

DESIGNING A COMPETENCE MODEL OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

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Abstract

Competences are the set of demonstrable characteristics and skills that enable, and improve the efficiency or performance of a job. Competences represent a summary of key professional and personal skills/talents and behavioural patterns of an individual. They form the basis of any proficient working behaviour, and the level of their maturity is crucial for the successful performance of the profession concerned. Competences generally include knowledge, motivation, social characteristic and roles, or skills of one person in accordance with the demands of organizations of their clerks. From this point of view, the competences of university teachers are of exceptional importance, mainly because teachers constitute the basis for the creation of new knowledge and new values beneficial to the university as well as to students, and subsequently also to enterprises in the role of employers, who should be able to use reasonably and develop systematically the mature competences of their employees. The intention of the study is to analyse the professional-personal profile of university teachers and the competences they should have. The study also presents outcomes of a questionnaire-based survey conducted with a sample of 686 students of the Education University. The first stage of our survey (395 students) focused on questioning as to which competences the teacher should have according to students. The second stage of our survey which is dealt with in this study, focuses on defining the negative competences and characteristics of teachers, i.e. it focuses on the question as to which features the teacher should certainly not have. In addition to interesting outcomes of the survey, the most important part of the study is an originally created competence model of the university teacher. Such competence model should become a quality standard or a paragon of the positive indicators of the teacher's working behaviour. The model also needs to clearly define the negative indicators (undesirable behaviour) which teachers should eliminate from their performance and behaviour. Persistence of such behaviour should be strictly penalised by the management of the faculty or university.

Keywords: Competence, Competence Model, Teachers, Students, Survey, Motivation

INTRODUCTION

In the education system for higher education, a university teacher is the “most important study source, which is available to most of the students (ENQA, 2009, p. 17). The teacher is interpreted as a professional who is qualified for theoretically profound and critical analysis of educational phenomena, processes in the teaching his study subject. This allows him to design the context and educational policies and procedures in the way so that they lead to the objectives set by the educational objectives without the teacher manipulating his students and therefore creating optimal condition for their moral development and self-development (Valica & Rohn, 2013, p. 866). In this connection, teach means to impart knowledge to or instruct (someone) as to how to do something; or to cause (someone) to learn, or understand something by example or experience; or to encourage someone to accept (something) as a fact or principle (Soanes & Stevenson, 2003, p. 1809).

The work of the university teacher has a great impact on development of knowledge and cognition in each society. It is very demanding work that requires professional competences and continual enhancing professional knowledge, social competencies, and also ability to

develop them, ability in scientific research what is connected also with ability to transfer the science results to students in such a way to understand them and were inspiring for their future development (Kravcakova, Lukacova & Bugelova, 2011).

A university teacher is in direct and permanent contact with the students. He provides them with information and knowledge, helps them acquire and improve their skills and develop their competencies. He tries to objectively assess their knowledge growth, to direct their future (often lifelong) development efforts so that they first of all properly build and then permanently maintain their professional authority and qualifications.

Actual results and contribution of teacher's work, obtained objective evidence of their success in the relevant scientific discipline, declared outputs of scientific activities etc., are important. Each university teacher (including the guarantors of the subjects and guarantors of the study programs) always covers/provides for teaching of those subjects, for which he is professionally qualified (completed doctoral studies in the relevant or related field, habilitation or appointment proceedings successfully recognised in the relevant or related field), (Zakon, 2002).

Tokarcikova points out the existence of a bipolar view on the university teacher's profile: "There are a variety of specific skills that are needed for education of large and small groups, and facilitation and preparation of the necessary materials (layouts). On the one hand, there is a school that requires the teacher works out more and more publications. On the other hand, there are students who require a high level of teacher's presentation skills, abilities and art as to attract attention," (2013, p. 2998).

It is very important to look at the university teachers' successfulness thru a prism of their motivation and/versus their cognitive capacity. Roets, Van Hiel & Kruglanski present this idea: "Although scholars might agree that the combined impact of motivation and cognitive capacity may be more than the sum of their individual effects, the exact nature of their interactive effects remained relatively undefined. It is assumed that high levels of motivation and capacity are simply better than low levels, and a potential interaction has merely been considered in terms of the degree to which high levels of one determinant might compensate for low levels of the other," (2013, p. 262). It means when the level of teacher's motivation is very high, this one can (to a certain extent) supplement an incomplete cognitive competence of the teacher. And vice versa, when the level of teacher's cognitive capacity is very high, this one can renew the incomplete level of the teacher's motivation (Blaskova & Blasko, 2013, p. 10). In terms of the university's overall development, attention needs to be paid to the proper definition and, in particular, to the systematic development of the competences of university teachers (Hartley, Hilsdon, Keenan, Sinfield & Verity, 2011).

Based on all of the previous views and thoughts, the intention of this study has been to create a competence model of the university teacher, based on a brief theoretical presentation of views on the key competences of teachers and based on the outcomes of a counter-posed survey, concerning the identification of university teachers' negative, i.e. undesirable characteristics with demotivational effects, which we conducted with a sample of 686 students of the Education University.

What is a competency?

Human capital is defined as an irreplaceable accelerator of long-term effectiveness and sustainability in any organization. Its importance is growing especially with the development of the global economy. Ljudvigova (2015) noted that the secret to high performance and satisfaction at work is the deeply human need to direct our own lives, to learn and create new things and to do better by ourselves and our world. Kubes-Spillerova-Kurnicky (2004) noted that although the company owners, managers, researchers tend to believe that people are the decisive factor for success of the company there is no consensus on what forms this quality. Do we talk about skills, knowledge?

Attitude, loyalty or engagement? This quality is called “competence” in literature. The word of “competence” comes from the Latin word "competent", which can be translated as "one who has the right to judge”, respectively, "the one who has the right to speak. "

Various interpretations of this concept can be summarized as follows:

- Competence as an authority and responsibility. An employee is entitled to perform certain activities: Jurisdiction of maneuver and its impact. Therefore, it refers to what has been given to man from the outside.
- Competence as a person's ability to perform a certain activity – quality, skills and ability to do something competently. This notion emphasizes the intrinsic quality of man, which allows him to submit a performance. This meaning will be used in our paper as well.

Many disciplines of research, such as Psychology, Education, Organizational Management, Human Resources or Information Systems have studied the concept of competencies. Various researchers provided different definitions over the years and caused a debate that is still ongoing. The first definition of competencies was delivered by McClelland, who defined a competency as “a personal trait or set of habits that leads to more effective or superior job performance”. On later years further definitions can be found in research, e.g., Klemp defined a competency as “an underlying characteristic of a person, which results in effective and/or superior performance on the job”. With regards to Spencer and Spencer, “competencies are skills and abilities; things you can do; acquired through work experience, life experience, study or training”. Bartram, Robertson and Callinan stated that competencies are “sets of behaviors that are instrumental in the delivery of desired results or outcomes”.

In the scientific literature, there is not an agreed definition of competence, but different and subjective interpretations triggering, often, debates and confusion as well. For instance, often, the concepts of competence and competency are synonyms in literature. We would refer, as in [12], to the following notions:

Competence: it is the ability of an actor to do actions for a situation in an effective and efficient way; it cannot be directly measurable, but estimated from the performance.

Competency: it is an observable or measurable part of the competence like a skill, a piece of knowledge or an attitude. In [40] the competency does mean the descriptive way to define

features that allow good performance, meanwhile, the competence does mean what allows achieving efficiently a goal. According to this definition, a competency model is mostly a description and a competence model needs a reference context to make sense. In [36] it is possible to identify three base dimensions related to the competence. The first dimension (Personal Characteristics) is a set of personal features including the concepts: knowledge, abilities, attitudes, behaviours, values, motivation, social role, etc. The second dimension (Proficiency Level) is a set of levels for classifying competences in doing actions. The third dimension (Context), finally, is the context where the person may apply her competences; the context may refer to a work area or a typical situation. These three dimensions together cover almost all the definitions of competence from the scientific literature. For this reason, in [36] the authors define the competence as a set of personal features (for instance, knowledge, skill and attitude) that someone may have or need to do a task in a specific context. The task to do usually needs a level of competence of the involved person.

Competency types

Competencies acquired in education are the necessary prerequisite not only for boosting individual effectiveness on initial entry to the labour market but also for long-lasting employability. Given that employees' needs and job requirements should be met, Allen and his colleagues (2005) proposed the following types of competencies:

Specific competencies refer to clusters of cognitive prerequisites that an individual should acquire in order to be able to perform adequately in a given substantive domain (Weinert, 2001). However, rapid obsolescence of technological achievements and shifts in labour demand often result to the devaluation of specific competencies over time. A number of researchers stress the importance of the 'specific' competence referring to the profession or field specific knowledge and skills that are relevant to the tasks realized at the work environment. On the other hand, their opponents argue that 'generic' competencies or skills like the ability to learn (conceptual competency) as well as communication and teamwork skills should be developed (Thompson et al., 1997).

General competencies include a diversity of concepts, such as intelligence, information-processing models, meta-competencies, and key competencies, which they may be exercised in a range of contexts and contents. A major advantage of this group is that they facilitate the transfer of existing specific competencies and the acquisition of new competences which can be used in new work situations.

Several researchers have proposed more integrated frameworks incorporating both specific and general competencies, in order to address all cognitive, motivational and social requirements (Bloom, 1956; Boyatzis, 1982; Levy-Leboyer, 1996). Abraham and his colleagues (2001) advocated that all organizational functions require a set of essential managerial, generic and technical or functional competencies in order to be performed effectively. They considered that managerial competencies are essential for managers with supervisory responsibility in any service, while generic ones are crucial for all staff, regardless of their function or level. Specific competencies are necessary in order to perform any job in the organization within a defined

technical or functional work area.

Similarly, Allen *et al* (2005) introduced a conceptual model for the measurement of general competences distinguished in nine broad action categories (directing productive tasks, directing the work of others, planning, coordination, control, innovation, information management, maintaining relations with personnel, and maintaining relations with clients) relevant to work situations.

Competency Models

Many theorists deduce that competency models are necessary tools to tie individual talents to organizational goals (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Burns, Smith and Ulrich (2012) concurred, contending that with competency models to follow, organizations would be better suited to achieve maximum success not only in the choice of its leaders, but the results that the leader can reasonably expect to achieve. This mindset led to the creation of a competency model, known as the leadership code, a taxonomy derived from vast expert opinions and research and with the purpose of simplifying proficiencies that are necessary for successful and effective leadership (Ulrich, Smallwood, & Sweetman, 2009). When one examines this specific model, it becomes apparent that it was created to choose a CEO, or president of a company. While the model is comprehensive and well organized, it spawns a whole new question whether competency models should be more specific and tailored to each individual organization to truly be effective. Taxonomy of leadership competencies for military leadership may differ vastly from an education leader, or government officials, while some other competencies may be germane to all leaders.

There would most likely be some overlap, yet organizational culture tends to vary greatly amongst differing disciplines. While this is an important point to note, a crucial concept for success is that whatever model is chosen must end with results of sustaining, positive leadership. Should the competency model result in the choice of an unsuccessful leader, a viable conclusion is that something in that model is amiss and must be reexamined. Leadership competencies are lasting regardless of variables such as organization, job description, assignments, or culture (Newsome, Catano, & Day, 2003) as long as the competencies are correctly identified as being pertinent to the occupation. Fisher (2007) opined that with power comes responsibility and is “probably the most important hallmark of public leadership” (p. 32).

Fisher also noted that there is a necessity in leadership to develop the nexus between service and power and to simply get things done. He stated that leaders must create an integrated system that exercises both the authority that comes with their title along with personal or soft power.

This particular competency has the propensity to be listed as one of the most important for a leader in any organization. Scholtes’s (1999) theory seems to echo Fisher’s sentiment, as he equates leadership as management of systems, using a symphony as an example: the primary goal of a symphony is to create music and one part of it cannot produce the desired result alone. Scholtes reasoned that one of the competencies of leadership should be to collectively reach

that goal, similar to a system that is well functioning. Scholtes's theory is that it is precisely the leaders who understand this and other important competencies who can accomplish this complex task. Schultz concurred, reminding us that leaders cannot accomplish anything alone or without possessing specific competencies necessary for the realization of organizational goals (Schultz, 2013). Both Schultz's and Scholtes's work emerged from the foundation of principles by Deming (1986).

Deming's entire philosophy is competency based and focused, too, on the whole being greater than the sum of the parts. The overarching ideology from all of these theorists is that a skill set requires competencies that support leadership characteristics specific to the purpose of influencing and inspiring subordinates (Deming, 1986; Scholtes, 1999; Schultz, 2013).

The importance of identifying a particular set of competencies for a specific discipline then begs the question: Does utilizing a competency framework legitimately work for leadership selection? Competency frameworks can be effective tools for initial selection criteria, but it is the ability to adapt that is perhaps one of the most important competencies that a leader can possess. The reasoning for this is that once a leader develops the ability to learn, he/she is able to acquire other valuable competencies (Briscoe & Hall, 1999). Some theorists are critical of frameworks, noting that many personal values are missing from frameworks; some which may be very important in the selection process phase for an organization (Bolden, 2004). Harle (2005) cautioned against not utilizing competency frameworks, however, lauding them as an augmentation to currently listed and desired attributes.

Others argued that the frameworks provide curricula for future workshops, training programs, college courses, and career development (Johnson, 2006; Solomon, 2003). Frameworks also have other purposes, such as recruitment and selection as well as integration with other frameworks (Civil Defense, 2009). Harrald and Shaw (2006) argued that competency frameworks are lacking if they do not include demonstrable capabilities specific to that particular job or organization. Frameworks mean nothing simply written on paper and without an individual capable of performing the skills listed in them. Gelletlie (2008) agreed, contending that competency based frameworks detail what capabilities are expected to do the job, but there are other personal attributes that must be taken into account for a sufficient selection: attributes such as drive, integrity, and creativity.

The overall consensus regarding competency frameworks is that they provide a valid parameter as a starting point to select a manager, but a proposed leader may not necessarily have the attributes to lead unless humanistic competencies are added to those selection criteria as well. The very definition of the word competency varies, so to categorize them as simply professional capabilities have the possibility of falling short when the skills utilized in real time practice could differ.

Hoffman (1999) defined competencies as falling into three categories: observable performance, outcome of the performance and its quality, and knowledge skills and abilities. Wood, Flavel, Vanstolk, Bainbridge, and Nasmith (2009) suggested that in order to construct a true, comprehensive framework, educational strategies have to remain fluid and possess both the

evaluative measures that monitor the skills necessary and implemented interventions to ensure adoption. Should this be accomplished, the results could be infused in future curricula. There are certain steps necessary to designate criteria for distinct competencies. One, job analysis, which requires identifying tasks required to do the job and two, identifying the necessary skills to achieve those particular tasks. Both of these steps will require research, contacting experts, and consulting with representatives in the particular field selected (Naquin & Holton, 2003). According to Pickett (1998), the competencies identified after analysis should not be an endless laundry list, but limited to competencies that would result in the most positive impact in the most critical of areas within the organization.

Competence of university teacher

Competence (in terms of professional competence) can be defined as a summary of the key professional and personal skills/talents and behavioural patterns that an individual needs to have and demonstrate in order to successfully accomplish the defined professional goals and perform the relating professional tasks, duties and responsibilities (Blaskova, 2011, p. 108). Competence can be defined as the capabilities of superior performers (Gibb, 2008, p. 56). Competence is defined as the proven ability to use knowledge (and) skills. It is also described in terms of responsibility and autonomy (Quendler et al., 2013). A different view can be applied to what is known as the general human competence, which, to a certain extent, reflects all of the human efforts within an organisation. For example, Plaminek & Fiser see the human competence as the summary of achieved performance (i.e. human work) and of the generated potential (i.e. human resources). If one of those components is missing, the competence as a whole is also missing (2005, p. 17).

Numerous authors deal with the definition of desirable and undesirable competences of university teachers, e.g. Boyer (1990); Laurillard (1994); Vasutova (2005); Elton (2006); Lueddeke (2008); Spilkova (2011); Hartley, Hilsdon, Keenan, Sinfield & Verity (2011); Kucharcikova (2013); Hoidn & Karkkainen (2014); etc. Teacher's competences are seen as capacities of excellence (Slavik et al., 2012, p. 74). According to authors, the university teacher's competences can be divided into seven clusters: branch-specific; didactic and psycho didactic; general educational; diagnostic and interventional; social, psycho-social and communicational; managerial and normative; professionally and personally cultivating. The skill of professional qualified improvisation can also be seen as an exceptionally important ability (2002, pp. 79–80). List of the teacher's competence profile, worked out by Valica & Rohn, consists only of the following four components: expert/technical competences; moral and ethical responsibilities; pedagogical-psychological and didactic-methodological competences; self-developing competence (2013, p. 867).

In the following there is List of competences, we worked out in the framework of this project:

- Moral and ethical competence;
- Role model competence;
- Technical (expert) competence;
- Mature personality competence;
- Scientific competence;
- Critically thinking competence;
- Acclaimed author's competence;
- Excellent teaching competence;
- Communication competence;
- Motivation competence.

Based on the intuitive comparison of all of the three aforementioned lists of competences, those to be certainly useful and inspirational for the creation of the competence model (in addition to educational, professional and moral competences) include, inter alia, the competence in qualified improvisation, the competence of professional and personal cultivation, and the interventional competence, role model competence, mature personality competence, motivation and communication competence.

METHODS

In compiling the competence model of university teachers, we decided, in addition to a theoretical analysis of the area researched and a questionnaire-based survey among students, which was focused on the required (positive) features/competences of teachers (2019/2020, a sample of 395 students), to focus the subsequent survey also on defining the negative characteristics.

Participants and characteristics of questionnaire survey

The second stage of our survey (2019/2020) was conducted with a sample of 686 students of the University of Shaheed Prof. Rabbani Education. The sample included students of bachelor's as well as master's studies. A more specific description of the participating respondents is available in Table 1.

Table 1: Identification of questionnaire survey participants

Participants [Number – % of all – average age]									
686 – 100% – 21.20									
Male					Female				
439 – 63.99% – 21.17					247 – 36.01% – 21.27				
Level of study: Bachelor					Level of study: Master				
545 – 79.45% – 20.71					141 – 20.55% – 23.11				
First year		Second year		Third year		First year		Second year	
128 – 18.66% – 19.71		297 – 43.29% – 20.79		120 – 17.49% – 21.58		61 – 8.89% – 22.75		80 – 11.66% – 23.39	
Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
83	45	190	107	94	26	31	30	41	39
12.10%	6.56%	27.70%	15.60%	13.70%	3.79%	4.52%	4.37%	5.98%	5.69%

The effort was to obtain students’ replies to the following counter-posed question: “What should a university teacher not be like, i.e. which features, traits and competences should the teacher not have?” It was an open-ended question, where students had to put their comments in the questionnaire form.

Results and discussion

An interesting feature about our survey is that the students were very willing to engage in this questioning (all students we asked to fill in the questionnaire form did fill it in). They were pleased that we were interested in their views on the positive as well as negative teacher’s profile and that there was a targeted effort at the university to improve the teacher’s profile as well as the teaching process and the conditions of education.

The 25 most frequent negative characteristics concerning the (undesirable) profile of university teachers are included in Table 2. As we can see, both groups of respondents, i.e. male and female students, cited bias and unfairness in the first position. This undesirable characteristic was cited by up to 177 students, i.e. up to more than one quarter of all respondents. The evaluations in the other positions slightly differed but their essential features remained the same. As concerns the other major negative characteristics, not shown in Table 2, (male) students cited: intolerant (24th position in terms of frequency of male replies; this characteristic was cited by 20 males, i.e. 4.56%); reticent (25th position; 19 males, i.e. 4.33%). The other major negative characteristics cited by (female) students were as follows: slandering and ridiculing the students (18th position in terms of frequency of female replies; 16 females, i.e. 7.29%); hostile (22nd position; 13 females, i.e. 5.26%); not interested in students (25th position; 12 females, i.e. 4.86%).

Table 2: The most frequent negative characteristics of university teacher

No	Negative characteristic/competence	Students			Men		Women		
		Frequency	%	Order	Frequency	%	Order	Frequency	%
1.	Biased, unfair	177	25.80	1.	101	23.01	1.	76	30.77
2.	Arrogant	119	17.35	2.	81	18.45	4.	38	15.38
3.	Uneducated, unprofessional	96	13.99	3.	61	13.9	5.	35	14.17
3.	Haughty, condescending	96	13.99	5.	52	11.85	2.	44	17.81
5.	Unwilling	91	13.27	7.	47	10.71	2.	44	17.81
6.	Boring	84	12.24	6.	50	11.39	7.	34	13.77
7.	Conceited, proud	79	11.52	4.	56	12.76	11.	23	9.31
8.	Vulgar, indecent, perverse	73	10.64	8.	47	10.71	8.	26	10.53
9.	Capricious, spreading poor atmosphere	68	9.91	15.	33	7.52	5.	35	14.17
10.	Prejudiced	67	9.77	9.	47	10.71	13.	20	8.10
11.	Aggressive	65	9.48	11.	40	9.11	9.	25	10.12
12.	Nervous	61	8.89	12.	36	8.20	10.	25	10.12
13.	Overly strict, critical	59	8.60	10.	42	9.57	17.	17	6.88
14.	Cheeky	56	8.16	13.	34	7.74	12.	22	8.91
15.	Explosive, furious	47	6.85	16.	28	6.38	15.	19	7.69
16.	Unpunctual	46	6.71	14.	34	7.74	23.	12	4.86
17.	Egoistic	42	6.12	18.	27	6.15	19.	15	6.07
17.	Impatient	42	6.12	20.	24	5.47	16.	18	7.29
19.	Lazy	39	5.69	17.	28	6.38	26.	11	4.45
20.	Uncommunicative	38	5.54	21.	23	5.24	20.	15	6.07
21.	Irresponsible	37	5.39	27.	17	3.87	14.	20	8.10
22.	Unpleasant	36	5.25	19.	27	6.15	31.	9	3.64
23.	Stupid	32	4.66	23.	20	4.56	24.	12	4.86
23.	Monotonous lecturer	32	4.66	28.	17	3.87	21.	15	6.07
25.	Insidious	30	4.37	22.	23	5.24	37.	7	2.83

Table 2 shows the 10 most frequently cited negative characteristics, sorted by year of studies, i.e. by level of studies, in the percentage order (and in the order of the individual years of studies), expressed with regard to the individual quantities of the characteristics cited in the respective years of studies, i.e. levels of studies. A specific feature is slandering and ridiculing the students, which was placed as low as 32nd in the total occurrence but as high as 10th among students of the second year of master's studies.

Table 3: The most frequent negative characteristics of university according to study year and level of study

Negative characteristic/competence	Bachelor study						Master study			
	1 st year		2 nd year		3 rd year		1 st year		2 nd year	
	Order	%	Order	%	Order	%	Order	%	Order	%
Biased, unfair	1.	25.00	1.	28.28	1.	17.50	1.	34.43	3.	23.75
Arrogant	4.	11.72	2.	18.18	3.	16.67	4.	18.03	2.	23.75
Uneducated, unprofessional	6.	10.16	4.	15.15	6.	15.83	8.	13.11	6.	13.75
Haughty, condescending	13.	7.81	15.	7.07	1.	17.50	3.	21.31	1.	38.75
Unwilling	5.	10.94	5.	12.12	7.	12.50	2.	24.59	5.	13.75
Boring	11.	8.59	3.	15.49	3.	16.67	12.	8.20	43.	2.50
Conceited, proud	10.	8.59	10.	9.76	3.	16.67	7.	13.11	4.	13.75
Vulgar, indecent, perverse	3.	16.41	9.	10.10	13.	7.50	5.	16.39	32.	3.75
Capricious, poor atmosphere	2.	19.53	12.	9.43	27.	5.00	14.	6.56	17.	6.25
Prejudiced	18.	5.47	13.	9.49	8.	11.67	5.	16.39	8.	11.25
Aggressive	14.	7.03	7.	10.77	12.	9.11	10.	9.84	9.	10.00
Nervous	9.	9.38	6.	11.11	17.	6.67	52.	1.64	14.	8.75
Overly strict, critical	8.	9.38	8.	10.77	10.	9.17	52.	1.64	32.	3.75
Cheeky	6.	10.16	10.	9.76	45.	2.50	21.	4.92	10.	10.00
Explosive, furious	43.	1.56	17.	6.73	10.	9.17	11.	9.84	10.	10.00
Unpunctual	20.	4.69	17.	6.73	9.	10.83	14.	6.56	32.	3.75
Irresponsible	21.	3.91	28.	4.04	17.	6.67	9.	11.48	17.	6.25
Slandering and ridiculing	43.	1.56	38.	2.36	38.	3.33	34.	3.28	7.	11.25

Table 3 indicates that students of the last year of bachelor's as well as master's studies are extremely sensitive to teacher's haughtiness and condescending behaviour. Students are aware of their human value and of the amount of knowledge and skills they had to absorb during their studies. They expect teachers to behave to them with adequate fairness and rather in a partner-like and friendly manner which should really be the case.

Competence model of university teacher

One of the first authors to deal with competence models has been McLagan (1980). She explored the possibility and opportunity of using the competence models in planning and human resource management. Competence model includes an exhausting list of all relevant competences pertaining to the working role (Arnold et al., 2005, p. 134). The competence model represents the integrated set of competences required for excellent performance according to company's fixed standards (Matuska, 2012, p. 131). Competence model, i.e. the profile of key or critical competences, represents the required personal characteristics, abilities, knowledge, skills, experiences, habits, attitudes, value orientations, motivations of the individual (Blaha, Mateiciuc & Kacakova, 2005, p. 44). The competence model describes a specific combination of knowledge, skills and other characteristics of the personality that are required for the effective performance of tasks within an organisation. These characteristics are usually aggregated in homogenous units – competences (Kubes, Spillerova & Kurnicky, 2004, p. 60). A somewhat more technocratic view on the competence model is provided by Alexy, Boros & Sivak: "The competence profile usually represents numerical and graphically presented professional requirements of a job position for human abilities," (2004, p. 9). However, a competence model that is intended to be a qualitative standard or a comprehensive model for working behaviour should be prepared in greater detail, as a comprehensive written document, even explaining clearly enough the details of each of the key competences.

A competence model as a written document should include not only the positive (preferred, desirable) indicators pertaining to every key competence but also the negative indicators (undesired behavioural demonstrations) of those competences, which employees and managers should remove from their working behaviour, and should not use them at work (Blaskova, 2011).

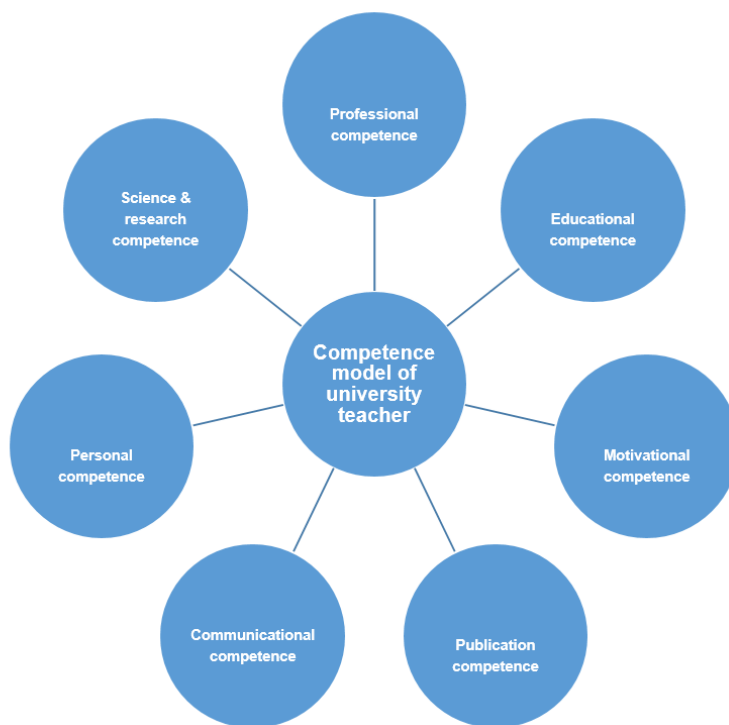
Competence model of university teacher should consider also new, progressive and relevant educational strategies. For example, a problem-based learning, in particular, has gradually become an increasingly popular student-centred approach in higher education teaching and learning across disciplines (Hoidn & Karkkainen, 2014, pp. 14–15). Problem-based learning (PBL) offers an attractive alternative to traditional approaches by shifting the emphasis from what is taught to what the student learns. PBL is designed to develop transferable skills along with the appropriate discipline-specific knowledge, while knowledge is learned in the same context in which it is used later on (Barrows, 1985; Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 2000). In addition to tangible resources, principally the intangible resources are important – the cultural transition of students and faculty from traditional approaches to PBL might also be difficult (Hoidn & Karkkainen, 2014, p. 35). It means it is important that faculty who teaches in PBL approach has the appropriate skills as well as opportunities for professional development for

the teachers (e.g. Fukami, 2007).

Another interesting approach to teaching and learning is a constructivist education. It is a form of collaborative and cooperative learning, underpinned by a following principles: learning should take place in authentic and realworld environments; students should be encouraged to become self-regulatory, self-mediated, and self-aware; teachers serve primarily as guides and facilitators of learning, not instructors; teachers should provide for and encourage multiple perspectives and representations of content (Dolittle & Camp, 1999). Socio-constructivist approaches to education represent a radical turning point in how the learning process is regarded as a process of discovering, constructing and reconstructing knowledge, attitudes, competence and values on the basis of one's own activity and existing experience with the help of the teacher and in cooperation with classmates (Spilkova, 2011, p. 118). Another approach, a scholarship of integration, moves beyond traditional boundaries to involve a variety of scholarly trends including those that are interdisciplinary, interpretive and integrative (Boyer, 1990, p. 21). The scholarship of teaching means that scholars are also learners. Teaching not only involves transmitting knowledge but also involves transforming and extending it. What is needed is a more inclusive view of what it means to be a scholar – recognition that knowledge is acquired through research, through synthesis, through practice and through teaching (Boyer, 1990, p. 24). It means the teachers should consider new and innovative teaching strategies (Tokarcikova, 2013, p. 497). Teaching innovations are defined as small changes in pedagogy that enable students to more quickly convert time to knowledge (Allgood, 2001). “Teachers need to know more than just their subject. They need to know the ways it can become understood, the ways it can be misunderstood, what counts as understanding; they need to know how individuals experience the subject,” (Laurillard, 1994, p. 6). Teachers could adopt a research-led learning paradigm (ask – investigate – create – discuss – reflect) in which students work collaboratively and study concepts, principles, issues or problems in some depth (versus surface learning), (Lueddeke, 2008, p. 8). Elton distinguishes between the need for universities to move from the position of simply ‘doing things better’ (essentially conservative) to ‘doing better things’ (essentially innovative). Here is needed a shift from teacher-centred to student-centred learning; the integration of generic and discipline specific issues; the use of radically different teaching and learning strategies such as enquiry-based learning (2006).

The aforementioned progressive strategies and elements of university education certainly need to be integrated into the contemplated competence model of university teachers. In addition to them, the competence model must also include the desirable forms of a particular working behaviour (education-science-publication) of teachers. Likewise, in an effort to maintain the standard content of competence models in the other sectors of social and economic life, the model must also encompass the negative, undesirable and undesired behavioural-working demonstrations by the teacher. Naturally, these should only serve as the negative, eschewed and rejected components. Such demonstrations of the teacher's behaviour must always be duly penalised. Otherwise, they might take root and turn into long-term educational-professional habits of the teacher, and consequently put at risk the strategic success of the university in the education market.

Chart 1: Competence model of university teacher



CONCLUSION

The motivation competence of the teachers is crucial in our study. It is basic predetermination of all pedagogic and expert activities and their satisfactory level. “Academic motivation can be depicted as the total of the skills, achievements and effectiveness shown by the individual under the circumstances he is exposed to,” (Aslan & Kirikkanat, 2013, p. 309). According Ferreira, Cardoso & Abrantesc, motivation is the force that drives us to carry out activities. We are motivated when we feel like doing something and we are able to sustain the effort required during the time required to achieve the objective we set ourselves. Motivation should be considered carefully by teachers, trying to mobilize the capabilities and potential of each student for academic success (2011). Motivation increases initiation of and persistence in activities. Students are more likely to begin a task they actually want to do. They are also more likely to continue working at it until they’ve completed it. Motivation increases students’ time on task and it is an important factor affecting their learning (Larson, 2000). In this connection, according Schuler, Brandstatter & Sheldon, and the competence satisfaction is important for all individuals. The achievement motive moderated the positive effects of competence satisfaction. Individuals with a high achievement motive benefited more from competence satisfaction and suffered more from need frustration than individuals with a low motive score. The achievement motive moderates the effects of competence satisfaction when predicting domain-specific flow and well-being, but not general flow and well-being (2013, p. 491).

This means that we see motivational competence as the most important element of the created competence model of the university teacher. The motivational influence or, by contrast, the demotivation impact on students, on the other teachers, as well as on the managers of the faculty and the university potentially poses the greatest benefits and concurrently the greatest risks. Recipients of university education – students, or younger colleagues – teachers, or managers – heads of departments, etc. will either openly, with pleasure and enthusiasm, accept the provided knowledge, offered assistance, and the performance of comprehensive professional duties, or they will be demotivated, fed up and disappointed at the negative educational, scientific, publication and other outputs of the teacher. Our experience has shown us that if the teacher makes efforts, i.e. is highly motivated to work with students responsibly and zealously, he or she also supports the other teachers in such motivational efforts; moreover, the teacher sensitively and correctly influences the motivation of students, acts as a positive role model for them, and leaves a significant and inspiring impression on their lives.

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