Visible Teaching?
Perspectives on Teaching and Teaching Competence

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Professional development in teaching based on science and proven experience, calls for a professional teaching language. Teaching is connected to learning, as the aim of teaching is learning and personal development. While teaching is seen as complex and difficult to describe, teachers’ knowledge is often regarded as personal or tacit and difficult to formulate. Didactic models and general teaching concepts interacting in teaching can be seen as essential for reflection on teaching. This article takes the teacher’s point of view, where the relationship of student, content, teacher, and intention are essential. Despite the complexity of teaching in relation to different subjects, content, students, and context, it is argued that it is possible to describe general teacher competencies, regardless of content, students and education level. Despite the importance of good teaching, teaching is often taken for granted and performed in an unreflective way. Explicit didactic models and analysis of teacher work will help teachers and teacher educators to describe, reflect on, and analyze the complexity of teaching as well as identify opportunities and constraints they encounter. Didactic models and general concepts in teaching can be seen as essential for developing the teaching profession in schools and teacher education.

The purpose of this article is to analyze and discuss teachers’ knowledge and competencies from a teacher educators’ view of. For an explicit understanding of teaching at a general level, models are presented, for analysis of dimensions of teaching in educational context. In Visible Learning, Hattie (2009) summarizes factors that have high, moderate, or negligible effects on educational attainment. Hattie describes six characteristics of successful learning: teacher leadership, caring and emotional involvement in student learning, awareness of intentions, teaching goals and objectives for learning, repertoire of methods in general, and methods to make learning visible to students. Teacher beliefs and commitments are, according to Hattie (2012), the most important factors for student achievement. Hattie emphasizes the significance of both teachers’ abilities, which are often understood as private matters, and teaching and learning processes, which must be made visible. Carlgren (2012) extends Hattie’s point of view to include the profession and the knowledge of teachers as well, and
emphasizes the importance of collective knowledge and tools in teacher practice. To make teaching more visible, the concept of teaching, teachers’ knowledge and competencies will be discussed.

What is teaching?
Hattie (2009) and Carlgren (2012) argue for making teaching more visible, and possible to analyze and grasp from a professional perspective. But what is teaching? In practice, teaching is often taken for granted as expected classroom activities of different qualities performed by teachers, closely connected to the content or school-subjects. English teachers, math teachers, and so forth, are expected to act in specific ways in teaching. Teaching is often seen as just one form of instruction going from teacher to learners. This teacher-centered view is often criticized as ineffective, and sometimes described as an obsolete exercise of power and knowledge. Hirst (1980) emphasizes teaching and learning, and declares:

A crude answer to the … question (What is teaching?) is, I think simple. The intention of all teaching activities is that of bringing about learning. (Hirst 1980 p. 109)

All teaching appears as different methods used by teachers for student learning, and these activities can be analyzed and reflected upon if the ability to teach is the core of the teacher profession (Kroksmark & Bengtsson, 1994). Kroksmark (1997) defines teaching as intentional, intersubjective, planned, and goal-oriented actions performed by the teacher, with consciously chosen content and methods that students are expected to fully or partially acquire by learning. Noddings (2003) describes teaching as a relational practice with the definition of teaching based on the question of whether teaching implies learning. Teaching is conceptually and practically dependent on learning because where there is no need for learning, there is no need for teaching. Noddings argues that this does not mean that teaching must always produce learning, but it must be constructed from a need for learning. All students can learn, but there is a difference among students in terms of ability and interest. Ball et al. (2008) define a more extended view of the concept:

By “teaching,” we mean everything that teachers must do to support the learning of their students. Clearly we mean the interactive work of teaching lessons in classrooms and all the tasks that arise in the course of that work. But we also mean planning for those lessons, evaluating students’ work, writing and grading assessments, explaining the classwork to parents, making and managing homework, attending to concerns for equity, and dealing with the building principal who has strong views about the math curriculum. (Ball, Thames, & Phelps (2008) p. 395)

Teaching as institutional activities, always appears in a social context, in interactions with other people. Teaching seen from this perspective is interactive; something happens between at least two subjects (Bengtsson, 2004). A substantial analysis on teaching in practice is formulated by Heiman where he describes the pedagogical process as follows:

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In practical pedagogical work there is always somebody (who?) - that some time (when?) – and somewhere (where?) - for some reason (why?) - teaches somebody (who?) - something (what?) - in some way (how?) - towards some goal (what?) - so somebody by any type of action (what?) - will be able to get some form of competence (what?) - to realize her or his interests now and in the future. (Uljens, 1997 p. 168)

Heiman’s description includes actors, objectives, and content in motion at a certain time in a specific place. When Heiman’s questions are directed to a current educational situation, the answers will substantially describe what is expected to happen. In Hermann’s perspective, questions related to teaching situations are defined as general didactic questions which broaden the teaching perspective and provide opportunities for deeper teaching analysis wherever teaching activities are at hand. Heiman’s general didactic questions addressed to a specific teaching and learning situation can be considered as a didactic analysis of a concrete learning situation. What is the purpose, and what actually happens in the educational meeting? These questions (and answers) can be seen through a reflection on teaching where the actors, content, and processes are integrated and constitute a holistic view of teaching and learning in practice.

Teacher knowledge and competence

Shulman (1987) argues that teaching is essentially a learned profession, and describes major categories of teacher knowledge: general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational contexts, knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, content knowledge, curriculum knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Grossman (1995) presents a typology of teacher knowledge as knowledge of content, knowledge of learners and learning, knowledge of general pedagogy, knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of context and knowledge of self. Munby et al. (2001) describe different perceptions of teachers’ knowledge linked to diverse educational research. The teaching profession in teacher education programs is generally based on a variety of teacher skills and competencies. Kernell (2002) lists a variety of competencies and describes the complexity and dilemmas in teaching. Teaching proficiency, based on knowledge about teaching and teaching skills, is visible in actions and has an impact on students’ achievement. Professional development in teaching based on science and proven experience calls for an explicit language among teachers and teacher educators. Colnerud & Granström (2002) describe professional language as a knowledge tool that helps professionals to codify and organize the collective knowledge within a profession. According to them, comprehensive structured professional knowledge will help professionals to observe connections and use explanatory models in the profession. Colnerud and Granström state:

A professional profession cannot rest on unreflective learned patterns of behavior and stereotyped routines even though they can be named with professional terminology. (Colnerud & Granström, 2002 p. 43)
Professional language, regarded as an explicit understanding of teachers’ work in classrooms or educational settings, facilitates teachers’ and teacher educators’ ability to describe and analyze learning processes. Knowledge in action and practice can be described as competencies. Competence can be defined as different forms of knowledge in action, applied in processes according to a qualification task or assignment (Ellström, 1992, 1997). Teacher competence can be described as an individual’s ability to act, including skills, knowledge, and understanding related to a special purpose or task at hand. According to Colenrud & Granström (2002 p 43), one simple definition of competence in this context is: to know what you are doing and why? This competence, or ability of teachers, has an explicit and an implicit side. The explicit side is the teacher activities you observe in classrooms. The implicit side is the teacher’s own thinking and understanding of teaching and learning in teaching.

Teaching analysis and teacher competencies
How can the tacit complexity in teaching be made comprehensible? As complex activities are reduced to become comprehensible, models are socially constructed. Models for analysis are simplified representations of a complex reality which facilitates meaning and understanding. They can clarify relationships and provide an overview of a field for investigation where certain concepts are emphasized while others are placed in the background. The starting point for analysis of teacher competencies is the interrelationship of teacher-student-content. The classical didactic triangle see Figure 1, is the base for the improved model in Fig 2, below the relationships in the meeting; teacher, student and content in teaching are described.

![Diagram of classical didactic triangle](modified version of Hansen & Forsman (2011) p. 46.)

The interplay could be described as mutual and interrelated relations. The developed model (Fig. 2) describes this didactic interaction and focuses the relationships we observe in pedagogic practice. The model presents three components (student, content, and teacher), and the relationships are described as three general teacher competencies (Lindström & Pennlert (2012) p. 10).
Qualities in these relations depend on context as various conditions affect the potential and the outcome of learning processes.

The professional object in professional practice, according to Carlgren and Marton (2000), is defined by what a profession is expected to achieve. The professional object of teachers is described as learning; i.e. to develop different skills and attitudes of students (Carlgren & Marton, 2002). Ellström (1996, 1997) connects learning to competence and define learning as relatively permanent changes in an individual's skills as a result of the individual's interaction with his environment. Teaching and learning are different activities. Learning is not dependent on teaching, and can be performed alone or with others, but teaching cannot be done in solitude as it requires inter-subjectivity between at least one teacher and one learner. Teachers normally perform in relation to learning objectives or goals within a curriculum. In intentional teaching, students are supposed to address their intention and focus specific content. In intentional pedagogical settings, something is processed in a social context according to curriculum or objectives. Students are supposed to focus on or process content, and through processing this in different ways, learning will hopefully to take place. Student learning is dependent on the levels of students’ prerequisites, previous experiences, and understanding.

Social competence

Noddings (2003) compares a mathematician and a teacher of mathematics, where mathematicians produce and develop mathematics, while a teacher in mathematics relates to students and takes responsibility, which not only requires knowledge of mathematics, but also cultural knowledge and relationships that include care and trust. Teaching and learning are
social and communicative processes. **Social competence** in Figure 2, focuses the relational dimension of the teachers’ work, the social aspects in teaching. The teacher is supposed to establish good relations with the students, but also work on relationships among students. Social competence in teaching includes knowledge about students, their social conditions as well as proficiency in communication and interaction with students, colleges, and sometimes parents. Lindstrom & Pennlert (2012) describe various aspects of teachers’ social competence. On a general level, a socially competent teacher can create and maintain good relationships with students, show commitment and respect for students and their families have knowledge of child and adolescent development, student living conditions and cultures. Teachers need to reflect on pedagogical leadership, cooperation with students and colleagues.

**Content competence**

How to make content comprehensible to students? Well-educated teachers are regarded as equivalent to teachers possessing high standards of subject content knowledge, and studies in different subjects or disciplines are seen as major content in teacher education programs. Shulman (1987) describes categories of teachers’ knowledge and argues that teachers must understand the structures of subject matter and the conceptual organization in each field. Ball, Thames & Phelps (2008) describe content knowledge for teaching and examine subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in teaching mathematics. The concept **content competence** (Fig. 2) is wider than subject knowledge. The content is not always tied to traditional school subjects; school subjects are often integrated in thematic studies, new fields and areas of content. Content competence means that the teacher recognizes how different qualities in content are structured and developed. The teacher needs, according to Shulman (1987), a broad liberal education that serves as a framework for old learning, and as a facilitator for new understanding. The teacher content knowledge makes the teacher able to examine the subject in a critical way. Content knowledge also includes didactic reflections related to teaching and learning. What does it mean to know something or master specific skills, and and how can knowledge be accessed? Processing content or subject knowledge is necessary for formulating relevant objectives. In any subject, discipline or field of knowledge, the teacher needs to select and transform knowledge into appropriate content for teaching and learning. Lindstrom & Pennlert (2012) describe teachers’ content competence on a general level; a competent teacher has relevant subject knowledge and is able to transform knowledge to student learning, may perceive connections between disciplines and subjects, understands what it means to know, understand or develop something and knows how knowledge in the field is constituted.
Didactic competence

Bengtsson and Kroksmark (1994) define didactics as the art and the science of teaching based on reflecting experience and scientific knowledge. Didactic competence, or teaching competence, is described as knowledge about teaching, but also as practical skills or performance in teaching. Professionals dealing with humans need social competence and different types of content knowledge. These competencies do not distinguish teachers from other professions. The teaching profession differs from other professions working with humans, by the intention in work, the didactic competence focusing student learning (Fig. 2), and the ability to reflect on actual learning processes (Lindström & Pennlert 2012). Teachers are supposed to consider the curriculum, the student’s pre-understanding, student questions and needs, conditions and alternatives for learning, formulate substantial learning objectives, make meaningful selections of content, i.e. organize student learning. The progression and structure of the learning process need to be considered, and the didactic analysis allows the teacher to consider the possibilities and limitations of the current teaching situation. Bengtsson argues:

No teaching is possible without the choice of objectives, content and methods, explicitly or implicitly, and these choices can occur both at the overall curriculum level and on a concrete lesson preparatory level. (Bengtsson, 1997 p. 241-261)

Aspects of teachers’ didactic competence are described by Lindstrom and Pennlert (2012). On a general level, a didactic competent teacher can make didactic analysis of learning, plan, implement, evaluate learning processes and reflect on student influence and responsibility. The didactic ability includes teacher knowledge about students’ prior understanding of subject content, competence to create a good environment for learning, classroom management, and analyzing students’ abilities, implementing and valuing learning processes, and evaluating the outcome of student learning. Interpretation and transformation of curriculum, formulation of objectives, organizing content, and making selection of content based on students’ previous knowledge and experience, are examples of what can be explicit through didactic analysis; in other words, selecting appropriate methods for processing content, using varied approaches or methods, to provide students genuine opportunities to learn.

As a summery; teacher knowledge and skills are presented as integration of social-content-and didactic competence, based on proven experience and scientific educational knowledge. The teaching profession differs from other professions which work with humans by the didactic competence, where the ability to reflect on teaching intentions, learning processes, and learning outcomes is crucial.
Dimensions of teaching and didactic analysis

In the following, key concepts in education; purpose, objectives, content and methods, and their relationships are discussed. Furthermore, the content and objectives for learning can be understood as different forms knowledge related to various aspects of the learner. The dimension not visible in a concrete situation is the purpose of learning something. The why-question refers to the objectives for learning, but also to the selection of content and methods. Assessment of learning is related to the objectives students are expected to achieve by learning processes. The specific learning intention includes a fundamental understanding of how objectives are formulated in terms of knowledge and skills. What specific objectives will be formulated, processed and hopefully achieved in the learning process? Teaching is linked to content, as teaching is always teaching about something. Students are supposed to focus and process specific content in different ways. Content refers to the didactic what-question. What are the students supposed to focus on, what is to be studied and who decides what is to be learned? How is content selected and treated by teachers and students in learning processes? Teaching as teacher actions is a visible activity, and the didactic how-question addresses attention to methods for teaching and learning. The purpose, objectives, content and methods in teaching is usually not explicitly described but general dimensions in all forms of teaching can be described as purpose, objectives, content, and methods for learning, which relate to and affect each other.

![Figure 3 Dimensions of teaching](image-url)
Organizing learning by processing objectives, content, and methods, requires reflection, and can be expressed in an explicit plan. Planning for learning may include a lesson, a series of lessons, or a course. A school curriculum can be planned for days, weeks, or an entire semester. Planning or designing for learning is a dynamic and creative process. How do different parts of a learning process work together? Lindstrom and Pennlert (2012) describe similarities between planning, composing, and implementation that can be understood as creative interplay between teachers, students, methods and content in learning. Planning can be done in collaboration with students and colleagues. The purpose of planning is to reflect on teaching and learning before implementation; planning is always provisional and preliminary, it can be changed and improved during the work. After implementation, the objectives, contents, and methods are analyzed in relation to the processes and the outcome of the intentional learning. Evaluation and assessment are inevitable in teacher work. Planning teaching includes descriptions of what should be assessed, and how and when this should be done. With increased demands placed upon teachers regarding documentation of their work and through explicit planning, the work of teachers becomes visible. Teachers’ and schools’ aspirations for learning become transparent to students, parents, and those involved at all levels. Transparency in teaching presents clear opportunities for student empowerment in learning processes, and facilitates assessment and grading.

Objectives for learning
Objectives focus students’ development and learning, and are expressed in different forms of knowledge and abilities connected to content. Learning in schools and education are governed by curriculum and explicit objectives that students are expected to reach through education. The objectives can be seen as “future visions” of student abilities and knowledge, as outcome of teaching and learning processes (Maltén 2003). The issue of objectives at a general point of view is about why these objectives are relevant. The rationale and reasoning for these objectives are formulated in curricula and training plans, with objectives often expressed in general, and abstract terms. Learning objectives are described in classification schemes or taxonomies. (Bloom, 1956. Marzano & Kendell, 2007), one example of taxonomies, describes six cognitive levels for different skills; facts, understanding, application, analysis, synthesis and valuation where the levels are hierarchically arranged, from a lower (facts) to a higher (valuation) level. Davies (1972) makes a distinction between the cognitive (e.g. knowledge, understanding, application, analysis, synthesis, valuation) and the affective (e.g. reception, response, position, organization, relationship between values, internalized value systems and philosophies) which are described by different verbs. Hattie (2012) relates analysis of learning objectives to the SOLO taxonomy (Biggs & Collis, 1982) where learning objectives and skills structured as three levels of understanding: on an abstract - concrete level and on a surface, deep and conceptual level. Maltén (2003) discusses the risk with objectives in the form of taxonomies and schemas, which can easily be turned into miserable catalogs of knowledge containing product objectives. Maltén describes educa-
tional objectives, dividing them similar to Davies, into cognitive and affective objectives. Maltén also emphasizes metacognitive objectives as “how to get” knowledge. Maltén argues that objectives must be understandable, meaningful, realistic, measurable, time-based, consistent, and stimulating. Usage of verbs for goal formulations facilitates the concreteness of goals and thereby the planning, implementation, and assessment of learning.

Aspects of the learner and content
All human beings are learners, and we learn throughout our lives. We think, feel, use, create, and value our life experiences all the time. From this perspective, learners are cognitive, social, emotional, physical, ethical, and aesthetic. These can be considered as basic human abilities, present in all forms of learning. The objectives and content of teaching can be linked to different aspects of the students. The Swedish national curriculum for primary and secondary schools describes the student as a thinking, feeling, creative, and evaluative social being; put another way, the student is cognitive, social, emotional, moral, physical and creative as noted in important aspects of the learner (Malthèn, 2003). In schools and educational settings, students are supposed to process content and achieve different skills. Students are supposed to know, describe, speak, listen, perform, cooperate, reflect, solve problems, analyze, take responsibility, and so on. These skills can be understood as different aspects of the learner. Content for learning can be analyzed and formulated by teachers in this respect. As teachers plan for learning, content can be processed by different forms of knowledge. By processing content while considering aspects of the learner, teachers will find different aspects of subject content (Lindström & Pennlert, 2012). Figure 4 provides examples of various forms of knowledge attributed to various aspects of the learner. Students relate to content in different ways. Aspects of the learner can be expressed as different knowledge and skills in teaching/for learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects of the learner</th>
<th>Forms of knowledge and skills</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>know (facts), remember, describe, compare, explain, understand, interpret, reflect, criticize, solve problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>express oneself, listen, respect, cooperate, take responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>feel, experience, influence, express, process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethic</td>
<td>value, evaluate, argue, comprehend, embrace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>do, act, use, control, master</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Creative
develop, elaborate, produce, build, create,
associate,

Esthetic
imagine, solve problems, find solutions
feel, experience, discover, process, create

Fig. 4 Examples of explicit knowledge and skills related to aspects of the learner.

Processing content in teaching
Content needs to be processed to develop structure and progression in student learning. Progression can be understood as first processing the simple, then the more complex in a given field. Student prior knowledge, and expected questions and needs, have an impact on selection of content for teaching and learning. The process where teachers transform subject content knowledge into content for learning for a specific situation is called didactic transformation (Linde, 2006). Choice of content may be based on generic skills related to specific objectives for learning. The teacher is ordinarily in charge of this process, and various strategies can be used. The fundamental ideas of content, facts, and typical representative concepts in a field, need selection, transformation, and organization. In a delimited and defined content we will find many aspects. Facts, concepts, theories, critical perspectives, problems, relations, values and feelings can be aspects of content. In many subjects, we will find ethical dimensions. Content evokes different feelings among students (and teachers). Values and emotions connected to content can be observed and processed. When planning for learning, teachers formulate clear objectives, forms of knowledge connected to various aspects of content (Svingby 1990). Lindström & Pennlert (2012) describe how the objectives for learning can be expressed:

**Objectives for learning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms of knowledge ...</th>
<th>Aspects of content</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Know that, describe ...</td>
<td>Facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand, explain, use...</td>
<td>Concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand, formulate, solve ...</td>
<td>Questions/Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand, explain, analyze ...</td>
<td>Connections/Relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe, compare ...</td>
<td>Perspectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalize, apply, practice ...</td>
<td>Models/theories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value, interpret, discuss, argue ...</td>
<td>Values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perform, do, practice, use ...</td>
<td>Actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience, find, value, create ...</td>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Methods in teaching
Teaching has been described as “showing something”, or making something visible between individuals (Bengtsson, 2004). Teachers and students process knowledge and aspects of content in teaching and learning in various ways. The bow-question focuses methods in teaching and learning, and the purpose of methods can be analyzed. Carlgren and Marton declare it is important to note that the use of a method makes sense only in relation to a purpose (Carlgren & Marton, 2000 p.120). Traditionally, teaching methods are used in a predictable way and are expected and accepted with teaching of specific subjects. Students are supposed to to learn in a special way with a chosen method. Methods can also be considered as skills i.e. content as process- objectives in learning. The intention of arranging good learning environment includes methodology questions such as; what method facilitates the intentional learning of a specific content at a specific time? Combinations of different methods of processing and learning seem to support various aspects of the learner, and various methods develop different skills and abilities among learners. Teaching methods are constantly evolving and methods for teaching and learning can be seen as a toolbox for teachers. Kroksmark (1996) describes four basic domains of methods with some examples given in each category; instructional or mediating methods (instruction, reading texts from screens or displays, mediating texts or pictures), interactive methods (dialogue, working in pairs, group projects, interaction studies, supervision and coaching), exploring methods (questions, hypotheses, investigations, research, laboratory work, interviews), creative or design methods (games, drama, creating texts, images, or music, storylines, role-playing, simulations). Context, conditions, and frame factors
The dimensions in teaching (purposes, objectives, content and methods) are not isolated from the specific context for the actual teaching and learning situation (Munby et al. 2001). Contextual conditions for teaching and learning are always present in practice, affecting teaching and learning potential. The perceived and intrinsic conditions influence teachers’ intentions about what is possible to expect, as well as the limits in the actual teaching and learning setting. Teachers are expected to take many decisions every lesson, every day at work, manage competing interests, dilemmas and tensions (Loughran, 2006). Teachers’ interpretations of context and conditions for learning are crucial for analysis. The concrete teaching process in classrooms is limited by many factors of internal and external conditions, thus teaching in practice, is performed within visible or invisible frames (Linde 2006).

Hattie’s meta-analyses of factors with significant impact on students’ achievements (Hattie 2009, 2012) are recognized in different domains (student, home, school, teachers, curricula and teaching) is partly consistent with the model below (Figure 6). Important factors like; curriculum, grading system, students’ previous experiences, knowledge, questions and needs affect teaching at all levels in education. Students’ intentions, attitudes, values, social class, gender, and ethnicity influence the process. Frame-factors such as time on task, group size, school organization, school leadership and economic resources, affect teaching dimensions and opportunities for learning in a direct or indirect way (Lundgren, 1972.1999). Local society, school culture, parents’ expectations and values, class, gender, and ethnicity affect teaching and learning in at least an indirect way.

Finally, an integrated model of various aspects of teaching is presented (Fig. 6). The dimensions of teaching in practice are influenced by various interests and factors central to the analysis and understanding of what is possible and what obstacles encountered in teaching practice. Reflections on these conditions give teachers the opportunity to consider possibilities and limitations in teaching and learning. The quality of teaching includes the teachers’ individual competencies and experiences; hence values, gender, class, and ethnicity affect the choice of content, objectives, and methods. Teachers’ work is thereby surrounded by various factors that both constrain and provide opportunities in classrooms.
Conclusions

Despite the complexity of teaching, it is argued that explicit concepts in teaching are possible to communicate and facilitates the formulation of a teaching language. Teacher knowledge can be interpreted as knowledge about teaching, but also as practical skills in teaching. General didactic concepts and models for analysis aim to reduce the gap between theory and practice in teaching, to make teachers' work visible and possible to communicate, thereby contributing to a general understanding of the teaching profession. Teachers' professional knowledge and skills have been described as three integrated competencies for learning in practice. Didactic competence distinguishes teachers from other professions related to working with humans. Planning, implementation, and evaluation of learning processes can be regarded as creative problem-solving actions referred to as the art of teaching. Despite the complexity of the profession, general knowledge in teaching for planning, implementation and evaluation of learning, regardless of subject, students' age or educational level are presented. Planning for student learning is to interpret, create, implement and evaluate purpose, objectives, content, and methods in teaching processes. Different forms of content knowledge linked to aspects of the learner, varied approaches to teaching and learning, as well as opportunities and constraints in conditions of teachers' work, are presented. In this article, an attempt has been made to make teaching visible through descriptions of the complexity of teacher work. Teachers' beliefs and commitment
at work is essential but not sufficient. Many factors affect teachers’ work, each component can be the subject of study and research and new knowledge can thus be formulated. However, in teaching, teachers are expected to integrate and implement this in practice. An overview and examples of important aspects that influence teacher work can be seen as tool for analysis and understanding of teaching.

References


