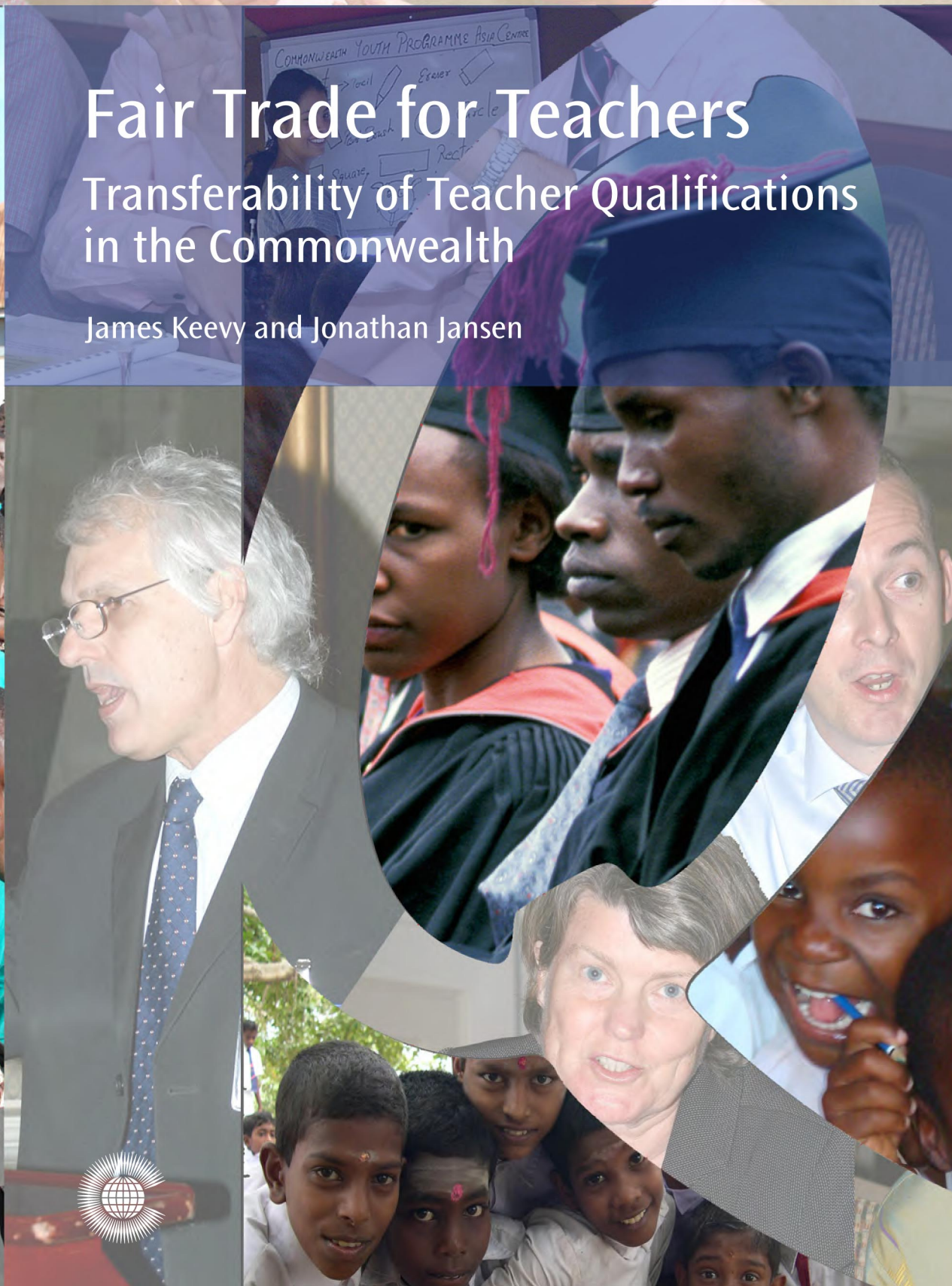
Fair Trade for Teachers

Transferability of Teacher Qualifications in the Commonwealth

James Keevy and Jonathan Jansen



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Participating countries

Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, The Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Brunei Darussalam, Cameroon, Canada, Republic of Cyprus, Dominica, The Gambia, Guyana, India, Jamaica, Kenya, Lesotho, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Mauritius, New Zealand, Nigeria, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda, United Kingdom, United Republic of Tanzania and Vanuatu.

Prepared by

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Foreword

'This Protocol aims to balance the rights of teachers to migrate internationally against the need to … prevent the exploitation of scarce human resources of poor countries' (Pg. 7, Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol)

Achievement of a balance between competing principles, demands and policies is a task with which the Commonwealth Secretariat is very familiar. Balancing the concerns and demands of the diverse and complex membership represented across its 53 member countries in five continents is nothing less than 'business as usual'. When, therefore, Commonwealth Ministers of Education requested in the Teacher Recruitment Protocol adopted in 2004, a balancing of the rights of teachers to migrate internationally against the need to protect the integrity of national education systems and prevent the exploitation of recruited teachers, this was a task which the Commonwealth Secretariat undertook on behalf of its member countries with the experience of precedent, strengthened by full knowledge of its goals, objectives and aspirations.

In 2004, when Education Ministers in the 'Future Actions' of the Teacher Protocol requested that a Working Group be established to investigate systems and criteria for assessment of equivalencies of teacher qualifications and of professional registration status, the Secretariat identified the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) to carry forward this work. The recommendations of their 8-country pilot study on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition were accepted by the Working Group who urged them to expand their remit to embrace a Teacher Qualifications Comparability Study for the 53 member countries of the Commonwealth. The objective of this teacher qualifications study was to enhance recognition of teacher qualifications across borders and between the member countries of the Commonwealth.

In concert with teacher qualifications initiatives, the Commonwealth of Learning also embarked on establishing a Transnational Qualifications Framework and UNESCO has carried forward their own work on quality assurance in professional qualifications. We are also delighted to be influencing initiatives on harmonisation of teacher qualifications within regions of the Commonwealth such as the Caribbean Community (CARICOM).

As part of these global initiatives to ensure that teachers with professional qualifications of a high standard are able to move more freely than ever before between Commonwealth countries and all countries of the world – without having their skills and qualifications "discounted" – the Commonwealth Secretariat is pleased to be contributing this study on the comparability of teacher qualifications across the Commonwealth. This is indeed a publication whose impact goes beyond its covers, in terms of what it seeks to assert, establish, achieve and…to balance.

Caroline Pontefract
Director, Social Transformation Programmes Division
Commonwealth Secretariat
June 2009

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Summary

This research report has been prepared by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) at the request of the Commonwealth Steering Group on Teacher Qualifications following an earlier study on the recognition of teacher qualifications (SAQA and Commonwealth Secretariat 2006), and a pilot study on a teacher qualifications comparability table (SAQA 2007).

The aim of the research is to develop a pan-Commonwealth teacher qualifications comparability table to provide the basis for pathways for the recognition of qualifications of teachers when they move across borders.

The research is located within the cross-section of two current discourses: one on the international migration of highly skilled labour, specifically teachers, and the other concerned with the cross-border provisioning of education and training. In this regard, the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol (Commonwealth Secretariat 2004) constitutes an important frame of reference wherein both discourses are interpreted.

The research is limited to primary and secondary teacher qualifications offered within 35 Commonwealth countries.

The research is located in the context of the global development of outcomes-led qualifications frameworks (nationally, regionally and transnationally), but is critical of the extent to which outcome statements on their own can be seen as adequate proxies for educational quality across borders.

Teacher professional status is regarded as distinct from teacher employment status, where the former requires not only minimum qualifications, but also dimensions such as continuing professional development, licensing and criminal record screening. While this report is primarily concerned with minimum qualifications for teachers, an emphasis is placed on the adoption of a holistic approach to teacher professional status required in Commonwealth countries.

In developing a conceptual framework for the research, the notion of 'comparability' is critically investigated, resulting in a recognition that meaningful comparison is near impossible using existing technologies. Despite the limitations, however, the research attempts to contribute to an ongoing search for new technologies that will make comparison more meaningful than is possible at present.

The language of comparison is refined to differentiate between different levels of transparency (the lowest being 'comparability', the highest being 'equivalency'). The resulting conceptual clarity informs the design of a comparability table based on the seven levels of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) developed by UNESCO and the OECD (UNESCO 2006b), and a set of agreed criteria that includes contextual data, information of professional requirements, duration of qualifications, and practical components.

An analysis of different aspects based on the comparability table yields the following findings:

- The populations of the 35 participating member countries vary considerably, even within specific regions. Ranging between 80,000 for Seychelles and 1,065 million for India, with an average of 47.22 million across the 35 countries, this single factor contributes to a huge diversity in the need for teachers, the different teacher qualifications offered and the approaches to teacher professional status.
- Education expenditure as a percentage of GDP across the 35 countries clearly highlights the different priorities at different periods within the countries. This ranges from 2.4 per cent in Bangladesh to as high as 17.7 per cent for The Bahamas.
- The average learner enrolment (as a percentage of the relevant age group) is 91.9 per cent for primary, 70.2 per cent for secondary and 22.4 per cent for tertiary education. The global emphasis placed on primary enrolment through Education for All and other initiatives is reflected in the data as expected. Of concern however, is the lower than average secondary and tertiary enrolment figures for South and West Asia (47.5 per cent and 9.0 per cent), and for Sub-Saharan Africa (49.9 per cent and 8.9 per cent). The Latin America and Caribbean region also stands out as having very low tertiary learner enrolment (14.4 per cent).
- Data on un- and under-qualified teachers were very limited, and since this was not the main focus of the current research, it was not further pursued. The lack of available data on qualified teachers does, however, signal a weakness in many national systems, which is further compounded if it is considered that qualifications constitute only one component required for fully qualified status. In this regard, the role of professional bodies and councils can be of great value in assisting education ministries.
- The available number of foreign teachers (i.e. teachers employed in countries other than their own) across the 35 participating countries totalled only 2,323. This number is clearly not a realistic indication of the situation and warrants further investigation.
- The majority of initial primary teacher qualifications are pegged at ISCED 4 (post-secondary non-tertiary) (57 per cent), while for initial secondary teacher qualifications the preference is for ISCED 5 (first stage of tertiary) (54 per cent).
- In general, and for both initial primary and secondary teacher qualifications, there are two qualifications pathways and three qualifications are available in the 35 participating countries. Twelve of the 35 countries (34 per cent) offer only a single pathway to achieve qualified primary teacher status, while eight out of 35 countries (23 per cent) offer only a single pathway to achieve qualified secondary teacher status. Nigeria (six) and Canada (four) stand out as offering a high of number of primary pathways, while Jamaica (five), the Maldives (five) and Sierra Leone (five) stand out as offering a high number of secondary pathways.
- The average duration for teachers to reach fully qualified status across the 35 countries ranges from 2.6 to 3.8 years for primary teachers and between 2.9 and 4.1 years for secondary teachers.
- The average number of weeks set aside for practical/workplace training to reach qualified status across the 35 countries ranges from 11.4 to 20.4 weeks (primary) and 12.0 to 21.0 weeks (secondary).
- A preference for ISCED 4A and 5A qualifications (more theoretically based and which give access to higher level programmes) is evident across the 35 countries for both primary and secondary initial teacher qualifications, while ISCED 4B and 5B (with a more occupational focus and which do not necessarily give access to higher level programmes) is less preferred.
- With due consideration for the fact that the naming of qualifications is influenced by a wide range of factors across the Commonwealth, eight main qualifications are offered.
- In 19 of the 21 countries (91 per cent) that offer the Bachelor Degree, an additional professional qualification such as a Postgraduate Diploma in Education (four countries) or a Graduate Diploma in Education (three countries) forms part of the qualifications pathway. Only two countries (Bangladesh and Mauritius) regard a Bachelor Degree on its own as sufficient for fully qualified status.
- The Diploma in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status in 12 of the 16 countries in which it is offered (75 per cent). Likewise, the Certificate in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status in 14 of the 16 countries in which it is offered (88 per cent).

Qualification type	Qualification	Average duration (years FTE)	Average practical Component (weeks)	ISCED level in the majority of countries	Number of countries that offer the qualification
Academic	Bachelor Degree	3.43	0.7	5A	21 (60%)
Professional	Diploma in Education	2.07	15.2	4B	16 (46%)
	Certificate in Education	2.08	11.5	4A	16 (46%)
	Bachelor Degree in Education	3.57	15.8	5A	26 (74%)
	Graduate Diploma in Education	1.20	10.2	5B	5 (14%)
	Associate Degree in Education	2.13	12.5	4A	5 (14%)
	Postgraduate Diploma in Education	1.00	9.5	5B	6 (17%)
	Postgraduate Certificate in Education	1.00	16.5	5B	3 (9 %)

- The Bachelor Degree in Education is the qualification offered in most participating countries (26 out of 35, 74 per cent), although with some variations in the naming. In 23 of the 26 countries, the Bachelor Degree in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status (89 per cent). In five countries, the Bachelor Degree in Education forms part of a qualifications pathway that includes other qualifications.
- The Graduate Diploma in Education (five countries), the Associate Degree in Education (five countries), the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (six countries) and the Postgraduate Certificate in Education (three countries) are offered in only a few of the participating countries.
- Only eight (23 per cent) of the 35 participating countries enforce comprehensive professional requirements that include minimum qualifications, continuing professional development and professional licensing. Thirteen countries (37 per cent) have limited professional requirements, while 14 countries (40 per cent) require only minimum qualifications for fully qualified status.

Further research is recommended in the area of outcomes-led developments and the extent to which this new technology can contribute to increased transparency of qualifications across borders. In addition, further research on quality assurance, professional requirements, migration and cross-border provisioning in relation to the comparability table is recommended.

The comparability table is attached as an Annex to the report.

In conclusion, the comparability table is put forward as a modest contribution to the ongoing development of new technologies that can be used to increase the transparency and recognition of qualifications across borders.

Section 1 Introduction and Background

Introduction

The challenges associated with the recognition and transferability of teacher qualifications across the Commonwealth are not new, and remain closely interrelated with the increased migration of skilled professionals internationally. For many years significant efforts in the Commonwealth have focused on addressing the skewed nature of teacher migration, mainly from developing countries (such as South Africa, Jamaica and India) to more developed countries (including United Kingdom, Australia and Canada), and finding ways in which this brain drain could be limited, and even reversed (see for example UNESCO 2006, ILO and UNESCO 2006, Miller 2007, Edwards and Spreen 2007, Ochs 2007, McNamara et al., 2007, Bertram et al., 2007, and Degazon-Johnson 2007). An area that has received less attention, probably for good reason as it can easily be seen to contribute to teacher migration, is the limited recognition of the qualifications and experience of teachers from sending countries (usually developing countries) working in receiving countries (often, but not always, more developed countries).

Teacher loss has become a major concern in many countries across the world. The increasing international migration of skilled professional teachers is aggravating this situation, particularly for smaller countries trying to maintain their national schooling systems, and striving to reach the goals of universal primary education by 2015. At the same time, it is acknowledged that international teacher migration, if properly managed, can benefit schooling systems and contribute significantly to the professional development of teachers. The balance between the right of teachers to migrate for professional and personal development, against the possible negative impact on human capital in sending countries, has existed in the Commonwealth for many years.

SAQA has prepared this report at the request of the Commonwealth Steering Group on Teacher Qualifications. The Commonwealth Secretariat commissioned this report following on from an earlier study on the recognition of teacher qualifications and professional registration status that was completed prior to the 16th Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers held in Cape Town, South Africa, in December 2006. This report recommended that, amongst other issues, the development of a teacher qualifications comparability table (SAQA and Commonwealth Secretariat 2006) be prioritised.

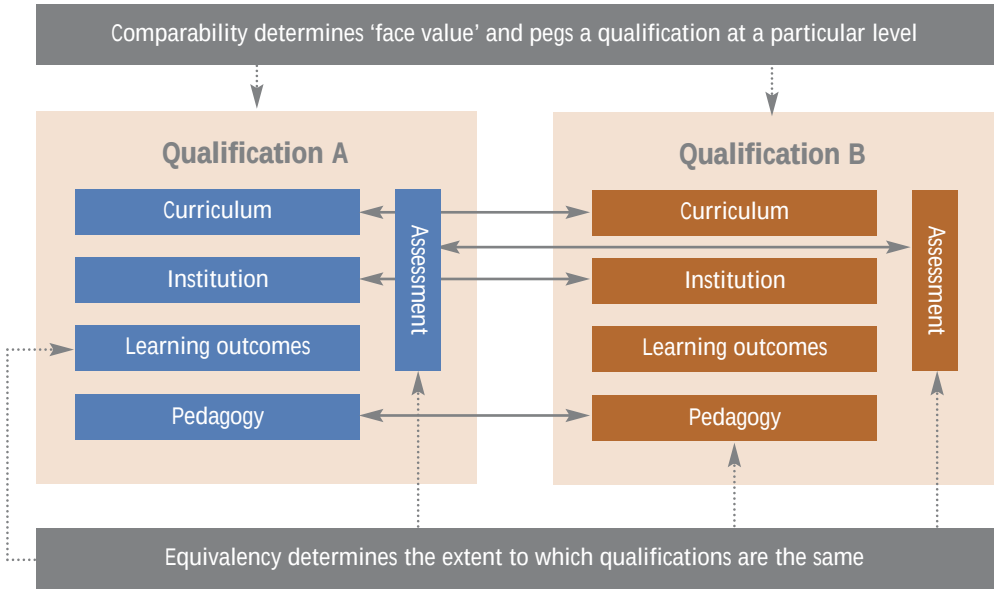
During this time, the Commonwealth Working Group on Teacher Qualifications, made up of teacher education representatives from member states, and tasked by ministers to advance the future actions of the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol, considered and by-and-large supported the research findings. The Working Group, with support from the South African Department of Education, then opted to commission the development of a pilot comparability table that included eight member states[1]. This study was completed in March 2007. On recommendation of the Steering Group, the pilot comparability table has now been further developed to include 35 member states. The report gives an account of the contextual and methodological considerations that underpin the research and led to the development of the comparability table. The comparability table is attached as an Annex to this report. It will also be made available separately through the Publications Section of the Commonwealth Secretariat as a handbook for government officials concerned with teacher education and teacher employment, teacher professional councils, teacher training institutions, qualifications agencies and, most importantly, for teachers considering foreign employment.

Aim of the Research

Cross-border teacher recruitment constitutes an integral part of the twenty-first century education and training landscape, and poses a wide range of challenges to the integrity of national systems. Over the years, various technologies and approaches have evolved as a response to cross-border recruitment, including: regional conventions (such as Lisbon in Europe and Arusha in Africa); recruitment protocols (such as the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol (Commonwealth Secretariat 2004)); bi- and multi-lateral agreements between governments and institutions; regional networks (such as the Asia Pacific Quality Network, and the Mediterranean Recognition Information Centres); as well as the development of guidelines (leading agencies include the International Labour Organisation [ILO], the Organisation for

1 Australia, Canada, India, Jamaica, Mauritius, South Africa, Sri Lanka and United Kingdom (only Northern Ireland and England).

Figure 1: Comparability and equivalency



Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], and the World Bank). More recently, the increasing global presence of national, regional and even transnational qualifications frameworks has also come to offer insights into how best to approach cross-border provisioning. This research draws on these various initiatives, as it attempts to offer another perspective on the existing challenges of cross-border provisioning.

In particular, the thinking underlying the comparability table draws on the 2006 study on teacher qualifications and professional status (SAQA and Commonwealth Secretariat 2006), the Lisbon Convention (1997), and a joint UNESCO-OECD initiative to develop an International Standard for the Classification of Education (1997, revised in 2006) (UNESCO 2006b). A distinction is made between different levels at which qualifications are compared, both in terms of comprehensiveness and ownership. Challenging the traditional and largely unqualified use of the term 'equivalency of qualifications', the report suggests that the terms 'comparability' and 'equivalency' are distinct but not mutually exclusive. 'Comparability' is defined as a higher-level process based on the analysis of the specifications of a qualification, such as the broad purpose, duration and awarding body that determines the 'face value' of the qualification. 'Equivalency' is defined as a more intensive process, based on an in-depth analysis of the specifications that determines the extent to which qualifications are the same (see Figure 1).

The broad aim of the research is to develop a pan-Commonwealth teacher-qualifications comparability table to provide the basis for pathways for the recognition of qualifications of teachers when they move across borders. The comparability table is a summary of first level (face value) information on teacher qualifications in the Commonwealth collected from member states, presented in an accessible format - nothing more, nothing less. The unique contribution of the research lies not so much in the comparability table itself, but more in the distinction between the different levels of comparison and, as a result, the improved ability to address the challenges of cross-border teacher recruitment.

As a secondary effect, the comparability table also clarifies the responsibility of employers in recruiting countries to provide dedicated programmes to enable foreign teachers to achieve fully qualified status. The comparability table is included as an Annex to this report, and is available separately as a tool for practitioners (as noted in the Introduction). The research attempts to contribute to the broader comparability discourse by making not only the results of the study explicit, but also the thinking and methodological considerations that underlie it. While the research is limited to teacher qualifications offered across the borders of Commonwealth countries, the developed instrument (the comparability table) may have broader applicability.

Pilot Study

An initial pilot was the investigation of minimum initial teacher qualifications and was completed in March 2007. Six countries participated in the study: Australia, England, India, Jamaica, Northern Ireland, and South Africa. Secondary data from Canada, Mauritius and Sri Lanka were included. Based on the proposed distinction between comparability and equivalency, eight categories of criteria were proposed:

- the purpose of the qualification;
- the broad outcomes of the qualification;
- assessment statements that guide assessment of the qualification;
- the time taken to complete the qualification (including the time spent on assessment, preparation, tuition and even in the workplace), which is directly linked to a number of credits as defined on the particular framework;
- the level at which the qualification is registered on a particular framework, as described by the level descriptors of that framework;
- the status of the awarding body;
- articulation with other qualifications on the same or different levels of the framework; and
- the extent to which international comparability was considered during the development of the qualification (SAQA and Commonwealth Secretariat 2006:28).

The criteria were subsequently applied in a pilot study (SAQA 2007). The findings suggested that there are considerable difficulties in garnering reliable information about all the criteria and that, in most countries, the development of both national (and in some cases regional) qualifications frameworks is still at a very early stage. In addition, it was observed that not all submissions received were qualifications. For example, the data from England included two programmes, the Overseas Trained Teacher Programme (OTTP) and the Graduate Teacher Programme (GTP) that do not lead to formal qualifications, but do lead to Qualified Teacher Status (QTS).

The comparability criteria were subsequently modified by drawing on the UNESCO International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), developed in 1997 and revised in 2006 (UNESCO 2006b). It was assumed that ministries of education would be familiar with the ISCED system as it provides the template for their annual national reports to UNESCO. ISCED classifies educational programmes by levels, based on programme duration, entry requirements, and theoretical versus practical/technical orientation. The ISCED framework has seven levels, from pre-primary education to advanced research qualifications. Levels 2, 3, 4 and 5 have sub-levels according to whether they lead directly to the labour market, and to which higher level qualifications they provide access. Level 6 "is reserved for tertiary programmes which lead to the award of an advanced research qualification" (UNESCO 2006b: 39).

Importantly, ISCED also acknowledges that direct and consistent comparison of the content of different educational programmes (such as determining equivalence) will be very difficult and labour-intensive using available technologies.

While the classification of educational programmes by level should be based on educational content, it is clearly not possible to directly assess and compare the content of educational programmes in an internationally consistent way. Curricula are far too diverse, multi-faceted and complex to permit unambiguous determinations that one curriculum for students of a given age or grade belongs to a higher level of education than another. International curricula standards that are needed to support such judgements do not as yet exist (UNESCO 2006b: 16).

The final set of comparability criteria used during this process included the following (SAQA 2007):

- the official title of the qualification;
- target level of employment: Primary (ISCED Level 1), Lower Secondary (Level 2) or Upper Secondary (Level 3) schooling;
- the awarding body that officially issues the certificate;
- the minimum qualification required for entry to the programme leading to the qualification (including ISCED level);
- the minimum duration of the programme, from initial entry to the award of the qualification (in years of full-time study or its equivalent, and also the number of credits if available);
- number of weeks of practical experience required;
- ISCED classification of this qualification.

The comparability criteria, as applied during the pilot study, proved adequate for the purpose. It was, however, suggested that the further development of a Commonwealth teacher qualification comparability table should include data on the professional status of teachers in the individual countries. While it was acknowledged that such data might be limited, it was recommended that this information be included to improve the general applicability of the comparability table.

Qualifications Frameworks and Comparability

A significant influence on the development of the comparability table, including the earlier pilot study discussed above, has undoubtedly been the global development of qualifications frameworks. This influence needs to be stated upfront as it constitutes an important aspect of the context and background wherein the study took place. The organisation that conducted this research, SAQA, is actively involved in qualifications framework-related developments not only in South Africa, but also on the African continent, in Europe and further afield.

It is well-known that qualifications framework developments across the globe have not remained uncontested since first emerging in Australia, England, Ireland, New Zealand, Scotland and South Africa at the end of the twentieth century. Strongly influenced by the then increasing awareness of lifelong learning; the competency-based approach to vocational education and training; the emerging learner-focused outcomes-based education; and the expectations that the strong divisions between academic and vocational systems would decline (Mukora 2007), qualifications frameworks continue to be developed across the globe despite the challenges.

Today at least 83 countries are at an early stage of qualifications framework development, while 68 countries are involved in regional developments, and some 34 countries in transnational developments. As mentioned before, this accelerating global trend has been strongly influenced by outcomes-based thinking, to the point that virtually without exception all national, regional and transnational qualifications frameworks can be described as 'outcomes-led'.

The challenge that is taken up in the research initiative is how best to locate the improved cross-border recognition of qualifications within this relatively new field of outcomes-led qualifications frameworks. Considering the exploratory work done in the pilot study (SAQA 2007) (as explained earlier in this section) it was found that outcomes alone are inadequate to compare qualifications in an internationally consistent manner, and that there is a need to consider a much broader set of criteria, including curriculum and assessment strategies, to mention only two. The resulting complexity and resource-intensity required for cross-border recognition prompted a careful reconsideration of the 'language of comparability'.

In essence, the research attempted to make explicit different levels at which qualifications could be compared for different purposes. As noted in the earlier overview of the findings of the pilot study (SAQA 2007), this included a careful consideration of time-based technologies, such as ISCED (UNESCO 2006b), that is despite the fact that the wider qualifications framework discourse has by-and-large discarded time-based technologies in favour of outcomes.

Figure 2: Global distribution of qualifications frameworks

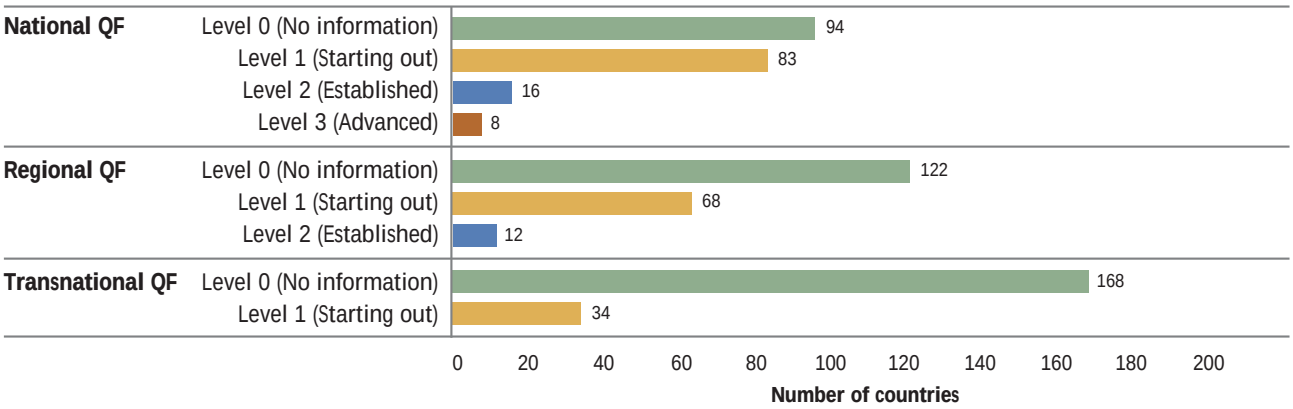
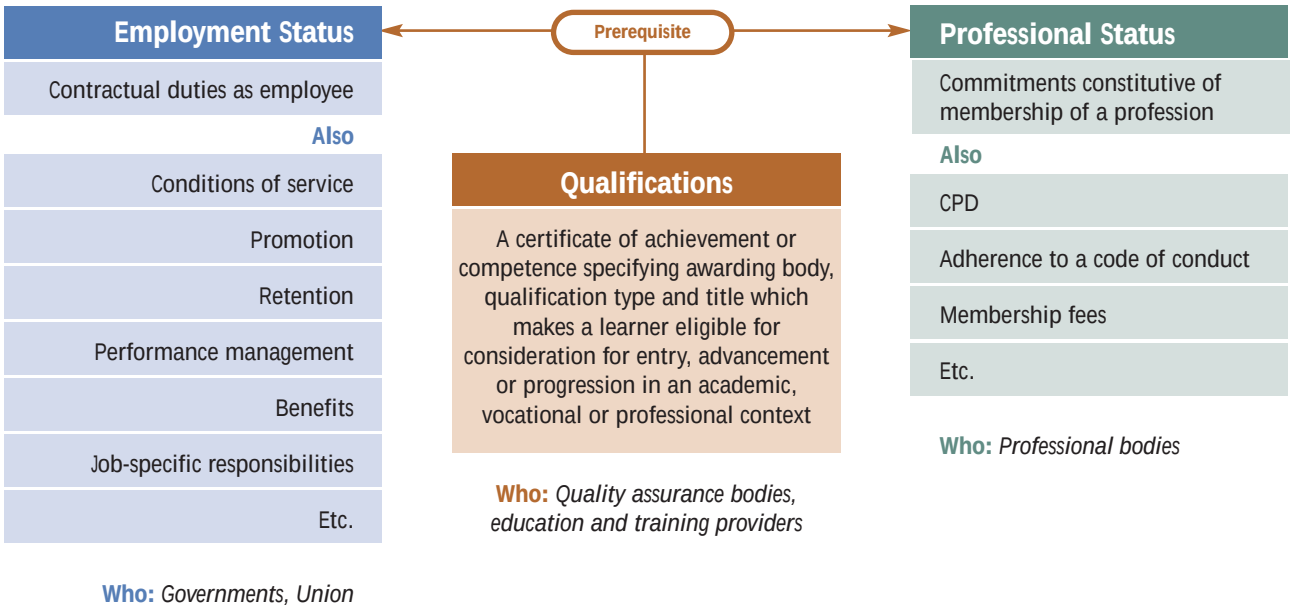


Figure 3: Employment and professional status



This debate lies at the heart of the research design. The important point to make at the outset of the report is that both outcomes-led and time-based approaches to qualification development have limitations and are criticised by different schools. This research does not attempt to favour the one approach above the other, but rather makes explicit the limitations of both and then recommends how best to apply each, or aspects of both, for a specific purpose. In this regard, it is important to indicate upfront that the research takes place from within the qualifications framework discourse, and is conducted by a qualifications agency. It is for this reason that the research findings, despite this apparent bias towards qualifications frameworks and the benefits of outcomes-led qualifications design, are of even more significance. A more detailed discussion on re-thinking comparability, including the limitations of using outcome statements as main technology, is included in Section 2 of this report.

Teacher Professional and Employment Requirements

Another important point of departure for this research is located within the teacher education field, where the professional status of a teacher is related to his or her employment status, but the two are not identical, see Figure 3. Again, following on from the 2006 report on teacher qualifications and teacher professional status (SAQA and Commonwealth Secretariat 2006), the requirements for teacher professional status usually include aspects such as qualifications, continuing professional development, and adherence to a code of conduct. On the one hand, in the majority of cases, adherence to professional requirements is overseen by professional teacher councils. On the other hand, employment requirements are the domain of employers (ministries and private institutions), and unions. The requirements for employment status include professional affiliation, but add work-related aspects such as pension and medical health contributions, job-specific requirements, and conditions of employment. The recognition of qualifications is essential to both the professional and employment status of migrating teachers. For this reason, the involvement of professional councils, employers and unions is required.

The main reason for making a distinction between professional and employment requirements is in an attempt to strengthen the available technologies with which qualifications can be recognised across borders. As will be shown in Section 2, the professional context in a country can contribute substantially to a deeper understanding of the qualifications offered, whether using outcomes-led or time-based designs, or a combination of the two.

Structure of the Report

The remainder of this report is structured as follows:

- Section 2 presents a discussion on comparability within and beyond the context of teacher qualifications in the Commonwealth. This section is important in that it attempts to make explicit the notion of comparability based on an engagement with current literature. This section also includes a critical reflection on the use outcomes and ISCED levels.
- Section 3 describes the data-collection process and methodology employed during the development of the comparability table, and then provides a detailed analysis of the initial teacher qualifications offered across the 35 participating countries.
- The final section offers concluding comments, including some suggestions for improvement and use of the comparability table.
- The comparability table for teacher qualifications in the Commonwealth is included as an Annex to facilitate independent distribution.

Section 2 Re-thinking Comparability

Introduction

What does it mean to compare? Is it possible at all to establish equivalence by comparing educational qualifications? Who does the comparing, and to which specific ends? What are the broader purposes of comparison? Is comparison even possible for qualifications obtained in vastly unequal resource contexts? What exactly is 'being compared'? Is it possible to compare 'things' that are not accessible to standard instruments of assessment, such as complex teaching and learning processes focused on demonstrable 'outcomes'? How are comparisons validated? How does one use the data derived from the comparisons? One of the most visible effects of globalisation has been the mobility of skilled professionals across national borders. With such increasingly rapid movement of skills-carrying people, come the inevitable questions about qualifications and readiness to labour within another national context. This is one of the driving forces behind the growing acceptance of qualifications frameworks that clarify the meaning of a particular qualification within a single country (hence national qualification frameworks, such as the South African National Qualifications Framework), but also among nation states (hence regional qualification frameworks, such as the European Qualifications Framework). By making explicit the learning outcomes achieved at the end of a programme of study leading to the award of a qualification, it is argued that such transparency enables judgements to be made about the levels of training that led to such an accomplishment.

In a national context, therefore, a student moving from institution X where she obtained a Bachelor Degree in Commerce, would present a qualification that enables institution Y to decide whether to admit the student to a Masters Degree in Commerce, based on the specification of the learning outcomes attained. In a cross-border context, a receiving institution in country A would be able to make decisions about a teaching qualification obtained in country B that could lead to employment to teach primary school children in country A. In a perfect world, the explicitness and transparency of what a qualification means would enable swift decisions to be made about entrance to higher education studies or employment in the labour market.

That is, in a perfect world. This chapter argues that meaningful comparison is near impossible and that any uncritical acceptance of the case for comparability threatens the integrity of institutional training and can, in high-risk professions, spell catastrophe. With the limited technologies available, the meaning of two qualifications can at best be understood as an approximation of meaningful comparison for what is not known through the evidence attainable, might in fact be much more consequential than what might be knowable through existing instruments. This does not invalidate the quest for comparison – quite the opposite. It suggests an ongoing search for the kinds of theories and technologies that make comparison much more meaningful than is possible at the present time. For the moment, however, comparison should be treated as a limited and high-risk endeavour.

The Theory of Action

How is the process of comparison supposed to work? What is the underlying theory of what is required to happen in practice? A theory of action is not a description of actual consequences; rather, it makes explicit what is often assumed (or poorly conceptualised, if at all) about implementation. Taking a range of documents into consideration, the theory of action that underpins efforts at nailing down comparability could be summarised as follows:

At national level:

- A country defines its qualifications in terms of learning outcomes.
- These learning outcomes are presented as statements of 'what a learner knows, understands and is able to do on completion of a learning process'.
- The learning outcomes offer a *common language,* making it possible to compare qualifications.
- The country commits to a process of *quality assurance* to ensure that the qualification conveys what it claims to in terms of the learning outcomes.
- The commitment to quality assurance builds *mutual trust* in the stakeholder community (such as employers), leading them to accept the qualifications.

- The placement of individual qualifications on a *national qualifications framework* ensures consistency in the meaning of different qualifications across a country.
- The employer or the institution receiving the qualified learner can be confident that the qualification and its associated learning outcomes are *comparable* to what is required for work or further study.

At an international level:

- The region develops a *regional qualifications framework,* such as the European Qualifications Framework[2].
- The overarching regional framework *specifies the learning outcomes, achievement levels and credit specifications* for each phase of education.
- The individual or country concerned can then *measure a qualification against* the regional qualifications framework to confirm compliance or identify gaps in knowledge or skills.
- The measurement of a qualification against such specific criteria enables the individual or institution to make decisions about the *transferability of that qualification (or units thereof) across borders*.
- The regional framework, in specifying learning outcomes, levels and credits, also provides for the *validation of non-formal and informal learning*.
- The clarity of specification *minimises confusion and enables trust* in institutions across national borders when it comes to comparing and assessing foreign qualifications.
- The transnational *mobility* of professionals and workers is hence facilitated through transferable credits or passes (such as the Euro-pass), matched against a transparent, regional qualifications framework.

The theory of action at both national and international levels cannot be faulted as a technical specification of how comparison is done. By comparing qualifications against a set standard, developed based on consensus, with the transparent specification of learning outcomes that are in turn validated through quality assurance. Individuals, institutions and countries can make choices about the meaning of qualification, the knowledge/skills/dispositions acquired, the training gaps that need to be filled, and the acceptability of that qualification in another institutional or national context. All things being equal, the theory of action cannot be faulted. However all things of course are not equal, as will be shown later.

The Language of Comparison

To judge the claims of comparability, it is important to first gauge the meanings of three key terms surrounding this key construct, which are sometimes (wrongly) used interchangeably:

- **Transparency** is the degree to which the value of qualifications can be identified and compared in education, training, the workplace and more generally (Commission of the European Communities 2006:3). It is the degree of explicitness about the meaning of a qualification (outcomes, content, levels, standards, awards). It implies the exchange of information about qualifications in an accessible way within and outside the country of award. When transparency is achieved, it is possible to compare the value and content of qualifications at national and international level (Deane 2005).
- **Recognition** is the formal or legal specifications that a qualification must meet in order to be accepted (recognised) as fulfilling the (transparently) set standards, such as are often defined for the professions. Such recognition can be mutual and automatic where two or more states agree upon, for example, qualifications achieved or the minimum conditions of training being met, as is often the case for doctors and nurses.
- **Comparability** is the comparison of one qualification with another, based, most often, on a common format or instrument - such as comparability tables - that enables the 'face value' of a qualification to be established. The act of comparing enables judgements to be made about the equivalence (sameness) of qualifications. The greater the transparency with which a qualification is presented, the easier it is to compare one qualification with another, and the more reliable the system of recognition by which a qualification is accepted by the state, professions or an individual.

Transparency is a necessary condition for claims about comparability, but these two constructs are not the same. So too, recognition can be achieved without the necessity of detailed comparison - for example through legal agreements between institutions or nations that a

2 Another example will be where a grouping of countries that are not necessarily in the same region or geographic proximity, develop a transnational qualifications framework.

medical degree from one context will be deemed to be equivalent in standing to a medical degree from another content. The three constructs are conceptually if not operationally linked, and therefore misrecognising one for the other is a common mistake in literature.

Limitations of Comparison and Comparability

1. *Learning outcomes are inadequate proxies for education quality*

The first limitation of comparability lies in what is being compared. At base, the comparison of learning outcomes achieved, is an indirect measure of individual accomplishment. Even if every country were to state its qualifications in an outcomes-based format, we intuitively know that this indirectness of measurement cannot tell us about the quality, depth and significance of the educational experience that underpins the outcome. An outcome is a terminal statement of what is presumed to have been achieved. Nobody has been present in the classroom of the school or vocational college or university to directly witness what it was that had led to the claimed outcome; the outcome is trusted as an honest and genuine statement of achievement. However, this assumption is fraught with danger.

Valuing learning as an outcome over teaching or resources as an input is an indication of the educational changes sweeping the modern state. Prior to 'outcomes', everyone was in the dark about the meaning of a qualification. Coverage of content was obviously not enough, nor was the reputation of the training institution. Judgements were remarkably inconsistent across different contexts, and there was little on which to peg statements of comparability until outcomes were discovered as a technology for capturing and organising the educational experience in a simple and tangible way.

Outcomes-based achievements were, therefore, a massive step forward in the quest for comparability. While the advent of outcomes-based education and training is an important trend on the world stage, learning outcomes in and of themselves say little about the meaning of that outcome in vastly disparate contexts (more about this later).

Nations and institutions have become quite adept at stating learning outcomes achieved, as various versions of competency- or outcomes-based education took off in global education reforms everywhere. Yet we know from experience in outcomes-based education and training systems that examination or assessment schedules that list achieved outcomes are not automatically trusted or accepted in the marketplace for a simple and logical reason: there is not sufficient evidence to back up the claim that the outcomes have been achieved. The nagging question 'how do I really know' in the mind of the receiving institution or nation will not go away.

2. *The greater the detail of specification behind an outcome, the more elusive the comparability question*

The moves towards greater transparency in the declaration of qualifications and their outcomes implicitly recognise the limitations of outcomes as a profound statement of achievements actually attained. For this specific reason there is a push towards defining content covered in a particular qualification; notional hours of training; internship experiences; levels of achievement of those outcomes; associated assessment criteria and the like. In other words, the more we can say about a qualification, the better we are able to judge the quality and adequacy of the outcomes achieved.

Such a quest for detail is a step in the right direction and is certainly more useful than relying only on outcomes stated. However here, the measures remain indirect. How do we know, for example, that the content claimed to be covered was actually covered? Nobody actually witnessed the coverage. Since judgements are made at some distance from the sites of education and training, who is to know that content claimed equates as content actually covered?

The answer to these questions is to specify in greater detail. Comparability instruments therefore probe for actual or notional learning hours; surely, if we know the time commitments made, we are better equipped to make these comparisons? Then it is recommended that content areas be specified and outlined. If we know what was taught (and learned), we would know more about the educational experience of the learner. It would also help if the associated experiences such as internship hours or placement experience were to be detailed. The more technical specifications, such as credits associated with the qualification (the more credits, the more time or greater complexity) are of additional help. It adds value to specify the level descriptors, that is, the level of complexity for the achievement.

However, how much detail is sufficient? Clearly, the added information is much more valuable than learning outcomes alone. The problem is that the more information gathered about a qualification, the more the process of evaluating it becomes weighed down by data, and that is for one qualification only. Since countries and institutions often hold hundreds of qualifications, these generate a massive bureaucracy that multiplies geometrically when multiple institutions and nations are held to the same account. The ideals of simplicity, communicability, and accessibility are hence essentially lost in the inevitable information overload.

There is, however, a more serious problem. Even with all the information gathered, there is always critical information that is not amenable to direct observation. In other words, what counts – or should count – in making judgements about comparability, is often not the kind of information easily retrieved for making such assessments.

3. Pedagogy matters

One of the most important and direct measures of the quality of education, and therefore of the power of a learning outcome, is how teaching the claimed content actually proceeded. It is common cause that someone can achieve even a complex learning outcome through rote teaching or rote learning. A teacher could literally read through 'notes' and assess learners on the basis of what was read. A lecturer can teach all the content required, but tell learners that only chapters three and five, for example, will be examined in the upcoming test. The learner will hence pass with flying colours (this is a very common practice in many countries). A lecturer could supply 'notes' and the learners could, as in low-level distance education courses, pass a test of content knowledge all by themselves. On the one hand, a professor teaching biological science, owing to the absence of specialist laboratory facilities or much-needed chemicals, reduces this important experience to paper-and-pencil-tests based on textbook knowledge (this is not at all uncommon in poor countries). The teacher could, on the other hand, faithfully labour through the curriculum content but then set such a ridiculously easy examination that everybody passes anyway (more about this later). Therefore, in essence, pedagogy does matter.

It is, of course, unreasonable to insist that pedagogy is directly measured. This is logistically impossible when comparing qualifications on a global scale. It is even difficult within one country, except as a sampling exercise. Yet not doing so is to concede a stubborn complexity: we cannot really know what a learning outcome in terms of educational experience is, unless we know what went before in terms of the pedagogical experience.

Pedagogy is, of course, much more than how one teaches. It is also about expertise and experience lodged within the one who teaches. The qualifications of the teacher and, separately, the competence of a teacher matter greatly in teaching simple (and even more so complex) subject matter. However, since competence cannot be read off a certificate, especially in developing countries, once again the meaning of qualifications comes into question. Where professions license their workers, this problem is partly resolved; but since many occupations (and even some professions like teaching) in developing countries do not license their professionals or workers, the problem remains.

Comparability means little unless there is at least critical information about the qualities and adequacy of the teaching that precedes and indeed shapes and defines the meaning of a learning outcome.

4. Institutions matter

Learning outcomes are not produced in a vacuum. They are attained in and through educational institutions. Here one faces an unpleasant reality: institutions within and across countries do not carry the same reputation, do not harbour the same resources, do not attract the same quality of teachers, do not admit the same quality of students and, in quality terms, do not and cannot produce the same results.

Institutions are, whether one likes it or not, deeply unequal. The ideological distinction is an important one – institutions are often not only unequal empirically, they are also inequitable politically. Underdevelopment, colonialism, racism and long histories of allocating privilege and disadvantage among institutions are not easily reversed, whether it concerns 'black' and 'white' universities in a place like South Africa or poor and rich nations in the Commonwealth system.

Despite these legacies of inequality, all institutions will claim that their learners achieve the learning outcomes set at either an institutional level or a national level. This is routinely observed in countries with national qualifications frameworks.

Here lies a major problem. The general public (reluctantly, the market) knows that this is true, namely, that institutions are unequal and therefore, in most cases, their products (measured in outcomes) are unequal, irrespective of what the paperwork says.

Of course, in some cases this is an unfair way in which to compare institutions. Schools or universities with low reputations could in fact be making massive investments (of time and expertise, if not resources) to ensure that every student learns and indeed attains the learning outcomes set. However, how does one know this when outcomes are so easily marked off by all institutions?

While institutions continue to trade on market value and present themselves in the public mind based on historical reputations, it will remain difficult to reverse powerful perceptions - if not uneasy realities - that differential outcomes result from differential institutions.

5. Examinations matter

How exactly are learners examined and what confidence does such examinations and assessments yield in terms of learning outcomes? This question is crucial since the depth and quality of learning can easily be 'washed out' or concealed by examinations where the standards set are so low that almost anyone can achieve them.

One area in which there is consistent research on comparability and which might shed some light on the question of qualifications, is in the area of comparing between-subject examination standards. One aspect is clear from this research - even within one country and within one education system, unequal examination standards seriously compromise the overall meaning of, say, a school qualification (Newton 2008).

What this means for efforts to gauge comparability is that examination papers and assessment protocols must be carefully scrutinised on the basis of which learning outcomes are validated as having been achieved. However, once again, the arguments about practicability arise: it is simply not possible, given the millions of examination papers written across the world – sometimes two or more per subject within a qualification – to determine whether the evaluation of achievement is of a sufficiently high standard to trust the stated outcomes.

This is obviously not an argument for doing the impossible. It is simply to point out, once again and understandably so, that compromises are being made in judgements about comparability and that the use of proxies for quality might not provide sufficient or trustworthy information about the meaning of a learning outcome. Moreover, the argument being presented here is that the sheer complexity of what lies between the admission of a student to a course of learning and the graduation of that student for whom attained outcomes are claimed, should at the very least receive attention, rather than the enthusiastic and uncritical endorsement of the stated learning outcomes. This is particularly the case in developing countries, where research shows that the assessment tail, over time, tends to wag the curriculum dog with some consistency. In contexts where examinations therefore override the curriculum, the learning outcomes are more likely to be an artefact of what is assessed than a reflection of learning experiences lodged within the content that had been taught.

A Modest Attempt at Comparing Qualifications

There is no doubt that comparison and comparability of qualifications is a limited endeavour, even under ideal circumstances where qualifications frameworks are in place and information on qualifications is readily available. Some of the limitations can be addressed – at least in part – and in a perfect world, by acknowledging that learning outcomes are inadequate proxies for educational quality; by avoiding over-specification; by considering pedagogy, and assessment practices. However, the need for greater transparency of qualifications remains.

Naturally, we do not live in an ideal world, and what remains, is to make a modest attempt to open what, to date, has been a 'black box' of comparison, steered in part by national information centres and competent recognition authorities. By acknowledging that this is largely a technical exercise, and drawing on earlier work on comparability, this research proposes a theory of action within which information on initial teacher qualifications offered across the Commonwealth is gathered and presented in the accessible and structured format of a comparability table. In turn, it is envisaged that the comparability table will provide a basis (albeit one that will require further development in the future) for pathways for the attainment of fully qualified status for teachers within and between Commonwealth member states.

Three main components make up the overarching conceptual framework for the comparability table:

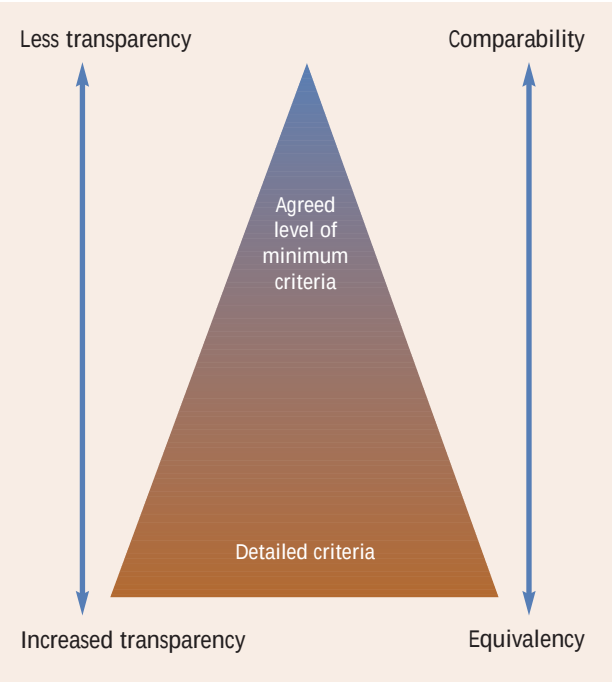
- Refining the language of comparability;
- identifying a meta-framework, and
- acknowledging that the work is of an ongoing nature.

In the first place, a refinement of the language of comparison is required. Early debates focused on the need for increased recognition of teacher qualifications. Within this context, recognition meant the formal or legal specifications that qualifications must meet to be accepted within the countries that offer them. This takes place predominantly on a national basis, and requires the country to commit to quality assurance processes, which in turn builds mutual trust, and results in the qualification being registered or pegged at a specific level of a qualifications framework. With increased migration and globalisation, the need for cross-border recognition has increased, and has resulted in regional qualifications frameworks being developed in a number of regions across the world. However, not all countries and regions are engaged in developing qualifications frameworks, nor are all qualifications being offered across different countries. Yet there are some professions such as teaching, in which highly skilled professionals are becoming increasing mobile, where qualifications of a similar nature are offered across a range of countries.

As the need for recognition becomes more important, similar qualifications offered across various countries need to be compared to ensure fair treatment of migrants, and also to avoid unnecessary disregard of valuable skills in the receiving country. In order to compare qualifications, a common format or instrument is useful to enable judgements to be made about the 'sameness' of the qualifications. In this respect, qualifications located within national and/or regional qualifications frameworks are usually formatted in a similar way, and, in most cases, are based on learning outcomes. Drawing on the characteristics of such qualifications, a range of criteria can be used to compare the qualifications, such as the eight criteria that were initially considered during the pilot study on teacher qualifications conducted in 2007 (SAQA) (see page 13).

The depth of information needed to compare qualifications within this format poses significant challenges on a number of fronts, and more so when some qualifications are not located within qualifications

Figure 4: Transparency of qualifications



frameworks. As noted by UNESCO (2006b), it becomes virtually impossible to directly assess and compare the content of qualifications following this approach in an internationally consistent way. UNESCO concedes that 'international curricula standards' are not available to compare qualifications in such great detail, and suggests a more pragmatic route using a format called the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

This move to a manageable comparison of qualifications, although it has a number of limitations, is facilitated by differentiating between two levels of comparison, one at a greater level of specification than one at a lower level of specification:

- **Comparability** – determining the face value by using a set format and criteria; and
- **Equivalency** – determining the extent to which qualifications are the same, also using a format and criteria, but in this case requiring a measure akin to international curriculum standards.

Further refining the language of comparability and, in keeping with international trends in this area, it becomes even more useful to talk about transparency as an overarching term that includes both comparability and equivalency. Transparency is the degree to which qualifications can be identified and compared (European Commission 2006) (see Figure 4).

Figure 5: Overview of ISCED levels[3]

ISCED Level	Typical Name	Typical Entry Requirement	Typical Duration (full time)		Characteristics
0	**Pre-primary education**	At least 3 years	Depends of local age of entry to Primary schooling		
1	**Pre-primary education**	Between age 5 and 7	6 years		Studies characteristics of primary education – e.g. reading, writing and mathematics
2	**Lower secondary or second stage of basic education**	Completion of Level 1 (or 6 years of primary schooling)	2A	3 years after Level 1. Usually more subject orientated	Provide access to 3A or 3B programmes
			2B		Provide access to 3C
			2C		Preparing for direct access to the labour market
3	**(Upper) Secondary education**	Completion of Level 2 Entrance age typically 15 or 16 years	3A	3 years after Level 2	Direct access to 5A programmes
			3B		Direct access to 5B programmes
			3C	Variable – fewer than 6 months to more than 2 years	These programmes lead directly to labour market, SCED 4 programmes or other ISCED 3 programmes
4	**Post-secondary non-tertiary education**	Completion of Level 3 (but often not significantly more advanced than programmes at Level 3)	4A	From 6 months to 2 years	Programmes that prepare for entry to Level 5 programmes – typical examples are pre-degree foundation courses
			4B		Designed for direct labour market entry
5	**First stage of tertiary education**	Completion of Level 3A, 3B or Level 4A	5A	Minimum duration – 3 years after completing Level 3	Largely theoretically based – provide qualifications for entry to advanced research programmes (Level 6) or professions with high skills requirements
			5B	Minimum duration – 2 years after completing Level 3	More practical/technical/occupationally specific than 5A programmes. Do not provide access to Level 6 programmes
6	**Second stage of tertiary education**	Completion of Level 5A	Variable		Leading to an advanced research qualification

Basic Education – 9 years

This leads to the second part of the conceptual framework: identifying a meta-framework wherein comparability of initial teacher qualifications in the Commonwealth can be located. For this purpose, the ISCED levels developed by UNESCO and the OECD (UNESCO 2006b) are useful:

- Level 0: Pre-primary education
- Level 1: Primary education or first stage of basic education
- Level 2: Lower secondary or second stage of basic education
- Level 3: Upper secondary education
- Level 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education
- Level 5: First stage of tertiary education
- Level 6: Second stage of tertiary education

Each level is further defined by the typical entry requirements, typical duration and general characteristics (see Figure 5).

It is important to realise that ISCED levels, just as outcomes, are not unproblematic, with application and interpretation widely criticised in literature. The main challenge in the application of the ISCED criteria is that they are regarded as time based and open to multiple interpretations; in essence, it is argued, ISCED represents a return to thinking that preceded qualifications frameworks and outcomes-led developments which strongly reject duration as a reliable indicator of the breadth and depth of learning. On the one hand, on many levels, this argument is entirely valid and has been validated by new developments over the past twenty years or so, more so in the accelerating trend towards outcomes-led qualifications frameworks (see Section 1). On the other hand, as has been shown in the earlier part of Section 2, outcomes are not without flaws, either. The point here is that both technologies have limitations, but this does not mean that the benefits of both have to be discarded. While ISCED is a blunt instrument unable to make fine differentiations, and with an undue reliance on time-based learning, outcomes, on their own, are inadequate proxies for the quality of education.

3 Source: UNESCO 2006b.

It is at this point, where we acknowledge that both technologies are limited, that it is important to reflect on the purpose of the research at hand, namely to provide the basis for pathways for the recognition of qualifications of teachers when they move across borders in the Commonwealth. The purpose is clearly not to make far-reaching judgements of the educational quality in other countries, but rather a much more modest attempt at improving transparency, albeit with some risks and limitations. It is here that ISCED, rather than outcomes, comes to the fore as a pragmatic and available technology with which to consider the (limited) transparency of qualifications on the level of comparability. Where increased transparency is required (on the level of equivalence), ISECD levels will undoubtedly fall short, and additional and new technologies, including, but not only outcomes, warrant further investigation (see Section 4 for recommendations for further research).

In addition to locating teacher qualifications at ISCED levels, some additional criteria, based on the pilot study discussed in Section 1, and considering the criteria applied at the time, are proposed for this study:

- Contextual data. Summarised as 'key facts' in the table itself, the decision is taken to locate country data on teacher qualifications within the broader context of the country in which the qualifications are offered. This includes the population, the expenditure on education, enrolment figures, the number of teachers in the system, the estimated number of un- and under-qualified teachers, and the estimated number of foreign teachers.
- Professional requirements for teaching. Qualifications are regarded as one component that is required for fully qualified status. For this reason, it is important to gather data on other requirements and to consider the overall approach to teaching in the country. Specific aspects include continuing professional development (CPD), professional licensing/registration, the screening of criminal records, and induction programmes.
- The ISCED level of the qualification.
- The duration of the qualification in years or full-time equivalent (FTE).
- The practical/workplace component included in the qualification (measured in weeks over the full duration of the qualification).
- The entry level of the qualification (ISCED level).
- The qualifications pathway wherein the qualification is located. In many cases, fully qualified status requires more than one qualification to be completed. The most common example is an academic degree followed by a professional postgraduate qualification.
- Primary and secondary (including both junior and senior secondary) teacher qualifications are analysed separately.

In terms of sampling, the framework described is limited to initial qualifications for primary and secondary school teachers. A more comprehensive analysis that includes postgraduate, vocational and early childhood development (ECD) qualifications could have been pursued, but this lies outside the scope of this research. In retrospect, the more limited sample provides an opportunity to refine the methodology without undue clutter from multiple sources.

A regional or transnational qualifications framework will offer many of the benefits of the framework proposed for this study. In effect, there are many similarities between the broadly defined ISCED levels and the level descriptors of a regional or meta-framework. A regional qualifications framework is usually based on voluntary participation and mutual trust, and provides at best a reference point for countries included in the region. The benefit of the ISCED-based framework that is proposed for this study, while similar to existing and emerging regional qualifications frameworks, is that it provides a neutral reference point removed from the context of a specific country or region. This factor undoubtedly contributed to the high response rate for the survey: 35 out of 53 countries provided detailed information (66 per cent); a further nine countries participated but were unable to complete the survey in time (17 per cent); and only nine countries did not participate (17 per cent).

The last aspect of the conceptual framework within which this study has taken place, is an acknowledgement that the work is of an ongoing nature. In this regard it has been argued that data on qualifications can contribute to increased transparency, but complete transparency will remain out of reach whilst using available technologies with a few exceptions where instruments are designed for specific qualifications that take aspects of pedagogy, institutions and assessment into account.

Qualification systems tend to change over time as local and global contextual factors impact on countries and regions in general, and on professions in particular. For this reason, the proposed conceptual framework encourages a flexible output in the form of a comparability table that can be updated regularly with country-specific data owned by the country in such a way that one can defend and improve the data as required.

Concluding Comments

This section has provided an opportunity to rethink the notion of comparability. Achieving explicitness and transparency in stating what a qualification means across institutions and borders is close to impossible. At best, the relationship between two qualifications can be understood as an approximation of a meaningful comparison by using the limited technologies available today. However, comparability is a high-risk endeavour, so attempts at determining comparability with limited technologies may emphasise inconsequential factors and, as a result, obscure the factors that are most important.

Having located the debate within the limitations of comparability, the point is made that the quest for comparison should not be discarded. On the contrary, an ongoing search for new technologies and theories that make comparison more meaningful should be pursued. Following from this overarching focus, a proposed technology is located within a theory of action that draws from a range of international developments, mostly from the global distribution of qualifications frameworks.

The proposed technology is described as a comparability table with three main components: on the one hand, the first requires a refinement of the language of comparability, suggesting that the transparency of qualifications can be achieved at different levels, ranging from limited (termed comparability) to very detailed (termed equivalency). In this regard, equivalency represents the ideal position largely unobtainable with existing technologies. Comparability, on the other hand, represents a state obtainable with existing technologies, but fraught with limitations. The second component requires the identification of a meta-framework that will guide the research and enable the data to be presented in a coherent manner. The proposed framework consists of:

- ISCED level of the qualification;
- contextual data;
- duration of the qualification;
- practical/workplace component included in the qualification;
- entry level of the qualification (expressed as an ISCED level); and
- a qualifications pathway wherein the qualification is located.

Further, considering that the work is of an ongoing nature, the data are presented in a narrative and graphical format that gives the reader an overview of initial teacher qualifications offered at a glance in a specific country.

Section 3 Teacher Qualifications in the Commonwealth

Introduction

This section provides an overview of the initial primary and secondary teacher qualifications offered in the 35 participating Commonwealth member states, based on the data that were collected between September 2008 and February 2009. This section is an analysis of the more detailed information on each country that can be found in the Annex to this report in the format of a comparability table.

This discussion and presentation of data and results are located within the conceptual framework described in Section 2 of this report. The premise on which is it built is an acknowledgment that comparability is at best a limited endeavour using available technologies, but that it is nonetheless an important endeavour that can contribute to the ongoing search for technologies and theories that can eventually make comparison more meaningful than it is possible at present.

Methodology

Data collection took place by using an online survey hosted by SurveyMonkey.com. The survey instrument was developed in consultation with the Commonwealth Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications, and drew on the earlier pilot study conducted in 2007 (SAQA 2007). A formal request to participate in the study was sent to ministries of all member states of the Commonwealth in the third quarter of 2008. These initial requests were followed by reminders from the Commonwealth Secretariat and the researchers.

The decision to use an on online survey, while somewhat ambitious, was taken mainly to facilitate the data collection and analysis. The questionnaire required a substantial amount of information from the respondent, which was made easier through the non-sequential possibilities offered by the electronic survey. As an example, the respondent could opt to move to another section of the questionnaire without paging through irrelevant sections. The ease of drop-down lists also limited the information to be typed. The online mode relied on internet access within the member states and, as was expected, some difficulties were experienced. However, these were limited and were accommodated through alternative options sent via fax and post, which were then captured and included in the set of data.

In an attempt to avoid duplication and placing undue strain on respondents, data from the 2007 pilot study formed the basis for the responses from Australia, England, India, Jamaica, Northern Ireland and South Africa. With the exception of India and Northern Ireland, additional data and verification from the countries included in the pilot study were subsequently received. Where available, data were supplemented with secondary data, including the UNESCO report on teachers and educational quality (UNESCO 2006). Respondents were given an opportunity to verify the country-specific presentation of data as contained in the comparability table.

As noted above, the primary source of data on initial primary and secondary teacher qualifications in the member states was ministry officials. The comparability table summarises this data in an accessible and condensed graphical format, supplemented by key contextual data, such as the population of the country, numbers of teachers, and professional requirements for teaching. The main purpose of the comparability table is to improve transparency by providing updated information to senior officials, credential evaluators, academics, and even individual teachers.

The comparability table is attached as an Annex so that it can be copied and distributed separately. The following is an analysis of the data contained in the comparability table.

Participating Member States

A total of 35 of the 53 member states (66 per cent) actively participated in the survey by providing recent data on initial primary and secondary teacher qualifications, as well as other contextual data. The member states are:

Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, The Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Brunei Darussalam, Cameroon, Canada, Cyprus, Dominica, The Gambia, Guyana, India, Jamaica, Kenya, Lesotho, Malaysia,

Maldives, Malta, Mauritius, New Zealand, Nigeria, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, South Africa, Tanzania, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda, United Kingdom, and Vanuatu.

A further nine member states (17 per cent) participated, but were unable to complete the survey before the cut-off date[4]. Nine member states did not participate[5] (17 per cent). Countries with federal systems, such as Australia, Canada and Nigeria, had the option of providing provincial/territorial data. In the case of United Kingdom, individual requests were made to England, Northern Ireland, Wales and Scotland, after which the data were collated in the comparability table. In keeping with similar international studies and for purposes of analysis, the participating member states were grouped into five regions:

- East Asia and the Pacific
- Latin America and the Caribbean
- North America and Western Europe
- South and West Asia
- Sub-Saharan Africa

The data on teacher qualifications are preceded by a brief overview of contextual data across the participating countries, including population, education expenditure (as a percentage of the GDP), enrolment (primary, secondary and tertiary), the number of teachers, the number of un- and under-qualified teachers, and the number of foreign teachers. Following the more detailed presentation of the data on initial primary and secondary teacher qualifications, a summary of the professional requirements for recognised teachers in participating countries is also included.

Overview of Contextual Data

Population

The populations of the 35 member states range considerably. Seychelles is the smallest, with 80,000 (or 0.08 million). The largest is India, with 1,065 million (see Table 1). Latin America and the Caribbean is the least populous region with an average population of only 0.64 million per country.

Table 1: Populations of participating member states (2007)[6]

Region Country or territory	**Population** (millions)	**Average regional population** (millions)
East Asia and the Pacific		6.88
Australia	21.37	
Brunei Darussalam	0.36	
Malaysia	24.40	
New Zealand	4.20	
Samoa	0.18	
Singapore	4.25	
Tonga	0.10	
Vanuatu	0.21	
Latin America and the Caribbean		0.64
Antigua and Barbuda	0.07	
The Bahamas	0.31	
Barbados	0.27	
Belize	0.26	
Dominica	0.08	
Guyana	0.77	
Jamaica	2.60	
St Vincent and the Grenadines	0.12	
Trinidad and Tobago	1.30	
North America and Western Europe		22.80
Canada	31.00	
Cyprus	0.80	
Malta	0.39	
United Kingdom	59.00	
South and West Asia		403.77
Bangladesh	146.00	
India	1,065.00	
The Maldives	0.31	
Sub-Saharan Africa		26.30
Cameroon	16.00	
The Gambia	1.40	
Kenya	31.99	
Lesotho	1.80	
Mauritius	1.30	
Nigeria	124.00	
Seychelles	0.08	
Sierra Leone	4.97	
South Africa	45.00	
Tanzania	36.98	
Uganda	25.80	
Average across the participating countries		**47.22**

4 Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, Papua New Guinea, Sri Lanka, St Kitts and Nevis, St Lucia, Tuvalu and Zambia.
5 Fiji Islands, Ghana, Grenada, Kiribati, Malawi, Nauru, Pakistan, Solomon Islands, and Swaziland.
6 Source: Commonwealth Education Partnerships (2007) and self-reported.

Table 2: Education expenditure as percentage of GDP of participating member states (2002/3)[7]

Region Country or territory	**Education expenditure** (% of GDP)	**Average expenditure per region** (% of GDP)
East Asia and the Pacific		6.4
Australia	2005/6 4.8	
Brunei Darussalam	4.4	
Malaysia	8.1	
New Zealand	6.7	
Samoa	2001/2 4.8	
Singapore	-	
Tonga	4.9	
Vanuatu	11.0	
Latin America and the Caribbean		7.7
Antigua and Barbuda	3.8	
The Bahamas	2005/6 17.7	
Barbados	7.6	
Belize	5.2	
Dominica	-	
Guyana	8.4	
Jamaica	4.9	
St Vincent and the Grenadines	10.0	
Trinidad and Tobago	4.3	
North America and Western Europe		5.6
Canada	2001/2 5.2	
Cyprus	2005/6 7.1	
Malta	4.6	
United Kingdom	2001/2 5.3	
South and West Asia		3.4
Bangladesh	2.4	
India	2000/1 4.1	
The Maldives	2001/2 3.7	
Sub-Saharan Africa		4.9
Cameroon	3.8	
The Gambia	2.8	
Kenya	7.0	
Lesotho	10.4	
Mauritius	2006/7 3.2	
Nigeria	-	
Seychelles	5.2	
Sierra Leone	2001/2 3.7	
South Africa	5.3	
Tanzania	-	
Uganda	2.5	
Average across the participating countries		**5.9**

Education expenditure

Education expenditure (as a percentage of GDP) for the 35 member states ranged from 2.4 per cent for Bangladesh, to 17.7 per cent for The Bahamas. Across the regions, the average expenditure on education varied between 3.4 per cent (South and West Asia), to 7.7 per cent (Latin America and the Caribbean). At the one extreme, it is important to note that Latin America and the Caribbean, as the least populous region, spends the most on education. At the other extreme, the most populous region – South and West Asia – spends, on average, the least on education. These figures are given in Table 2.

Enrolment

The ongoing emphasis placed on primary enrolment is evident across the regions, ranging between 83.8 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa to 99 per cent in North America and Western Europe (see Table 3). Secondary enrolments are lower, ranging between 47.5 per cent for South and West Asia and 93.8 per cent for North America and Western Europe. As expected, tertiary enrolments are even lower, ranging between 8.9 per cent for Sub-Saharan Africa, to 55 per cent for North America and Western Europe.

Number of teachers

The number of primary teachers in the participating countries varies between only 670 for Seychelles to 3.39 million for India. Similarly, the number of secondary teachers varies between 548 for Seychelles and 2,586,200 for India. These figures are set out in Figures 6 and 7.

While it is recognised that the ratio of the school-going age population to the total number of teachers will be more significant, the ratio of the total number of teachers to the total population in each member state does show some interesting differences (see Table 4). The average teacher-population ratio across all 35 member states is 111.5, with only a few countries that have a significantly low teacher-population ratio. These are Brunei Darussalam (47.4), the Maldives (48.7), Tonga (55.6) and The Bahamas (59.0). Countries with high teacher-population ratios are Bangladesh (213.9), The Gambia (209.0), Sierra Leone (199.6) and Singapore (191.4). In terms of regions, Sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia have significantly higher teacher-population ratios than the other regions (151.0 and 147.0 respectively, compared to 87.5, 85.4 and 82.7 for the other regions).

7 Source: Commonwealth Education Partnerships (2007) and self-reported.

Table 3: Learner enrolment (2007)[8]

Region Country or territory	Enrolment (as % of relevant age group) Primary	Average Primary per region	Secondary	Average Secondary per region	Tertiary	Average Tertiary per region
East Asia and the Pacific		95.8		71.0		30.7
Australia	99.6		82.7		84.0	
Brunei Darussalam	-		-		13.0	
Malaysia	93.0		70.0		29.0	
New Zealand	100.0		93.0		74.0	
Samoa	98.0		62.0		7.0	
Singapore	-		-		-	
Tonga	90.0		90.0		4.0	
Vanuatu	94.0		28.0		4.0	
Latin America and the Caribbean		94.7		81.3		14.4
Antigua and Barbuda	-		-		-	
The Bahamas	92.4		84.3		-	
Barbados	100.0		90.0		38.0	
Belize	99.0		69.0		2.0	
Dominica	81.0		92.0		-	
Guyana	99.0		76.0		6.0	
Jamaica	95.0		75.0		17.0	
St Vincent and the Grenadines	100.0		92.0		-	
Trinidad and Tobago	91.0		72.0		9.0	
North America and Western Europe		99.0		93.8		55.0
Canada	100.0		98.0		59.0	
Cyprus	100.0		95.0		67.0	
Malta	96.0		87.0		30.0	
United Kingdom	100.0		95.0		64.0	
South and West Asia		88.0		47.5		9.0
Bangladesh	84.0		44.0		6.0	
India	88.0		-		12.0	
The Maldives	92.0		51.0		-	
Sub-Saharan Africa		83.8		49.9		8.9
Cameroon	-		-		5.0	
The Gambia	79.0		33.0		-	
Kenya	66.0		25.0		3.0	
Lesotho	86.0		22.0		3.0	
Mauritius	101.0		74.0		40.0	
Nigeria	67.0		29.0		8.0	
Seychelles	100.0		100.0		-	
Sierra Leone	-		-		2.0	
South Africa	89.0		66.0		15.0	
Tanzania	82.0		-		1.0	
Uganda	-		-		3.0	
Average across the participating countries		**91.8**		**70.2**		**22.4**

8 Source: Commonwealth Education Partnerships (2007) and self-reported.

Figure 6: Number of primary teachers (2004) [9]

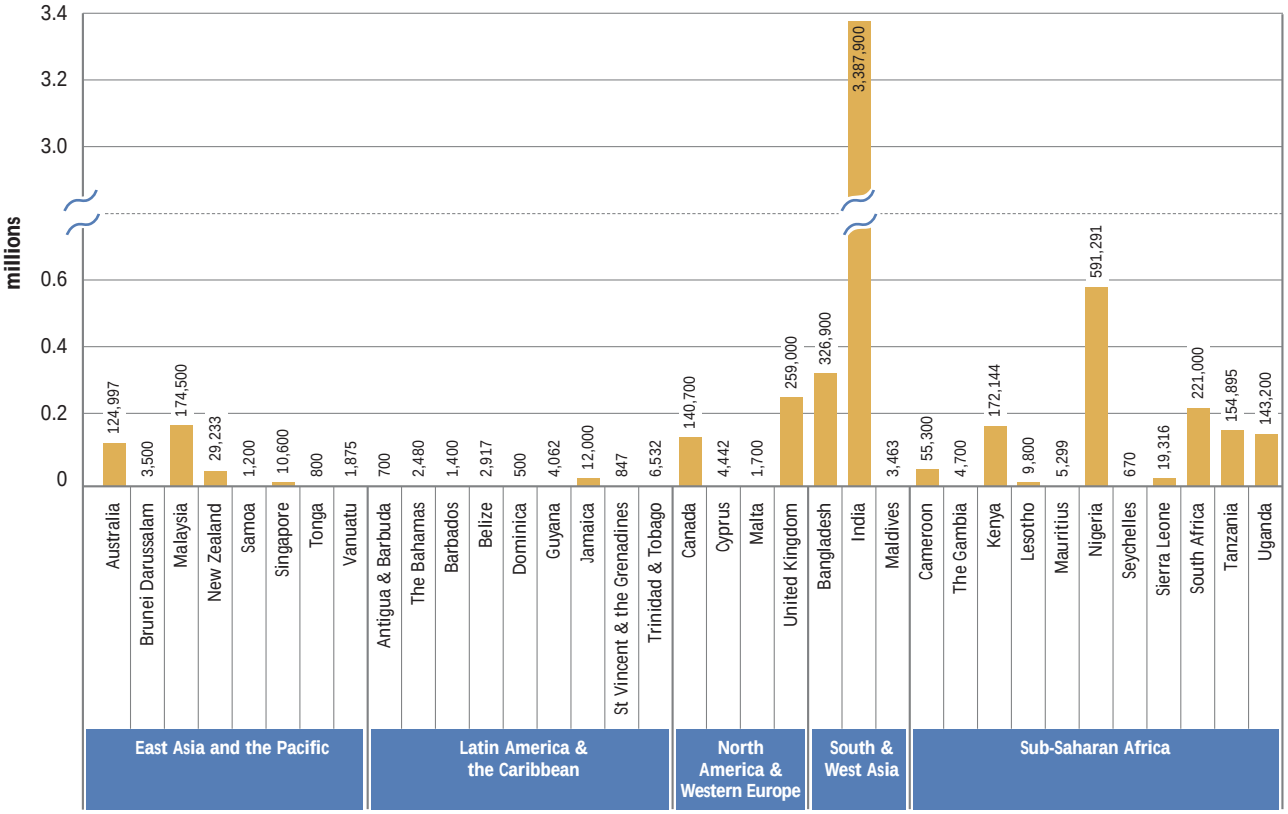
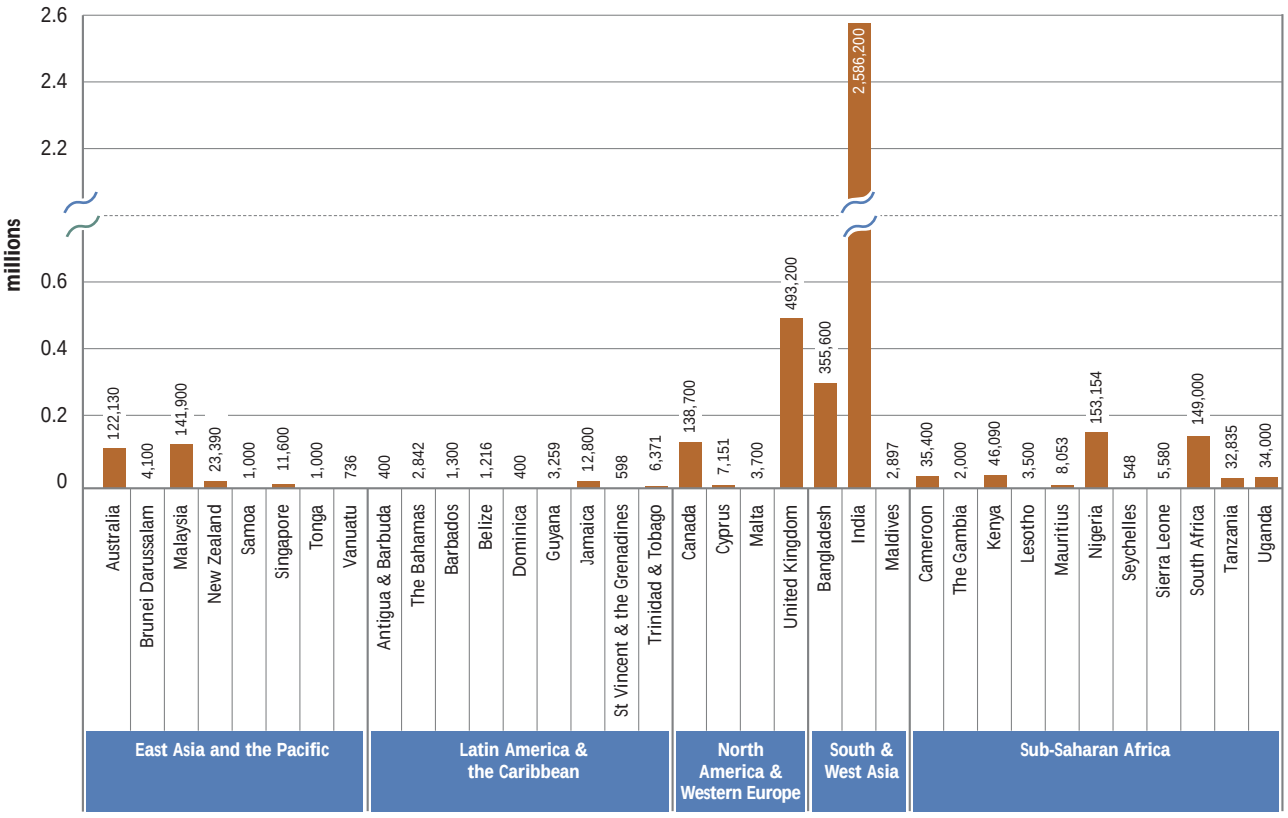


Figure 7: Number of secondary teachers (2004) [10]



9 & 10 Source: UNESCO (2006) and self-reported. Year in which number of teachers were determined is 2004, except for Australia (2008), Malaysia (2003), New Zealand (2008), Samoa (2000), Singapore (1996), Tonga (2002), Vanuatu (2009), The Bahamas (2007), Belize (2008), Guyana (2008), St Vincent and the Grenadines (2009), Trinidad and Tobago (2008), Canada (2000), Cyprus (2006), Maldives (2009), Kenya (2009), Mauritius (2008), Sierra Leone (2008), Nigeria (2009), Seychelles (2009), Tanzania (2008) and Uganda (2005).

Table 4: Teacher-population ratios (2004) [11]

Region Country or territory	Population (2007, in millions)	Number of teachers			Teacher-population ratio	Average population ratio per region
		Primary	Secondary	Total		
East Asia and the Pacific						87.5
Australia	21.37	124,997	122,130	247,127	86.5	
Brunei Darussalam	0.36	3,500	4,100	7,600	47.4	
Malaysia	24.40	174,500	141,900	316,400	77.1	
New Zealand	4.20	29,223	23,390	52,613	79.8	
Samoa	0.18	1,200	1,000	2,200	80.9	
Singapore	4.25	10,600	11,600	22,200	191.4	
Tonga	0.10	800	1,000	1,800	55.6	
Vanuatu	0.21	1,875	736	2,611	81.2	
Latin America and the Caribbean						85.4
Antigua and Barbuda	0.07	700	400	1,100	66.4	
The Bahamas	0.31	2,480	2,842	5,322	59.0	
Barbados	0.27	1,400	1,300	2,700	100.0	
Belize	0.26	2,917	1,216	4,133	61.9	
Dominica	0.08	500	400	900	87.8	
Guyana	0.77	4,062	3,259	7,321	104.5	
Jamaica	2.60	12,000	12,800	24,800	104.8	
St Vincent and the Grenadines	0.12	847	598	1,445	83.0	
Trinidad and Tobago	1.30	6,532	6,371	12,903	100.8	
North America and Western Europe						82.7
Canada	31.00	140,700	138,700	279,400	111.0	
Cyprus	0.80	4,442	7,151	11,593	69.0	
Malta	0.39	1,700	3,700	5,400	72.2	
United Kingdom	59.00	259,000	493,200	752,200	78.4	
South and West Asia						147.0
Bangladesh	146.00	326,900	355,600	682,500	213.9	
India	1065.00	3,387,900	2,586,200	5,974,100	178.3	
The Maldives	0.31	3,463	2,897	6,360	48.7	
Sub-Saharan Africa						151.0
Cameroon	16.00	55,300	35,400	90,700	176.4	
The Gambia	1.40	4,700	2,000	6,700	209.0	
Kenya	31.99	172,144	46,090	218,234	146.6	
Lesotho	1.80	9,800	3,500	13,300	135.3	
Mauritius	1.30	5,299	8,053	13,352	97.4	
Nigeria	124.00	591,291	153,154	744,445	166.6	
Seychelles	0.08	670	548	1,218	66.5	
Sierra Leone	4.97	19,316	5,580	24,896	199.6	
South Africa	45.00	221,000	149,000	370,000	121.6	
Tanzania	36.98	154,895	32,835	187,730	197.0	
Uganda	25.80	143,200	34,000	177,200	145.6	
Average across all countries						**111.5**

11 Source: UNESCO (2006) and self-reported. Year in which number of teachers were determined is 2004, except for Australia (2008), Malaysia (2003), New Zealand (2008), Samoa (2000), Singapore (1996), Tonga (2002), Vanuatu (2009), The Bahamas (2007), Belize (2008), Guyana (2008), St Vincent and the Grenadines (2009), Trinidad and Tobago (2008), Canada (2000), Cyprus (2006), Maldives (2009), Kenya (2009), Mauritius (2008), Sierra Leone (2008) and Uganda (2005).

Number of un- and under-qualified teachers

Data on the number of un- and under-qualified teachers were very limited (see Table 5). No data were provided for the North America and Western Europe region.

Number of foreign teachers

Data on the number of foreign teachers was equally limited (see Table 6). As the data was used for contextualisation purposes, no further attempts were made to find alternative sources, although this is to be recommended for future studies (see Section 4 of this report).

Overview of Qualifications

The following section presents an overview of data on minimum initial primary and secondary (junior and senior secondary are combined) teacher qualifications received from the participating countries, and where available, supplemented by published data where required. Postgraduate and vocational qualifications are excluded, as are qualifications that prepare early childhood development (ECD)/pre-primary teachers and lecturers teaching at tertiary institutions. The detailed country-specific information is available in the Annex.

Levels of minimum initial teacher qualifications

Initial primary teacher qualifications across the 35 participating countries show a preference for ISCED 4 qualifications (post-secondary non-tertiary), yet this preference is not substantial: 20 (57 per cent) use ISCED 4 qualifications, while 15 (43 per cent) use ISCED 5 qualifications (see Figure 8). Sub-Saharan Africa stands out as a region where ISCED 4 (or lower) qualifications form the majority of qualifications on offer for primary teachers (82 per cent, or 9 of the 11 countries in the region). North America and Western Europe stands out as a region where the majority of countries offer ISCED 5 qualifications (75 per cent, or 3 of 4 countries in the region).

For initial secondary teacher qualifications the preference is the opposite (see Figure 8), with the majority of countries offering ISCED 5 qualifications (first stage of tertiary): 15 (43 per cent) use ISCED 4 qualifications, while 19[13] (54 per cent) use ISCED 5 qualifications. The South and West Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa regions have the opposite trend, offering mostly ISCED 4 qualifications.

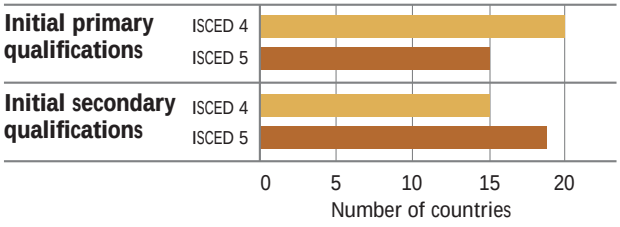
Table 5: Number of un- and under-qualified teachers as percentage of total number of teachers (2009)[12]

Region	**Un- and underqualified teachers** (2009, as % of total)
East Asia and the Pacific	
New Zealand	1.6
Samoa	11.3
Vanuatu	39.2
Latin America and the Caribbean	
The Bahamas	12.2
Belize	64.0
Guyana	54.0
Trinidad and Tobago	9.3
South and West Asia	
Maldives	20.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	
Kenya	0.2
Lesotho	28.8
Sierra Leone	32.1
Uganda	26.4

Table 6: Number of foreign teachers (2009)[14]

Region	**Foreign teachers** As percentage of workforce	Number
East Asia and the Pacific		
Australia	14% (primary), 19% (secondary)	
New Zealand		1,300
Vanuatu		50
Latin America and the Caribbean		
The Bahamas	20%	
Guyana		50
South and West Asia		
Maldives		152
Sub-Saharan Africa		
The Gambia		87
Mauritius		4
Seychelles		133
Total		**1,776**

Figure 8: ISCED levels of initial teacher qualifications



12 Self-reported data as in 2009, with the exception of New Zealand (2008), Samoa (2005), The Bahamas (2006), Guyana (2008), Lesotho (2003) and Uganda (2004).
13 Data on secondary qualifications offered in Brunei Darussalam was not available.
14 Self-reported data as in 2009, with the exception of Australia (2006/7), New Zealand (2008), The Bahamas (2003/4).

Table 7: ISCED levels of minimum initial teacher qualifications by region

Region Country or territory	Minimum initial primary qualification			Minimum initial secondary qualification		
	Primary (ISCED level)	Number of countries with ISCED 4 as minimum	Number of countries with ISCED 5 as minimum	**Secondary** (ISCED level)	Number of countries with ISCED 4 as minimum	Number of countries with ISCED 5 as minimum
East Asia and the Pacific		4/8	4/8		3/8	4/8
Australia	5			5		
Brunei Darussalam	5			-		
Malaysia	4			5		
New Zealand	5			5		
Samoa	4			4		
Singapore	5			5		
Tonga	4			4		
Vanuatu	4			4		
Latin America and the Caribbean		4/9	5/9		2/9	7/9
Antigua and Barbuda	4			4		
The Bahamas	4			5		
Barbados	5			5		
Belize	5			5		
Dominica	4			4		
Guyana	5			5		
Jamaica	5			5		
St Vincent & the Grenadines	4			5		
Trinidad and Tobago	5			5		
North America and Western Europe		1/4	3/4		0/4	4/4
Canada	4			5		
Cyprus	5			5		
Malta	5			5		
United Kingdom	5			5		
South and West Asia		2/3	1/3		2/3	1/3
Bangladesh	5			5		
India	4			4		
The Maldives	4			4		
Sub-Saharan Africa		9/11	2/11		8/11	3/11
Cameroon	4			4		
The Gambia	4			4		
Kenya	4			4		
Lesotho	4			4		
Mauritius	5			5		
Nigeria	4			4		
Seychelles	4			4		
Sierra Leone	4			4		
South Africa	5			5		
Tanzania	3			5		
Uganda	4			4		
Total		**19/35**	**15/35**		**15/35**	**19/35**

Qualification pathways

Ideally, qualifications do not exist in isolation, but form part of a qualifications pathway that includes a combination of qualifications. When successfully completed in a specific sequence, this combination of qualifications allows the individual to achieve fully qualified status. The number of qualifications within such pathways differs greatly across countries and, in many cases, alternative pathways exist even within countries. Table 8 presents an overview of the different pathways on offer in each country, as well as the different qualifications within each of the pathways. A listing of the pathways on offer in each country is included with the rest of the country-specific information in the Annex to this report.

To achieve qualified primary teacher status, the average across the participating countries is two pathways with three qualifications. To achieve qualified secondary teacher status, the average across the participating countries is also two pathways with three qualifications. In general then, primary and secondary school teachers have the same number of options to achieve qualified status. There is however some significant differences across the regions, as illustrated in Table 8. Noticeably, the Sub-Saharan Africa stands out as the region wherein countries, on average, offer the most pathways and qualification types.

Figure 9: Average number of pathways available to achieve fully qualified status per region

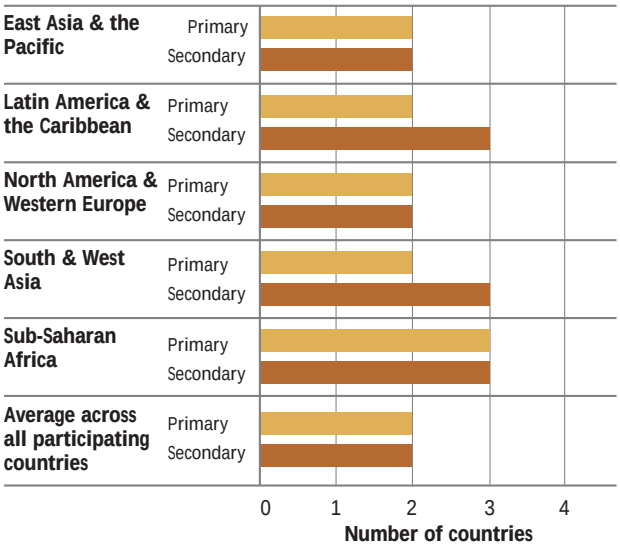


Table 8: Qualifications required for fully qualified status

Region/Country or territory	Primary					Secondary				
	Minimum duration (years FTE per pathway)	Maximum duration (years FTE without repeats per pathway)	Variance (years)	Pathways (number)	Qualifications (number)	Minimum duration (years FTE per pathway)	Maximum duration (years FTE without repeats per pathway)	Variance (years)	Pathways (number)	Qualifications (number)
East Asia and the Pacific										
Regional extremes	2.0	7.0	5.0	-	-	2.0	7.0	5.0	-	-
Regional average	3.0	4.3	1.3	2	3	3.6	4.6	1.0	2	3
Australia	4	7	3	3	3	4	7	3	3	3
Brunei Darussalam	3	3	0	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
Malaysia	2	5	3	3	4	4	5	1	2	3
New Zealand	3	5	2	3	4	4	5	1	2	3
Samoa	2	4	2	3	4	2	4	2	3	4
Singapore	5	5	0	1	2	5	5	0	1	2
Tonga	3	3	0	1	1	3	3	0	1	1
Vanuatu	2	2	0	1	1	3	3	0	3	3
Latin America and the Caribbean										
Regional extremes	2.0	5.0	3.0	-	-	2.0	5.0	3.0	-	-
Regional average	2.4	3.6	1.1	2	2	2.8	4.2	1.4	3	3
Antigua and Barbuda	2	2	0	1	1	2	2	0	1	1
The Bahamas	2	4	2	3	3	4	5	1	2	3
Barbados	2	5	3	3	4	2	5	3	4	5
Belize	2	2	0	1	1	2	2	0	1	1
Dominica	2	5	3	2	3	2	5	3	2	3
Guyana	3	4	1	2	2	3	4	1	2	2
Jamaica	3	4	1	2	2	3	5	2	5	6
St Vincent and the Grenadines	2	2	0	1	1	3	5	2	2	3
Trinidad and Tobago	4	4	0	2	3	4	5	1	4	6
North America and Western Europe										
Regional extremes	2.0	6.0	4.0	-	-	4.0	6.0	2.0	-	-
Regional average	3.5	4.5	1.0	2	4	4.0	4.5	0.5	2	4
Canada	2	6	4	4	7	4	6	2	3	6
Cyprus	4	4	0	1	1	4	4	0	1	2
Malta	4	4	0	2	3	4	4	0	2	3
United Kingdom	4	4	0	2	3	4	4	0	2	3
South and West Asia										
Regional extremes	2.0	4.0	2.0	-	-	1.0	4.0	3.0	-	-
Regional average	2.3	3.3	1.0	2	2	1.7	3.3	1.7	3	3
Bangladesh	3	3	0	1	1	3	3	0	1	1
India	2	4	2	2	2	1	4	3	3	4
The Maldives	2	3	1	3	3	1	3	2	5	5
Sub-Saharan Africa										
Regional extremes	1.0	6.0	5.0	-	-	1.0	6.0	5.0	-	-
Regional average	2.1	3.5	1.4	3	3	2.5	3.7	1.3	3	3
Cameroon	3	3	0	1	1	3	3	0	1	1
The Gambia	1	1	0	1	1	1	2	1	2	2
Kenya	2	2	0	1	1	2	5	3	3	4
Lesotho	2	4	2	2	2	2	4	2	3	3
Mauritius	2	2	0	1	1	3	3	0	1	1
Nigeria	3	5	2	6	7	4	5	1	4	6
Seychelles	1	4	3	2	2	1	2	1	2	2
Sierra Leone	1	6	5	4	3	3	6	3	5	6
South Africa	4	4	0	2	3	4	4	0	2	3
Tanzania	2	4	2	4	3	2	4	2	3	4
Uganda	2	3	1	4	4	2	3	1	3	3
Average across all participating countries	**2.6**	**3.8**	**1.2**	**2**	**3**	**2.9**	**4.1**	**1.2**	**2**	**3**

Thirteen countries offer only one pathway to achieve qualified primary teacher status (see Figure 10). Countries that offer a high number of primary pathways are Nigeria (six), Canada (four), Sierra Leone (four), Tanzania (four), and Uganda (four). The majority are from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Eight countries offer only one pathway to achieve qualified secondary teacher status (see Figure 11). Jamaica (five), the Maldives (five), Sierra Leone (five), Barbados (four), Trinidad and Tobago (four), and Nigeria (four) offer a high number of secondary pathways.

Figure 10: Number of pathways available to achieve qualified primary teacher status

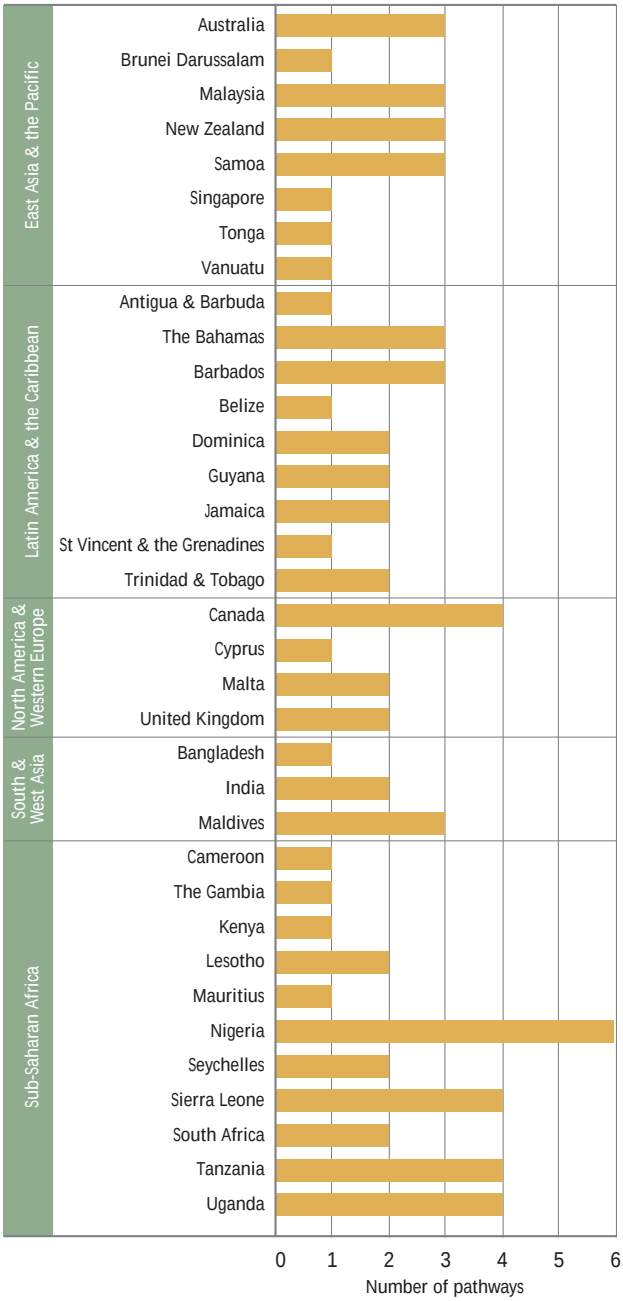
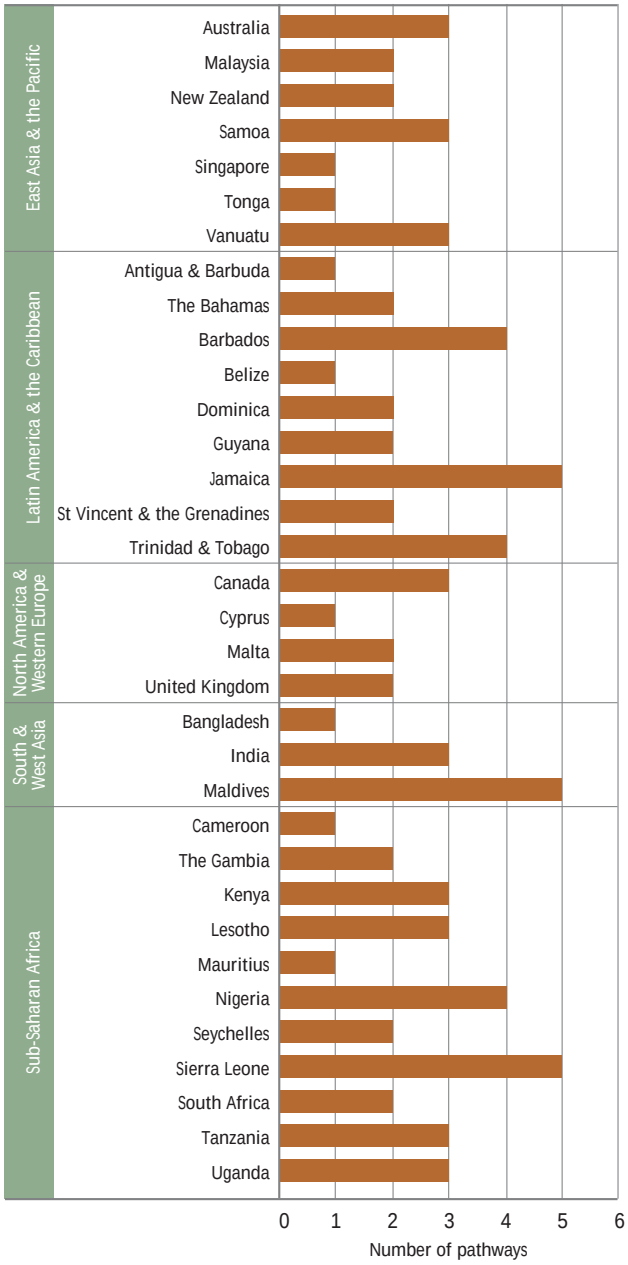


Figure 11: Number of pathways available to achieve qualified secondary teacher status[15]



15 No information on secondary qualifications was available for Brunei Darussalam.

Number of qualifications

Countries that stand out as offering a high number of different qualifications correlate largely with those offering numerous pathways: Canada and Nigeria offer seven different qualifications over their primary pathways (see Figure 12), while the average across all the participating states is only three qualifications.

Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, Canada, Nigeria and Sierra Leone offer six different qualifications over their secondary pathways (see Figure 13). The average number of secondary qualifications across all the participating states is also three.

For both Canada and Nigeria, the variety of pathways and qualifications can be partly ascribed to the federal governance systems and the resulting possibilities for varieties in states and territories that are accommodated in the national submissions. In the case of Australia, national consensus seems to override the need for differences across states and territories.

Figure 12: Number of qualifications available to achieve qualified primary teacher status

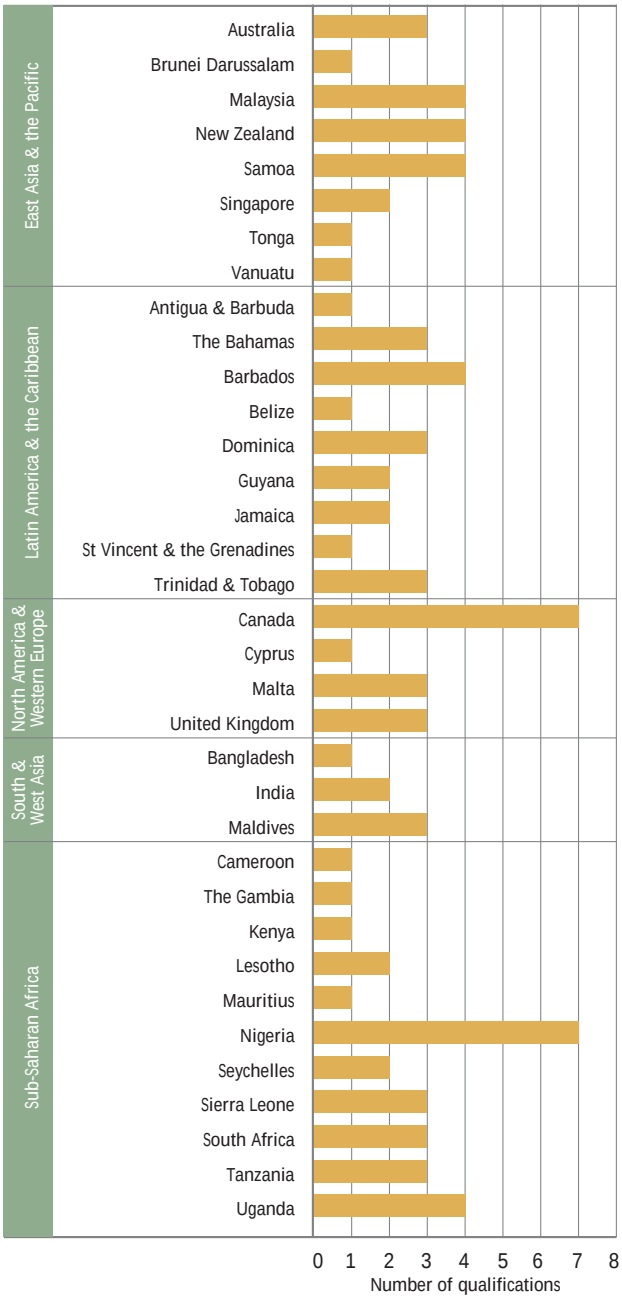
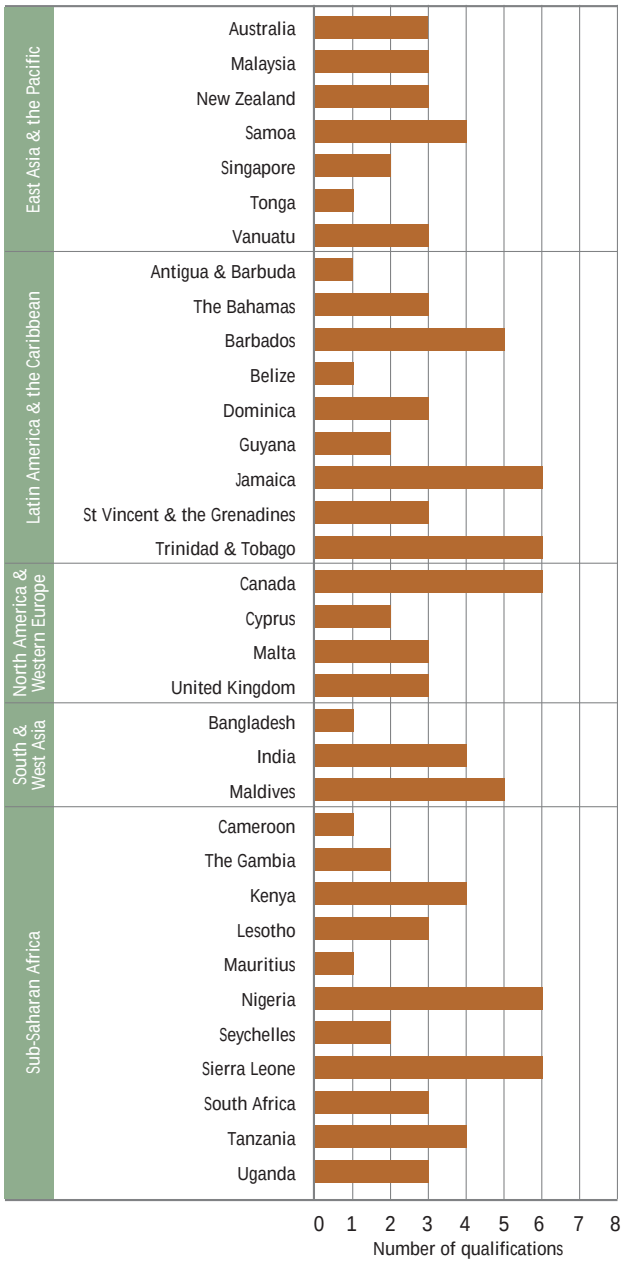


Figure 13: Number of qualifications available to achieve qualified secondary teacher status[16]



16 No information on secondary qualifications was available for Brunei Darussalam.

Duration to qualified status

The average minimum duration to qualified primary teacher status across all the participating countries is 2.6 years (full-time equivalent (FTE) per pathway), while the maximum is 3.8 years (FTE per pathway, without repeats). On average then, and rounding off to completed academic years, primary school teachers can achieve qualified status with between three and four years of full-time training. The North American and Western Europe region require between four and five years, while Latin America and the Caribbean require two to four years, and both South and West Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa require between two and three years.

Countries with the greatest variance between the minimum and maximum durations to qualified primary teacher status are Canada (four years) and Sierra Leone (five years). Seventeen countries have no variance between minimum and maximum durations, as all the pathways are of equal duration (see Figure 14).

The average minimum duration to qualified secondary teacher status across all the participating countries is 2.9 years (FTE per pathway), while the maximum is 4.1 years (FTE per pathway, without repeats). On average, and rounding off to complete academic years, secondary school teachers can also achieve qualified status between three and four years of full-time training. The East Asia and the Pacific region, and North American and Western Europe region, require between four and five years, while Latin America and the Caribbean require three to four years, South and West Asia between two and three years, and Sub-Saharan Africa between two and four years.

The variance between the minimum and maximum duration to qualified secondary teacher status is not as significant as that for primary status. The highest variance of three years occurs in Australia, Barbados, Dominica, India, Kenya, and Sierra Leone. Twelve countries have no variance between minimum and maximum durations as all the pathways are of equal duration (see Figure 15).

Practical component of qualification pathways

The practical component of qualifications was reported as the number of weeks a full-time student is required to teach during their initial training. Table 9 summarises the data by collating the complete practical component per pathway required to achieve fully qualified status.

Figure 14: Minimum and maximum durations to qualified primary teacher status

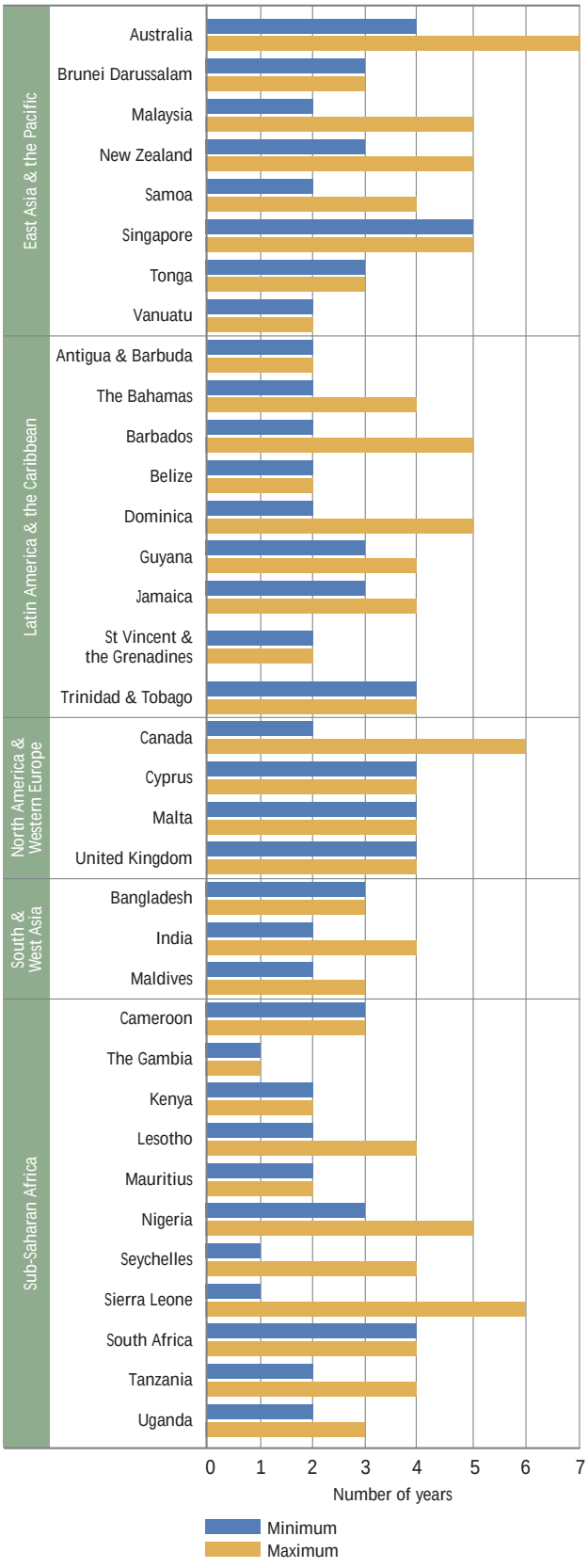


Figure 15: Minimum and maximum durations to qualified secondary teacher status[17]

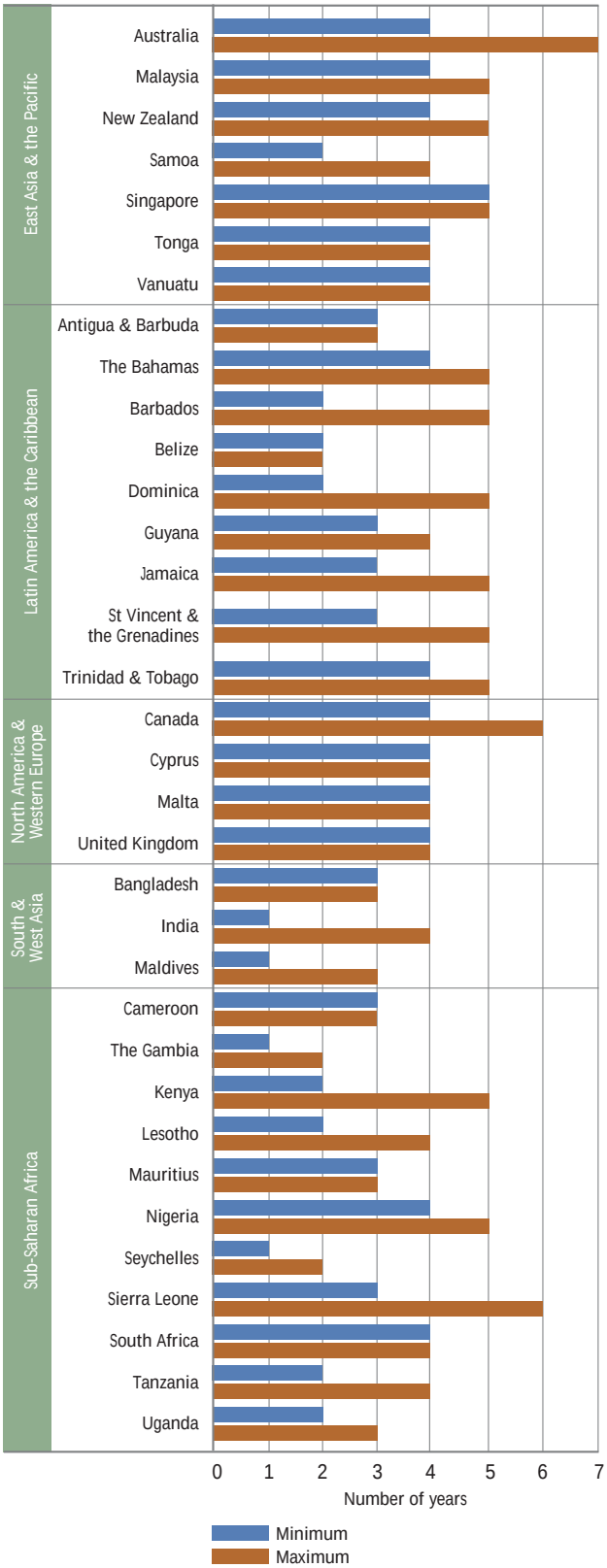


Table 9: Practical component of initial teacher qualifications

Region	Primary			Secondary		
Country or territory	Minimum (weeks)	Maximum (weeks)	Variance (weeks)	Minimum (weeks)	Maximum (weeks)	Variance (weeks)
East Asia and the Pacific						
Regional minimum, maximum and variance	7	30	23	6	30	24
Australia	9	16	7	9	16	7
Brunei Darussalam	12	12	0	-	-	-
Malaysia	-	26	-	-	26	-
New Zealand	14	20	6	14	20	6
Samoa	7	26	19	7	26	19
Singapore	12	12	0	12	12	0
Tonga	30	30	0	30	30	0
Vanuatu	8	8	0	6	12	6
Latin America and the Caribbean						
Regional minimum, maximum and variance	4	52	48	8	52	44
Antigua and Barbuda	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Bahamas	12	52	40	12	52	40
Barbados	-	10	-	-	20	-
Belize	15	15	0	15	15	0
Dominica	12	-	-	12	-	-
Guyana	30	30	0	30	30	0
Jamaica	4	15	11	8	15	7
St Vincent & the Grenadines	8	8	0	8	9	1
Trinidad and Tobago	12	13	1	12	13	1
North America and Western Europe						
Regional minimum, maximum and variance	8	32	24	13	32	19
Canada	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cyprus	8	8	0	13	13	0
Malta	-	12	-	-	12	-
United Kingdom	24	32	8	24	32	8
South and West Asia						
Regional minimum, maximum and variance	8	16	8	8	13	5
Bangladesh	12	12	0	12	12	0
India	16	16	0	-	6	-
The Maldives	8	13	5	8	13	5
Sub-Saharan Africa						
Regional minimum, maximum and variance	0	54	54	0	54	54
Cameroon	-	-	-	-	-	-
The Gambia	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kenya	9	9	0	12	12	0
Lesotho	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	6	45	39	6	51	45
Seychelles	0	27	27	0	14	14
Sierra Leone	4	54	50	13	54	41
South Africa	6	15	9	6	15	9
Tanzania	8	16	8	8	16	8
Uganda	-	-	-	-	-	-
Average across all participating countries	**11.4**	**20.4**	**9.6**	**12.0**	**21.0**	**9.9**

17 No information on secondary qualifications was available for Brunei Darussalam.

Figures 16 and 17 show the differences between the minimum and maximum practical components per country pathway. Of importance are the countries that show significant variance between minimum and maximum values, such as for primary qualifications: The Bahamas (the variance of 40 weeks is calculated as the difference between the minimum 12 weeks and maximum 52 weeks), Sierra Leone (50 weeks), Nigeria (39 weeks), Seychelles (27 weeks) and for secondary qualification: The Bahamas (40 weeks), Nigeria (45 weeks) and Sierra Leone (41 weeks).

The average number of weeks practical per pathway across all the participating countries was:

- Primary: 11.4 to 20.4 weeks
- Secondary: 12.0 to 21.0 weeks

Figure 16: Practical component of pathways to achieve qualified primary teacher status

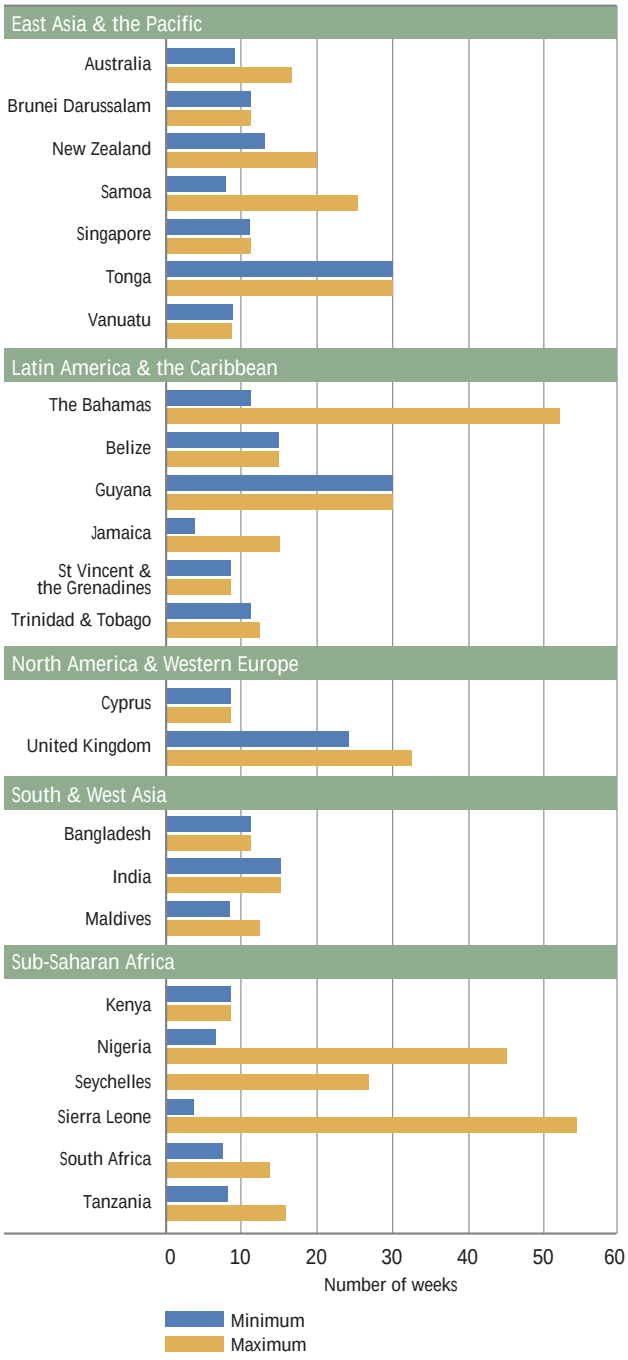
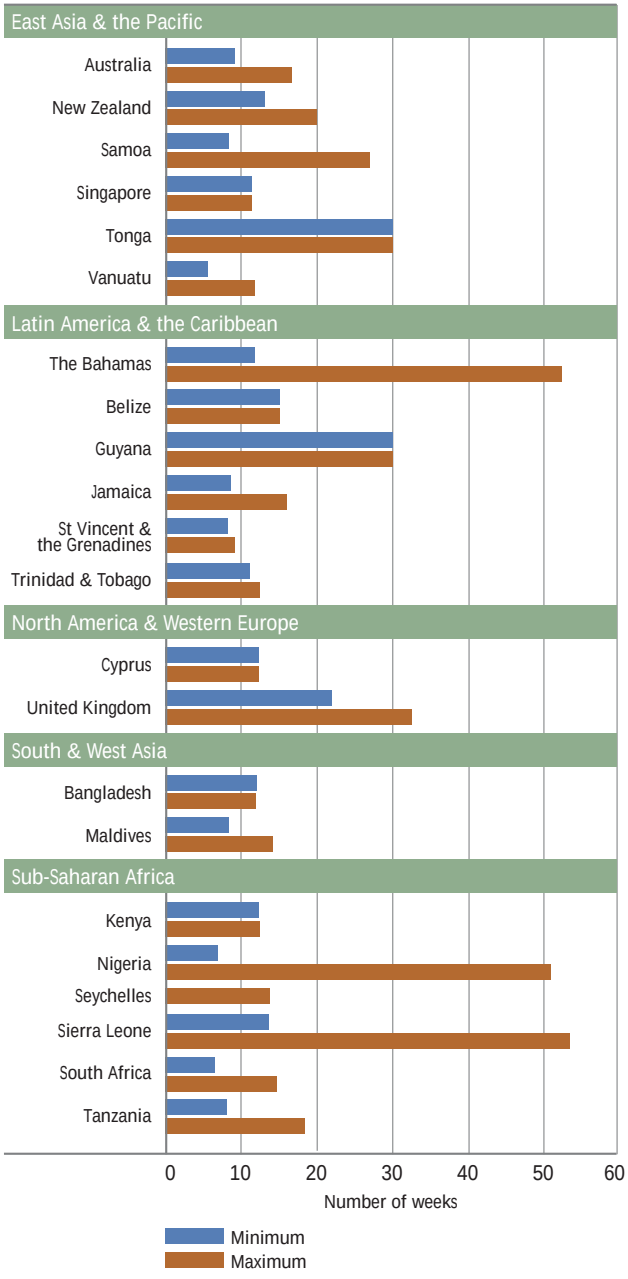


Figure 17: Practical component of pathways to achieve qualified secondary teacher status[18]



18 No information on secondary qualifications was available for Brunei Darussalam.

Qualification types

Further scrutiny of the qualifications on offer in the participating countries, considering the ISCED A distinction (for qualifications that are more theoretically based, and provide access to higher level qualifications), and the ISCED B distinction (for more practical and occupationally specific programmes that do not necessarily provide access to higher level programmes), shows a preference for ISCED 5A (the first stage of tertiary with a more theoretically orientation) across both the primary and secondary routes. For the primary qualifications, 46.0 per cent of the total qualifications on offer are located at ISCED 5A, while 48.6 per cent of the secondary qualifications are located at ISCED 5A.

ISCED 5B (the first stage of tertiary with a more occupational orientation) accommodated the second largest number of qualifications for both primary and secondary routes at respectively 20.7 per cent and 26.2 per cent.

Whilst it is acknowledged that the naming of qualifications varies across countries and regions, and is often strongly influenced by historical trajectories, it remains useful to compare the different qualifications offered across the participating countries on a 'comparability' level. The qualifications across both primary and secondary pathways (duplicates have been excluded) are summarised below. The average duration in years, average practical component in weeks, and ISCED level of the majority of countries, as well as the percentages of countries that include the specific qualification type for fully qualified status are included in brackets. In this analysis, no distinction is made between primary and secondary requirements.

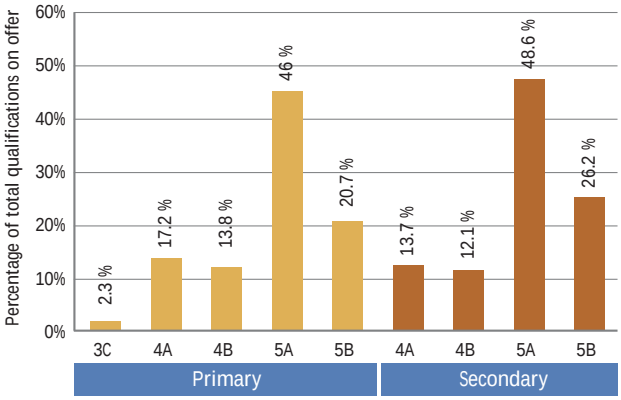
Academic qualifications:

- Bachelor Degree (3.43y; 0.71w; 5A; 60 per cent)

Professional qualifications:

- Diploma in Education (2.07y; 15.2w; 4B; 46 per cent)
- Certificate in Education (2.08y; 11.5w; 4A; 46 per cent)
- Bachelor Degree in Education (3.57y; 15.8w; 5A; 74 per cent)
- Graduate Diploma in Education (1.20y; 10.2w; 5B; 14 per cent)
- Associate Degree in Education (2.13y; 12.5w; 4A; 14 per cent)
- Postgraduate Diploma in Education (1.00y; 9.5w; 5B; 17 per cent)
- Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) (1.00y; 16.5w; 5B; 9 per cent)

Figure 18: Initial teacher qualifications offered across participating member states according to ISCED levels



Bachelor Degree

Twenty-one of the 35 countries (60 per cent) include Bachelor Degrees as a requirement for fully qualified status. The duration of the Bachelor Degree varies between three and four years, with an average of 3.43 years. Two countries, Jamaica and Canada, offer Bachelor Degrees of both three and four years' duration. In most cases, the Bachelor Degree does not include a practical component. Bangladesh is the exception, with 12 weeks practical. All 21 countries locate their Bachelor Degrees at ISCED 5A.

In 19 countries, the Bachelor Degree forms part of a qualifications pathway that also includes a professional qualification (as obtaining only the Bachelor Degree does not necessarily lead to fully qualified status). Examples are listed below (the duration in years, and the practical component of the pathway in weeks are indicated in brackets):

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » Graduate Diploma in Education
Countries: Australia (4, 9); Samoa (4, 7); New Zealand (4, 14).

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » Postgraduate Diploma in Education
Countries: Kenya (5, *); Malaysia (5, *); Nigeria (5, 6); Singapore (5, 12); Tanzania (4, 8); and Trinidad and Tobago (5, 12).

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » Professional Diploma in Education
Countries: Nigeria (5, 6); and Jamaica (5, 8-15).

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » Postgraduate Certificate in Education
Countries: Malta (4, 12); South Africa (4, 6); and United Kingdom (4, 18).

Table 10: Bachelor Degree

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
East Asia and the Pacific			
Australia	3	0	5A
Malaysia	4	0	5A
New Zealand	3	0	5A
Samoa	3	0	5A
Singapore	4	0	5A
Latin America and the Caribbean			
The Bahamas	4	-	5A
Barbados	4	-	5A
Jamaica	3	0	5A
	4	0	5A
Trinidad and Tobago	4	0	5A
North America and Western Europe			
Canada	3	-	5A
	4	-	5A
Cyprus	3	0	5A
Malta	3	0	5A
United Kingdom	3	0	5A
South and West Asia			
Bangladesh	3	12	5A
India	3	0	5A
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Kenya	4	-	5A
Mauritius	3	-	5A
Nigeria	4	0	5A
Sierra Leone	4	0	5A
South Africa	3	0	5A
Tanzania	3	0	5A
Average across all countries/major level	**3.43**	**0.71**	**5A**

Other examples of qualifications required with a Bachelor Degree include a Certificate in Educational Management and Administration (Barbados) (5, *); a Teacher Education Qualification/Bachelor of Education (Canada) (4, *); a Certificate of Completion of Pre-Service Training Programme (Cyprus) (4, 13); a Bachelor of Physical Education (India) (4, *); and a Diploma in Education (Sierra Leone) (5, 26).

In two countries, Bangladesh and Mauritius, the Bachelor Degree on its own can lead to fully qualified status.

Bachelor Degree in Education[19]

Twenty-six of the 35 participating countries (74 per cent) include the Bachelor Degree in Education (B Ed), with some variation in the naming as noted in the footnote below, as requirement for fully qualified status. The duration of the B Ed varies between two years (Jamaica) and five years (Canada), with an average of 3.57 years across the 26 countries. Most B Ed degrees include a practical component, the duration which varies between one week (St. Vincent and the Grenadines) and 52 weeks (The Bahamas), with a relatively high average of 15.8 weeks across the 26 countries. Most countries (25 of the 26) locate their B Ed at ISCED 5A. The Maldives locates its B Ed at ISCED 5B, while Canada and India have B Ed at both ISCED 5A and 5B. In India B Ed degrees are also offered at ISCED 4B.

Six countries offer more than one variation of a B Ed degree: The Bahamas (two), Jamaica (three), Canada (three), India (four), Sierra Leone (two) and Uganda (two). Within these five countries the duration, practical component, and ISECD level of the B Ed degrees vary greatly (see Table 11).

In most countries (23 out of 26, 89 per cent) the B Ed degree on its own is regarded as sufficient to achieve fully qualified status:

Australia (4, 16), The Bahamas (4, 52), Barbados (4, *), Belize (2, 15), Canada (4/5, *), Guyana (4, 30), India (4, 16), Jamaica (4, 4), Kenya (4, 12), Lesotho (4, *), Malaysia (4, 26), Malta (4, *), New Zealand (3, 20), Nigeria (4, 12), St. Vincent and the Grenadines (3, 1), Samoa (4, 26), Sierra Leone (3, 13), South Africa (4, 15), Tanzania (3, 16), Uganda (2, *), United Kingdom (4, 18-32) and Vanuatu (3, 6).

In five countries, the B Ed forms part of a qualifications pathway that also includes other qualifications before fully qualified status can be obtained:

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » B Ed
Countries: Australia (7, 16); Canada (6, *).
Pathway: B Ed » Diploma in Education
Countries: Barbados (5, *).
Pathway: B Ed » Certificate in Education
Countries: Dominica (5, *).
Pathway: Certificate in Teacher Education » B Ed
Countries: St. Vincent and the Grenadines (5, 9).

New Zealand offers a conjoint Bachelor of Arts/Science and Bachelor of Teaching (5, 20).

19 Variations on the naming include: Bachelor of Education (Canada, Guyana, India, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, South Africa, Tanzania, United Kingdom, and Vanuatu). Bachelor of Education with Arts/Science (Kenya); Bachelor of Arts/Science with/in Education (Jamaica, Sierra Leone, Trinidad and Tobago, and Uganda). Bachelor of Teaching (Australia, Maldives, New Zealand). Bachelor in Education Honours (Malta)., Bachelor Degree in Primary/Secondary Education/Teaching (Cyprus).

Table 11: Bachelor Degree in Education

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
East Asia and the Pacific			
Australia	4	16	5A
Malaysia	4	26	5A
New Zealand	3	20	5A
Samoa	4	26	5A
Vanuatu	3	6	5A
Latin America and the Caribbean			
The Bahamas	2.5	12	5A
	4	52	5A
Barbados	4	-	5A
Belize	2	15	5A
Dominica	3	-	5A
Guyana	4	30	5A
Jamaica	4	4	5A
	2	4	5A
	3	6	5A
St Vincent & the Grenadines	3	1	5A
Trinidad and Tobago	4	13	5A
North America and Western Europe			
Canada	2	-	5B
	4	-	5A
	5	-	5A
Cyprus	4	8	5A
Malta	4	-	5A
United Kingdom	4	18	5A
South and West Asia			
India	4	16	5A
	1	-	5B
	1	6	4B
	2	6	4B
The Maldives	3	13	5B
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Kenya	4	12	5A
Lesotho	4	-	5A
Nigeria	4	12	5A
Sierra Leone	3	13	5A
	4	13	5A
South Africa	4	15	5A
Tanzania	3	16	5A
Uganda	2	-	5A
	3	-	5A
Average across all countries/major level	**3.57**	**15.8**	**5A**

Diploma in Education[20]

Sixteen of the 35 participating countries (46 per cent) include the Diploma in Education as requirement for fully qualified status (Table 12). The duration of the Diploma in Education varies between one year (The Bahamas, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, the Maldives and Sierra Leone) to four years (Seychelles). The average duration of the Diploma in Education across the 16 countries is 2.07 years. In most cases the Diploma in Education includes a practical component, varying between six weeks (Vanuatu) and 30 weeks (Tonga), with an average of 15.2 weeks. The Diploma in Education is located across three ISCED levels: 4A (seven), 4B (eight) and 5B (six). Five countries offer two different variations of a Diploma in Education: Vanuatu, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, the Maldives and Seychelles.

Table 12: Diploma in Education

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
East Asia and the Pacific			
Samoa	2	16	4B
Tonga	3	30	4B
Vanuatu	3	12	4A
	3	6	4A
Latin America and the Caribbean			
The Bahamas	1	12	5B
Barbados	2	20	5B
Jamaica	3	15	4A
	1	15	5B
Trinidad and Tobago	3	15	4A
	1	13	5B
North America and Western Europe			
Canada	2	-	4B
South and West Asia			
The Maldives	2	8	4A
	1	8	4A
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Kenya	2	12	4A
Lesotho	2	-	4B
Mauritius	2	-	5B
Seychelles	4	27	4B
	2	14	4B
Sierra Leone	1	13	5B
Tanzania	2	8	4B
Uganda	2	-	4B
Average across all countries/major level	**2.07**	**15.2**	**4B**

20 Variations on the naming include: Teaching Diploma (Canada); Diploma in Primary/Secondary Teaching (Jamaica, Vanuatu); Diploma in Education Primary/Secondary (Lesotho); Diploma of Teaching Primary/Middle School/Secondary (the Maldives); Diploma in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (the Maldives); Primary Teachers Diploma (Mauritius) and Diploma in Primary/Secondary Education (Seychelles, Samoa).

In 12 of the 16 countries (75 per cent) the Diploma in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status: Canada (Nunavut only) (2, *); Jamaica (3, 15); Kenya (2, 12); Lesotho (2, *); the Maldives (2, 8); Mauritius (2, *); Seychelles (4, 27); Samoa (2, 16); Tanzania (2, 8); Tonga (3, 30); Uganda (2, *); and Vanuatu (3, 6-12).

In Jamaica, the Diploma is combined with a Bachelor of Science with Education (6, 21); while in Tanzania, the Diploma in Education is preceded by a Certificate (4, 8).

In five countries, the Diploma in Education is combined with another qualification for fully qualified status:

Pathway: Bachelor of Arts/Science » Diploma in Education

Countries: Barbados (5, *); The Bahamas (5, 12); Sierra Leone (5, 26); Trinidad and Tobago (5, 13); and Jamaica (6, 15).

Graduate Diploma in Education[21]

Five of the 35 participating countries (14 per cent) include the Graduate Diploma in Education as requirement for fully qualified status (Table 13). The duration of the Graduate Diploma in Education ranges between one year (Australia, New Zealand and Samoa), and two years (the Maldives and Nigeria), with the average duration across the five countries 1.2 years. The practical component ranges from six weeks (Nigeria), to 15 weeks (also in Nigeria). The average practical component for the Graduate Diploma in Education for the six countries is 10.2 weeks. The Graduate Diploma in Education is pegged at three different ISCED levels: 4A (1), 5A (1) and 5B (4). Nigeria offers two different Graduate Diplomas in Education.

In four countries the Graduate Diploma in Education is combined with another qualification for fully qualified status:

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » Graduate Diploma in Education

Countries: Australia (4, 9); New Zealand (4, 14); Samoa (4, 7); and Nigeria (5, 6).

In the Maldives, the Graduate Diploma in Education (2, 8) on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status. In Nigeria, a Higher National Diploma is combined with a National Diploma and Professional Diploma in Education (Primary/Secondary) to make up a pathway for fully status.

Table 13: Graduate Diploma in Education

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
East Asia and the Pacific			
Australia	1	9	5B
New Zealand	1	14	5B
Samoa	1	7	5B
South and West Asia			
The Maldives	2	8	4A
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Nigeria	1	6	5B
	2	15	5A
Average across all countries/major level	**1.2**	**10.2**	**5B**

The Latin America and the Caribbean region, and the North America and Western Europe region do not offer the Graduate Diploma in Education.

Postgraduate Diploma in Education

Six of the 35 participating countries (17 per cent) include the Postgraduate Diploma in Education as requirement for fully qualified status (Table 14). The duration of the Postgraduate Diploma in Education is one year for all six countries. The practical component ranges from six weeks (Nigeria) to 12 weeks (Singapore and Trinidad and Tobago). The average practical component for the Postgraduate Diploma in Education for the six countries is 9.5 weeks. The Postgraduate Diploma in Education is pegged at ISCED level 5B for all the countries.

In all six countries, the Postgraduate Diploma in Education is combined with another qualification for fully qualified status:

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » Postgraduate Diploma in Education

Countries: Malaysia (5, *); Singapore (5, 12); Trinidad and Tobago (5, 12); Kenya (5, *), Nigeria (5, 6); and Tanzania (4, 8).

The North America and Western Europe, and South and West Asia regions do not offer a Postgraduate Diploma in Education.

21 Variations on the naming include: Advanced Diploma (the Maldives); Professional Diploma in Education (Nigeria); and Higher National Diploma (Nigeria).

Table 14: Postgraduate Diploma in Education

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
East Asia and the Pacific			
Malaysia	1	-	5B
Singapore	1	12	5B
Latin America and the Caribbean			
Trinidad and Tobago	1	12	5B
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Kenya	1	-	5B
Nigeria	1	6	5B
Tanzania	1	8	5B
Average across all countries/major level	**1**	**9.5**	**5B**

Certificate in Education[22]

Sixteen of the 35 participating countries (46 per cent) include the Certificate in Education as requirement for fully qualified status (see Table 15). The duration of the Certificate in Education ranges from one year (Barbados, The Gambia, Seychelles and Sierra Leone); to three years (Brunei Darussalam, Guyana, Cameroon, Nigeria and Sierra Leone), with the average duration across the 16 countries 2.08 years. The practical component ranges from zero (Barbados and Seychelles) to 30 weeks (Guyana). The average practical component for the Certificate in Education for the 16 countries is 11.5 weeks. The Certificate in Education is pegged at five different ISCED levels: 3C (1), 4A (8), 4B (5), 5A (1), and 5B (2). Sierra Leone offers two different Certificates in Education.

In five countries, the Certificate in Education is combined with another qualification for fully qualified status:

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » Certificate in Education
Countries: Barbados (5, *)

Pathway: Certificate in Education » Bachelor Degree
Countries: Dominica (5, *); St. Vincent and the Grenadines (5, 9)

Pathway: Certificate in Education » Higher Certificate in Education
Countries: Sierra Leone (6, 54)

Table 15: Certificate in Education

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
East Asia and the Pacific			
Brunei Darussalam	3	12	5A
Malaysia	2	-	4A
Vanuatu	2	8	4A
Latin America and the Caribbean			
Barbados	1	0	5B
Dominica	2	-	4A
Guyana	3	30	5B
St Vincent & the Grenadines	2	8	4A
South and West Asia			
India	2	16	4B
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Cameroon	3	-	4A
The Gambia	1	-	4B
Kenya	2	9	4A
Nigeria	3	12	4A
Seychelles	1	0	4B
Sierra Leone	1	4	4B
	3	27	4B
Tanzania	2	8	3C
Uganda	2	-	4A
Average across all countries/major level	**2.08**	**11.5**	**4A**

Pathway: Certificate in Education » Diploma in Education
Countries: Tanzania (4, 16)

In 14 of the 16 countries the Certificate in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status:

Brunei Darussalam (3, 12); Malaysia (2, *); Vanuatu (2, 8); Guyana (3, 30); St. Vincent and the Grenadines (2, 8); India (2, 16); Cameroon (3, *); The Gambia (1, *); Kenya (2, 9); Nigeria (3, 12); Seychelles (1, 0); Sierra Leone (1, 4); Sierra Leone (3, 27); Tanzania (2, 8); and Uganda (2, *). Sierra Leone offers two different Certificates in Education.

The North America and Western Europe region does not offer a Certificate in Education.

22 Variations on the naming include: Certificate in Lower Secondary Science Education (Brunei Darussalam; Certificate in Teaching for Primary Schools (Malaysia); Certificate in Educational Management and Administration (Barbados); Teachers Certificate (Guyana, Cameroon, The Gambia, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, and Uganda); Certificate in Teacher Education (St. Vincent and the Grenadines); and the Certificate in Physical Education (India, and Seychelles).

Associate Degree in Education[23]

The Associate Degree in Education is offered in only five countries (14 per cent overall) within the Latin America and the Caribbean region as requirement for fully qualified status (see Table 16). The duration of the Associate Degree in Education ranges between two years (Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Barbados and Dominica); and two and a half years (Belize), with the average duration 2.13 years. The practical component ranges from 10 weeks (Barbados) to 15 weeks (Belize). The average practical component for the Associate Degree in Education for the five countries is 12.5 weeks. The Associate Degree in Education is pegged at ISCED levels 4A (3), 5A (1) and 5B (1).

In all five countries, the Associate Degree in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient to enable teachers to enter the classroom: Antigua and Barbuda (2, *); The Bahamas (2, 13); Barbados (2, 10); Belize (2.5; 15); and Dominica (2, 12).

The Associate Degree in Education is not offered in any of the other regions.

Table 16: Associate Degree in Education

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
Latin America and the Caribbean			
Antigua and Barbuda	2	-	4A
The Bahamas	2	13	4A
Barbados	2	10	5B
Belize	2.5	15	5A
Dominica	2	12	4A
Average across all countries/major level	**2.13**	**12.5**	**4A**

Postgraduate Certificate in Education

The Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) is offered only in three countries (9 per cent overall) as a requirement for fully qualified status: Malta; United Kingdom; and South Africa (see Table 17). In the case of South Africa, the Postgraduate Diploma in Education will soon replace the PGCE. The duration of the PGCE is one year for all three countries, while the practical component ranges between six weeks (South Africa) to 24 weeks (United Kingdom). The average practical component for the PGCE for the three countries is 16.5 weeks. The PGCE is pegged at ISCED level 5B for all three countries.

In all three countries the PGCE is combined with a Bachelor Degree for fully qualified status:

Pathway: Bachelor Degree » PGCE
Countries: United Kingdom (4, 18); South Africa (4, 6); and Malta (4, 12).

Only the North America and Western Europe and Sub-Saharan Africa regions offer the PGCE.

Table 17: Postgraduate Certificate in Education

Region Country or territory	Duration (years)	Practical component (weeks)	ISCED level
North America and Western Europe			
Malta	1	12	5B
United Kingdom	1	24	5B
Sub-Saharan Africa			
South Africa	1	6	5B
Average across all countries/major level	**1.9**	**16.5**	**5B**

Other qualifications

In a few cases, unique qualifications are included in pathways to fully qualified status. In New Zealand, a five-year Conjoint Degree (5, 20, 5A) is offered, while Canada has a Teacher Education Qualification (1, *, 5B), which is similar to a Postgraduate Diploma in Education. Cyprus offers a Certificate of Completion of Pre-service Training Programme (1, 13, 5B).

Both The Gambia and Lesotho include qualifications in agriculture: The Higher Diploma in Agriculture (The Gambia) (2, *, 4B); and the Diploma in Agricultural Science (Lesotho) (2, *, 4B).

Nigeria and Tanzania include generic academic qualifications: a Diploma (Nigeria) (2, 30, 4A); a Certificate (Tanzania) (2, 0, 3C); while Sierra Leone offers a Higher Teachers Certificate (3, 27, 5B), which is similar to a Certificate in Education.

23 Variations on the naming include: Associate of Arts in Teaching (Belize); Associate of Arts in Primary Education (The Bahamas); and the Associate Degree in Teacher Education (Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica).

Overview of Professional Requirements

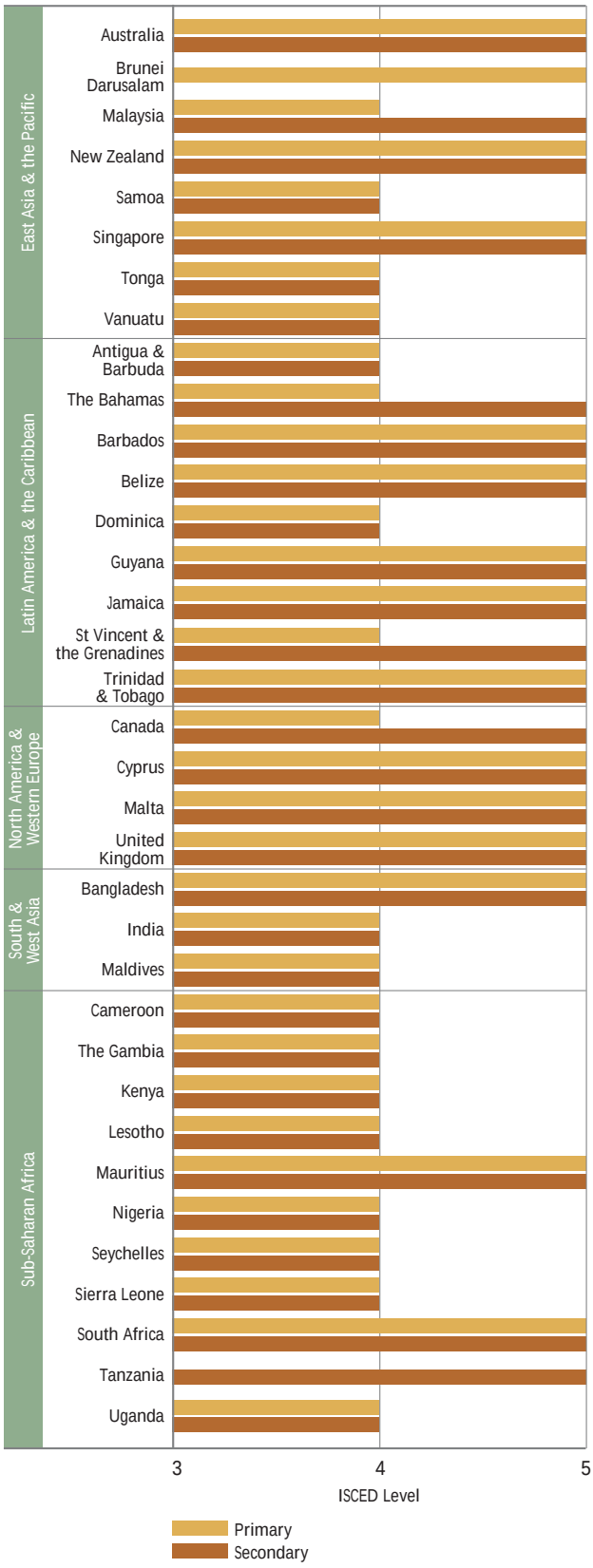
Professional teacher requirements are closely interrelated with achieving fully qualified status through the completion of minimum initial teacher qualifications in many countries. In such countries, qualifications constitute one aspect of a basket of requirements to achieve fully qualified status, which may also include continuing professional development (CPD), adherence to a code of conduct, criminal record screening and registration or licensing requirements.

Earlier in this section, the minimum qualifications required for fully qualified status were discussed. It was noted that, for primary school teacher qualifications, the trend across the 35 participating Commonwealth countries is towards ISCED 4 qualifications (20 countries) and ISECD 5 qualifications (15 countries). The trend for secondary school teacher qualifications is the opposite, with ISCED 5 more prevalent (19 countries), and the remaining countries at ISCED 4 (15 countries). Drawing from Table 7, Figure 19 presents an overview of the minimum qualifications levels across the 35 countries.

Figure 20 presents an overview of the professional requirements, over and above minimum qualifications, required for qualified teacher states in the 35 participating countries. The figure starkly illustrates the limited extent to which teaching is treated as a profession, with only eight countries (23 per cent) enforcing comprehensive professional requirements[24]. These are Australia, New Zealand, Belize, Canada, Cyprus, United Kingdom, The Gambia and Kenya. Sixteen countries (46 per cent) did not indicate any professional requirements (other than minimum qualifications) namely Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Singapore, Tonga, Barbados, Dominica, Guyana, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Bangladesh, India, Cameroon, Lesotho, Mauritius, Seychelles, Sierra Leone and Uganda. The remaining 11 countries (31 per cent) have some elements of professional requirements (see Table 18).

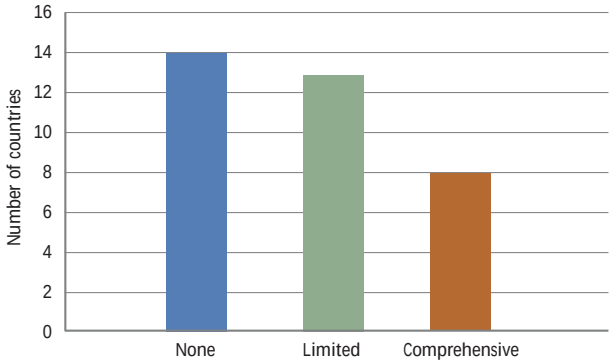
Six countries (17 per cent), namely Australia, New Zealand, The Bahamas, Belize, Cyprus and Kenya), offer formal CPD, while a number of others have indicated that non-formal CPD is offered on an ad-hoc basis. Some countries, such as South Africa, have indicated that a formal CPD system is under development.

Figure 19: Minimum ISCED levels of initial teacher qualifications offered across participating member states



24 Countries classified as having comprehensive professional requirements reported enforcement of at least three out of a possible five requirements in addition to minimum qualifications: formal CPD, code of conduct, criminal record screening, registration/licensing requirements, and induction/orientation programmes offered.

Figure 20: Extent to which professional requirements are enforced across participating member states



Fifteen countries (43 per cent) require teachers to adhere to a code of conduct. In many cases, the code of conduct is not particular to teaching, but rather enforced as a public service requirement.

Only nine countries (26 per cent) include formal criminal record screening before teachers are appointed. While additional (often informal) screening during recruitment may be expected, this is not taken into account.

Thirteen of the 35 countries (37 per cent) indicated that registration and licensing requirements for teachers are in place. In numerous instances, the need for some form of professional body or council to enforce and manage the licensing process was noted.

Only four countries (11 per cent), namely Australia, Antigua and Barbuda, Belize, and United Kingdom offer induction programmes for new teachers (including foreign teachers).

Teaching experience is also a prerequisite for fully qualified status in New Zealand (two years) and Bangladesh (three years).

Australia, United Kingdom and Mauritius offer specific programmes for foreign teachers to obtain qualified status.

Table 18: Professional requirements for recognised teacher status

Region / Country or territory	Formal CPD	Code of conduct	Criminal record screening	Registration/ licensing requirements	Induction/ orientation programmes offered
East Asia and the Pacific					
Australia	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Brunei Darussalam	-	-	-	-	-
Malaysia	-	-	-	-	-
New Zealand	Y	Y	Y	Y	-
Samoa	-	Y	Y	-	-
Singapore	-	-	-	-	-
Tonga	-	-	-	-	-
Vanuatu	-	Y	-	-	-
Latin America and the Caribbean					
Antigua & Barbuda	-	-	-	-	Y
The Bahamas	Y	Y	-	-	-
Barbados	-	-	-	-	-
Belize	Y	Y	-	Y	Y
Dominica	-	-	-	-	-
Guyana	-	-	-	-	-
Jamaica	-	Y	-	-	-
St Vincent & the Grenadines	-	-	-	-	-
Trinidad and Tobago	-	-	-	Y	-
North America and Western Europe					
Canada	-	Y	Y	Y	-
Cyprus	Y	Y	Y	Y	-
Malta	-	Y	-	Y	-
United Kingdom	-	Y	Y	Y	Y
South and West Asia					
Bangladesh	-	-	-	-	-
India	-	-	-	-	-
The Maldives	-	-	-	Y	-
Sub-Saharan Africa					
Cameroon	-	-	-	-	-
The Gambia	-	Y	Y	Y	-
Kenya	Y	Y	-	Y	-
Lesotho	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	-	-	-	-	-
Nigeria	-	-	Y	Y	-
Seychelles	-	-	-	-	-
Sierra Leone	-	-	-	-	-
South Africa	-	Y	-	Y	-
Tanzania	-	Y	Y	-	-
Uganda	-	-	-	-	-
Total number of countries	**6**	**15**	**9**	**13**	**4**

Summary

This section has provided an overview of the data on teacher qualifications obtained from 35 Commonwealth member states between September 2008 and February 2009. Specific data on each of the countries are summarised in the Annex as a comparability table to be used as a separate document in cases where analysis across the countries and regions are not necessary.

A number of observations based on the data provided are given.

Contextual data

The populations of the 35 participating member countries vary considerably, even with the specific regions. Ranging between 80,000 for Seychelles and 1,065 million for India, with an average of 47.22 million across the 35 countries, this single factor contributes to a huge diversity in the needs for teachers, the different teacher qualifications offered and the approaches to teacher professional status. As an example, and using the same two countries, Seychelles has only 670 primary teachers and 548 secondary teachers, where India has 3,387,900 and 2,586,200 teachers for primary and secondary schools respectively.

For these reasons, and others, it cannot simply be assumed that the 'lowest common denominator' is applicable to all countries, specifically when the different types of qualifications are considered. The unique context of each country located within its specific historical trajectory will, over the years, have contributed to specific interventions and approaches to qualification design and professional regulation of the teaching profession. This critical factor needs to be borne in mind as comparisons are drawn across the participating countries. The signal to policy-makers is that, while convergence in a number of areas (see below) is taking place, such convergence should not be blindly followed without giving due consideration to a host of local contextual factors.

Education expenditure as a percentage of the GDP across the 35 countries clearly highlights the different priorities at different periods within the countries. The specific dataset from mainly the 2002/3 fiscal year shows that education expenditure ranged between 2.4 per cent in Bangladesh to as high as 17.7 per cent in The Bahamas. Importantly, the least populous region, Latin America and the Caribbean, when compared with the other regions, also invested the most in education. This factor has undoubtedly contributed to the quality and therefore also the mobility of the teachers in the Latin America and Caribbean region. Countries that have very low education expenditure include Bangladesh, Uganda and The Gambia.

The average learner enrolment (as a percentage of the relevant age group) is 91.8 per cent for primary, 70.2 per cent for secondary, and 22.4 per cent for tertiary. As expected, the global emphasis placed on primary enrolment through Education for All and other initiatives, is reflected in the data. Of concern, however, are the lower than average secondary and tertiary enrolment figures for South and West Asia (47.5 per cent and 9.0 per cent), and for Sub-Saharan Africa (49.9 per cent and 8.9 per cent). The Latin America and Caribbean region also has very low tertiary learner enrolment (14.4 per cent).

Data on un- and under-qualified teachers were very limited, but as this was not the main focus of the current research, it was not further pursued. The lack of available data on qualified teachers does, however, signal a weakness in many national systems, which is further compounded if it is considered that qualifications constitute only one component of fully qualified status. In this regard, the role of professional bodies and councils can be of great value in assisting education ministries.

The available number of foreign teachers (i.e. teachers employed in countries other than their own) across the 35 participating countries totalled only 1,776. This number is clearly not a realistic indication of the situation, and highlights a number of concerns and questions: are ministries reluctant to provide information on foreign teachers and, if so, is it a case that the data are not available, or could it be that the data being viewed are too sensitive to make public? Considering the wide-ranging support for the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol (Commonwealth Secretariat 2004), and the aspirations contained therein, this trend is of great concern.

Qualifications

Using the ISCED levels developed by UNESCO and the OECD (UNESCO 2006b) as a frame of reference for the initial primary and secondary teacher qualifications offered across the 35 participating countries, the following observations are made:

Table 19: Main qualifications offered across participating countries

Qualification type	Qualification	Average duration (years FTE)	Average practical Component (weeks)	ISCED level in the majority of countries	Number of countries that offer the qualification
Academic	Bachelor Degree	3.43	0.71	5A	21 (60%)
Professional	Bachelor Degree in Education	3.57	15.8	5A	26 (74%)
	Diploma in Education	2.07	15.2	4B	16 (46%)
	Graduate Diploma in Education	1.20	10.2	5B	5 (14%)
	Postgraduate Diploma in Education	1.00	9.5	5B	6 (17%)
	Certificate in Education	2.08	11.5	4A	16 (46%)
	Associate Degree in Education	2.13	12.5	4A	5 (14%)
	Postgraduate Certificate in Education	1.9	16.5	5B	3 (9 %)

The majority of initial primary teacher qualifications are pegged at ISCED 4 (post-secondary non-tertiary, 57 per cent), while for initial secondary teacher qualifications the preference is for ISCED 5 (first stage of tertiary, 54 per cent). For both primary and secondary qualification, the preference for a particular ISECD level is not substantial, yet significant enough to take note of and to track it in the future. Sub-Saharan Africa shows a strong preference for ISCED 4 (or lower) for initial primary teacher qualifications (9 out of eleven countries) and, in contradiction to the overall trend, also a preference for ISCED 4 for initial secondary teacher qualifications (8 out of eleven countries).

Considering that, in many cases, more than one qualification is required to achieve fully qualified status, and also that various parallel options exist, qualifications pathways offered across the 35 countries were analysed. It was found that, in general, and for both initial primary and secondary teacher qualifications, two pathways and three qualifications are available. In this case, Sub-Saharan Africa countries offer three pathways for both primary and secondary teachers. Thirteen of the 35 countries (37 per cent) offer only a single pathway to achieve qualified primary teacher status, while eight of 35 countries (23 per cent) offer only a single pathway to achieve qualified secondary teacher status. Nigeria (six) and Canada (four) stand out as offering a high of number of primary pathways, while Jamaica (five), the Maldives (five) and Sierra Leone (five) offer a high number of secondary pathways.

The average duration to fully qualified status across the 35 countries ranges from 2.6 to 3.8 years for primary teachers and between 2.9 and 4.1 years for secondary teachers. Although secondary teachers are required to study slightly longer than primary teachers, the difference is not significant.

The average number of weeks set aside for practical/ workplace training for qualifications across the 35 countries ranges from 11.4 to 20.4 weeks (primary), and 12.0 to 21.0 weeks (secondary). Here again the difference between primary and secondary requirements is minimal. Of more importance is the strong support for qualifications to contain substantial practical components. In this regard, countries such as The Bahamas (52 weeks), Nigeria (45 weeks), United Kingdom (up to 32 weeks), and Sierra Leone (54 weeks) have exceptionally high maximum requirements for some of their primary pathways. Jamaica (four weeks), Seychelles (none) and South Africa (six weeks) show very low minimum requirements for primary pathways. For secondary pathways, the trend is very similar, with the exception of India that has very low practical components for its secondary pathways.

A preference for ISCED 4A and 5A qualifications (which are more theoretically based and that give access to higher level programmes) is evident across the 35 countries for both primary and secondary initial teacher qualifications. This preference is over ISCED 4B and 5B (which have more occupational focus and which do not necessarily give access to higher level programmes).

With due consideration for the fact that naming qualifications is influenced by a wide range of factors across the Commonwealth, eight main qualifications offered were identified:

In 19 of the 21 countries (91 per cent) that offer the Bachelor Degree, an additional professional qualification such as a Postgraduate Diploma in Education (6 countries) or a Graduate Diploma in Education (3 countries) forms part of the qualifications pathway. Only two countries (Bangladesh and Mauritius) regard a Bachelor Degree on its own as sufficient training.

The Diploma in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status in 12 of the 16 countries in which it is offered (75 per cent). Likewise, the Certificate in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status in 14 of the 16 countries in which it is offered (88 per cent).

The Bachelor Degree in Education is the qualification offered in most of the participating countries (26 out of 35, 74 per cent), although with some variations in the naming. In 23 of the 26 countries, the Bachelor Degree in Education on its own is regarded as sufficient for fully qualified status (89 per cent). In five countries, the Bachelor Degree in Education forms part of a qualifications pathway that includes other qualifications.

The Graduate Diploma in Education, the Associate Degree in Education, the Postgraduate Diploma in Education, and the Postgraduate Certificate in Education are offered in only a few of the participating countries.

Professional requirements

Only eight (23 per cent) of the 35 participating countries enforce comprehensive professional requirements (minimum qualifications plus at least three out of a possible five requirements: formal CPD, code of conduct, criminal record screening, registration/ licensing requirements, and induction/orientation programmes offered). Eleven countries (31 per cent) have limited professional requirements, while 16 countries (46 per cent) require only minimum qualifications for fully qualified status.

Section 4 Concluding Comments

Introduction

This final section of the report offers a few brief reflections on the research process in an attempt to contribute to the ongoing development of new technologies that can be used to increase the transparency of qualifications beyond those that were possible within the limitations of this study.

The Research Design

The conceptual clarity required to develop the comparability table formed a critical component of the overall research design. Breaking new ground required a research design in which data collection could take place within a semi-completed framework, a framework that could only be fully completed after the data had been collected. This iterative process proved beneficial, but also resulted in the need to engage in extensive conversations with the respondents to verify data within the evolving framework, and where this was lacking, additional information had to be sourced.

The use of the online survey was largely successful, although in some cases respondents had difficulty accessing the website and resorted to manual responses. Overall, the quality of the data relied heavily on the official responses from senior officials, who, in a few isolated cases, provided contradictory information. It is hoped that, based on the initial progress made available through the comparability table, such discussions within countries will be broadened beyond ministries to include other role players such as professional bodies and academics.

Re-thinking Comparability

At the outset of this research the limitations of using existing technologies, including the piloted comparability table, to improve the transparency of qualifications, was acknowledged. The point was made that, while it is critical to understand and point out the limitations, the quest to contribute to new thinking and new technologies should not be abandoned. This thinking forms an important thread that runs throughout the research.

The subsequent development of the conceptual framework wherein the research is located brought a number of important developments to the fore. One of these was that a credible theory of action required the language of comparability to be refined. As a result, the conceptual clarity achieved by differentiating between transparency (as an overall process that can be achieved at varying levels), comparability (limited transparency), and equivalency (deeper transparency) constituted an important foundation for the study. In turn, this clarity contributed to the design of a fit-for-purpose format or framework in the guise of a comparability table made up of ISCED levels, contextual and professional factors, and specific criteria (such as the duration and practical components of qualifications). The comparability table was put forward as the best available technology to contribute to the transparency of teacher qualifications, albeit in a modest manner.

The comparability table was populated with data on initial teacher qualifications from 35 Commonwealth countries. The subsequent analysis of the data proved valuable to improving the transparency of teacher qualifications across the Commonwealth, but only at the level of comparability. It should not be expected that much would be achieved in terms of equivalency with an instrument designed for comparability. The point is that the application of the instrument (the comparability table) has promoted a move in the right direction, that is, towards improved transparency. As pointed out earlier, the extent of this move is limited by the available technologies, but it has opened up new opportunities and thinking that, in the long run, can be further developed.

The Research Findings

In terms of the actual research findings following the development of the comparability table, the following observations can be made:

It is apparent that initial teacher qualifications offered in the 35 participating Commonwealth countries vary greatly on a number of levels, including the duration, levels and emphasis on practical components. This was to be expected, considering the range of different contexts in the countries. However, it was evident that (largely due to the Commonwealth legacy), there are a number of commonalities, as well.

The majority of qualifications are pegged at ISCED levels 4 and 5, while most countries offer at least two pathways to full qualified status, and include three different qualifications across these pathways.

The duration to fully qualified status ranges between 2.6 to 3.8 years for primary teachers, and 2.9 to 4.1 years for secondary teachers. The practical components included in the qualifications pathways range from 11.4 to 20.4 weeks for primary teachers, and 12.0 to 21.0 weeks for secondary teachers.

In addition, eight main qualifications are offered across the Commonwealth (ranging from academic Bachelor Degrees to professional Postgraduate Certificates in Education). The Bachelor Degree in Education is by far the preferred qualification for both primary and secondary teachers, and is offered by 26 out of the 35 countries (74 per cent).

In terms of professional requirements, the research highlights a critical weakness across most Commonwealth countries (with the exception of only eight countries). This weakness lies largely outside the scope of this research and was therefore not pursued any further. Suffice it to say that much needs to be done in terms of capacity building, prioritisation, and targeted research (see below).

In terms of country-specific findings, the report steered away from focusing on specific countries, and concentrated on cross-cutting issues where possible, considering that the comparability table has a country-specific focus and that additional analysis will be possible by using this resource. Countries interested in country-specific findings are encouraged to contact the researchers through the Commonwealth Secretariat using the contact details provided.

Suggestions for Further Research

Limited technologies are available to improve the transparency of qualifications. At the most extreme points these technologies range from traditional time-based approaches (viewed by some as outdated and misleading), to the more recent preference for outcomes-led approaches (viewed by others as inadequate proxies for educational quality). The comparability table developed in this initiative, while firmly located within the context of outcomes-led qualifications framework developments, relied in part on the time-based ISCED instrument for the specific purpose of comparability. In the process, it was signalled that the choice for a predominantly time-based model would be inadequate to achieve the deeper levels of transparency required to determine the equivalency of qualifications but would, at least in a modest way, contribute to the recognition of teacher qualifications on the level of comparability. We hope that the findings of this research, and the further consideration of pedagogy, institutions, curriculum, assessment, as well as the outcomes, will contribute to the broader international debate on the recognition and transparency of qualifications - more so as the national, regional and transnational qualifications frameworks in Europe, Southern Africa and elsewhere gain ascendancy.

In particular, the potential benefits of outcomes-led developments to increased transparency require more in-depth scrutiny. Emerging research on the design of overly behaviourist outcome statements in favour of a more constructivist approach located within specific communities of practice (see Moll 2009), is opening a new space wherein the current limitations of outcome statements can be addressed. While this thinking is still new and will require further development to be translated in the practice of qualifications design, it does offer new avenues, also in terms of the comparability of qualifications.

Case studies that focus on quality assurance within specific sectors and countries will also be of great value, and while these were not possible within the limitations of the research project, they were seriously considered. This key ingredient in building trust across borders requires more investigation. In this regard, the recent quality assurance benchmarking study in SADC (SADC 2007) can provide a useful point of reference.

This research is located in the broader context of teacher migration and cross-border provisioning. The challenge of developing the conceptual framework for the comparability table and gathering data from 35 countries placed limitations on the extent to which the broader applicability of the research could be located within the current thinking on migration and cross-border provisioning. However, this is a critical area that should be developed in future.

Similarly, the location of the comparability table within the arena of professional teacher requirements, and the extent to which professional requirements contribute to transparency of qualifications, can be further developed. Sharing the findings through conferences and publications by all involved will be an important route through which greater awareness can be created and further research encouraged.

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Meeting of the Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Registration, 8 April 2009

The Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition met at Stoke Rochford Hall, Lincolnshire, United Kingdom on 8 April 2009. The purpose of the meeting was to review the Report of the Commonwealth Teacher Qualifications Comparability Study with the view of making recommendations, revisions and proposals in preparation for the 17th Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers (17CCEM) scheduled to take place in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, from 15-19 June 2009.

Members of the Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition in attendance were Mr Duncan Hindle (Chairperson), Ms Wendy Hastings (Australia), Dr Marcia Stewart (Jamaica), and Mr Alan Meyrick (United Kingdom).

Members of the Working Group on the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol in attendance were Dr Idamay Denny (Barbados), Dr Winsome Gordon (Jamaica), Mr Paramente Phamotse (Lesotho), Mr Sunjaye Bhowon (Mauritius), Dr Whitfield Green (South Africa) and Ms Florence Mfula (Zambia).

Observers and special guests in attendance were Ms Shannon Lederer (American Federation of Teachers), Mr Dave Edwards (National Education Association of the United States), Ms Akemi Yonemura (UNESCO), Mr Dennis Sinyolo (Education International), Mr Richard Bourne (Commonwealth Policy Studies Unit), Dr Naima Abbadi (ADEA), Ms Simone de Comarmond (Seychelles), Dr Kabiru Isyaka (Nigeria), Ms Samidha Garg (Commonwealth Teachers Group), Mr Gabriel Lengoiboni (Kenya), Dr Kimberley Ochs (Jackson and Associates), Ms Salome Gichura (Kenya High Commission), and Ms Mary Njogu (Kenya).

The research report was presented by Dr James Keevy (SAQA). Dr Steve Nwokeocha (Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria) presented the experience of Nigeria as a participant in the study.

The Commonwealth Secretariat was represented by Dr Caroline Pontefract and Dr Roli Degazon-Johnson.

Based on the review of the Report of the Commonwealth Teacher Qualification Comparability Study, it was agreed that editorial changes be made to the draft report. It was also agreed that members of the Steering Committee be allowed to provide supplementary information to the researchers, and that the comments from the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria be included in the final report.

The Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition recommended that the Teacher Qualifications Comparability Table is presented to Ministers at 17CCEM.

Based on its review of the Teacher Qualifications Comparability Table, the Steering Committee further recommended that:

- The comparability table is used as a living document that can be updated and reviewed on a regular basis, possibly at every CCEM, in order to make longitudinal and updated data on teacher qualifications available on a continuous basis to member states.
- The development of professional competency standards for Commonwealth teachers be seriously considered.
- The blurring of the traditional divide between pre-service and in-service education and training, as well as non-traditional pathways to qualified status be considered for further research.
- Teaching councils in the Commonwealth should be actively encouraged to collaborate wherever possible to ensure that teachers' professional status is promoted and further developed across the Commonwealth.

Peer Review Comments from a Participating Country: Nigeria

The following is a summary of the key points made by Dr Steve Nwokeocha from the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria during the meeting of the Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition that met at Stoke Rochford Hall, Lincolnshire, United Kingdom on 8 April 2009.

- The basic finding of the research is that there is a lack of uniform standards in terms of most of the research variables such as:
  - Levels of initial teacher training
  - Pathways and number of qualifications
  - Duration of practical components of teacher training
  - Entry requirements (in terms of the ISCED levels) into teacher education, and the like
- This diversity, though necessary owing to the various political, economic and socio-cultural contexts of the countries, requires moderation.
- The role of qualifications agencies and teaching councils in the various countries may be stressed - countries without such councils may definitely lag behind in implementing best practices.
- The technology used in the study was sound and the best available instrument at that moment for the measurement of the subject matter.
- It is commendable that SAQA took great pains to reach countries over and over again to ensure that no country was left out. Without such resolute commitment to the study, countries like Nigeria could not have been part of the study.
- The 'loaded' and very technical questionnaire required significant time to read and can be improved.
- The methodology further relied primarily on online/internet facilities/skills coupled with postal services – ICT penetration in most developing countries is still limited while postal service has problems, like delayed delivery of mails and poor feedback mechanisms.
- The methodology was complicated by communication gaps/bureaucratic encumbrances, as well as changes in desk officers within some countries.

Suggestions

- Visit by at least one member of the research team to each member country and a combination of the use of questionnaires, interviews and technical meetings held directly between the member of the research team and representatives of each responding country.
- Development/empowerment of teaching regulatory councils and qualifications authorities across the Commonwealth.
- All letters relating to the CTRP addressed to the Ministers of Education should be copied to the agency or agencies in each country identified to have statutory focus on the teaching profession for follow-up.
- Stronger ties between teaching councils in the various countries are increasing the opportunity the councils have to obtain relatively valid data about teacher migration.
- The fact that the study was limited to initial teacher qualifications is a major constraint.

Supplementary Information

The following is a summary of supplementary information made available during and shortly after the meeting of the Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition that met at Stoke Rochford Hall, Lincolnshire, United Kingdom on 8 April 2009. This supplementary information is to be considered as the comparability table is refined.

Nigeria (submitted by Dr Steve Nwokeocha, Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria)

- Nigeria's ISCED levels of minimum initial teacher qualifications for both primary and secondary levels (p. 56) should be 5 and not 4.
- Nigeria offers relatively more pathways and qualifications than some other countries but not up to 6/7.
- Candidates on the PDE or PGDE spend 6 – 12 weeks (not up to 15 weeks) on teaching practice during their training; and candidates on NCE and B Ed. spend 12 weeks. There is no practicum with 51 weeks. However, a new curriculum of B Ed expected to commence in the nearest future is a five-year (raised from four-year) programme to the effect that a total of one full year must be spent on teaching practice during the study.
- The statement that HND is combined with National Diploma and PDE to make up a pathway for qualified teacher status should be modified.
- The PGDE and PDE each belong to both ISCED 5A and 5B because they are intended for both the professional labour market as well as for academic advancement.

Jamaica (submitted by Dr Marcia Stewart, member of the Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition)

- Changes proposed for initial secondary teacher qualifications:
  - Delete bullet 3 and insert: "Bachelor of Science with Education is a special programme to address the shortage of trained Science and Mathematics teachers for secondary level".
  - Bachelor of Science/Arts (3 or 4 years) » Professional Teaching Diploma (4 or 5, 8 -15)
  - Bachelor of Science with Education (3, 6)
  - 4.5: Delete
  - On the figure: remove the 2-year Bachelor in Education; the 4-year qualification is a Bachelor in Education.

Australia (submitted by Ms Wendy Hastings, member of the Steering Committee on Teacher Qualifications and Professional Recognition)

- The "Bachelor Degree » Bachelor of Education" pathway (as noted on pages 65, 66 of the report and the Australian page in the comparability table) is not seven years as the pathway can be completed in five years owing to advanced standing.

International teacher migration poses a wide range of challenges to the recognition and transferability of teacher qualifications across borders. Of primary concern is ensuring that highly trained teachers are able to move freely between countries without their professional qualifications and skills being discounted.

This study aims to enhance recognition of teacher qualifications across borders and between the member countries of the Commonwealth. The comparability table developed for the study enables clear analysis of primary and secondary teacher qualifications offered in 35 Commonwealth countries, in an accessible and easy-to-read format. Country-by-country comparability tables are included as an annex to the study, and are also available separately.

The study was prepared for the Commonwealth Secretariat by the South African Qualifications Authority.

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