstein et al., 2011).

In addition, the existence of a sophisticated set of school leadership standards – the Good School Leadership Framework (*Marco para la Buena Dirección*) – is a key strength of Chile's approach to school leadership. It was established by the Ministry of Education in 2005 based on international experience regarding leadership standards as well as a series of consultations with stakeholders (Ministry of Education, forthcoming). It provides a description of key competencies required for effective leadership in education and identifies four areas of action (leadership, curricular management, resource management and institutional environment) along with a set of criteria. In the curricular management area, the Framework highlights the monitoring and evaluation of teaching as an explicit part of school leaders' responsibilities. It is indicated that school leaders should be leading the educational project of the school, and as part of this they should monitor and evaluate teaching. According to the Framework, they should know and promote effective teaching strategies in line with the Good Teaching Framework (GTF) and they should monitor and evaluate whether classroom practices are coherent with the teaching programme for each level (Ministry of Education, 2005).

Competitive recruitment processes and incentives to attract good candidates

Chile recently introduced a new approach to recruiting school leaders, which has the potential to attract high-performing candidates to the profession. There are competitive recruitment processes to apply for public school leadership positions including a pre-selection process carried out by a municipal commission (Weinstein et al., 2011). The Quality and Equality of Education Law has changed the process so that candidates for school leadership now have to apply to High Public Service and are selected by a professional selection committee. A range of competency profiles are currently being

drafted and designed so as to reflect different school contexts (e.g. different levels of education, rural vs. urban settings). The development of such competency profiles provides the opportunity to firmly embed a focus on teacher evaluation within the expectations for new school leaders. With the introduction of a set of incentives and bonuses, there have also been efforts to make school leadership a more attractive position for young and dynamic teaching staff.

More autonomy and accountability for school leaders

The current legal framework also provides a higher degree of accountability for school leaders. When taking on a new post, school leaders now have to sign performance agreements in relation to which they are evaluated at the end of the year. Concurrently, school leaders have received more autonomy in human resource management, namely they can choose and appoint their school leadership teams and they are allowed to dismiss 5% of the teachers who have been poorly evaluated (see also Chapter 1).

Investment in school leadership development

Last but not least, there has been substantial investment in offering a larger range of professional development opportunities to school leaders. While Chile does not currently have a mandatory pre-service training or induction programme for beginning school directors (more on this below), there are a range of in-service training courses on offer for practising school leaders. According to a 2007 Ministry of Education study, of the professional development programmes included in the CPEIP's Training National Public Registry, 300 courses specifically stated that they were directed at school directors (Weinstein et al., 2011). Most of these are provided by universities and professional institutes, but the Ministry of Education and CPEIP also provide courses directly. The Ministry of Education runs an Educational Leadership Programme which offers workshops at the municipal level and has been attended by almost 4 000 individuals (Weinstein et al., 2011).

In addition, a new "Directors of Excellence" plan (*Programa Formación de Directores de Excelencia*) was launched in 2011 for current directors and teachers aspiring to be directors. As part of this plan, scholarships have been made available for school leaders and teachers to pursue programmes reinforcing their leadership and management skills. Half of the scholarships are awarded to working directors, and the other half to teachers aspiring to be directors. In the first year of the programme, CPEIP selected 1 500 participants and delivered over 800 scholarships to finance their enrolment in leadership and management courses. The intention is to help directors become pedagogical leaders in their school, which includes leadership in running teacher evaluation processes. The director education programmes will provide participants with tools and criteria they can apply in classroom observation.

However, while the training offer for school leaders appears abundant, challenges remain in fully implementing and institutionalising these approaches and there are questions regarding the quality and relevance of available training (more on this below).

The high involvement of teachers as evaluators contributes to building ownership and evaluation competencies among the teaching staff

One of the strengths of the *Docentemás* teacher evaluation approach is the high involvement of practising teachers as evaluators. The participation of teachers at various stages of the evaluation process contributes to building ownership and evaluation

competency among teachers and may also help them to understand and benefit from their own evaluation to a greater extent.

Practising teachers can apply to two key roles in the evaluation process: (1) as markers of teacher portfolios in one of the Assessment centres set up by *Docentemás* in various universities; and (2) as peer evaluators who conduct peer interviews and participate in the Municipality Evaluation Commissions. For both roles, intensive preparation processes have been set up to build the capacity of those selected.

The portfolio markers are trained in a one-week training session, where they work together with specialists on concrete examples of different performance levels. The training sessions comprise individual and group work in which teachers discuss judgements about proficiency levels. This is followed by a test period where the markers apply what they have learned, internalise the marking processes and benefit from group discussion about the results.

The peer evaluators are selected and trained by the *Docentemás* team or the local university in charge of the process. Only teachers who have been previously rated as *Outstanding* or *Competent* can apply to become peer evaluators. They receive training in two full-day seminars, during which they learn about the six questions to be asked in the peer interview and the rubrics to be applied in assigning performance ratings. The training also includes exercises and feedback to the participants. At the end of this training phase, there is another selection process and not all of those initially selected are retained as peer evaluators. Several months later, before the peer evaluators get together in the Municipal Evaluation Commission to make a final judgement about teachers' performance levels, they receive another full day of training.

Beyond the involvement of teachers in the national *Docentemás* evaluation process, there appears to be greater focus recently within schools on building up internal capacity for teacher evaluation. A range of stakeholders interviewed by the OECD Review Team explained that schools are becoming more engaged in developing their own instruments and rubrics for school evaluation.

A range of initiatives to improve initial teacher education can help future teachers benefit more fully from their evaluation

Strengthening teachers' competencies overall has been a policy priority in recent years. According to the Country Background Report prepared for this Review (Ministry of Education, forthcoming), "there is a general agreement about the importance of recruiting, training and retaining the best candidates for the teaching profession". There has been a recent policy focus on strengthening teachers' pedagogical and content preparation through an improvement of the overall quality of initial teacher education. While these policies are not directly related to teacher evaluation, they may have a positive impact on strengthening teachers' capacity to engage in their own evaluation and improve their practice. Three initiatives in relation to initial teacher training have been recently implemented:

1. **Performance agreements** have been established since 2011 between the Ministry of Education and specific teacher education institutions. These agreements aim to improve the quality of teacher education. Based on the performance agreements, institutions must commit to strengthen and improve their programmes and receive additional funding to do so.

2. **Initiatives to attract academically talented students** to teacher education institutions and to the teaching career more generally. These include the Teacher Vocation Scholarship (BVP) and the "Choose to Teach" (*Elige Educar*) campaign (see Chapter 2).
3. **The Programme for the promotion of quality in initial teacher education (INICIA)** was implemented in 2009. As described in Chapter 2, it comprises Graduating Teacher Standards for teacher education, a graduation test (the "INICIA test") and a programme to support the improvement of teacher education programmes.

The teacher performance evaluation system is supported by guidance materials

The teacher performance evaluation system in Chile provides for guidance materials for evaluators. The guidelines for peer interview evaluators and portfolio markers are thorough and helpful; those who are trained to perform these tasks are provided with clear guidance as to how to do it, and there is sufficient detail to guide even those who are inexperienced in the role. Furthermore, the procedures are standardised, which contributes to ensuring some consistency of application of the evaluation around the country. Teachers being evaluated also receive guidance to undertake their evaluation. For example, the directions they receive to prepare their portfolio are detailed and comprehensive, and seemingly designed to encourage teacher reflection on their teaching. They include descriptors of the GTF to place the preparation of the portfolio in relation to the teaching standards.

Challenges

There is little trust in the competencies of portfolio markers

From the OECD Review Team's interviews with teachers, it appeared that despite the systematic selection and preparation of portfolio markers, teachers have little trust in the accuracy of their judgements. In the eyes of some teachers, the training of markers remains too limited. In particular, several teachers interviewed by the OECD Review Team pointed to the limited usefulness of the results reports they received back. In one school, teachers expressed that they had all received an identical text in their results reports. Some of the stakeholders interviewed by the OECD Review Team also indicated that teacher students were occasionally used as portfolio markers and that not all markers appeared adequately qualified for the job.

Studies of validity of *Docentemás* undertaken by the Measurement Centre of the *Pontificia Universidad Católica de Chile* reveal that the consistency of markers is greater when they evaluate more global aspects of performance rather than specific competency domains. Furthermore, there are indications that while the relative judgements of markers (across assessed portfolios) are adequate their judgement in absolute terms (ratings across the eight dimensions assessed) are not satisfactory (Taut et al., 2011). Some studies show that systematic differences across markers still explain a considerable share of the variance of portfolio ratings (Taut et al., 2011).

As documented in the literature, there are, of course, hazards in the training of observers; there are well-documented risks in not sufficiently accounting for the risks of leniency, central tendency, and bias (Tsui and Barry, 1986; Saal et al., 1980). The avoidance (or at least the minimising) of such distortions is one of the principal aims of a training programme for observers.

There is high variability in the capacity of municipalities to support the teacher evaluation process

Municipalities are expected to play an important role in the evaluation of teachers in their schools. This includes not only heading the Municipal Evaluation Commissions of the *Docentemás* system, but also ensuring the follow-up with teachers who perform poorly in the evaluation and potentially setting up local teacher evaluation systems.

However, it appears that there are large variations in the extent to which municipalities have the capacity to fulfil these roles effectively. Chile's municipalities are highly heterogeneous in terms of their size, level of urbanisation and economic development. In 2002, the smallest 10% of municipalities catered to an average of 445 students while the largest 10% of municipalities enrolled an average of 21 300 students (Larrañaga et al., 2009). Municipalities also vary significantly in the socio-economic composition of their population, with smaller municipalities having a higher probability of catering to low-income populations than medium-sized and large municipalities (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Number of municipalities by population size and income

Income	Size			
	Small	Medium	Large	Total
Low	150	21	--	172
Medium	50	41	16	107
High	9	14	29	52
Total	209	76	46	331

Source: Population Census 2002, income by municipality 2005, SINIM, SUBDERE; in Larrañaga et al. (2009) "Una mirada al interior del sector municipal", M. Marcel and D. Raczynski (eds.), *La Asignatura Pendiente: Claves para la Revalidación de la Educación Pública de Gestión Local en Chile,* Colección Cieplan, Santiago, Chile.

Given these differences, it is not surprising that municipalities also vary widely in the human resources they have to manage the local education system. While large municipalities like Santiago have the financial and human resources to elaborate their own quality assurance mechanisms, some smaller municipalities may have only one staff in charge of the entire local education system. A recent survey of Chilean municipalities[1] found that 20% of municipalities did not have a position of Head of the municipal education department or corporation.[2] Moreover, 39% of the municipalities did not have any staff responsible for the pedagogical support of schools and 49% did not have dedicated staff for the area of diagnostics and evaluation of students (Raczynski and Salinas, 2009). This indicates that a substantial proportion of municipalities do not have the human resources to support schools in their core business of teaching and learning.

Indeed, the survey reveals that only a small proportion of municipalities were working directly on evaluating and improving pedagogical processes in their schools. While municipalities are allowed to complement the national teacher performance evaluation system with their own approaches, in fact only 10% of municipalities had a system of teacher evaluation besides the *Docentemás* system and only 21% had a system of incentives to reward high performing teachers or school leaders. It was also rare for municipalities to provide support for schools to improve actual classroom practices: only 23% of municipalities were working directly with teachers in the classrooms and 30% had contracted or received technical assistance specialised in pedagogy (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Positive answers regarding indicators of technical-pedagogical management within municipalities (%)

Has formed one or more networks of municipal work which includes school leaders and teachers	80.9
Maintains a solid relationship with the municipal units in charge of the social needs of students and/or families	80.4
Defines annual objectives for the schools*	73.0
Issues public tenders for the recruitment of school leaders and teachers*	65.0
Applies municipal student assessments (in addition to SIMCE) to feed back into classroom work	64.8
Has a technical pedagogical team at municipal level that supports the schools	63.6
Requires that schools implement extracurricular activities complementing curricular content to support the development of the students' different talents*	58.8
Conducts regular planned visits to the schools and provides feedback to the work of school leaders and teachers*	55.8
Has a strategy to respond to teachers' developmental needs*	52.8
Regularly monitors school progress*	52.5
Has developed a specific strategy, common to schools, to support students who are lagging behind	51.6
Carries out direct work to strengthen the capacities of the leadership team*	51.0
Contracts or obtains technical advice specialised in pedagogical issues	30.3
Carries out direct work with teachers in the classroom to support teaching-learning*	23.4
Has a municipal fund to which schools present their projects	21.8
Has an incentive system (bonuses) that rewards performance of teachers and school leaders (different from that of the Ministry of Education)	20.9
Has its own teacher evaluation system (different from that of the Ministry of Education)	10.2

Note*: Indicators based on responses for which three options existed.

Source: Survey of Heads of municipal education departments and corporations, in Raczynski and Salinas (2009). "Prioridades, actors y procesos en la gestión municipal de la educación", M. Marcel and D. Raczynski (eds.), *La Asignatura Pendiente: Claves para la Revalidación de la Educación Pública de Gestión Local en Chile,* Colección Cieplan, Santiago, Chile.

Theoretically, the municipalities should also play an important role in working with teachers who have obtained poor results in the national teacher performance evaluation system by ensuring that they receive adequate professional development to overcome their weaknesses. However, there are indications that municipalities lack staff and capacity to follow up with teachers. According to the survey of Heads of municipal departments and corporations, just over half of the municipalities (52%) had a strategy to respond to the professional development needs of teachers. In the interviews with the OECD Review Team, stakeholders indicated that teacher professional development within municipalities was largely disarticulated. Municipalities rarely appeared to take a leading role in guiding teacher professional development. For example, based on our interviews, there did not seem to be municipal databases of available training, or training plans for teachers that respond to school development priorities.

Regarding the obstacles municipalities were facing in educational management, most of the surveyed Heads of municipal education departments or corporations mentioned factors that were beyond the control of the municipality, such as the lack of financial resources, the limited support of students by their families and restrictions imposed by national policy. At the same time, almost half of the municipalities (47%) mentioned the lack of capacities and professional/technical resources within the municipalities as an obstacle to effective educational management at the local level. The Heads were also asked about the kind of support that would help them improve the municipal management. In terms of support at the level of the municipality, 33% mentioned counselling in pedagogical matters and 14% indicated professional development for staff of the municipal education department or corporation (Raczynski and Salinas, 2009).

There is little tradition for pedagogical leadership in Chilean schools and school leaders could play a stronger role in teacher evaluation

While the recent focus on improving school leadership in Chile is commendable, a range of concerns remain about whether school leaders have the competencies necessary to lead the effective implementation of teacher evaluation at the school level.

Traditionally, in Chile, school leaders have played more of an administrative and managerial role than a pedagogical leadership role. While recent reforms (see above) have given school leaders greater powers and responsibilities, whether they actually take responsibility for the quality of education at the point of delivery depends largely on the motivation and leadership style of individual directors. It appeared to the OECD Review Team that the prevailing culture in Chile is not one in which school leaders are routinely involved in observation of teaching with an evaluative or professional development focus. Teachers are generally left largely to their own devices unless major problems arise. Hence, in many schools, there is little regular discussion of the standards and criteria of the GTF and professionals may not be used to regular evaluation and analysis of their practice.

There is no mandatory pre-service training for school leadership and many school directors have not had professional development regarding classroom observation, evaluation of teaching practice and provision of feedback. While a range of professional development opportunities are available for school leaders, these appear to focus mainly on administrative issues and may lack relevance for pedagogical leadership tasks (Ministry of Education, forthcoming). The lack of preparation and training may reduce school leaders' willingness and capacity to engage in evaluating and guiding their teachers. School leaders interviewed by the OECD Review Team deplored that there were no systematic induction and mentoring processes helping new directors when they take on the leadership of a school. They also reported that there were few professional development opportunities available to learn more about teacher evaluation and coaching. Currently, there is no dedicated institution to train school directors and there are few educators who are in a position to deliver courses in pedagogical leadership. CPEIP is now working with a range of different institutions to create a platform of individuals with expertise in school leadership training.

The introduction of the national *Docentemás* teacher evaluation system could have been used as an opportunity to further engage school leaders in leading the core business of teaching and learning in schools. But, quite the contrary, the current teacher performance evaluation approach marginalises the role of the school leaders: their input through the third-party reference report counts for only 10% of the teachers' overall rating. The teacher evaluation model does not grant the school leader an active role in observing and evaluating classroom practice, which appears to further weaken their pedagogical leadership role. This is compounded by the fact that there has not been a culture where school leaders (or teacher peers) routinely enter a teacher's classroom with a view to observe and provide feedback on the teacher's practice. According to CPEIP, it was decided that the *Docentemás* system should not rely on school leaders as key actors at this stage because their capacity to evaluate teachers still needs strengthening. This makes it more surprising the absence of procedures to train school leaders to observe lessons of teachers in their schools and undertake the third-party reference report. The training of observers of classroom practice is particularly important as it touches upon the core business of teachers.

School leaders could also play a potentially powerful role in using the results from teacher evaluation to plan professional development for individual teachers in a way as to

contribute to overall school development and improvement. However, there were no indications that school directors did in fact use the results of *Docentemás* process in any way to organise professional development for the school's staff. The absence of specific training for school directors on the teacher performance evaluation system partly explains this. Also, a recurrent concern among school leaders was their lack of time to observe classroom practice, follow up the evaluations and organise adequate training opportunities for teachers. The practice of distributed leadership is not yet widespread in Chile. There are no formal positions for teacher leaders or senior teachers who could take on a range of leadership tasks and support the school leader in the overall organisation of the school. More experienced teachers play a limited role in providing feedback and support to their peers.

Several teachers interviewed by the OECD Review Team voiced concerns about the competencies of school leaders to provide adequate third-party reference reports, or in fact to evaluate teaching practices at all. They saw a risk of bias and negative effects on collegial relationships if the school leader was involved. Some members of Municipal Evaluation Commissions interviewed by the OECD Review Team indicated that the third-party reference reports often did not deliver an adequate analysis of context and that the tool was not always correctly used by school directors. For example, in some cases school leaders delivered the same reference report for all their teachers. School leaders, as well as peer evaluators, might be reluctant to provide a negative evaluation of teachers to avoid jeopardising good working relationships within the school. Another challenge is the high level of rotation of school directors in the municipal sector which makes it difficult for school leaders to provide an adequate evaluation of their teachers. According to representatives of the teacher union, traditionally school leaders have not been selected for the job based on their pedagogical expertise and hence the teaching staff does not necessarily trust the school leader as being a legitimate evaluator of teaching practice.

There is room to further strengthen the evaluation competencies of teachers

As described above, teachers are required to play an active role in their own evaluation. However, they can only optimally play this role if they have acquired the competencies to prepare and participate in their own evaluation and to follow up with professional learning. This section describes a number of areas where there is room for improvement of teachers' evaluation competencies.

Competencies for self-evaluation

There is much concern about the capacity of teachers to undertake effective self-evaluation. Clearly, there is a general perception in Chile that teachers invariably rate positively their own performance and that the self-evaluations do not reflect differentiated analysis about their own strengths and weaknesses. On the one hand, this may reflect a lack of capacity of teachers to analyse their own strengths and weaknesses accurately. Indeed, the ability to evaluate and reflect critically upon one's own practice is a useful skill that should receive more attention in initial teacher education and professional development. On the other hand, it is important to recall that self-evaluation is a poor instrument for high-stakes evaluation (see Chapter 4). Since the self-evaluation counts towards the teacher's overall rating, it provides incentives for teachers to assess themselves as positively as possible, which reduces the usefulness of the self-evaluation process to inform future professional development (Manzi et al., 2011).

Capacity to understand the teaching standards, evaluation processes and performance levels

Many of the teachers interviewed by the OECD Review Team indicated that they did not fully understand the teacher performance evaluation process. Some mentioned that the language of the instruments was unclear while others pointed out that the standards and criteria in relation to which they were evaluated were not explicit. It remained obscure to many teachers how, for example, the video would be judged and rated against specific standards and criteria (see Chapter 4).

A recurring concern was that teachers felt isolated in the process of preparing their own self-evaluation and completing their portfolio. It was described as a solitary rather than a collaborative process. The teacher evaluation process itself is not embedded in capacity building through professional learning communities and collaboration with high performing colleagues. Several teachers deplored the lack of opportunities to gain deeper knowledge and skills in using the evaluation process to show their best performance. Indeed, several of the peer evaluators we met indicated that they had decided to become peer evaluators simply because they were seeking to get a better understanding of the different elements of the GTF and the teacher evaluation process. They were hoping to benefit from this knowledge in their own next evaluation.

Capacity to use results for improvement

For the teacher performance evaluation process to be effective and lead to improvement, it is also essential that teachers have the competencies to use the results to inform their own professional learning. However, there is little evidence that teachers actually look at the results to plan their further professional development. While teachers can receive subsidies for training courses they choose to attend, none of the teachers interviewed by the OECD Review Team indicated that they used the evaluation results to make their choices between the range of different training offers. It appears that many teachers do not trust the integrity of the system to reflect authentic practice, and as a result they do not believe in the validity of the ratings they receive.

Links with initial teacher education

While there has been recent investment in improving initial teacher education through making accreditation mandatory for teacher education programmes, there are a number of concerns about the quality of initial teacher education in Chile (for an overview see Box 5.1).

One of the concerns directly related to the teacher performance evaluation system is that teachers are not necessarily prepared according to the GTF. It appears that some initial teacher education programmes place little focus on the GTF. Hence, what teachers learn in their initial preparation may be poorly aligned to the standards and criteria used in teacher evaluation later on. The Deans of education faculties interviewed by the OECD Review Team indicated that initial teacher education focuses quite a lot on the basic subject knowledge that many of their students lack upon entry into the programmes (see Box 5.1). This may divert attention away from focussing on the key aspects of "good teaching". Hence, upon graduating from initial teacher education, some teachers will not have a clear understanding of what they are expected to know and be able to do.

The extent to which teachers are prepared for the performance evaluation process in their initial teacher education also seems highly variable. For example, while some of the

teachers interviewed by the OECD Review Team had already worked with portfolios in their initial teacher education, others indicated that these tools were new to them when the *Docentemás* system was introduced.

Even though the quality of initial teacher preparation appears to be uneven across institutions, currently there are no generalised induction programmes to provide adequate transitions and professional development for beginning teachers. In most schools, there appear to be no structured support or mentoring programmes to provide new teachers with support and feedback for improvement. There is no probationary period at the end of which new teachers would have to demonstrate their teaching competence.

Also, there does not seem to be a feedback loop from the teacher performance evaluation system back to the teacher education institutions so that they can learn about their graduates' performance and adapt training to the lacks and needs perceived. The representatives of institutions providing teacher education interviewed by the OECD Review Team deplored that there was a very limited flow of information between the teacher evaluation system and the teacher education institutions.

Box 5.1 Concerns about the quality of initial teacher education in Chile

Low preparedness of students entering teacher education. On average, students of teacher education have very low scores on the university selection test (PSU), even though this has improved in recent years, thanks to a number of initiatives by the Ministry to attract higher performing students to the teaching profession (see also Chapter 2). However, it was reported by representatives of teacher education institutions that some of those high-performing students find instruction to be of low quality so as to fit a typically lower-achieving group of students. The perception among teacher education institutions is that they have to make up for their students' insufficient literacy and numeracy skills before being able to cover more complex topics.

Graduating teacher students lack basic pedagogical and subject knowledge. The results of the first rounds of the INICIA test showed that a majority of graduates from teacher education programmes did not have the minimum required knowledge in pedagogy and in their subject area to be able to provide appropriate teaching (Ministry of Education, forthcoming). Many stakeholders indicated that there were too many institutions preparing teachers, providing education of very variable quality. More than half of the teacher students in Chile are enrolled at special programmes for teacher education that have been shown to suffer from serious quality deficiencies (OECD, 2004). In particular for primary teachers, there are challenges in ensuring that teachers acquire the necessary content knowledge in all key subjects. Primary school teachers are trained as generalists but there is insufficient content preparation in mathematics, language and other subjects, which is especially problematic in the higher years of primary education.

Not all initial teacher education programmes provide sufficient practice periods. There is also concern that teacher education is not linked sufficiently to teaching practice and to the work in schools. The link between content specific courses and pedagogy courses also appears to be limited (Brandt, 2010). There has been progress in including more practice periods into the first years of teacher education, but this is still variable across institutions. It appears difficult to have practice periods in the early years of teacher education when teacher students tend to have very limited content knowledge.

Sources: OECD (2004), *Reviews of National Policies for Education: Chile 2004*, OECD Publishing, Paris; Brandt (2010), "Chile: Climbing on giants' shoulders: Better schools for all Chilean children", *Economics Department Working Papers No. 784*, OECD Publishing, Paris; Ministry of Education (forthcoming), *Country Background Report for Chile*, prepared for the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes.

There are limited skills for classroom observation

While classroom observation seems to be an established practice in some Chilean schools, particularly at an informal level, the skills of observers seem to be limited to: *(i)* observe accurately using the same standards of practice as used in the teacher performance evaluation system; and *(ii)* conduct conversations with teachers to enable them to engage teachers in systematic reflection on practice. Most school leaders have never received training in how to give constructive, specific feedback that will give teachers the support and guidance they need to change their practice in the classroom.

That is, school-based educators appear to not receive any training in how to observe classroom practice, using the standards of the GTF as their guide, nor in the skills of providing feedback to teachers on those standards. The consequence of this situation is that the GTF, while nominally the "language of instruction" across the country, is only that language in the few places where it is understood at a deep level, and in its application to actual practice. Those school leaders who spend time in classrooms and provide feedback to teachers may have idiosyncratic views of teaching that may be appropriate for their local needs but which are not aligned with the GTF.

Policy recommendations

Embedding a comprehensive teacher performance evaluation system in regular school practices is an important culture shift in Chile that takes time and requires a high degree of professional learning at different levels of the system. As the Chilean education system is quite decentralised and relies on the teacher evaluation capacities of diverse actors, it is important to clearly define the responsibilities of each level and ensure that professional learning opportunities respond to these different roles. It should be adequately targeted to address the diverse needs of different stakeholders including evaluators at the central level, municipality staff, school leaders and teachers.

Ensure consistently high-quality preparation for portfolio markers

Given the lack of trust of some teachers in the marking of their portfolios, CPEIP should consider reviewing the processes for selecting and preparing the markers. While the intention is that all markers participate in rigorous marking processes, there is a perception among teachers that some Assessment Centres employ teacher students with inadequate experience or preparation for the process. Several stakeholders have also expressed doubts about the accuracy of the ratings and the quality of evaluation reports. Some teachers were concerned that the markers were not experts in the subject taught by the teacher being evaluated. One option to ensure that all markers across Chile are qualified according to the same standards (and perceived as such) would be to establish an accreditation/certification process in which markers would have to pass an assessment to prove their marking competencies. Another important element in ensuring the quality of marking would be to systematically use moderation processes where more than one marker agrees on a teacher's rating – for instance, two markers could rate each of the assessed portfolios.

Strengthen the professional competencies of municipal education staff

Strong municipal leadership is essential to establish teacher evaluation as a priority at the local level and to support schools in using evaluation results for improvement. To foster such leadership, it is important to strengthen the professional competencies of staff working within the municipal education departments and corporations across Chile.

To this end, the Ministry of Education and its provincial and regional representatives should take a stronger role in promoting strategic partnerships between municipalities and key sources of support. This could include the universities and professional institutes and other potential providers in each region. It is important that capacity building initiatives on teacher evaluation in the regions do not target only the school-level professionals but also the education staff of municipalities. This would help ensure that they are an integral part of the process and can sustain improvements across schools within their municipality.

In many parts of Chile, especially in the smaller and more rural municipalities, it seems unrealistic to expect that individual municipalities would be able to acquire and sustain the expert capacity to complement the *Docentemás* system with their own local approaches to teacher evaluation and use the *Docentemás* results to develop professional development strategies for the municipality. Rather than expecting each municipality to develop pedagogical support and evaluation strategies on their own, Chile could consider building larger scale "shared service" approaches offering regional support in evaluation to a larger group of municipalities and schools. This might include coaching and consultancy for groups of municipalities and schools within a region.

Finally, given the heterogeneity of competencies and approaches across municipalities, there is much potential for municipalities to work together and learn from each other. The Ministry of Education could help support increased collaboration and networking among the municipal staff responsible for evaluation and pedagogical support in schools. This could be done, for example, through the organisation of meetings or workshops for municipal quality assurance staff. In Norway, for example, networking is a common form of organisation among municipalities and schools (Box 5.2 provides some examples).

Box 5.2 Norway: Regional and local networks for evaluation and improvement

In Norway, there are many examples of localised collaboration initiatives launched and developed by small clusters of municipalities. In addition, there are also larger regional or national partnerships that are supported by the Association of Local and Regional Authorities (KS) or the Directorate for Education and Training. A range of examples are provided below.

- **Municipal networks for efficiency and improvement:** In 2002, the Association of Local and Regional Authorities (KS), the Ministry of Labour and Government Administration and the Ministry of Local Government and Regional Development have set up "municipal networks for efficiency and improvement" that offer quality monitoring tools for municipal use and provide a platform for municipalities to share experience, compare data and evaluate different ways of service delivery in different. For the education sector, an agreement has been established between KS and the Directorate for Education and Training to allow the networks to use results from national user surveys. The networks bring together municipal staff and school leaders to discuss school evaluation and assessment issues and engage in benchmarking exercises. Each network meets four or five times and then the opportunity is offered to another group of municipalities.

Box 5.2 Norway: Regional and local networks for evaluation and improvement *(continued)*

- **Regional groups working on external school evaluation:** The national school improvement project Knowledge Promotion – From Word to Deed (2006-2010) was launched by the Directorate for Education and Training to strengthen the sector's ability to evaluate its own results and plan improvement in line with the objectives in the curriculum reform. One of the outcomes of the project was the establishment of 11 regional groups to work on external school evaluation. These groups received training in the programme's methodology for external school evaluation and have begun to establish local systems for external school evaluation.
- **Guidance Corps for school improvement:** The Directorate for Education and Training has also recently established a "Guidance Corps" of exemplary school leaders who make themselves available to intervene in municipalities that have been targeted as needing help with capacity development, amongst others the municipalities from the "K-40" project. The "K-40 project" is a voluntary support offered to the 40 municipalities showing low performance in the national tests. It seems to be a welcome initiative – of the 40 municipalities contacted, 31 decided to participate.
- **Collaboration of teacher education institutions and schools:** An important recent development is the organisation of teacher education into five regions. This regionalisation of teacher education is intended to enhance the co-operation of teacher training institutions among each other and to develop partnerships between teacher training colleges, universities and schools. Every teacher training institution is required to participate and set up partnerships with local schools. While the Directorate for Education and Training has set up the infrastructure for this co-operation, it is now up to the participating institutions to take it further.

Source: Nusche et al. (2011), *OECD Reviews of Evaluation and Assessment in Education: Norway*, OECD Publishing, Paris, *www.oecd.org/edu/evaluationpolicy*.

Build pedagogical leadership capacity and give school leaders a key role in teacher evaluation

Pedagogical leadership can play a key role in strengthening teacher capacity and school improvement. There is a consistent body of research evidence from different countries indicating that pedagogical leadership has a positive impact on teaching quality, and indirectly, on student learning (Pont et al., 2008). In Chile, like in other countries, pedagogical leadership has been found to be an important characteristic of effective schools, especially so in schools located in poorer sectors (Raczynski and Muñoz-Stuardo, 2007).

Developing a culture of evaluation and improvement of teaching practices is an important aspect of pedagogical leadership. Given their familiarity with the context in which teachers work, their awareness of the school needs and their ability to provide rapid feedback to the teacher, the school director and/or other teachers in the school are well placed to play a more prominent role in teacher evaluation. They are in a good position to complement the national teacher performance evaluation system with more localised approaches based on regular observation of teaching practices and provision of formative feedback in a non-threatening way (as recommended in Chapter 3). This can

help reduce the stress and evaluation anxiety attached to the national teacher evaluation process which takes place only once every four years.

For school directors to be able to play such a role, it is important to build their competencies and credibility to develop effective evaluation and coaching arrangements for their staff. School directors need to be equipped to focus thoroughly on the quality of teaching and learning and help set up the trusting work environment necessary to embed a focus on continuous evaluation and improvement in the everyday work of teachers. Alongside further pursuing the "Directors of Excellence" plan, a national strategy to strengthen school leadership should include the following components (based on Pont et al., 2008):

- Develop a national education programme for school leaders targeting different stages of the career such as pre-service education, induction, in-service training as well as coaching and mentoring so as to professionalise leadership practice with a focus on evaluating and improving teaching and learning. The offer of professional development programmes should be aligned to the leadership competencies outlined in the Good School Leadership Framework.
- Distribute leadership among several professionals in the school to reduce the burden on school directors and foster leadership capacity across the school. To this end, offer training related to teacher evaluation to a wider group of school staff including school deputy directors, other members of the leadership team and interested senior teachers. For the preparation of third-party reference reports of the *Docentemás* system, it should also be considered that these are co-signed by several members of the leadership team (in addition to the participation of the head of the technical-pedagogical unit). This is particularly important in a context where there is a high rate of school leader rotation between schools and school leaders may not know all their teachers well.
- Enhance the performance evaluation of school leaders to provide them with external feedback on their leadership performance, identify areas of needed improvement and target support to improve practice. The national education authorities could take a stronger role in providing guidance material and training to municipality staff on how to undertake effective performance reviews of school directors in relation to the Good School Leadership framework.
- Draw on the expertise of school directors from highly effective schools and engage them as change agents working with other schools to build good practice across the system. Support networks and peer learning platforms for school leaders to collaborate beyond their own school borders.
- Support the collaboration of school leaders with a critical friend. Working with an "experienced other", such as a professional development provider or in-school leader of professional learning, is likely to result in deeper learning (Robinson et al., 2009; Timperley et al., 2008). At policy level, such arrangements may either be strongly encouraged or institutionalised as, for example, in England, where there is a School Improvement Partner who meets with the school director two or three times a year to offer support particularly with interpretation and uses of evaluative data (Swaffield, 2009).

- Finally, to ensure that high-quality candidates are attracted to leadership positions, it is also important to provide adequate salary levels – significantly above those of teachers – and career development opportunities for school leaders.

In broader terms, to establish and embed an evaluation culture in the mainstream work of schools, the "culture" of school leadership needs to be shifted significantly. It needs to change in a way as to ensure that school directors grasp the new autonomy and responsibility accorded to them to provide effective educational leadership, support continuous improvement of classroom teaching practice and thereby optimise opportunities and outcomes for all learners (Nusche et al., 2011).

New Zealand is an example of a country which has invested considerably in developing school leadership competencies across its education system (see *www.educationalleaders.govt.nz*). New Zealand's school leadership improvement efforts include a research-based model of effective pedagogical leadership, the Kiwi Leadership for Principals framework; the Educational Leadership Practices survey, a formative tool to help school principals analyse their leadership in schools; and a Professional Leadership Plan offering professional development opportunities for school principals at different stages of their career (Nusche et al., 2012).

Ensure teachers are better prepared to benefit from their evaluation

Ensuring that teachers are provided with support to understand the evaluation procedures and to benefit from evaluation results is also vitally important. As highlighted by Santiago and Benavides (2009), teachers can benefit from training modules that help them understand what is expected of them and how to make best use of the feedback provided. Such learning should be offered both in initial teacher education and continuous professional development.

Establish better connections between initial teacher education and teacher evaluation

As mentioned above, there is room to optimise the alignment between the teacher performance evaluation system and the content of initial teacher education. While the GTF provides a clear profile of good teaching and a good basis for teacher evaluation, there is a need to ensure that the framework is consistently used in all initial teacher education programmes, which does not currently seem to be the case. Its standards and criteria regarding good teaching should be applied throughout initial teacher education courses so that beginning teachers already have a clear understanding of what is expected from them. Also, evaluation and feedback ought to be important aspects offered in initial teacher education so that teachers are well prepared for such processes. As suggested by Brandt (2010), teaching practice in schools should be a regular part of all initial teacher education programmes. As part of this, student teachers should have opportunities for both self-evaluation and feedback from experienced practitioners, based on standards and criteria outlined in the GTF. All these aspects should be given due consideration in the accreditation of initial teacher education programmes.

More focus on establishing induction and mentoring programmes for new teachers can further ease the transition between initial education and school-level evaluation processes. The establishment and promotion of the "Maestros" teacher network is an excellent step in this direction (see Chapter 2). As highlighted by the OECD (2010), recent research indicates that beginning teachers can benefit from mentoring programmes, but it is important to ensure the quality of such programmes. Mentors should be carefully

selected, be given adequate time to carry out their tasks and be well prepared for their tasks (Hobson et al., 2009, in OECD, 2010). Developing mentor teachers at the school level can also be a way to distribute school leadership more broadly (see above). Mentors can play a key role in helping teachers understand the GTF, self-evaluate their practice and receive feedback for improvement.

Finally, it is also important to establish better feedback loops between the *Docentemás* system and initial teacher education. The teacher performance evaluation system provides very important information about the skills needs of teachers and it is important that such information be made more easily accessible to teacher education institutions (see Chapter 6).

Support professional learning communities to strengthen local evaluation cultures

While connections to initial education can help the next generation of teachers to be better prepared for evaluation work, it is equally important to ensure that teachers already on the job have opportunities to learn and fully understand the evaluation process and criteria.

Beyond punctual workshops to strengthen teachers' understanding of the *Docentemás* process, Chile should focus on strengthening overall evaluation cultures in schools. This requires not only distributing information on standards and criteria, but also providing a diverse range of learning settings such as, for example, face-to-face coaching, peer exchanges and observation, action research and online learning. It is important to provide professional learning processes that allow teachers to create professional knowledge through interaction with information in a way that challenges previous assumptions and creates new meanings (Timperley, 2011). Municipal staff and school leaders could play a greater role in facilitating the actual understanding and use of guidance materials.

There is also room for the education sector to benefit to a higher degree from practice-based expertise and innovative practice that has already been developed at the school level. In Chile's decentralised education system, it is essential that different actors co-operate to share and spread good practice and thereby facilitate system learning and improvement. This could involve setting up more elaborated networks where professional learning communities of teachers, school directors and municipal administrators build a collective understanding of how to evaluate and improve teaching and learning approaches. This could involve peer exchange, discussing complex challenges that are hard to solve individually, sharing and critiquing of practice and fostering a sense of common direction.

In particular, the national and municipal education authorities should consider promoting collaboration of teachers in preparing their evaluation portfolios, interpreting their evaluation results and planning for their professional learning and improvement. They could also work with exemplars of excellent portfolios and discuss different proficiency levels. Local networks for teacher evaluation can be a powerful organisational tool embedding reform in the interactions of different stakeholders, sharing and dispersing responsibility and building capacity through the production of new knowledge and mutual learning (Katz et al., 2009; Chapman and Aspin, 2003). Such peer learning networks could help making teacher evaluation a more collaborative process rather than one where teachers feel isolated from their peers and the school community. At the policy level, this can be encouraged, for example, through the provision of guidance materials and exemplars of good portfolios, funding for networks of schools to work collaboratively and support by external network facilitators.

Improve skills for classroom observation

Classroom observation requires specific skills if it is to be done in an accurate and consistent manner, and it is for the purpose of acquiring these skills that school personnel should participate in rigorous training. These skills are:

- Collecting evidence of classroom practice

  This evidence should be an accurate reporting of what occurred in the class: what was said or done by both teacher and students, and the appearance of the classroom, without that evidence being contaminated by personal or professional bias, or by interpretation and opinion.

- Linking the evidence collected to the different standards of the GTF

  For example, if the observer notes that students are working in small groups to solve a problem in mathematics, which of the GTF criteria should this be associated with? Would it be C2: "Designing challenging and consistent teaching strategies that are relevant for the students" or perhaps C5: "Promoting the development of thought"?

- Interpreting the collection of evidence for each criterion/descriptor to the rubrics for that criterion/descriptor.

  For example, if there are four pieces of evidence for B2 ("Show high expectations about the learning possibilities and development of all of his/her students") then how would one judge the level of expertise reflected in those four pieces of evidence?

The development of skill for this type of focused observation, and the accurate interpretation of evidence against levels of performance, is the centrepiece of observer training. In the absence of such training, teachers are unlikely to trust the judgements made by observers.

Notes

1. The survey was applied in 2007 to heads of municipal education departments and corporations (343 municipalities) through an Internet platform with support from the *Centro de Microdatos* of the University of Chile. The response rate was very high at 98% (Raczynski and Salinas, 2009).

2. Additional case studies indicate that, in these cases, the responsibility of leading the municipal education department was normally taken on by a school leader, an administrator or another civil servant of the municipality.

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Chapter 6

Use of teacher evaluation results

There appears to be little culture of professional development in Chile. Even though the importance of professional development is recognised at the policy level, its provision appears fragmented and not systematically linked to teacher evaluation. There is insufficient use of formal teacher evaluation to identify teacher professional development needs which respond to school-wide needs. A strength is that teacher evaluation fulfils the important function of recognising and celebrating the work of effective teachers. This is accomplished, in particular, through AEP and the AVDI, which mostly consist of monetary rewards for excellence in teaching. These are part of a larger set of salary allowances that, in addition to the basic salary, form the teacher incentive programme. They result in a rather complex and fragmented system of incentives for teachers. Another challenge is that, presently, there is no career path for teachers in the municipal sector. There are no career steps in teacher development (e.g. beginning; classroom teacher; experienced teacher), which would permit a better match between teacher competence and skills and the tasks to be performed at schools. This is likely to undermine the potentially powerful links between teacher evaluation, professional development and career development.

This chapter looks at the uses of teacher evaluation results in Chile, i.e. linkages to professional development and school development; consequences for the careers of individual teachers; and uses to recognise and celebrate the work of teachers. It identifies the main strengths and challenges in the use of teacher evaluation results together with recommendations for improvement.

Strengths

The original purpose of the teacher performance evaluation system includes promoting professional growth

The teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*) was conceived with the noble purpose of not only ensuring that every student in Chile has the benefit of high-quality teaching, but that the system could be used to simultaneously provide information to teachers that would help them strengthen their practice in view of improving student learning. Summative evaluation is an indispensable source of documentation to hold teachers accountable for their professionalism. Stronge and Tucker (2003) for example emphasise the necessity of such a quality assurance mechanism: "The accountability purpose reflects a commitment to the important professional goals of competence and quality performance. This accountability function (…) relates to judging the effectiveness of educational services". However, while the accountability of teachers is essential for developing an effective teaching workforce, it is important to guarantee that the evaluation results are actually used for improvement and that teachers have the capacity to use the data and feedback made available to them in order to improve their practices.

Teachers appear to understand this dual function, at least as designed. However, the OECD Review Team perceived that few teachers believe that the teacher evaluation performance system achieves its improvement function. Instead, it encountered anxiety on the part of teachers with respect to the system, particularly among those who had not yet participated in it. Taut et al. (2011) outline studies which identified negative emotions such as fear, anxiety and job insecurity among evaluated teachers.

Teachers are keen on opportunities to collaborate and receive professional feedback

On a very positive note, the vast majority of teachers the OECD Review Team spoke to were open to professional feedback and collaboration opportunities. They recognised that, given the enormous complexity of teaching, that there was much to be gained from learning from their colleagues and from the evaluation process itself. In most cases, the regret was that the extent of professional feedback was limited and they were eager to have more opportunities to discuss their practice. Indeed, it would be fair to characterise the attitude of most teachers towards their professional development as one of hunger for better information, and knowing what they could do to improve.

In a number of schools, there is a culture of professional engagement and support for professional learning. We heard accounts of teachers engaging with their colleagues and members of the leadership team to focus on professional improvement. Teachers reported that school leaders would sometimes visit their classrooms and offer feedback. Teachers conveyed that they appreciated the time the school director or head of the technical-pedagogical unit took to provide them with feedback and in general found classroom visits useful. Some schools had more formal systems where school leaders would visit classrooms with the intention of providing advice and support. It was less typical for colleagues to

observe each other's classes and have collegial discussions. These efforts, however, appeared to be only indirectly related to the formal teacher performance evaluation system.

The teacher performance evaluation system provides for some systematic links with professional development

The results of the teacher performance evaluation system are used in one particular circumstance in a systematic way to identify areas of improvement for individual teachers and lead to the preparation of individual professional development plans. This is when the performance of the teachers is rated at the bottom two levels of performance. Those rated as *Basic* or *Unsatisfactory* are offered free professional development plans to overcome weaknesses, which are designed and implemented at the municipal level and funded by the Ministry (see Chapter 2). This professional development is mandatory and can include mentoring, participation in courses, recommended reading, or observation of classes. No other systematic linkages exist between the teacher performance evaluation system and professional development. Hence, this approach reinforces the notion that professional development is a consequence of an identified "deficiency" rather than (reflecting the enormous complexity of the work of teaching) the professional obligation of, and opportunity for, every teacher.

In addition, teachers rated at the top two levels of performance (as *Competent* and *Outstanding*) have priority access to professional development opportunities, including internships abroad, workshops, and participation in seminars. These are tailored professional development opportunities based on the evaluation results, and are construed as a reward for good performance.

Teacher evaluation is used as a basis for recognition and celebration of a teacher's work

In Chile, teacher evaluation fulfils the important function of recognising and celebrating the work of effective teachers. This is accomplished, in particular, through the Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence Allowance (AEP) and the Programme for the Variable Individual Performance Allowance (AVDI), which mostly consist of monetary rewards for excellence in teaching. Hence, the overall teacher evaluation system provides opportunities to recognise and reward teaching competence and performance, which is essential to retain effective teachers in schools as well as to make teaching an attractive career choice (OECD, 2005). However, as explained later, most countries do not directly link teacher evaluation results with teacher pay but, instead, associate teacher evaluation results to the speed of career advancement. This is because the research on the impact of bonus pay on teacher performance is mixed (Harvey-Beavis, 2003).

Ineffective teaching is addressed by the teacher performance evaluation system

The teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*) has been designed to deal with ineffective teachers. An *Unsatisfactory* or a *Basic* rating require teachers to participate in professional development activities specifically designed to address the weaknesses identified through the performance evaluation. It is entirely appropriate to systematically support teachers in their developmental needs. Otherwise, this causes difficulties not only for schools and the general teaching force, but also for the poorly performing teachers themselves. Hence, in Chile, the initial focus is on regular, ongoing teacher evaluation providing constructive feedback to teachers on their performance, and jointly identifying appropriate developmental strategies.

In addition, *Docentemás* is designed to deal with the most critical cases of sustained underperformance in municipal schools. As of 2011, two consecutive *Unsatisfactory* ratings imply the removal of the concerned teacher from the post. In addition, following the introduction of the 2011 Quality and Equality of Education Law, school directors can dismiss up to 5% of the teaching's staff among those teachers who were rated *Unsatisfactory* at their most recent evaluation. It is a strength of the system that if improvements do not occur, processes exist to move ineffective teachers either out of the school system or into non-teaching roles. If sustained underperformance by teachers is not tackled this has adverse consequences not only on student learning but also on the reputation of both schools and the teaching profession.

Challenges

The teacher performance evaluation system is a missed opportunity for strengthening professional development

There appears to be little culture of professional development in Chile. Even though the importance of professional development is recognised at the policy level, the OECD Review Team formed the view that its provision appears fragmented and not systematically linked to teacher evaluation. There is insufficient use of formal teacher evaluation to identify teacher professional development needs which respond to school-wide needs. The teacher performance evaluation system does not provide for a systematic linkage between teacher evaluation results and professional development plans for individual teachers. The exceptions are those cases in which the teacher's performance is identified as *Basic* or *Unsatisfactory*. But even in these cases, the implementation of the mandatory Professional Development Plans (*Planes de Superación Profesional*, PSP) is not satisfactory: Taut et al. (2011) report that, on the basis of the analysis of the PSP database between 2007 and 2009, only 41% of those teachers who should participate in PSPs did so. In a fully elaborated system of teacher evaluation, all teachers would know which aspects of their teaching should be strengthened, and guidance would be provided as to how to acquire access to new knowledge and methodologies. Without a clear link to professional development opportunities, the evaluation process is not sufficient to improve teacher performance, and as a result, often becomes a meaningless exercise that encounters mistrust – or at best apathy – on the part of teachers being evaluated (Danielson, 2001; Milanowski and Kimball, 2003; Margo et al., 2008).

There is also scope to better link teacher professional development to school development and improvement. In Chile, professional development is predominantly a choice by individual teachers and is not systematically associated with school development needs. When professional development is viewed as an individual and isolated matter, and pursued only as a result of a negative evaluation – and therefore for remedial purposes – an important aspect of professional culture is not available. In Chile, teachers do not necessarily expect to receive feedback on their performance and create a professional growth plan with guidance from an evaluator or school leader. Teachers engage in professional development activities based on their own assessment of professional needs. School leaders interviewed by the OECD Review Team rarely tracked their teachers' professional development activities and the extent of strategic planning for professional development appeared limited. The weak linkage between teacher evaluation, teacher professional development and school development is partly due to the limited time school leaders invest in instructional leadership. When individual teachers identify and pursue their own development needs, the system is more effective if common

needs identified by individual teachers can be linked together to plan for joint professional development for many teachers within a school. Such an approach is both more effective (joint work capitalises on individual teacher strengths) and more efficient (there is less duplication of effort).

The feedback received by teachers in the teacher performance evaluation system is limited

In the current teacher performance evaluation system, teachers receive only limited feedback on their performance which can inform the improvement of practice. Indeed, the feedback on the portfolio appears to be limited to "ratings" and a brief description of identified strengths and weaknesses. The OECD Review Team heard inconsistent reports as to the value of the feedback to teachers from the portfolio; some said it was helpful; others reported that they did not even look at it. Overall, teachers seem to find the feedback not to be specific enough to be of value in informing their practice. One of the characteristics of good feedback, in the sense that it is able to contribute to further teacher learning, is that it be both specific and timely. The feedback provided as part of the teacher performance evaluation system appears to be neither. And with the exception of the portfolio, it would seem that teachers receive no feedback whatsoever. As such, the teacher performance evaluation system has limited value for informing improvement. There is no authentic self-evaluation or an interaction with evaluators which could promote a reflection on own practices and a professional discussion around the teacher's practices which could generate useful individualised feedback to inform a professional development plan.

One of the most important findings from a major study by the Consortium for Chicago School Research (CCSR) investigating a three-year pilot of a new teacher evaluation system in the Chicago Public Schools was the value placed (by both teachers and school directors) on the conversations that followed an observed lesson (Sartain et al., 2011). In those conferences, both the teacher and the observer have analysed the lesson against the levels of performance, and completed a preliminary interpretation of the evidence against those levels. In this conversation, the rubrics become a "third point" between a teacher and an evaluator. That is, in the conversation, the evaluator does not say to the teacher: "I thought your performance was good". Instead, the evaluator says: "I thought your particular approach in situation X could be adjusted to take into account the little engagement of students in activity Y".

Little professional dialogue is generated by the teacher performance evaluation system

The teacher performance evaluation system includes virtually no dialogue between the evaluator(s) and the teachers being evaluated. It is true that teachers participate in an interview, but the interview does not involve an interaction with the evaluator. The evaluator formulates a question and waits until the teacher indicates he or she is finished answering. There is no feedback from the evaluator. Also teachers are not informed as to what their responses should be providing evidence of. Also, the third-party reference report is prepared by the school director and the head of the technical-pedagogical unit with no dialogue with the teacher being evaluated. This is unfortunate. As described earlier, the CCSR study of teacher evaluation in Chicago concluded that the most valuable part of the entire process, for both teachers and evaluators, was in the professional conversations that accompanied an observed lesson (Sartain et al., 2011). In addition, since teachers do not have an opportunity under the current system to discuss the feedback they

receive, many feel that they have learned little from the process. Overall, teachers see limited opportunities for learning from the process, though they recognise that it was intended to serve dual purposes of accountability and professional growth.

Teacher evaluation does not foster reflection on own practices to the desirable extent

There are few opportunities for teachers to engage in authentic self-evaluation, analysis of student work, and other practices designed to enable them to reflect on own practices. Mechanisms for teacher learning such as opportunities for teachers to analyse their own practice in depth, and to base that analysis on evidence – evidence of their own practice, of student work, and of student approaches to their learning – are somewhat restricted in the teacher performance evaluation system. Self-evaluation is not authentic, the preparation of portfolios is undertaken with little guidance, little professional interaction is generated and teacher evaluation results are generally not discussed.

Also, typically teachers have little time set aside in their school day or week that can be used to reflect on their practice or meet with colleagues in teacher professional communities. Working long hours with few opportunities for self-reflection and to meet with colleagues prevents teachers from questioning their approaches to teaching and from engaging in the types of collaborative discussions around teaching practice and student learning that can lead to improvements in both. There is not a lot of hard research on this point, although there is much anecdotal evidence that teachers value the opportunity to reflect on their practice, and to engage in professional conversation. The CCSR study of teacher evaluation in Chicago cited many instances of teachers' sentiments as to the value of reflection and conversation (Sartain et al., 2011).

There are few examples of communities of practice in schools

During its visit, the OECD Review Team saw few examples of communities of practice in schools where teachers can share strategies, observe one another, collaborate on projects, all with the aim of learning from one another. There was little evidence of school-centred professional development that would emphasise the community of learners within the school. Partly because of the time demands of their jobs, but partly because of a culture of privacy and autonomy, teachers have very little opportunity to work collaboratively to plan or reflect on either their teaching or evidence of student learning. This is another example of the subversion of the goal of professional learning for teachers being subsumed into the aim of accountability; unless a school embodies a culture of professional sharing and growth, teachers tend to work in their own isolated "silos" with no meaningful interaction with one another.

In a number of countries, including the United States and the United Kingdom, there has been a significant movement towards the expansion of professional learning communities. These are groups of teachers who find time to work together to address challenges in their practice. A fundamental assumption of this movement is that practising educators possess most of the skills they need to improve outcomes for students, but they need time to examine their work, share perspectives, and plan new approaches.

The incentive system for teachers is complex and fragmented

The teacher incentive system, in addition to the basic salary, includes a large set of salary allowances. Some of these are related to teaching performance such as the AVDI, AEP and SNED while other are associated with experience, working conditions,

professional development, further responsibilities in schools, etc. The various performance-related mechanisms are not equally appealing to teachers. They vary considerably in the amount of time and effort required from the teacher and in the rewards for that effort. This is reflected in the considerable proportion of teachers who are in a position to apply to the AVDI but end up not doing so. They also differ in the status associated with receiving the award, a status that could have additional benefits in terms of moving to a more preferred teaching position. It seems that the various incentive mechanisms were created at different times for different reasons, but such a scattered approach dilutes the focus on identifying and rewarding Chile's best teachers. They result in a rather complex and fragmented system of incentives for teachers. In addition, the incentive mechanisms have not been shown to be valid in terms of differentiating among teachers who are exceptional or merely acceptable.

Regarding the AVDI and the AEP, as performance-based salary bonus programmes, it needs to be borne in mind that issues surrounding developing a closer relationship between teacher performance and reward are controversial in all countries; and research in this field is difficult and has produced mixed results. There seems to be agreement that the design and implementation of performance-based rewards are crucial to their success. As explained in Harvey-Beavis (2003), there is a wide consensus that previous attempts at introducing performance-based reward programmes have been poorly designed and implemented. Problems in developing fair and reliable indicators, and the training of evaluators to fairly apply these indicators have undermined attempts to implement programmes (Storey, 2000). One problem identified is poor goal clarity because of a large number of criteria, which restricts teachers' understanding of the programme and makes implementation difficult (Richardson, 1999). Explanations of how, and on what criteria, teachers are assessed may be difficult to articulate. When this occurs, it is almost impossible to give constructive feedback and maintain teacher support for the programme (Chamberlin et al., 2002). The focus of the rewards on group recognition and rewards is generally better accepted (OECD, 2005).

There is no relationship between teacher evaluation and career advancement

Presently teacher evaluation is not embedded in a clearly defined teaching career structure. Teacher evaluation happens as a matter of course every four years, rather than being part of a system of continuous progression in a teaching career which recognises that teachers acquire new competencies and skills as they gain experience. As a result, the teacher performance evaluation system does not provide a means to reward teachers for the gained competencies and skills to take on higher responsibilities, i.e. the results of teacher evaluation have little bearing on teachers' careers, since results are not associated with career advancement and are not necessarily considered for promotion. This is problematic as the recognition of gained skills and competencies should come along with the ability to take on further responsibilities defined in a career structure.

Policy recommendations

One important outcome of a national system of teacher evaluation is to provide an indication of the strength of the country's professional educators. It can supply a "report card" of the quality of teaching. However, if an evaluation system is used only to give a "score" of teachers' performance, it misses an important opportunity to promote improved teaching. That is, the same process that is used to evaluate teaching can also provide, to teachers, diagnostic information as to where their performance is strong, and

where it could be improved. In addition, such process can also be used to reward and celebrate good teaching performance.

Strengthen the culture of professional development

In order for a vibrant programme of professional development to be established, and to thrive, it must be based on a culture of professional inquiry. There must be a recognised (and even explicitly stated) norm that recognises the great complexity of good teaching, and insists, therefore, on the professional obligation of every teacher – as the member of other professions – to be engaged in a career-long quest of improved practice. The focus of teacher evaluation should be to contribute to a knowledge-rich teaching profession in which teachers engage actively with new knowledge and benefit from support structures to generate improvement (Santiago and Benavides, 2009). International research has consistently emphasised that professional development is an essential component of successful school development and teacher growth, well being, and success (Day, 1999). Since this is a matter of culture, it cannot be developed overnight: cultures are notoriously difficult to change. However, all the national initiatives, as implemented in schools across the country, should emphasise the role of teachers as essential professionals in that process.

In some states in the United States, a teacher's license to teach is a five-year (or some such number) renewable license, with the renewal dependent on the individual's undertaking of a certain amount of professional development. Such provisions ensure that teachers actually do something. They do not, however, guarantee a changed culture around professional learning. But it is arguable that such regulations support the development of a deep culture of professional inquiry.

This culture needs to go along with an adequate provision of professional development. All teachers, including the highly effective ones, need opportunities to learn and grow in the teaching profession (Randi and Zeichner, 2004). Adult learning theory such as Knowles "andragogy" theory details a set of adult learning principles, including: *(i)* the learner's need to know; *(ii)* self-concept of the learner; *(iii)* prior experience of the learner; *(iv)* readiness to learn; *(v)* orientation to learning; and *(vi)* motivation to learn (Knowles et al., 1998). Often, new teachers need training in classroom management, discipline, and establishing a learning environment that supports diverse students' needs. Mid-career teachers may want to deepen their content knowledge and learn new teaching techniques. Teachers who are more advanced in their careers may seek to move into leadership or coaching roles and need appropriate training. Professional development providers should collect information about local teachers' needs and offer courses that are targeted towards those teachers as they advance in their careers.

Improving schools are able to invest in the development of their staff, and create opportunities for teachers to reflect, collaborate, access new ideas, experiment and share experiences and best practices within the school (Nusche et al., 2011).

There is also a need to envisage teachers' learning as something broader than participation in in-service training courses. According to Timperley (2011), the term "professional development" is now often associated with the delivery of some kind of information to teachers in order to influence their practice, whereas "professional learning" refers to a more internal process in which teachers create professional knowledge through interaction with this information in a way that challenges previous assumptions and creates new meanings. Such professional learning cultures need to be

supported and sustained by effective pedagogical leadership providing adequate levels of challenge and support to teachers (see below).

Improve linkages of teacher evaluation to professional development

Professional development is only fully effective when it is aligned with recognised needs, for both individual teachers and for schools as a whole. Professional development in Chile appears at the moment to be a matter for individual teachers to pursue and it is to a great extent de-coupled from the results of the teacher performance evaluation system.

This situation can and should be improved. Linking professional growth opportunities to evaluation results is critical if evaluation is going to play a role in improving teaching and learning (Goe et al., 2012). Chile does not have a system in place to ensure that the feedback provided to teachers is systematically used to guide improvement plans. Many research and policy organisations recommend professional growth opportunities that are informed by data from student performance and from teacher effectiveness measures (see, for example, National High School Center, 2012). Some municipalities offer courses for teachers, but in most cases teachers must pay for these themselves, and they are not linked to their own specific needs, except in those cases a teacher is rated as *Basic* or *Unsatisfactory* in the teacher performance evaluation system. It is not, in other words, a system. Such a system can be locally designed and administered. However, the design of the system should be national, in the sense that all educators can identify their needs for professional development, based on evaluation results, and those needs linked to resources and opportunities.

This is, of course, an aspect of educational reform for which electronic data management systems are ideally suited. Progress has been made in this respect with the development of the Training National Public Registry. And with access to the Internet widely available, many of the professional development courses can themselves be offered on line.

With a clearly articulated cross-walk between the evaluation activities of *Docentemás,* and feedback to teachers based on the teacher's performance in the different aspects of the system, the ground is laid for "closing the loop" between evaluation and professional growth. That is, if the feedback to a teacher consisted of a score on each of the criteria of the GTF, then professional development activities could be organised around those criteria, and managed locally. In order to be most effective, the programmes of study should be co-ordinated at the school level, so teachers are aware of which of their colleagues are engaged in the pursuit of similar knowledge and skills, and they can participate together. This joint effort can go a long way towards establishing communities of practice.

An example of a system that explicitly links professional growth to teacher evaluations is that of Memphis, Tennessee in the United States. In Memphis City Schools, evaluation is based on teaching standards, and professional development is linked to teachers' competence on the standards. Thus, a teacher who has poor performance on a specific indicator on a teaching standard can find professional growth opportunities related to that indicator. Memphis City Schools publishes a professional development guide each year that lists the professional growth offerings by standard and indicator. In addition, most of the professional development courses are taught by Memphis City School teachers, ensuring that the course offerings will be relevant to the contexts in which these teachers work.

Secure linkages to school development

The linkages between teacher evaluation, professional development and school improvement need to be reinforced. Professional development informed by teacher evaluation needs to be associated with school development if the improvement of teaching practices is to meet school needs. The schools that associate the identified individual needs with the school priorities, and that also manage to develop the corresponding professional development activities, are likely to perform well (Ofsted, 2006). Schools can learn from the strengths of effective teachers and implement professional development programmes that respond to their weaknesses.

This could greatly benefit from improvements in the planning and provision of school-based professional development in Chile. At present, schools generally do not benefit from enough resources, capacity or autonomy to organise school-based training. This barrier could be overcome through: *(i)* strengthening networks of municipalities and heads of technical-pedagogical units, and providing additional guidance to schools and directors on identifying needs and finding appropriate training; and *(ii)* encouraging pilot projects on school-based training in some municipalities and granting time allowances to teachers to participate in this training.

Build on instructional leadership

The system overall would be greatly strengthened if leadership teams in each school were charged with the responsibility of providing instructional leadership in the school, to include facilitating the professional learning of teachers (see also Chapter 5). Our evidence suggests that the teachers would welcome this. Many school leadership teams are both experienced in classroom teaching and knowledgeable of the local context, and familiar with the challenges and the strengths of the school community and neighbourhoods. As a result, the school leadership team is in a unique position to address the needs of teachers for professional growth opportunities that are targeted to local contexts.

In Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States (as well as other countries), there has been a drive for some time in shifting the role of school leaders from that of manager to one of instructional leader. In some cases this had been a challenge, since the individuals in those positions have typically never received training on the skills of instructional leadership. They may have been teachers (as is almost always the case in Chile) but the skills of instructional leadership are different from those of teaching. They require motivating other adults to improve their practice, establishing and maintaining a culture of professional inquiry, co-ordinating the needs of different individuals, putting those individuals in touch with resources, and arranging schedules for teachers to work with one another. All this requires a vision of good teaching and student learning that consists of more than simply "delivering" the curriculum. These factors go beyond the skills of good teaching and should be developed in school leaders who aspire to instructional leadership.

Establish feedback loops between the teacher performance evaluation system and initial teacher education

The entire system would be greatly strengthened if the initial teacher education programmes were made aware of the performance of their graduates at different stages of their careers, so they could strengthen their programmes accordingly. Just as individual teachers can improve their teaching when they know the areas of relative strength and

weakness, so too can the initial education programmes improve their approaches when they are informed of the success of their graduates. Again, this is an area where electronic data management could play a critical role.

With a tighter alignment between the Graduating Teacher Standards and the GTF, when teachers are evaluated according to the GTF, and the results of those evaluations are fed back to the preparing institutions, those programmes can be strengthened accordingly. And the ideal time for such feedback is during a teacher's initial years (as during a probationary period), when it is likely that their skills are a direct function of what they would have learned during their preparation. For example, a survey to be completed by all teachers in their first two years would enable teacher education programmes to collect important information about where teachers feel they have been most and least successful and where they wish they would have had more training. This information can then be used by teacher education programmes to make needed curricular adjustments. In addition, collecting similar information from school leaders enables teacher education programmes to determine whether the teachers they are preparing are meeting the needs of the schools in the contexts in which they are beginning their teaching careers. This also strengthens avenues of communication from schools directly to teacher education programmes.

Teacher education programmes in most countries are poorly informed about how their graduates perform in schools. In some countries, including the United States, there is a push towards ensuring that teacher education programmes: *(i)* receive feedback about the performance of their graduates; and *(ii)* are held accountable for improving their instruction in order to ensure better performance of teachers for local contexts (National Research Council, 2010). For example, federal policies in the United States require teacher education programmes to document the efforts they have made to gather information about the satisfaction of local school districts with the teachers prepared in their institutions. In addition, several states in the United States collect teacher evaluation results specific to each teacher education programme and determine whether the programmes' graduates are performing adequately. Programmes whose graduates are not performing effectively must devise a plan to improve their effectiveness – through more selective admissions, better education, or a combination of both. A current opportunity in Chile is the use of the initial pedagogical excellence examination (INICIA test), to become mandatory for those new graduates wishing to enter the profession, to provide the initial teacher education programmes with information about where they may need to strengthen coursework or provide additional training for instructional faculty.

Establish linkages between teacher evaluation and career advancement

Teachers need to be acknowledged and have their teaching effectiveness recognised. As suggested in Chapter 3, this can be achieved through linking teacher evaluation results to career advancement. This requires a performance- and competency-based professional career ladder. Such system defines teacher competencies as a part of a lifelong learning continuum and generally has a minimum of three different pathways moving from competent teacher to established teacher and to accomplished or expert teacher (as suggested in Chapter 3). Each stage progressively becomes more demanding with more responsibilities but involves a significant rise in status and compensation. Roles associated with extra responsibility include departmental head, team leader, and curriculum and/or personnel development manager. The 2012 draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers is a major positive step in this direction.

The formal diversification of the career would help meet school needs and provide more opportunities and recognition to teachers, including those who wish to remain focused on classroom teaching. This requires the different levels in the teacher career structure to be associated with specific tasks and roles in addition to classroom teaching. Within this structure, the principle of rewarding teachers for exemplary performance can then be applied through associating performance levels to the speed at which the teacher advances in the career (within and across career pathways). For example, outstanding performance and contributions could enable teachers to progress two salary steps at once. By contrast, poor performance would imply the regular step to be withheld for the period corresponding to the evaluation (see also Chapter 3). The results of teacher evaluation for certification, as suggested in Chapter 3, would also be used for access to career pathways. The advantage of rewarding teachers through career advancement is that the reward might involve enhanced responsibilities in the schools, not only superior teaching performance. However, as explained in Chapter 3, teachers should have the option of progressing within career pathways, if they would prefer not to acquire new responsibilities, especially if these might imply reducing classroom teaching.

It is important that performance-based rewards, as with career advancement on the basis of merit, be awarded for reasons which teachers and school leadership perceive as fair and valid. Some general principles for giving out performance awards include: *(i)* ensuring that all teachers, regardless of educational level and subject, are eligible for performance awards; *(ii)* using multiple measures of teachers' performance to assess their effectiveness, not only in the classroom but as members of a learning community within the school; *(iii)* rewarding teachers for taking on extra work within the school, such as coaching or mentoring new teachers; and *(iv)* acknowledging teacher professional growth through their participation in coursework and extended professional training in their content area. The more objective the process for determining the merit awards, the more accepted it will be among teachers and staff, since it will be seen as a valid recognition of excellent performance. The current performance-based reward system in Chile is complex and fragmented and could benefit the profession more by being combined into a single system designed to reward teachers' performance at various stages in their careers.

Use non-monetary and group rewards as complementary tools to recognise teachers

Establishing linkages between teacher evaluation and career advancement, as suggested above, provides an indirect link between teacher performance levels and pay. By contrast, programmes such as the AVDI and the AEP programmes, establish a direct link between performance levels and pay through monetary rewards. In countries such as Chile, where the basic salary of teachers is modest, bonuses of this type are always welcome. However, the "bonus" pay element should be approached with considerable caution. The evidence of the overall impact of such extra payments is mixed and can be contentious and potentially divisive (OECD, 2005). Rewarding teachers with time allowances, sabbatical periods, opportunities for school-based research, support for post-graduate study, or opportunities for professional development could be more appealing for many teachers. This is particularly the case if the resources currently devoted to the AEP and the AVDI are transferred to the overall performance-based professional career ladder proposed above. Besides, the "excellence" dimension of these programmes would be captured by career advancement within and access to the different career pathways. Also, in some circumstances it may be more effective to focus on group recognition and rewards at the school or grade level rather than individual teacher rewards (OECD, 2005). This gives support to retaining SNED as a mechanism to reward groups of teachers (see Chapter 3).

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Conclusions and recommendations

Education system context

A number of features characterise the Chilean education system

The market-oriented education reforms of the 1980s entailed the decentralisation of public school management responsibilities to municipalities and the introduction of a nationwide voucher programme. The former involved the transfer of the administration and infrastructure of all the country's public primary and secondary schools to municipalities. The latter is characterised by a per student public subsidy for schools which are part of the voucher system (municipal and the majority of private schools) and parents' free choice of schools. The introduction of the voucher programme has led a great number of private schools to enter the school system with a growing share of the student population (59.1% in 2011, with 51.8% of students enrolled in private schools which are part of the voucher programme). Attendance of different school types greatly depends on family income levels. Students from the most disadvantaged families attend municipal schools in largest numbers even if from 1990 they have increasingly attended subsidised private schools. A significant development in the area of educational evaluation has been the introduction in 1988 of the System to Measure the Quality of Education (*Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación*, SIMCE), a full-cohort national standardised assessment of student performance across the country. There is no well-established, systematic approach to school evaluation in Chile. School-level aggregated data, mostly SIMCE assessments, provide general information on student performance at the school level against national averages.

Student learning outcomes are below the OECD average but show some progress

Student learning outcomes in Chile are considerably below the OECD average but there has been considerable progress in the last decade. In 2009, achievement levels of Chilean students in the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) were at the bottom end within the OECD area in the assessed areas of reading literacy, mathematics and science. However, Chile performed above any other Latin American country which took part in PISA (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, Panama, Peru and Uruguay) in all assessed areas except mathematics (where its performance is similar to that of Mexico and Uruguay). Trend analyses of PISA results have also shown some encouraging improvement in student learning outcomes.

There are concerns about strong social inequities in the school system

Research shows that student results differ considerably across the socio-economic background of students and the type of school attended. In addition, there is evidence that total expenditure per student varies across the type of school attended as well as the socio-economic background of the student.

Teacher policy and teacher evaluation are among the most prominent education policy areas

The government accords great importance to teacher policy and teacher evaluation within the general education improvement agenda. Chile has developed a national framework defining standards for the teaching profession, the Good Teaching Framework (GTF) (*Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*), as of 2003. It also established the teacher performance evaluation system (also referred to as *Docentemás*) within the municipal school sector in 2003 following a tripartite agreement between the Ministry of Education, the Chilean Association of Municipalities and the Teachers' Association (*Colegio de Profesores*). This system is complemented by a range of reward programmes which involve some type of evaluation: the Programme for the Variable Individual Performance Allowance (municipal sector only) (AVDI); the Programme for the Accreditation of Pedagogical Excellence Allowance (covering the entire subsidised school sector) (AEP); and the National System for Performance Evaluation (SNED), which provides group rewards for teaching bodies of given publicly subsidised schools. In addition to these formal programmes, private schools (both subsidised and non-subsidised) autonomously organise their own performance teacher evaluation systems and any school is free to organise extra internal systems of teacher evaluation. A range of initiatives have been launched recently: a draft law proposing a new (multi-level) career structure for teachers associated with teacher evaluation for certification and conditions to be a teacher in the subsidised sector; the Programme for the promotion of quality in initial teacher education, which includes the development of Graduating Teacher Standards, a test to enter the profession (initial pedagogical excellence examination), and support for the improvement of teacher education programmes; and initiatives to improve the attractiveness of teaching, including the Teacher Vocation Scholarship and "Choose to Teach" (*Elige Educar*).

Strengths and challenges

There is a general consensus about the importance of teacher evaluation but it is perceived mostly as an instrument to hold teachers accountable

Teacher evaluation is recognised as an important policy lever to improve student learning. This is reflected in the substantial work on teaching standards, the very comprehensive approach to teacher evaluation in municipal schools and the multitude of reward programmes in the subsidised school sector. Over ten years of experience with formal teacher evaluation have produced a conviction among most teachers about the need for teachers to be evaluated, receive professional feedback, improve their practice and have their achievements recognised. However, while the intended original objective of *Docentemás* was to conceive teacher evaluation as a formative process, teacher evaluation, as implemented, is presently perceived mostly as an instrument to hold municipal teachers accountable. Attributing high stakes to the results of *Docentemás* has led the developmental function of teacher evaluation to become subsumed into the accountability aim of the system. The feedback for improvement teachers receive from the *Docentemás* evaluation is limited (and non-existent in AVDI, AEP and SNED), there is little professional dialogue around teaching practices that occurs as a result of teacher evaluation, teacher evaluation results are not systematically used to inform a professional development plan for all teachers and the concept of feedback is not yet fully ingrained among school agents. The idea that the ultimate objective of teacher evaluation is to

improve students' learning through strengthened teaching practices is not yet fully matured among Chilean education agents. Overall, the potential of professional development of teachers is underestimated. This translates into more limited local engagement in self-evaluation activities, incipient practices of evidence-informed inquiry, and teacher evaluation results not used to their potential. The emphasis on accountability risks leading to a compliance culture where teacher evaluation becomes an administrative burden with reduced potential to improve teaching practices.

There are a variety of mechanisms to evaluate and recognise teachers but gaps and some duplication remain in the teacher evaluation framework

Teacher evaluation develops in a context of considerable national policy attention to improving teacher quality. This is reflected in the multiple mechanisms currently in place that deal with teacher evaluation, covering a variety of purposes: selecting graduates into teaching (initial pedagogical excellence examination), assessing performance in view of improving practices and identifying underperformance (*Docentemás*), and rewarding good or excellent performance (AVDI, AEP, SNED). Also, two new teacher evaluation programmes for municipal schools are in the process of being defined as the new career structure for teachers is introduced (for new teachers and, on a voluntary basis, current teachers): teacher evaluation for certification to determine access to each career level; and teacher performance evaluation to be designed by municipal education authorities and implemented by individual schools in view of determining access to the teaching performance allowance (and identifying underperformance). However, the teacher evaluation framework remains incomplete and contains some duplication. A major gap is that it is not publicly guaranteed that all teachers in the school system undergo a formal process of performance evaluation since teachers in the private school sector (over 50% of Chilean teachers) are not required to undergo a *Docentemás* evaluation and teacher evaluation procedures in private schools are not validated by public education authorities. Also, there is no formal teacher evaluation which focuses on teacher development and feedback for the improvement of practices. Informal feedback for improvement might be undertaken at the school level but there is no external formal validation of such practices. Also, at least in municipal schools, there is no probationary period for teachers who enter the profession. There is also some duplication of efforts across components of the teacher evaluation framework. First, both the AEP and the AVDI provide monetary rewards to individual teachers and, to a great extent, use similar instruments. Second, there seems to be considerable overlap between the portfolio associated with the *Docentemás* system and the portfolio associated with the AEP process.

Teachers are generally open to external feedback but few opportunities are available and teacher evaluation generates little professional dialogue

The OECD Review Team formed the impression that teachers were generally interested in and open to receiving feedback on their performance when that feedback came from someone teachers trusted. In general, teachers liked the idea of having direct feedback on their classroom practice from someone within their school or someone who understood their teaching context. In some schools teachers are observed periodically by the leadership team, and receive feedback on those observations. However, Chilean teachers have relatively few opportunities for professional feedback. The formal systems

of teacher evaluation in Chile involve little or no professional dialogue around teaching practices and, as such, have more limited value for informing improvement. For instance, in *Docentemás*, the peer interview does not involve an interaction between the evaluator and the teacher being evaluated but rather the rating of recorded answers following a set of pre-established questions; the third-party reference report by school leaders entails a rating on a pre-defined set of teaching competencies with no prior dialogue with the evaluated teacher; and the teacher performance portfolio provides no room for the interaction of the teacher with another teaching professional. Also, the feedback given to the individual teacher seems not to be specific enough to be of value in informing their practice. Finally, the quality and extent of informal feedback in individual schools depend on the capacity and leadership style of the school directors. However, school directors are typically overwhelmed with tasks at the school and, in general they do not seem to have the time to engage properly in the coaching, monitoring, and evaluation of teachers. For example, classroom observations by school directors seem to be relatively occasional.

The Quality of Education Agency integrates teacher evaluation in a broader framework but with risks to reinforce focus on accountability

The creation of the Quality of Education Agency is an excellent development to complete and integrate the overall evaluation and assessment framework. In particular, it promises to fill in a gap with the organisation of the external evaluation of individual schools. It will also give teacher evaluation a broader evaluative framework. However, the OECD Review Team perceived that the conception of the Agency's activities as it starts its operations emphasises the accountability function of evaluation. This is reflected in its intentions to develop indicators of school performance (with particular emphasis on SIMCE results, which becomes a responsibility of the Agency), to position schools in four performance categories, to make information about school performance public, and to focus intervention in schools with low performance. Procedures for a comprehensive review of school processes by teams of trained reviewers with the objective of generating a school improvement plan seem to be receiving considerably less attention in the planning of the Agency's activities. It would be unfortunate if the improvement function of the Agency's evaluative activities is neglected as the perception of evaluation as an instrument for compliance and control among Chilean education agents would then be reinforced.

There is some room for local adaptation but the role of local agents remains limited

The teacher performance evaluation system in municipal schools is mostly centrally operated. Processes are standardised at the national level, including the reference standards, instruments to be used, marking criteria and follow-up processes. This strengthens the consistency of teacher evaluation procedures across municipal schools contributing to a more uniform implementation of the national education agenda. However, the system allows for some degree of adaptation to local needs and specificities. This is mostly accomplished by the co-ordination of teacher evaluation at the local level by the Municipal Evaluation Commission, which is empowered to ratify or modify the specific rating of individual teachers assigned centrally. This allows taking into account the context faced by individual teachers and reserves some judgement to agents who are more familiar with local realities. At the same time, however, formal teacher evaluation

processes require little engagement from local agents. In particular, school leaders play a relatively small role as they only contribute to the third-party reference report in the *Docentemás* system. The OECD Review Team also formed the impression that school leaders make little use of the results of *Docentemás* to coach their teachers and inform their school development plans. The introduction of *Docentemás* was not used as an opportunity to further engage school leaders in leading instruction in their schools.

Teacher evaluation is not embedded in a clearly defined teacher career

Presently, in Chile, there is no career path for teachers in the municipal sector. There is a unique career stage with a single salary scale. Pay differentiation is achieved through a range of salary allowances. Roles involving promotion are limited to head of technical-pedagogical units, senior management posts and school director, all of which involve an extra salary allowance. Hence, within a teaching role there are few opportunities for promotion, greater recognition and more responsibility. There are no career steps in teacher development (e.g. beginning; classroom teacher; experienced teacher), which would permit a better match between teacher competence and skills and the tasks to be performed at schools. This is likely to undermine the potentially powerful links between teacher evaluation, professional development and career development. Also, the system of salary allowances for teachers has become incomprehensible given the multitude of allowances (over 15) as well as the complexity of the eligibility requirements to obtain them. These concerns are currently being addressed by the 2012 draft law proposing a new career structure for teachers. The draft law proposes a career structure with four levels and a formal evaluation process to access each of the levels in addition to a school-based teacher evaluation process to receive the (simplified) teaching performance allowance.

There are clear standards of practice but of uneven quality and their understanding is not well disseminated throughout the system

There is a clear definition in Chile of what constitutes good teaching, as described in the Good Teaching Framework (GTF). Clarity on the definition of good teaching is the first, and in many ways, the most important, element of a robust system of teacher evaluation. Ideally, it is used as the benchmark for understanding practice, whether it is in the preparation of teachers, in organising programmes of professional development, or in the evaluation of teachers' skills. This shared understanding, if it is truly shared, enables a common language to develop around the definition of good teaching, and, with that, professional conversation. Moreover, there are clear statements as to what constitutes levels of performance on the standards. As implemented, however, the GTF could benefit from some adjustments. It displays poor alignment between some of the criteria and the descriptors supposedly intended to illustrate them. Some of the criteria in the GTF also appear to be much "bigger" than others, when each of the aspects of teaching on which teacher performance will be evaluated should be of roughly the same level of detail. Moreover, the meaning of some of the criteria is not always clear and some of the descriptors appear to be misplaced. At the same time, the OECD Review Team formed the view that the understanding of the GTF is not well disseminated throughout the system. For example, it is not taught in some initial teacher education programmes, nor is it used by teachers on a regular basis. It has not become, in other words, the "common language" to describe, understand, and improve practice. Also, although it is a concept

central to the equity and the effectiveness of an evaluation system, the OECD Review Team found that most teachers were unfamiliar with the levels of performance as reflected in the rubrics for the different criteria/descriptors in the GTF. Experience in other countries has found that the levels of performance are, all by themselves an important catalyst for teacher learning.

A mix of instruments is used to evaluate the performance of a teacher but there are no clear links between them and the standards of practice

The teacher performance evaluation system (*Docentemás*), as designed, includes a rich combination of various sources of evidence of teaching practice (self-evaluation, planning documents, video of a class, a peer interview and a third-party assessment) as well as different evaluators (teacher, peers, school leaders, and portfolio markers). This wide range of both data sources and evaluators permits a valuable variety of perspectives on a teacher's performance, providing, in effect, multiple measures, and thus adding to the validity of the system as a whole. In addition, valuable information on teaching context is captured in several ways. Such context information is essential for a fair consideration for teachers who are working in varied circumstances with challenges unique to the place or situation. Also, in Chile, teacher evaluation is not overly reliant on standardised student results, which is appropriate given that there are numerous caveats against the use of student standardised assessment scores to "mechanically" evaluate teachers. A challenge in the implementation of teacher evaluation is that it is not clear what are the sources of evidence for each of the standards. The overall "architecture" of the teacher performance evaluation system appears opaque. This opacity is unfortunate, since if teachers had a more accurate idea about which aspects of their teaching were to be evaluated through which evaluation instruments and if they had the rubrics that describe good practice in each of the criteria within each domain, then they could be sure to give it "their best shot" at demonstrating high levels of performance. Without that support, teachers are not sure what they should be demonstrating through each of the assessment activities.

Self-evaluation is a poor instrument, there is room to strengthen the peer interview and the third-party evaluation might not be effective

In order for self-evaluation to have value for teachers, and for the profession, it is essential that teachers be able to conduct their self-evaluation in private, with nothing hinging on the results. Otherwise, it is highly unlikely that teachers, even if they were accurate in their self-evaluation, would be honest. That is, if they honestly assess their own practice as poor, it is likely to be used against them. This is visible in the *Docentemás* system. For instance, for each of the years in the period 2007-2010, over 99% of teachers rated themselves as *Competent* or *Outstanding*. Research evidence suggests that self-evaluation provides little information to identify good teaching performance. Also, there are some limitations to the practice as peer interviews are implemented. First, it is extremely time-consuming. Second, there seems to be poor alignment between some questions and the criteria to which they are (supposedly) linked. Third, the rubrics used to define the four performance levels are additive, and answers are required to include an increasing number of the elements in order to be evaluated at increasingly high levels. Finally, the third-party reference report in *Docentemás* might not

be effective as a result of the limited weight given to the views of the school director and the head of the technical-pedagogical unit. The form to be completed by the evaluators is extensive, but it is valued at only 10% in the total rating for a teacher. This limited role for the school leadership in teacher evaluation is likely a direct reflection of school culture in Chile which casts school leaders in the role of administrators with little involvement in day-to-day instructional activities. Another concern about the third-party reference report is consistency across evaluators. Third-party evaluators receive no training for their function. Without training in what evidence to consider and how to rate that evidence, the validity of the results are called into question.

A number of adjustments can be made to the teacher performance portfolio

The teacher performance portfolio is the core instrument in the teacher performance evaluation system. It has the potential to generate reflective practices among teachers, it is comprehensive in the areas of teaching expertise addressed and it goes to the heart of teachers' work: classroom teaching. There are also indications that it has some power in predicting good teaching performance. However, there are some challenges to its implementation. It is not clear how the various contributors to a single criterion will be assembled to yield a single score for each criterion; that is, there are a number of different elements to the portfolio, but the directions do not indicate how the different "pieces" will be combined together to create a single "score". Moreover, the directions for completing the portfolio appear to be needlessly rigid. For example, the unit must be for eight pedagogical hours. If it is any more or less, the teacher's rating will be lower than it would be otherwise. Also, the system requires that teacher performance be judged in part based on a 40-minute (precisely) video of their teaching. In addition, the directions received by teachers to prepare the portfolio cause one to wonder whether their very detail makes them daunting for some teachers. The OECD Review Team perceived that teachers who were to submit portfolios dreaded the process; many of the interviewed teachers said that they were unsure of the procedures to be followed, and how their responses to questions would be judged. Finally, many teachers felt that completing the portfolio was far too time-consuming and they were not given release time in school to complete it.

The system relies on the competencies of several central agencies and academic institutions

At the central level, teacher evaluation relies on the competencies of several agencies that co-operate regularly so as to assure the quality of the process. While the Ministry of Education holds the political and management responsibility for teacher evaluation, the technical co-ordination of the process is exercised by CPEIP, which in turn is required to receive independent scientific advice from universities with expertise in the area. In particular, the close association with the *Docentemás* team, located at the Measurement Centre of the Catholic University of Chile, ensures that the system is based on scientific advice as well as national and international research evidence. During the Review visit, a range of stakeholders commented on the efficient central management of the teacher evaluation process. In general, key stakeholders perceived the *Docentemás* team as independent and possessing the strong technical capacity needed to run the teacher performance evaluation system effectively.

The municipal sector has the potential to foster systemic learning on teacher evaluation but the capacity of municipalities is uneven

The management of public schools by the municipalities offers the potential for closer monitoring of teacher evaluation practices than a centralised system would allow while also providing opportunities to recognise local realities and constraints. There appears to be growing awareness and interest among municipalities in these functions. The municipal school sector has the advantage of providing a range of opportunities for enhanced systemic learning on teacher evaluation. Municipalities can play a key role in supporting the creation of networks among schools, allowing both school leaders and teachers to meet with their peers from schools in the municipality. However, it appears that there are large variations in the extent to which municipalities have the capacity to fulfil their roles in teacher evaluation effectively, namely heading the Municipal Evaluation Commissions of the *Docentemás* system and ensuring the follow-up with teachers who perform poorly in the evaluation.

Recent emphasis on school leadership strengthens evaluation culture at the school level but there is still little tradition of pedagogical leadership

Over the last years, the Ministry of Education has made the improvement of school leadership an important policy priority. This is reflected in a whole range of recent initiatives – incentives to attract good candidates, more autonomy and accountability for school leaders, investment in school leadership development –, which have the potential to contribute to more effective teacher evaluation processes in schools. However, a range of concerns remain about whether school leaders have the competencies necessary to lead the effective implementation of teacher evaluation at the school level. Traditionally, in Chile, school leaders have played more of an administrative and managerial role than a pedagogical leadership role. While recent reforms have given school leaders greater powers and responsibilities, whether they actually take responsibility for the quality of education at the point of delivery depends largely on the motivation and leadership style of individual directors. It appeared to the OECD Review Team that the prevailing culture in Chile is not one in which school leaders are routinely involved in observation of teaching with an evaluative or professional development focus. The introduction of the national *Docentemás* teacher evaluation system could have been used as an opportunity to further engage school leaders in leading the core business of teaching and learning in schools. But, quite the contrary, the current teacher performance evaluation approach marginalises the role of the school leaders.

The high involvement of teachers as evaluators contributes to building ownership but competencies of teachers for evaluation need improvement

One of the strengths of the *Docentemás* teacher evaluation approach is the high involvement of practising teachers as evaluators in two main roles: as markers of teacher portfolios in one of the Assessment centres set up by *Docentemás* in various universities; and as peer evaluators who conduct peer interviews and participate in the Municipality Evaluation Commissions. For both roles, intensive preparation processes have been set up to build the capacity of those selected. The participation of teachers at various stages of the evaluation process contributes to building ownership and evaluation competency among

teachers and may also help them to understand and benefit from their own evaluation to a greater extent. However, there are a number of areas where there is room for improvement of teachers' evaluation competencies. There is much concern about the capacity of teachers to undertake effective self-evaluation. Clearly, there is a general perception in Chile that teachers invariably rate positively their own performance and that the self-evaluations do not reflect differentiated analysis about their own strengths and weaknesses. In part, this may reflect a lack of capacity of teachers to analyse their own strengths and weaknesses accurately. Also, many of the teachers interviewed by the OECD Review Team indicated that they did not fully understand the teacher performance evaluation process. Some mentioned that the language of the instruments was unclear while others pointed out that the standards and criteria in relation to which they were evaluated were not explicit. Moreover, there is little evidence that teachers actually look at the results to plan their further professional development. Another particularly important aspect is that there is little trust in the competencies of portfolio markers among evaluated teachers.

The teacher performance evaluation system is a missed opportunity for strengthening professional development

There appears to be little culture of professional development in Chile. Even though the importance of professional development is recognised at the policy level, the OECD Review Team formed the view that its provision appears fragmented and not systematically linked to teacher evaluation. There is insufficient use of formal teacher evaluation to identify teacher professional development needs which respond to school-wide needs. The teacher performance evaluation system does not provide for a systematic linkage between teacher evaluation results and professional development plans for individual teachers. The exceptions are those cases in which the teacher's performance is identified as *Basic* or *Unsatisfactory*. But even in these cases, the implementation of the mandatory Professional Development Plans is not satisfactory. There is also scope to better link teacher professional development to school development and improvement. In Chile, professional development is predominantly a choice by individual teachers and is not systematically associated with school development needs. When professional development is viewed as an individual and isolated matter, and pursued only as a result of a negative evaluation – and therefore for remedial purposes – an important aspect of professional culture is not available. In Chile, teachers do not necessarily expect to receive feedback on their performance and create a professional growth plan with guidance from an evaluator or school leader.

There are few examples of communities of practice in schools

During its visit, the OECD Review Team saw few examples of communities of practice in schools where teachers can share strategies, observe one another, collaborate on projects, all with the aim of learning from one another. There was little evidence of school-centred professional development that would emphasise the community of learners within the school. Partly because of the time demands of their jobs, but partly because of a culture of privacy and autonomy, teachers have very little opportunity to work collaboratively to plan or reflect on either their teaching or evidence of student learning. This is another example of the subversion of the goal of professional learning for teachers being subsumed into the aim of accountability; unless a school embodies a culture of professional sharing and growth, teachers tend to work in their own isolated "silos" with no meaningful interaction with one another.

Teacher evaluation is used as a basis for recognition and celebration of a teacher's work but the incentive system is complex and fragmented

In Chile, teacher evaluation fulfils the important function of recognising and celebrating the work of effective teachers. This is accomplished, in particular, through AEP and the AVDI, which mostly consist of monetary rewards for excellence in teaching. These are instrumental in retaining effective teachers in schools as well as in making teaching an attractive career choice. However, most countries do not directly link teacher evaluation results with teacher pay but, instead, associate teacher evaluation results to the speed of career advancement. This is because the research on the impact of bonus pay on teacher performance is mixed. AEP and AVDI are part of a larger set of salary allowances that, in addition to the basic salary, form the teacher incentive programme. It seems that the various salary allowances were created at different times for different reasons, but such a scattered approach dilutes the focus on identifying and rewarding Chile's best teachers. They result in a rather complex and fragmented system of incentives for teachers.

Ineffective teaching is addressed by the teacher performance evaluation system

The teacher performance evaluation system has been designed to deal with ineffective teachers. An *Unsatisfactory* or a *Basic* rating require teachers to participate in professional development activities specifically designed to address the weaknesses identified through the performance evaluation. It is entirely appropriate to systematically support teachers in their developmental needs. Otherwise, this causes difficulties not only for schools and the general teaching force, but also for the poorly performing teachers themselves. Hence, in Chile, the initial focus is on regular, ongoing teacher evaluation providing constructive feedback to teachers on their performance, and jointly identifying appropriate developmental strategies. In addition, *Docentemás* is designed to deal with the most critical cases of sustained underperformance in municipal schools. As of 2011, two consecutive *Unsatisfactory* ratings imply the removal of the concerned teacher from the post. It is a strength of the system that if improvements do not occur, processes exist to move ineffective teachers either out of the school system or into non-teaching roles.

There is no relationship between teacher evaluation and career advancement

Presently teacher evaluation is not embedded in a clearly defined teaching career structure. Teacher evaluation happens as a matter of course every four years, rather than being part of a system of continuous progression in a teaching career which recognises that teachers acquire new competencies and skills as they gain experience. As a result, the teacher performance evaluation system does not provide a means to reward teachers for the gained competencies and skills to take on higher responsibilities, i.e. the results of teacher evaluation have little bearing on teachers' careers, since results are not associated with career advancement and are not necessarily considered for promotion. This is problematic as the recognition of gained skills and competencies should come along with the ability to take on further responsibilities defined in a career structure.

Policy recommendations

Develop a medium term vision

Chile has made remarkable progress in implementing teacher evaluation and developing an evaluation culture among the teaching workforce. An impressive capacity was accumulated in developing instruments, preparing guidance materials, marking instruments, designing information systems, and reporting results. Although the development of teacher evaluation requires adjustments, it is important not to lose the ground that has been gained. In the medium term, the approach to teacher evaluation which holds greatest promise of sustained high impact on student learning is one where teachers engage in authentic reflective practice, study their own practices, and share their experience with their peers as a routine part of professional life. The developmental (or improvement) function of teacher evaluation whereby the results of evaluations are used to inform the professional development of teachers and foster the professional dialogue among school actors around teaching practices is yet to receive proper attention.

Consolidate the Good Teaching Framework as the main pillar for teacher evaluation and development

The Good Teaching Framework should be consolidated as the main pillar to guide teacher evaluation and development. Efforts should go into its further improvement through clear feedback mechanisms involving teachers, education experts, municipal education authorities and units in charge of teacher evaluation. Teaching standards need to be continuously informed by research and express the sophistication and complexity of what effective teachers are expected to know and be able to do. Periodical revisions to the standards should be undertaken to ensure they remain relevant and aligned with other elements of the system. Also, further work needs to be undertaken to ensure the Good Teaching Framework contains the relevant criteria and indicators and that these are adequately aligned with the evaluation instruments. Furthermore, it is fundamental to embed the teaching standards in teachers' everyday work in the classroom. Extensive socialisation of standards at several stages of teachers' careers such as initial teacher education and the early years in the profession is needed and should preferably involve training for in-service teachers on the use of standards and their implications for classroom practice.

Embed evaluation for teacher development and improvement in regular school practice

There needs to be a stronger emphasis on teacher evaluation for improvement purposes (i.e. developmental evaluation). Given that there are risks that the developmental function is hampered by high-stakes teacher evaluation (to take the form of a certification process as suggested below), it is proposed that a component predominantly dedicated to developmental evaluation, fully internal to the school, be created. This developmental evaluation would have as its main purpose the continuous improvement of teaching practices in the school. It would be an internal process carried out by line managers, senior peers, and the school leadership. The reference standards would be the Good Teaching Framework but with evaluation rubrics developed at the school level to better account for the school objectives and context. The main outcome would be feedback on teaching performance and the whole contribution of the teacher to

school development which would lead to a plan for professional development. It can be low-key and low-cost, and include self-evaluation (possibly through the preparation of a portfolio), classroom observation, and structured conversations and regular feedback by the leadership and experienced peers. School-based teacher developmental evaluation could be conceived as part of a framework defined at the municipal level. Municipal education authorities could develop such framework in consultation with school directors and experienced teachers. The framework could define general principles for the operation of procedures while allowing flexibility of approach at the school level within the agreed parameters to better meet local needs. In order to guarantee the systematic and coherent application of developmental evaluation across Chilean schools, it would be important to undertake the external validation of the respective school processes for developmental teacher evaluation. An option is that the Quality of Education Agency, in its monitoring of the quality of teaching and learning in individual schools, includes the audit of the processes in place to organise developmental teacher evaluation, holding the school director accountable as necessary.

Create a teacher career structure with distinct pathways and salary steps

Schools and teachers could benefit from a career structure for teachers that comprised (say) three career pathways: competent teacher; established teacher, and accomplished/expert teacher. The different career pathways should be associated with distinct roles and responsibilities in schools in relation to given levels of teaching expertise. For instance, an established teacher could assume responsibility for the mentoring of beginning teachers and an expert teacher could take responsibility for the co-ordination of professional development in the school. Access to each of the career pathways should be voluntary and be associated with formal processes of evaluation through a system of teacher certification, as proposed below. Also, each of the career pathways should be organised according to steps indicating a clear salary progression. A teacher who would like to remain in the classroom and not assume new responsibilities should be given the opportunity to progress within the "competent teacher" or the "established teacher" career paths. Such progression within career paths should also be regulated through a process of teacher certification. This recommendation supports the current government plans to introduce a new career structure for teachers in the municipal school sector. An important objective should be to align expectations of skills and competencies at different stages of the career (as reflected in teaching standards) and the responsibilities of teachers in schools (as reflected in career structures). This would strengthen the incentive for teachers to improve their competencies, and reinforce the matching between teachers' levels of competence and the roles which need to be performed in schools to improve student learning.

Set up a system of teacher certification to determine career progression, which includes entrance requirements and a probationary period

The summative (or accountability) function of teacher evaluation that is currently being achieved through the *Docentemás* system, the AVDI and the AEP could be brought together into a single process of teacher evaluation for career progression through a certification process associated with the teacher career structure suggested above – with progression within career paths and access to distinct career paths. This would formalise

the principle of advancement on merit associated with career opportunities for effective teachers. The reward dimension would be captured through faster career advancement (leading to a higher salary) rather than a salary bonus (as is currently the case with the AVDI and the AEP). Each permanent teacher in the system would be required to periodically (say every four years) be the subject of a formal evaluation for certification (or re-certification). The purpose would be to certify teachers periodically as fit for the profession. The evaluation would also influence the speed at which the teacher progresses within a career pathway (e.g. if outstanding, the teacher would progress two salary steps at once; if competent, the teacher would progress one salary step (the "regular" step); and if unsatisfactory, the teacher would remain in the same salary step). Once teachers meet certain requirements (related to experience and performance), they could also voluntarily request a formal evaluation to access a new career path (as "established" or "accomplished/expert" teacher). Both the evaluations for certification (or career progression) and to access a new career path, which are more summative in nature, need to have a strong component external to the school and more formal processes. These processes could be governed by an accredited commission organised by the Quality of Education Agency. Such commissions could be formed by distinguished teachers and recognised school leaders as well as representatives of municipal education authorities. The evaluators would need to receive proper training and be accredited by the Quality of Education Agency. The evaluation of a given teacher should also be informed by the input by the respective school director. As the opening step in the certification process, and as long as there are concerns about the quality of initial teacher education programmes, an entry examination to identify candidates fit to enter the teaching profession should be organised. The current initiative of introducing the initial pedagogical excellence examination is positive and can help ensure some quality control of initial teacher education programmes (in the absence of a robust quality accreditation system in higher education). Also, a formal probationary process for new teachers should be introduced, alongside induction processes for beginning teachers.

Integrate, to some degree, the private school sector in the teacher evaluation framework

In spite of the existence of teacher evaluation practices in private schools, there is limited guarantee that those practices are aligned with the national student learning objectives. This is debatable in light of the fact that most of these teachers work in private schools which receive public funds, most of which at levels similar to those received by municipal schools. The receipt of public funds provides a strong case for private subsidised schools to be integrated, to some degree, in the teacher evaluation framework. There are a range of possible approaches to integrate the private school sector in the overall teacher evaluation framework. One possibility is to require private schools to comply with the approaches followed within the teacher evaluation framework. This would mean requiring teachers in private schools to undertake the same evaluations as municipal teachers. Another possibility is for the private sector to be part of protocol agreements which specify general principles for the operation of teacher evaluation while allowing flexibility of approach within the agreed parameters. The Quality of Education Agency could then audit whether private schools are complying with the agreement. This should include the validation of internal processes for teacher evaluation in private schools.

Give the Quality of Education Agency a prominent role in supporting teacher evaluation

A priority for the Quality of Education Agency should be to emphasise the developmental function of evaluation and assessment and reflect on the best ways for evaluation and assessment activities to improve student learning. This would avoid the risk that evaluation and assessment are perceived mostly as instruments to hold school agents accountable, to "control" and assess compliance with regulations. This requires communicating the idea that the ultimate objective of evaluation and assessment is to improve students' learning and teachers' teaching. It also entails establishing strategies to strengthen the linkages to classroom practice, where the improvement of student learning takes place. The more specific role of the Agency in teacher evaluation could be considerable. First, the Agency is in a good position to undertake the external audit of school-based teacher evaluation procedures. Second, another key role should be the accreditation of external evaluators involved in teacher evaluation for certification. Third, the Agency should have an important role in supporting agents in the implementation of teacher evaluation procedures. This includes supporting municipal authorities in the development of their capacity for educational evaluation (e.g. for designing frameworks for teacher evaluation), giving feedback to schools on how they can improve their internal approaches to teacher evaluation (in the context of school evaluation), and developing functions such as school leadership and the monitoring of teaching and learning which directly influence teacher evaluation. Fourth, the Agency should have an eminent role in modelling, identifying and disseminating good practice in teacher evaluation and in using relevant research to improve evaluation practices. This requires the Agency to acquire a strong technical capacity. Finally, another major function of the Quality of Education Agency is to articulate the different components of the evaluation and assessment framework, including between teacher evaluation and school evaluation.

Update the Good Teaching Framework and improve its understanding by the relevant parties

It would be important for the Ministry of Education to examine recent research on teaching practice and determine whether the GTF should be slightly revised. One important aspect of this matter concerns the evidence, from classrooms, of student active engagement in learning. The GTF could better take into account the active role that students play in the classroom. Another area which could be better reflected in the GTF is the use of formative assessment in the instructional process. Whether revised in light of recent research or not, the GTF should serve as the nation's agreed-upon definition of teaching, informing all the efforts to describe and strengthen practice. Therefore, the GTF must inform programmes of teacher preparation, to ensure that when teachers enter the profession they already understand what is important for them to know and be able to do. Furthermore, if the GTF is to be embedded into professional conversations across the country, it needs to become the language of instruction throughout the nation's schools.

Link teaching standards with evaluation instruments

A simple "crosswalk" between the evaluation instruments and the GTF, provided in table form, would help teachers understand both the evaluation criteria and the requirements for the instruments. Furthermore, it would, at least implicitly, help teachers understand how their submissions will be evaluated, and what, therefore, comprises a

submission of high quality. Such a crosswalk almost certainly exists, since it must have formed the foundation of the original design of the evaluation system. Hence it is recommended that the alignment between the evaluation instruments and the criteria of the GTF be made known to teachers.

Firmly root all evaluation in classroom observation and rethink the mix of instruments for both career progression and developmental evaluation

A key decision is the mix of instruments to use in teacher evaluation. The experience with the diverse instruments used in *Docentemás* is a good basis for further development. Vast expertise has been developed in the design and use of the instruments across the municipal school system in the implementation of *Docentemás*, which is not to be lost. A priority should be to give vast prominence to those instruments better capturing the quality of teachers' practices in the classroom and which are richer to inform the improvement of teaching practices. As a result, teacher evaluation should be firmly rooted in classroom observation. Most key aspects of teaching are displayed while teachers interact with their students in the classroom. Other instruments that can be used to capture teachers' actual classroom practices include: self-evaluation, teacher portfolios, evidence of student learning and interviews. Teacher evaluation should involve an opportunity for teachers to express their own views about their performance, and reflect on the personal, organisational and institutional factors that had an impact on their teaching, through a self-evaluation instrument. A portfolio could be used in both summative and formative contexts. For summative purposes, a portfolio should require teachers to mention specific ways in which they consider that their professional practices are promoting student learning, and could include elements such as: lesson plans and teaching materials, samples of student work and commentaries on student assessment examples, teacher's self-reported questionnaires and reflection sheets. For formative purposes, teachers could develop a simplified but well-structured portfolio with specific evidence about key aspects of their teaching. The main objective is that the portfolio plays a role in supporting a reflective approach to teaching practice. Also, the OECD Review Team considers that at this stage it is premature to use student standardised assessment results as direct measures to evaluate the performance of individual teachers. Student results are fundamental, but given the current limitations of value-added models, they are more relevant for whole-school evaluation than for individual teacher performance evaluation. In addition, Chile does not yet have in place the necessary pre-requisites to engage in the measurement of individual teachers' contributions to student learning growth.

Design the portfolio requirements in such a way that the contents represent more of a "natural harvest" of teachers' everyday practice

A priority should be for teacher evaluation to draw on instruments which capture more authentic teaching practices. In this way, portfolios could be designed to reflect what can be called a "natural harvest" of the teacher's work. Hence, the planning documents describe a unit or lesson that the teacher is actually teaching; the video, and accompanying commentary, are of a lesson the teacher is doing with his or her class. This feature of "natural harvest" results in the entire requirement feeling far less burdensome to teachers than would be the case if it were perceived as an add-on to their normal responsibilities. While portfolios for developmental purposes should only involve a

qualitative assessment, portfolios for career progression require clarity about how each GTF criterion will be scored on the basis of the different elements of the portfolio. Regarding the latter, teachers should also receive comprehensive instructions, possibly with some support at the school level to complete their portfolios. Teachers also need to be given the necessary release time to complete their portfolios.

Make the peer interview more meaningful and use the third-party reference report to link developmental to career progression evaluation

In the peer interview, a better approach would be to give teachers access to the rubrics, and ask them to describe a specific instance in which they achieved the different elements. This approach would help teachers be more reflective, and would contribute to their professional development. Also, the peer interview does not involve any professional dialogue between the teacher and his or her peer, which eliminates the possibility of feedback for the improvement of practice. A more interactive and open discussion around professional practice would greatly improve the meaningfulness of the peer interview. It is also suggested that the peer interview is combined with classroom observation – in both the cases of career-progression teacher evaluation and developmental evaluation. The objective is to establish a professional dialogue between peers which includes the information generated by the direct observation of practice. In the context of career-progression evaluation it might be combined with a discussion of general practice while in the context of developmental evaluation it should generate an open and frank discussion about the strengths and weaknesses identified by the evaluator. In career-progression teacher evaluation it is important to ensure that the views and perspectives of an evaluator familiar with the teacher's school context are also given consideration. This is ideally carried out in a third-party reference report by the leadership of the teacher's school. This would provide a link between developmental evaluation and career-progression evaluation as school leaders (directors and heads of technical-pedagogical units) would use information from the internal developmental evaluations as an input to prepare their third-party reference reports.

Ensure consistently high-quality preparation for portfolio markers

Given the lack of trust of some teachers in the marking of their portfolios, a review of the processes for selecting and preparing the markers should be considered. One option to ensure that all markers across Chile are qualified according to the same standards (and perceived as such) would be to establish an accreditation/certification process in which markers would have to pass an assessment to prove their marking competencies. Another important element in ensuring the quality of marking would be to systematically use moderation processes where more than one marker agrees on a teacher's rating – for instance, two markers could rate each of the assessed portfolios.

Strengthen the professional competencies of municipal education staff

Strong municipal leadership is essential to establish teacher evaluation as a priority at the local level and to support schools in using evaluation results for improvement. To foster such leadership, it is important to strengthen the professional competencies of staff working within the municipal education departments and corporations across Chile. To

this end, the Ministry of Education should take a stronger role in promoting strategic partnerships between municipalities and key sources of support. This could include the universities and professional institutes and other potential providers in each region. Rather than expecting each municipality to develop pedagogical support and evaluation strategies on their own, Chile could also consider building larger scale "shared service" approaches offering regional support in evaluation to a larger group of municipalities and schools. This might include coaching and consultancy for groups of municipalities and schools within a region. Finally, given the heterogeneity of competencies and approaches across municipalities, there is much potential for municipalities to work together and learn from each other. The Ministry of Education could help support increased collaboration and networking among the municipal staff responsible for evaluation and pedagogical support in schools. This could be done, for example, through the organisation of meetings or workshops for municipal quality assurance staff.

Build pedagogical leadership capacity and give school leaders a key role in teacher evaluation

Developing a culture of evaluation and improvement of teaching practices is an important aspect of pedagogical leadership. Given their familiarity with the context in which teachers work, their awareness of the school needs and their ability to provide rapid feedback to the teacher, the school director and/or other teachers in the school are well placed to play a more prominent role in teacher evaluation. They are in a good position to complement the national teacher performance evaluation system with more localised approaches based on regular observation of teaching practices and provision of formative feedback in a non-threatening way. For school directors to be able to play such a role, it is important to build their competencies and credibility to develop effective evaluation and coaching arrangements for their staff. School directors need to be equipped to focus thoroughly on the quality of teaching and learning and help set up the trusting work environment necessary to embed a focus on continuous evaluation and improvement in the everyday work of teachers.

Ensure teachers are better prepared to benefit from their evaluation

Ensuring that teachers are provided with support to understand the evaluation procedures and to benefit from evaluation results is also vitally important. Teachers can benefit from training modules that help them understand what is expected of them and how to make best use of the feedback provided. Such learning should be offered both in initial teacher education and continuous professional development. Also, there needs to be better connections between initial teacher education and teacher evaluation, including with the alignment between the *Docentemás* system and the content of initial teacher education and the establishment of better feedback loops between the *Docentemás* system and initial teacher education.

Improve linkages of teacher evaluation to professional development and secure linkages to school development

Professional development is only fully effective when it is aligned with recognised needs, for both individual teachers and for schools as a whole. Professional development in Chile appears at the moment to be a matter for individual teachers to pursue and it is to

a great extent de-coupled from the results of the teacher performance evaluation system. This situation can and should be improved. Linking professional growth opportunities to evaluation results is critical if evaluation is going to play a role in improving teaching and learning. Chile does not have a system in place to ensure that the feedback provided to teachers is systematically used to guide improvement plans. At the same time, the linkages between teacher evaluation, professional development and school improvement need to be reinforced. Professional development informed by teacher evaluation needs to be associated with school development if the improvement of teaching practices is to meet school needs. Schools can learn from the strengths of effective teachers and implement professional development programmes that respond to their weaknesses.

Use non-monetary and group rewards as complementary tools to recognise teachers

Establishing linkages between teacher evaluation and career advancement, as suggested above, provides an indirect link between teacher performance levels and pay. By contrast, initiatives such as the AVDI and the AEP programmes, establish a direct link between performance levels and pay through monetary rewards. In countries such as Chile, where the basic salary of teachers is modest, bonuses of this type are always welcome. However, the "bonus" pay element should be approached with considerable caution. The evidence of the overall impact of such extra payments is mixed and can be contentious and potentially divisive. Rewarding teachers with time allowances, sabbatical periods, opportunities for school-based research, support for post-graduate study, or opportunities for professional development could be more appealing for many teachers. This is particularly the case if the resources currently devoted to the AEP and the AVDI are transferred to the overall performance-based professional career ladder proposed above. Besides, the "excellence" dimension of these programmes would be captured by career advancement within and access to the different career pathways. Also, in some circumstances it may be more effective to focus on group recognition and rewards at the school or grade level rather than individual teacher rewards. This gives support to retaining SNED as a mechanism to reward groups of teachers.

Annex A. The OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes

The OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes is designed to respond to the strong interest in evaluation and assessment issues evident at national and international levels. It provides a description of design, implementation and use of assessment and evaluation procedures in countries; analyses strengths and weaknesses of different approaches; and provides recommendations for improvement. The Review looks at the various components of assessment and evaluation frameworks that countries use with the objective of improving student outcomes. These include student assessment, teacher evaluation, school evaluation and system evaluation. The Review focuses on primary and secondary education.[1]

The overall purpose is to explore how systems of evaluation and assessment can be used to improve the quality, equity and efficiency of school education.[2] The overarching policy question is "How can assessment and evaluation policies work together more effectively to improve student outcomes in primary and secondary schools?" The Review further concentrates on five key issues for analysis: *(i)* designing a systemic framework for evaluation and assessment; *(ii)* ensuring the effectiveness of evaluation and assessment procedures; *(iii)* developing competencies for evaluation and for using feedback; *(iv)* making the best use of evaluation results; and *(v)* implementing evaluation and assessment policies.

Twenty-five countries are actively engaged in the Review. These cover a wide range of economic and social contexts, and among them they illustrate quite different approaches to evaluation and assessment in school systems. This will allow a comparative perspective on key policy issues. These countries prepare a detailed background report, following a standard set of guidelines. Countries can also opt for a detailed Review, undertaken by a team consisting of members of the OECD Secretariat and external experts. Fourteen OECD countries have opted for a Country Review. The final comparative report from the OECD Review, bringing together lessons from all countries, was completed in 2013.

The project is overseen by the Group of National Experts on Evaluation and Assessment, which was established as a subsidiary body of the OECD Education Policy Committee in order to guide the methods, timing and principles of the Review. More details are available from the website dedicated to the Review: *www.oecd.org/edu/evaluationpolicy*.

Notes

1. The scope of the Review does not include early childhood education and care, apprenticeships within vocational education and training, and adult education.

2. The project's purposes and scope are detailed in the OECD (2009) document entitled "OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes: Design and Implementation Plan for the Review", which is available from the project website *www.oecd.org/edu/evaluationpolicy*.

Annex B. Visit programme

Wednesday, 2 November 2011, Santiago	
08:30 – 09:30	Meeting with the Authorities of the Ministry of Education: – Mr. Fernando Rojas, Deputy-Minister of Education, Ministry of Education – Mr. Francisco Lagos, Head of Research Centre, Ministry of Education
10:00 – 11:00	Curriculum and Assessment Unit (UCE), Ministry of Education
11:00 – 12:00	Higher Education Division (DIVESUB), Ministry of Education
12:00 – 13:00	General Education Division (DEG), Ministry of Education
14:00 – 15:30	Measurement Centre of the Catholic University of Chile (MIDE-UC), *Docentemás* Team
15:30 – 16:30	Pedagogical Excellence Allowance Programme (AEP), Centro Microdatos, Faculty of Economics, University of Chile
16:30 – 17:30	Education Commission of the Chilean Association of Municipalities (ACHM)
Thursday, 3 November 2011, Santiago	
08:00 – 09:00	Enseña Chile (eCH)
09:00 – 10:00	National Education Council (CNE)
10:00 – 11:00	Quality of Education Agency and Education Superintendence
11:00 – 12:00	Teachers' Association (*Colegio de Profesores*)
12:00 – 12:45	Private Schools of Chile (*Colegios Particulares de Chile*, CONACEP)
12:45 – 13:30	Federation of Institutions of Private Education (*Federación de Instituciones de Educación Particular*, FIDE)
14:30 – 17:30	Primary school visit: *Escuela Básica Particular Centro Educacional San Pablo*, Cerro Navia – School leadership team – Meeting with a group of teachers – Meeting with a group of parents – Meeting with a group of students
Friday, 4 November 2011, Concepción	
08:30 – 09:30	Visit to the Municipality of Concepción, meeting with the Mayor and Head of Education Department
09:30 – 10:30	Municipal Evaluation Commission
10:30 – 13:00	Primary/secondary school visit: *Colegio Juan Gregorio Las Heras*, Concepción – School leadership team – Meeting with a group of teachers – Meeting with a group of parents – Meeting with a group of students
14:00 – 17:00	Primary school visit: *Escuela Básica Primer Agua Abajo*, Penco – School leadership team – Meeting with a group of teachers – Meeting with a group of parents – Meeting with a group of students
Sunday, 6 November 2011, Santiago	
09:30 – 19:00	Review Team meeting

Monday, 7 November 2011, Valparaíso	
09:30 – 10:30	Visit to the Municipality of Valparaíso, meeting with the Mayor and Head of Education Department
10:30 – 13:00	Primary/secondary school visit: *Colegio Carlos Cousiño*, Valparaíso – School leadership team – Meeting with a group of teachers – Meeting with a group of parents – Meeting with a group of students
14:00 – 16:30	Primary school visit: *Escuela República del Uruguay*, Valparaíso – School leadership team – Meeting with a group of teachers – Meeting with a group of parents – Meeting with a group of students
16:30 – 17:30	Municipal Evaluation Commission
Tuesday, 8 November 2011, Santiago	
08:30 – 10:00	Centre for Pedagogical Training, Experimentation and Research (CPEIP), Ministry of Education
10:00 – 13:00	Primary/secondary school visit: *Liceo Municipal Purkuyen*, San Ramón – School leadership team – Meeting with a group of teachers – Meeting with a group of parents – Meeting with a group of students
14:00 – 16:30	Primary/secondary school visit: *Colegio Parroquial San Miguel*, San Miguel – School leadership team – Meeting with a group of teachers – Meeting with a group of parents – Meeting with a group of students
Wednesday, 9 November 2011, Santiago	
09:00 – 10:00	Meeting with Representatives of Education Faculties Council of Deans of Education of the Council of Rectors: – Universidad de Concepción – Universidad Mayor – Universidad de los Andes – Universidad Finis Terrae
10:00 – 11:00	Educational Technical Assistance (ATE) – Master 7 Ltda. – Fundación CMPC – Aptus Chile – Fundación Chile – Grupo Educativo
11:00 – 13:00	Research seminar (final list to be confirmed) – Beatrice Ávalos, University of Chile – Dagmar Raczynski, *Asesorías para el Desarrollo*, University of Chile and Catholic University of Chile – José Weinstein, *Fundación Chile* – Denise Falck, Consultant to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), formerly with *Centro Microdatos*, University of Chile
14:00 – 15:00	Pre-school Teachers' Association
15:00 – 16:00	Special Education Teachers' Association
16:00 – 17:00	Final delivery by the Review Team with preliminary impressions

Annex C. Composition of the Review Team

Francisco Benavides, a Mexican and French national, is a Policy Analyst in the OECD Directorate for Education and Skills since 2004. Currently he is co-leading the project Overcoming School Failure: Policies that Work. As part of the Improving Schools team (2008-2010) he worked on school management, teacher policy and policy implementation. During 2006-2008 he was project manager of the Innovative Learning Environments and Teacher Education for Diversity projects. He is co-editor of *Innovating to Learn, Learning to Innovate* (2008), *The Nature of Learning: Using Research to Inspire Practice* (2010), and co-author of *Improving Schools: Strategies for Action in Mexico* (2010) and the comparative report *Equity and Quality in Education: Supporting Disadvantaged Students and Schools* (2012). He has previous experience as a journalist, has worked for international NGOs and holds an M.A. in Political Sciences and Development from Sciences Po Paris.

Charlotte Danielson, an American national, is an internationally recognised expert in the area of teacher effectiveness, specialising in the design of teacher evaluation systems that, while ensuring teacher quality, also promote professional learning. She advises State Education Departments and National Ministries and Departments of Education, both in the United States and overseas. Her many publications range from defining good teaching (*Enhancing Professional Practice: A Framework for Teaching*, 2007), to organising schools for student success (*Enhancing Student Achievement: A Framework for School Improvement*, 2002), to teacher leadership (*Teacher Leadership that Strengthens the Profession*, 2006), to professional conversations (*Talk about Teaching! Conducting Professional Conversations*, 2009), to numerous practical instruments and training programmes (both onsite and online) to assist practitioners in implementing their ideas.

Laura Goe, an American national, is currently a Research Scientist in the Performance Research Group at Educational Testing Service, and is Principal Investigator for Research and Dissemination for the National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality. Her research interests include teacher qualifications, measuring teacher quality, teacher effectiveness, teacher compensation, professional development, and the equitable distribution of teachers. Her research focuses on using both quantitative and qualitative approaches to examining school improvement, the distribution of teachers, formative assessment, and teacher evaluation. She provides research-based support on topics such as evaluating teacher effectiveness, understanding growth models, and using multiple measures to assess teachers' contribution to student learning growth. She received her PhD from UC Berkeley's Policy, Organizations, Measurement, and Evaluation program and has taught special education and middle school students.

Deborah Nusche, a German national, is a Policy Analyst in the OECD Directorate for Education and Skills. She is currently working on the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes. At the OECD, she previously worked on the Thematic Review of Migrant Education and the Improving School Leadership study. She has led country review visits on migrant education and participated in case study visits on school leadership in several countries. She also co-authored the OECD reports *Closing the Gap for Immigrant Students* (2010) and *Improving School Leadership* (2008). She has previous experience with UNESCO and the World Bank and holds an M.A. in International Affairs from Sciences Po Paris.

Paulo Santiago, a Portuguese national, is a Senior Analyst in the OECD Directorate for Education and Skills, where he has been since 2000. He is currently the co-ordinator of the OECD Review on Evaluation and Assessment Frameworks for Improving School Outcomes. He has previously assumed responsibility for two major cross-country reviews, each with the participation of over 20 countries: a review of teacher policy (between 2002 and 2005, leading to the OECD publication *Teachers Matter*) and the thematic review of tertiary education (between 2005 and 2008, leading to the OECD publication *Tertiary Education for the Knowledge Society*). He has also led reviews of teacher policy and tertiary education policy in several countries. He holds a PhD in Economics from Northwestern University, United States, where he also lectured. He co-ordinated the Review and acted as *Rapporteur* for the Review Team.

Annex D. Comparative indicators on evaluation and assessment

	Chile	International benchmark[1]	Chile's rank[2]
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT			
Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2012)			
% of population that has attained at least upper secondary education, by age group (excluding ISCED 3C short programmes)[3] (2010)			
Ages 25-64	71	74	=24/33
Ages 25-34	87	82	=13/33
Ages 35-44	76	78	26/33
Ages 45-54	67	72	=23/33
Ages 55-64	53	62	25/33
% of population that has attained tertiary education, by age group (2010)			
Ages 25-64	27	31	=22/34
Ages 25-34	38	38	=19/34
Ages 35-44	27	33	=23/34
Ages 45-54	21	28	24/34
Ages 55-64	19	23	20/34
Average annual growth rate in levels of educational attainment from 2000 to 2010			
Below upper secondary	m	-3.2	a
Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary	m	0.6	a
Tertiary education	m	3.7	a
Upper secondary graduation rates (2010)			
% of upper secondary graduates (first-time graduation) to the population at the typical age of graduation	83	84	=17/26
STUDENT PERFORMANCE			
Source: PISA 2009 Results (OECD, 2010a)			
Mean performance in PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) (15-year-olds) (2009)			
Reading literacy	449	493	33/34
Mathematics literacy	421	496	33/34
Science literacy	447	501	33/34
Proportion of students by reading proficiency in % (2009):			
Top performers (% of students proficient at Levels 5 or 6)	1.3	7.6	
Lowest performers (% of students proficient below Level 2)	30.6	18.8	
SCHOOL SYSTEM EXPENDITURE			
Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2012)			
Expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary institutions as a % of GDP, from public and private sources			
1995	m	3.6	a
2000	m	3.5	a
2009	3.6	4.0	=22/32
Public expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education as a % of total public expenditure (2009)[4]	12.3	8.7	3/32
Total expenditure on primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education from public sources (2009) (%)	78.2	91.2	29/30
Annual expenditure per student by educational institutions, (2009) (USD)[5]			
Primary	2 981	7 719	30/31
Lower secondary	2 893	8 854	28/29
Upper secondary	2 892	9 755	30/30
All secondary	2 892	9 312	31/32

	Chile	International benchmark[1]	Chile's rank[2]
Change in expenditure per student by educational institutions, primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education, index of change between 1995, 2000, 2005 and 2009 (2005 = 100)			
1995	m	74	a
2009	118	115	=7/32
Current expenditure – composition, primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009)[6]			
Compensation of teachers	m	62.4	a
Compensation of other staff	m	15.5	a
Compensation of all staff	m	78.1	a
Other current expenditure	m	21.9	a
SCHOOL STAFF NUMBERS Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2012)[7]			
Ratio of students to teaching staff (2010)[8]			
Primary	24.6	15.9	29/30
Lower Secondary	25.1	13.7	27/28
Upper Secondary	26.1	13.8	27/28
All Secondary	25.8	13.8	31/32
TEACHER SALARIES in public institutions, Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2012)			
Annual teacher salaries (2010)5			
Primary – starting salary (USD)	17 820	28 523	29/36
Primary – 15 years experience (USD)	23 411	37 603	29/35
Primary – top of scale (USD)	30 866	45 100	28/36
Primary – ratio of salary at top of the scale to starting salary	1.73	1.60	=11/36
Lower secondary – starting salary (USD)	17 820	29 801	29/35
Lower secondary – 15 years experience (USD)	23 411	39 401	28/34
Lower secondary – top of scale (USD)	30 866	47 721	29/35
Lower secondary – ratio of salary at top of the scale to starting salary	1.73	1.62	=12/35
Upper secondary – starting salary (USD)	17 941	30 899	29/35
Upper secondary – 15 years experience (USD)	24 820	41 182	28/34
Upper secondary – top of scale (USD)	32 665	49 721	27/35
Upper secondary – ratio of salary at top of the scale to starting salary	1.82	1.63	8/35
Number of years from starting to top salary (lower secondary education) (2010)[9] NB: Shortest = 6 years (Scotland); Longest = 40 years (Hungary)	30	24	=20/33
Decisions on payments for teachers in public schools (2010) Criteria for base salary and additional payments awarded to teachers in public institutions ● Base salary/■ Additional yearly payment /Δ Additional incidental payment			
Years of experience as a teacher	●	●35 ■ 10 Δ 9	
Management responsibilities in addition to teaching duties	●	●15 ■21 Δ8	
Teaching more classes or hours than required by full-time contract	a	●3 ■15 Δ19	
Special tasks (career guidance or counselling)	a	●6 ■17 Δ13	
Teaching in a disadvantaged, remote or high cost area (location allowance)	●	●13 ■20 Δ5	
Special activities (e.g. sports and drama clubs, homework clubs, summer schools etc.)	a	●2 ■13 Δ14	
Teaching students with special educational needs (in regular schools)	a	●11 ■14 Δ8	
Teaching courses in a particular field	a	●5 ■7 Δ4	
Holding an initial educational qualification higher than the minimum qualification required to enter the teaching profession	a	●22 ■10 Δ5	
Holding a higher than minimum level of teacher certification or training obtained during professional life	●	●19 ■13 Δ3	
Outstanding performance in teaching	■ Δ	●6 ■12 Δ13	
Successful completion of professional development activities	●	●14 ■10 Δ4	
Reaching high scores in the qualification examination	a	●4 ■3 Δ3	
Holding an educational qualification in multiple subjects	■	●3 ■6 Δ4	
Family status (married, number of children)	a	●3 ■10 Δ1	
Age (independent of years of teaching experience)	a	●5 ■4 Δ2	
Other	●	●1 ■10 Δ2	

	Chile	International benchmark[1]	Chile's rank[2]
SYSTEM EVALUATION			
Curriculum and examination regulations, public schools only, Sources: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2010c; OECD, 2011; OECD, 2012)			
Primary education			
A standard curriculum or partially standardised curriculum is required (2008)	Yes	Yes:27 No:2	
National examination offered[10] (2011)	No	Yes:2 No:31	
Of which compulsory for students	a	Yes:1 No:1	
National assessment offered[11] (2009)	Yes	Yes:27 No:5	
Of which compulsory to administer in public schools	Yes	Yes:16 No:11	
Lower secondary education (general programmes)			
A standard curriculum or partially standardised curriculum is required (2008)	Yes	Yes:27 No:2	
National examination offered[10] (2011)	No	Yes:12 No:20	
Of which compulsory for students	a	Yes:11 No:1	
National assessment offered[11] (2009)	Yes	Yes:19 No:12	
Of which compulsory to administer in public schools	Yes	Yes:13 No:6	
Upper secondary education (general programmes)			
National examination offered[10] (2011)	No	Yes:20 No:13	
Of which compulsory for students	a	Yes:16 No:4	
National assessment offered[11] (2009)	Yes	Yes:8 No:24	
Of which compulsory to administer in public schools	Yes	Yes:5 No:3	
Main purposes of national examinations[10] (upper secondary education, general programmes) (2011), Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2012)			
Student certification/graduation/grade/completion	a	Yes:19 No:1	
Student promotion/entry to higher grade	a	Yes:10 No:9	
Student entry to tertiary education	a	Yes:19 No:1	
Student access to selective tertiary institutions	a	Yes:16 No:2	
Student selection for programme/course/tracks at the upper secondary level	a	Yes:4 No:15	
Student selection for programme/faculty/discipline/field/specialisation at tertiary level	a	Yes:15 No:4	
Student expulsion from school	a	Yes:1 No:19	
Decisions about scholarships/financial assistance for students	a	Yes:5 No:15	
Other	a	Yes:1 No:18	
Subjects covered in national examinations[10] (lower secondary education, general programmes) (2009), Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)			
Mathematics	a	Yes:13	
Science	a	Yes:10 No:3	
National language or language of instruction	a	Yes:13	
Social Studies	a	Yes:8 No:5	
Modern foreign languages	a	Yes:10 No:3	
Technology	a	Yes:4 No:9	
Arts	a	Yes:5 No:8	
Religion	a	Yes:4 No:9	
Practical and vocational skills	a	Yes:4 No:8	
Other subjects	a	Yes:2 No:10	
Subjects covered in national assessments[11] (lower secondary education, general programmes) (2009), Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)			
Mathematics	Yes	Yes:19	
Science	Yes	Yes:9 No:10	
National language or language of instruction	Yes	Yes:18 No:1	
Social Studies	Yes	Yes:5 No:14	
Modern foreign languages	No	Yes:8 No:11	
Technology	No	Yes:2 No:16	
Arts	No	Yes:3 No:16	
Religion	No	No:19	
Practical and vocational skills	No	No:19	
Other subjects	No	Yes:1 No:17	
Possible influence of national examinations[10] (2009), Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)			
Evaluation of school performance	a	None:2 Low:1 Moderate:6 High:8	
Evaluation of school administration	a	None:9 Low:3 Moderate:3 High:2	
Evaluation of individual teachers	a	None:4 Low:4 Moderate:7 H igh:2	
The size of the school budget	a	None:13 Low:3 Moderate:1 High:0	
The provision of another financial reward or sanction	a	None:13 Low:3 Moderate:0 High:0	
The assistance provided to teachers to improve their teaching skills	a	None:7 Low:5 Moderate:3 High:1	
Remuneration and bonuses received by teachers	a	None:13 Low: 2 Moderate:1 High:0	
Likelihood of school closure	a	None:12 Low: 2 Moderate:2 High:0	

	Chile	International benchmark[1]	Chile's rank[2]
Possible influence of national assessments[11] (2009), Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)			
Evaluation of school performance	Moderate	None:3 Low:1 Moderate:8 High:7	
Evaluation of school administration	Moderate	None:8 Low:6 Moderate:3 High:3	
Evaluation of individual teachers	Moderate	None:8 Low:4 Moderate:6 High:4	
The size of the school budget	None	None:19 Low:1 Moderate:1 High:0	
The provision of another financial reward or sanction	None	None:18 Low:2 Moderate:0 High:0	
The assistance provided to teachers to improve their teaching skills	None	None:8 Low:3 Moderate:7 High:3	
Remuneration and bonuses received by teachers	Moderate	None:15 Low: 0 Moderate:3 High:1	
Likelihood of school closure	None	None:16 Low: 1 Moderate:2 High:1	
Reporting of results from national examinations[10] (lower secondary education, general programmes), Sources: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011; OECD, 2012)			
Based on norm or criterion reference (2009)	a	Norm:2 Criterion:10	
Results are shared with (2011)			
External audience in addition to education authorities	a	Yes:12	
School administrators directly	a	Yes:11 No:1	
Classroom teachers directly	a	Yes:10 No:2	
Parents directly	a	Yes:11 No:1	
Students directly	a	Yes:12	
The media directly	a	Yes:7 No:5	
Features of results reporting (2009)			
Performance level for most recent year		Yes:9 No:3	
"Value added" or growth in student achievement based on student progress over 2(+) years	a	Yes:2 No:10	
Context sensitive	a	Yes:2 No:10	
Compared with other groups or populations of students	a	Yes:6 No:6	
Reported together with other indicators of school quality	a	Yes:4 No:7	
Used by authorities external to the school for sanctions or rewards	a	Yes:4 No:8	
Reporting of results from national assessments[11] (lower secondary education, general programmes) (2009), Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011**)**			
Based on norm or criterion reference	Criterion	Norm:7 Criterion:13	
Results are shared with			
External audience in addition to education authorities	Yes	Yes:18 No:1	
School administrators directly	Yes	Yes:18	
Classroom teachers directly	Yes	Yes:13 No:5	
Parents directly	Yes	Yes:13 No:5	
Students directly	m	Yes:13 No:4	
The media directly	Yes	Yes:10 No:8	
Features of results reporting			
Performance level for most recent year	Yes	Yes:14 No:3	
"Value added" or growth in student achievement based on student progress over 2(+) years	No	Yes:5 No:13	
Context sensitive	Yes	Yes:7 No:7	
Compared with other groups or populations of students	Yes	Yes:10 No:4	
Reported together with other indicators of school quality	No	Yes:3 No:12	
Used by authorities external to the school for sanctions or rewards	Yes	Yes:3 No:13	
Use of achievement data for accountability (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Results: What makes a school successful, Vol. IV (OECD, 2010b) % of students in schools where the principal reported that achievement data are used in the following procedures			
Posted publicly	35.5	36.6	15/33
Used in evaluation of the principal's performance	37.0	36.1	16/33
Used in evaluation of teachers' performance	53.2	44.8	11/33
Used in decisions about instructional resource allocation to the school	77.4	32.7	2/33
Tracked over time by an administrative authority	76.7	66.2	13/33

SCHOOL EVALUATION			
School inspection (2009) Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)			
Primary education	Yes	Yes: 23 No: 7	
Upper secondary education	Yes	Yes: 24 No: 7	
Lower secondary education	Yes	Yes:22 No:7	
School inspections are a component of the school accreditation process (lower secondary education)	No	Yes:6 No:16	
School inspections target low performance schools (lower secondary education)	m	Yes:8 No:13	
Extent to which school inspections are structured[12] (lower secondary education)	Highly	Highly:14 Partially: 6 Unstructured:1	

	Chile	International benchmark[1]	Chile's rank[2]
Frequency of school inspections (lower secondary education, public schools only)	More than once a year	Every 3+ years:9 Once every 3 years:3 Once every 2 years:1 Once per year:2 More than once a year:3 No requirements:3	
Aspects addressed during school inspections (lower secondary education):			
Compliance with rules and regulations	Yes	Yes:20 No:1	
Financial management	Yes	Yes:13 No:8	
Quality of instruction	No	Yes:19 No:2	
Student performance	No	Yes:17 No:4	
Satisfaction and perceptions of students	No	Yes:14 No:7	
Satisfaction and perceptions of parents	No	Yes:13 No:8	
Satisfaction and perceptions of staff	No	Yes:13 No:8	
School inspection results are shared with (lower secondary education):			
External audience in addition to education authorities	No	Yes:19 No:3	
Higher level education authorities directly	a	Yes:16 No:3	
School administrators directly	a	Yes:19 No:0	
Classroom teachers directly	a	Yes:16 No:3	
Parents directly	a	Yes:11 No:8	
Students directly	a	Yes:8 No:10	
The media directly	a	Yes:9 No:10	
Possible influence of evaluation by school inspectorate (or equivalent) (2009)			
Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)			
Performance evaluation			
School performance	None	None:2 Low:4 Moderate:4 High:11 Not applicable: 5	
School administration	None	None:3 Low:3 Moderate:7 High:8 Not applicable: 5	
Individual teachers	None	None:3 Low:3 Moderate:7 High:7 Not applicable:8	
Rewards and sanctions			
The size of the school budget	None	None:11 Low:8 Moderate:1 High:0 Not applicable:6	
The provision of another financial reward or sanction	High	None:9 Low:4 Moderate:2 High:3 Not applicable:7	
The assistance provided to teachers to improve their teaching skills	None	None:2 Low:5 Moderate:9 High:5 Not applicable:5	
Remuneration and bonuses received by teachers	None	None:13 Low:0 Moderate:3 High:0 Not applicable:9	
Likelihood of school closure	High	None:7 Low:1 Moderate:2 High:9 Not applicable:7	
Requirements for school self-evaluations (2009)			
Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)			
Primary education	No	Yes:21 No:10	
Component of school inspections	a	Yes:13 No:6	
Upper secondary education	No	Yes:23 No:10	
Component of school inspections	a	Yes:15 No:5	
Lower secondary education	No	Yes:20 No:10	
Component of school inspections	a	Yes:13 No:5	
Aspects addressed during school self-evaluations (lower secondary education)			
Compliance with rules and regulations	a	Yes:14 No:4	
Financial management	a	Yes:12 No:5	
Quality of instruction	a	Yes:17 No:1	
Student performance	a	Yes:16 No:2	
Satisfaction and perceptions of students	a	Yes:16 No:2	
Satisfaction and perceptions of parents	a	Yes:15 No:3	
Satisfaction and perceptions of staff	a	Yes:13 No:5	
School self-evaluation results are shared with (lower secondary education):			
External audience in addition to education authorities	a	Yes:16 No:3	
Higher level education authorities directly	a	Yes:9 No:7	
School inspectorates directly	a	Yes:11 No:1	
School administrators directly	a	Yes:14 No:1	
Classroom teachers directly	a	Yes:15 No:1	
Parents directly	a	Yes:10 No:6	
Students directly	a	Yes:8 No:7	
The media directly		Yes:5 No:10	

	Chile	International benchmark[1]	Chile's rank[2]
Extent to which school self-evaluations are structured (lower secondary education)	a	Highly:3 Partially:11 Unstructured:4	
Possible influence of school self-evaluations (2009) Source: Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011) Performance evaluation			
School performance	a	None:0 Low:4 Moderate:6 High:5 Not applicable:8	
School administration	a	None:1 Low:6 Moderate:3 High:6 Not applicable:8	
Individual teachers	a	None:2 Low:6 Moderate:2 High:5 Not applicable:9	
Rewards and sanctions			
The school budget	a	None:9 Low:3 Moderate:1 High:2 Not applicable:9	
The provision of another financial reward or sanction	a	None:7 Low:5 Moderate:0 High:1 Not applicable:10	
The assistance provided to teachers to improve their teaching skills	a	None:3 Low:3 Moderate:7 High:3 Not applicable:8	
Remuneration and bonuses received by teachers	a	None:6 Low:4 Moderate:1 High:0 Not applicable: 12	
Likelihood of school closure	a	None:7 Low:4 Moderate:1 High:1 Not applicable:11	
Accountability to parents (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Results: What makes a school successful, Vol. IV (OECD, 2010b) % of students in schools where principals reported that their school provides parents with information on:			
This child's academic performance relative to other students in the school	56.0	46.7	13/32
This child's academic performance relative to national or regional benchmarks	79.2	47.3	4/33
This child's academic performance of students as a group relative to students in the same grade in other schools	29.3	23.5	10/33
TEACHER EVALUATION			
Methods used to monitor the practice of teachers (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Results: What makes a school successful, Vol. IV (OECD, 2010b) % of students in schools where the principal reported that the following methods have been used the previous year to monitor the practice of teachers for language of instruction at their school			
Tests of assessments of student achievement	72.1	58.9	10/32
Teacher peer review (of lesson plans, assessment instruments, lessons)	82.0	56.8	8/32
Principal or senior staff observations of lessons	72.3	68.8	18/34
Observation of classes by inspectors or other persons external to the school	20.7	28.3	22/34
STUDENT ASSESSMENT			
Student grouping by ability (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Results: What makes a school successful, Vol. IV (OECD, 2010b) % of students in schools where principals reported the following practice within the school			
No ability grouping	35.1	31.9	14/33
Ability grouping for some subjects	34.6	55.2	29/33
Ability grouping for all subjects	30.3	12.9	4/33
Groups of influence on assessment practices (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Database % of students in schools where the principal reported the following groups exert a direct influence on decision making about assessment practices			
Regional or national education authorities (e.g. inspectorates)	38.1	56.6	27/33
The school's governing board	50.2	29.5	5/33
Parent groups	7.6	17.3	26/33
Teacher groups (e.g. staff association, curriculum committees, trade union)	56.8	58.1	19/33
Student groups (e.g. student association, youth organisation	17.9	22.7	=18/33
External examination boards	28.2	42.4	22/31

	Chile	International benchmark[1]	Chile's rank[2]
Frequency of student assessment by method (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Results: What makes a school successful, Vol. IV (OECD, 2010b) % of students in schools where the principal reported the student assessment methods below are used with the indicated frequency			
Standardised tests			
Never	13.6	24.4	20/33
1-5 times a year	70.1	68.7	16/33
At least once a month	16.3	6.9	5/33
Teacher-developed tests			
Never	0.0	1.6	a
1-5 times a year	6.8	36.8	32/33
At least once a month	93.2	61.7	2/33
Teachers' judgemental ratings			
Never	36.6	5.7	1/33
1-5 times a year	29.2	35.4	18/33
At least once a month	34.2	58.8	27/33
Student portfolios			
Never	0.0	23.4	=32/33
1-5 times a year	52.7	56.4	21/33
At least once a month	47.3	20.1	6/33
Student assignments/projects/homework			
Never	0.0	1.0	a
1-5 times a year	34.6	28.2	10/33
At least once a month	65.4	70.8	23/33
Use of student assessments (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Results: What makes a school successful, Vol. IV (OECD, 2010b) % students in schools where the principal reported that assessments of students are used for the following purposes			
To inform the parents about their child's progress	96.9	98.1	a
To make decisions about students' retention or promotion	86.7	77.8	19/32
To group students for instructional purposes	45.1	50.5	19/33
To compare the school to district or national performance	48.7	53.5	21/33
To monitor the school's progress from year to year	89.4	76.7	8/33
To make judgements about teachers' effectiveness	58.2	47.5	13/33
To identify aspects of instruction or the curriculum that could be improved	91.7	77.4	7/33
To compare the school with other schools	43.0	45.9	18/33
% of students repeating one or more grades according to their own report (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA 2009 Results: What makes a school successful, Vol. IV (OECD, 2010b)	23.4	13.0	7/34
Parents' perception of school's monitoring of student progress (2009) (15-year-olds) Source: PISA Compendium for the parent questionnaire (OECD, 2010b) % of parents who agree or strongly agree with the following statements[13]			
My child's progress is carefully monitored by the school			
Strongly agree	29.4	18.5	1/8
Agree	50.2	59.4	7/8
Disagree	15.0	17.3	4/8
Strongly disagree	2.8	2.2	2/8
My child's school provides regular and useful information on my child's progress			
Strongly agree	37.6	19.9	1/8
Agree	45.6	54.3	7/8
Disagree	11.6	19.7	7/8
Strongly disagree	3.0	4.0	3/8

General notes:

1. The international benchmark column provides comparative information in one of two forms: country average (calculated as the simple average of all countries/systems for which data are available, as indicated in the Source Guide below); distribution of countries/systems by result category (typically by the categories "Yes" and "No", but may also indicate the number of countries/systems in which a given criterion is used, e.g. for the indicator "Decision payments for teachers in public schools", 29 countries use "Base salary", 9 use "Additional yearly payment", etc.).

2. "Chile's rank" indicates the position of Chile when countries are ranked in descending order from the highest to the lowest value on the indicator concerned. For example, on the first indicator "population that has attained at least upper secondary education", for the age group 25-64, the rank =24/33 indicates that Chile recorded the 24th highest value of the 33 OECD countries that reported relevant data together with at least one other country having the same rank.

3. ISCED is the "International Standard Classification of Education" used to describe levels of education (and subcategories).

ISCED 1 - Primary education

Designed to provide a sound basic education in reading, writing and mathematics and a basic understanding of some other subjects. Entry age: between 5 and 7. Duration: 6 years

ISCED 2 - Lower secondary education

Completes provision of basic education, usually in a more subject-oriented way with more specialist teachers. Entry follows 6 years of primary education; duration is 3 years. In some countries, the end of this level marks the end of compulsory education.

ISCED 3 - Upper secondary education

Even stronger subject specialisation than at lower-secondary level, with teachers usually more qualified. Students typically expected to have completed 9 years of education or lower secondary schooling before entry and are generally around the age of 15 or 16.

ISCED 3A - Upper secondary education type A
Prepares students for university-level education at level 5A

ISCED 3B - Upper secondary education type B
For entry to vocationally oriented tertiary education at level 5B

ISECD 3C - Upper secondary education type C
Prepares students for workforce or for post-secondary non tertiary education

ISCED 4 - Post-secondary non-tertiary education

Programmes at this level may be regarded nationally as part of upper secondary or post-secondary education, but in terms of international comparison their status is less clear cut. Programme content may not be much more advanced than in upper secondary, and is certainly lower than at tertiary level. Entry typically requires completion of an upper secondary programme. Duration usually equivalent to between 6 months and 2 years of full-time study.

ISCED 5 - Tertiary education

ISCED 5 is the first stage of tertiary education (the second – ISCED 6 – involves advanced research). At level 5, it is often more useful to distinguish between two subcategories: 5A, which represent longer and more theoretical programmes; and 5B, where programmes are shorter and more practically oriented. Note, though, that as tertiary education differs greatly between countries, the demarcation between these two subcategories is not always clear cut.

ISCED 5A - Tertiary-type A
"Long-stream" programmes that are theory based and aimed at preparing students for further research or to give access to highly skilled professions, such as medicine or architecture. Entry preceded by 13 years of education, students typically required to have completed upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education. Duration equivalent to at least 3 years of full-time study, but 4 is more usual.

ISCED 5B - Tertiary-type B
"Short-stream" programmes that are more practically oriented or focus on the skills needed for students to directly enter specific occupations. Entry preceded by 13 years of education; students may require mastery of specific subjects studied at levels 3B or 4A. Duration equivalent to at least 2 years of full-time study, but 3 is more usual.

4. Public expenditure includes public subsidies to households for living costs (scholarships and grants to students/ households and students loans), which are not spent on educational institutions.

5. Expressed in equivalent USD converted using purchasing power parities.

6. 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 percentage may not sum to the total due to rounding.

7. Public and private institutions are included. Calculations are based on full-time equivalents. "Teaching staff" refers to professional personnel directly involved in teaching students.

8. Here "Chile's rank" indicates the position of Chile when countries are ranked in ascending order from the lowest to the highest ratio of students to teaching staff.

9. Here "Chile's rank" indicates the position of Chile when countries are ranked in ascending order from the shortest to the highest number of years that it takes to reach the top salary from the starting salary.

10. "National examinations" are tests which have formal consequences for students.

11. "National assessments" are tests which do not have formal consequences for students.

12. "Highly structured" means that similar activities are completed at each school based on a specific set of data collection tools. "Unstructured" means that activities at each site vary and depend on the strengths and weaknesses of the school.

13. Results are based on reports from parents of the students who were assessed and reported proportionate to the number of 15-year-olds enrolled in the school.

Sources:

OECD (2012), *Education at a Glance 2012: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing.
OECD (2011), *Education at a Glance 2011: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing.
OECD (2010a), *PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do, Volume I*, OECD Publishing.
OECD (2010b), *PISA 2009 Results: What Makes a School Successful? Resources, Policies and Practices, Volume IV*, OECD Publishing.
OECD (2010c), *Education at a Glance 2010: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing.

Data explanation:

m	Data are not available
a	Data are not applicable because the category does not apply
~	Average is not comparable with other levels of education
=	At least one other country has the same rank

Source Guide

Participation of countries by source

	Education at a Glance (OECD, 2010c)	PISA 2009 (OECD, 2010a; OECD, 2010b)	Education at a Glance (OECD, 2011)	Education at a Glance (OECD, 2012)
OECD countries				
Australia	●	●	●	●
Austria	●	●	●	●
Belgium[1]	●	●	●	●
Flemish Community	●	●	●	●
French Community	●	●	●	●
Canada	●	●	●	●
Chile	●	●	●	●
Czech Republic	●	●	●	●
Denmark	●	●	●	●
Estonia		●	●	●
Finland	●	●	●	●
France	●	●	●	●
Germany	●	●	●	●
Greece	●	●	●	●
Hungary	●	●	●	●
Iceland	●	●	●	●
Ireland	●	●	●	●
Israel		●	●	●
Italy	●	●	●	●
Japan	●	●	●	●
Korea	●	●	●	●
Luxembourg	●	●	●	●
Mexico	●	●	●	●
Netherlands	●	●	●	●
New Zealand	●	●	●	●
Norway	●	●	●	●
Poland	●	●	●	●
Portugal	●	●	●	●
Slovak Republic	●	●	●	●
Slovenia		●	●	●
Spain	●	●	●	●
Sweden	●	●	●	●
Switzerland	●	●	●	●
Turkey	●	●	●	●
United Kingdom[2]	●	●	●	●
England	●	●	●	●
Northern Ireland		●		
Scotland	●	●	●	●
Wales		●		
United States	●	●	●	●

1. For *Education at a Glance* (OECD, 2010c, 2011, 2012) the country average and distribution of countries/systems by result category include Belgium (FL. Community) and Belgium (Fr. Community) with the exception of the country average for educational attainment, for the change in expenditure per student by educational institutions, for the current expenditure composition, and the distribution of countries/systems by category for the completion requirements for upper secondary education programmes which include Belgium as a whole.

2. For *Education at a Glance* (OECD, 2010c, 2011, 2012) the country average and distribution of countries/systems by result category include England and Scotland with the exception of the country average for educational attainment, for the change in expenditure per student by educational institutions, for the current expenditure composition, and the distribution of countries/systems by category for the completion requirements for upper secondary education programmes which include the United Kingdom as a whole.

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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