RESEARCH ARTICLE

International Journal of Changes in Education 2025, Vol. 00(00) 1–8 DOI: 10.47852/bonviewIJCE52024880

Evaluating Digital Competence: An Examination of Secondary School Teachers in China

Lei Jiang¹ and Na Yu^{2,*}

¹Curriculum and Instruction Research Center, Tianjin Academy of Educational Science, China ²College of Life Sciences, East China Normal University, China

Abstract: In recent years, the Chinese government has actively promoted the digital transformation of education, with a strong emphasis on integrating digital technologies into teaching practices. As a result, teachers' digital competence has become a key focus of academic research. This study surveyed secondary school teachers in mainland China using the Teacher Digital Competence Self-perception Instrument, and descriptive statistical analysis and inferential statistical analysis were conducted on the data. The findings indicate that teachers generally have a positive self-perception of their digital competence. However, they demonstrate weaker skills in digital teaching and learning management, while excelling in digital engagement. Significant differences in digital competence were observed based on teaching experience, educational background, and regional disparities. To address these challenges, China should offer more professional development opportunities for teachers and enhance policy support for improving digital competence. These findings and recommendations may provide useful insights for other countries and regions pursuing similar initiatives.

Keywords: evaluate, digital competence, secondary school teacher, professional development, digital transformation

1. Introduction

The digital competence of teachers is pivotal to the successful digital transformation of education. Teachers have the potential to leverage a wide range of online platforms and applications to diversify learning pathways, thereby enhancing student engagement and interaction. Furthermore, digital tools such as educational data analysis and assessment software enable teachers to gain more comprehensive insights into student learning progress and needs, facilitating personalized support and guidance.

The COVID-19 pandemic, which emerged in 2020, underscored the indispensable role of digital technologies in education. This global crisis necessitated a fundamental shift in students' learning methods and teachers' instructional approaches. In China, the restrictions on traditional face-to-face teaching compelled secondary school teachers to swiftly adopt and adapt to digital technologies and tools, transitioning to online modes of instruction. Consequently, this rapid digital shift has required teachers to rethink and modify their pedagogical approaches to align with students' learning demands in a digitally mediated environment.

While the proliferation of digital technologies in education has equipped teachers with new pedagogical tools, it has also heightened the expectations for their digital competence. Despite this growing reliance on technology, many teacher education programs have not provided adequate preparation for the integration of digital tools into teaching practice [1]. Therefore, assessing teachers' digital competence and identifying gaps in their skills are essential steps in informing targeted professional development and fostering their ability to meet the challenges of digital education.

2. Literature Review

Digital competence is defined as "the set of knowledge, skills, attitudes (including abilities, strategies, values, and awareness) required to effectively use Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and digital media to perform tasks, solve problems, communicate, and manage information, among other functions" [2]. This comprehensive definition has been widely adopted in academic research [3–5]. Building upon this concept, scholars have tailored the definition of teacher digital competence (TDC) to the specific professional context of teaching, describing it as the set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable teachers to effectively integrate ICT in supporting student learning [6].

A central focus in research on TDC is the development of valid measurement tools. In 2019, Ghomi and Redecker [7] designed a 22-item self-assessment scale based on the DigCompEdu framework [8], revealing significant differences in digital competence between STEM and non-STEM teachers. Subsequent applications of this scale located university professors in Brazil at level B1 in their self-perceived digital competence [9], indicating a moderate level of digital teaching competence [10]. In addition, several studies have utilized the Common Digital Competence Framework for Teachers to assess TDC [11–13].

In the context of China, quantitative studies indicate that primary and secondary school teachers possess moderate levels of

^{*}Corresponding author: Na Yu, College of Life Sciences, East China Normal University, China. Email: nyu@bio.ecnu.edu.cn

[©] The Author(s) 2025. Published by BON VIEW PUBLISHING PTE. LTD. This is an open access article under the CC BY License (https://creativecommons.org/ licenses/by/4.0/).

digital literacy [14], with survey-based research further revealing that in-service teachers demonstrate higher digital competence than pre-service teachers [15]. In Macau, English teachers reported the highest levels of self-perceived competence in selecting digital resources, but the lowest in digital assessment strategies [16]. One limitation in quantitative studies on TDC is the small sample sizes used [17]. Moreover, considering the substantial economic disparities across eastern, central, and western China, the impact of regional differences on TDC remains underexplored.

This study aims to address these gaps by conducting a largescale quantitative survey to investigate the digital competence of secondary school teachers through an expanded survey sample. By examining the current state and variations in digital competence across different teacher subgroups, this research seeks to identify the key challenges hindering teachers' digital competence and propose targeted recommendations to support their professional development.

3. Methodology

This study adopts a quantitative research approach, utilizing a self-perception scale to measure digital competence. The analysis focuses on examining the relationship between secondary school teachers' sociological background characteristics and their levels of digital competence, as revealed by the data collected.

3.1. Participants

A random sampling survey was conducted among teachers using an online questionnaire. Data collection occurred over two months between March and April 2023. The initial screening involved the use of reverse-coded items to ensure data integrity, followed by the exclusion of responses with uniform answers throughout or where more than half of the responses were identical.

A total of 745 valid questionnaires were retained for analysis. While this number may not seem large relative to the vast population of secondary school teachers in China, due to the time constraints of the survey and its nature as a phased initiative, the 745 valid questionnaires are sufficient to meet the requirements for data analysis. The sample encompassed teachers from 28 of the 34 provincial-level administrative regions in mainland China. To examine regional differences in teachers' digital competence, the location of the schools where the respondents worked was categorized into eastern, central, and western regions, following the classification standards of the National Bureau of Statistics of China. Given the small number of teachers with associate and doctoral degrees, these groups were combined with bachelor's and master's degrees, respectively, resulting in two educational attainment categories: graduate-level and above and bachelor's degree or below. Descriptive statistics of

Category	Subgroup	Quantity	Proportion/%
Gender	Male	185	24.832
Gender	Female	560	75 167
Teaching stage	Middle seheel	367	25.920
Teaching stage	whate school	207	33.839
	High school	478	64.161
Education	Diploma	1	0.134
background	Bachelor	483	64.832
	Master	255	34.228
	PhD	6	0.805
Years of teaching	-3.99	137	18.389
	4.0-6.99	86	11.543
	7–18.99	318	42.685
	19-30.99	156	20.94
	31-	48	6.442
	Junior	195	26.174
Professional title	Intermediate	408	54.765
	Senior	133	17.852
	Distinguished	9	1.208
	senior		

 Table 1

 Distribution of sample characteristics

the sample's sociological background characteristics are presented in Table 1.

3.2. Instrument

This study utilizes the Teacher Digital Competence Selfperception Instrument (TDCSI) as the measurement instrument, comprising 24 items across six domains, including digital ethics and safety, as well as digital engagement (see Figure 1). Although Yan et al. [18] previously created a questionnaire to evaluate ICT competence among Chinese primary and secondary school teachers, it was based on the Information Technology Application Competence Standards (Trial Version) issued by the Chinese Ministry of Education in 2014. Given the rapid technological advancements and evolving understanding of information technology over the past decade, the previous questionnaire may no longer adequately reflect current practices and competencies. As such, this study chose to adopt the TDCSI, which reflects these developments [19].

The present study first sought to evaluate the reliability and validity of the TDCSI and subsequently aimed to examine secondary school teachers' self-perceptions of their digital competence within the contemporary educational context.



Statistics of several fit indices of the hypothetical model						
Test	Fit index	Fit standard	Value	Result		
Absolute Fit Index	GFI	> 0.8, indicating good model fit	0.921	Good		
	RMSEA	< 0.06 indicating very good model fit	0.055	Good		
	RMSR	< 0.05, indicating good model fit	0.035	Good		
Incremental Fit Index	NFI	> 0.90, indicating good model fit	0.898	Acceptable		
	CFI	> 0.90, indicating good model fit	0.927	Good		
	IFI	> 0.90, indicating good model fit	0.927	Good		
Parsimony Fit Index	x2/df	< 3, indicating good model fit	2.31	Good		
	PCFI	> 0.50, indicating acceptable model	0.793	Acceptable		
	PNFI	> 0.8, indicating good model fit	0.768	Acceptable		

 Table 2

 Statistics of several fit indices of the hypothetical mode

3.3. Data analysis methods

All the data obtained for this study were analyzed using SPSS and AMOS version 26. SPSS includes various statistical methods, where descriptive statistical analysis can reveal teachers' digital competence levels, and analysis of variance can demonstrate differences in digital competence among teacher subgroups. For validity analysis, AMOS enables confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), assessing the questionnaire's structural validity by comparing model fit indices. In terms of reliability analysis, AMOS evaluates the reliability of individual dimensions and the overall questionnaire by calculating metrics such as composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

3.4. The reliability and validity of the questionnaire

To assess the reliability of the six dimensions and the overall scale, both Cronbach's α and Composite Reliability (CR) coefficients were employed to determine internal consistency. CFA was conducted using the diagonally weighted least squares estimation technique to evaluate the factorial validity of the scale.

Table 2 presents the results of the measurement model fit indices from the CFA. The indices indicate that the model exhibits a good fit for both the six dimensions and the overall scale. Specifically, the Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR) values were below 0.05, while the Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Relative Fit Index values exceeded 0.90. The Normed Fit Index (NFI) values were close to 0.90, demonstrating that the model fit for the six dimensions was satisfactory.

Table 3 reports that Cronbach's α values for all dimensions exceeded 0.8, indicating acceptable reliability of the instrument. Additionally, for convergent validity, the CR values were above 0.6, and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values were greater than 0.36 across all dimensions. Factor loadings were consistently above 0.50, further supporting the reliability and robustness of the model.

4. Results

To ensure the scientific rigor and validity of the data analysis, we initially performed a normality test on the sample data using histogram graphical methods. The results confirmed that the data followed a normal distribution. Subsequently, descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were utilized to analyze the sample data. The findings are detailed below.

Table 3
Results of CFA, factor loadings, and reliabilities of the model

Dimension	Item	Factor loading	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Digital safety	1	0.627	0.806	0.709	0.450
and ethics	2	0.725			
	3	0.656			
Digital	4	0.708	0.865	0.699	0.439
engagement	5	0.712			
	6	0.556			
Empowering	7	0.657	0.859	0.763	0.447
students	8	0.695			
	9	0.595			
	10	0.72			
Digital	11	0.623	0.874	0.783	0.475
resources	12	0.728			
	13	0.734			
	14	0.667			
Digital	15	0.743	0.831	0.833	0.457
teaching and	16	0.782			
learning	17	0.644			
management	18	0.667			
	19	0.574			
	20	0.625			
Digital	21	0.657	0.832	0.837	0.563
assessment	22	0.824			
	23	0.783			
	24	0.728			

4.1. Performance of individual items

We performed a statistical analysis of teachers' self-reported responses for each item. The TDCSI employs a five-point Likert scale, where responses range from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree," with corresponding scores of 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively. Using these scores, we computed the mean and standard deviation for each item and presented the results in Figure 2.

Figure 2 illustrates that teachers' self-evaluations are relatively low for items DTLM2, DTLM5, DTLM6, and DA1. These items address critical areas of teaching, learning, and assessment, suggesting that teachers may exhibit weaknesses in areas such as promoting teaching innovation, supporting student self-directed learning, facilitating collaborative learning, and implementing digital assessment strategies. Conversely, higher mean scores were observed for items DE1, DE3, and DR1, suggesting that teachers demonstrate strong performance in digital professional development, the effective use



Figure 2

Table 4

Conversion for TDCSI scores and proticiency levels						
Score	0~21	22~36	37~54	55~71	72~87	88~96
Threshold ratio		0.227	0.386	0.568	0.750	0.920
Level	A1 Newcomer	A2 Explorer	B1 Integrator	B2 Expert	C1 Leader	C2 Pioneer

of digital resources, and communication and collaboration with students and parents.

4.2. Performance across dimensions and overall

The TDCSI consists of 24 items, with a maximum possible score of 96 points. In this study, we established new level thresholds by referencing the proportional relationship between score levels and categories defined in the DigCompEdu framework, as outlined in Table 4.

We conducted a statistical analysis of both the overall digital competence and the individual dimensions for the sample of teachers, with the results detailed in Table 5. To assess the proficiency level of each dimension, we compared the sum of the average item scores within each dimension to the total possible score for that dimension. This ratio was then used to determine the dimension's level based on predefined intervals.

Table 5 indicates that the sample's overall average score is 63.209, suggesting that the teachers' digital competence is generally moderate, corresponding to the B2 proficiency level. In terms of specific dimensions, teachers demonstrated C1-level competence in DR and DE, while the other four dimensions were at the B2 level. Analyzing the ratio of mean scores to the total scores reveals that teachers underperformed in the areas of empowering students and managing digital teaching and learning.

 Table 5

 Statistical analysis of overall and dimensional digital competence levels in the sample

Dimension	Mean \pm SD	Total	Mean/total	Level	
DSE	8.595 ± 1.896	12	0.716	B2	
DE	9.181 ± 1.752	12	0.765	C1	
ES	9.607 ± 2.81	16	0.600	B2	
DR	12.019 ± 2.151	16	0.751	C1	
DTLM	13.821 ± 3.917	24	0.576	B2	
DA	9.987 ± 2.902	16	0.624	B2	
TDC	63.209 ± 11.952	96	0.658	B2	

4.3. Differences in digital competence among teachers with different educational backgrounds

From Table 6, it is evident that there are significant statistical differences in self-perceived digital competence levels between teachers with graduate degrees and those with undergraduate degrees or lower (TDC, p = 0.002 < 0.01). Specifically, teachers holding master's or doctoral degrees demonstrate markedly higher digital competence compared to their counterparts with diplomas or bachelor's degrees. These differences are observed across various dimensions of digital competence.

Statistical differences in self-perceived competence are evident in the dimensions of digital safety and ethics, digital resources, and digital teaching and learning management, with *p*-values of less than 0.05. Additionally, in the dimension of digital engagement, significant statistical differences are noted between teachers with diplomas or bachelor's degrees and those with master's or doctoral degrees (p = 0.015 < 0.01). In the dimension of digital assessment, the differences are extremely significant ($p \le 0.001$). Conversely, there are no statistically significant differences among teachers with varying educational backgrounds in the dimension of empowering students (p > 0.05).

4.4. Differences in digital competence among teachers based on teaching experience

Table 7 reveals an inverse relationship between teaching experience and self-perceived digital competence among teachers. Specifically, as teaching experience increases, the reported level of digital competence decreases. There is an extremely significant statistical difference in digital competence levels based on teaching experience (TDC, $p \le 0.001$).

Regarding individual dimensions, teachers with less experience score higher in the areas of digital safety and ethics, digital engagement, digital resources, and digital assessment. Extremely significant statistical differences are found in digital competence across these four dimensions based on teaching experience (p<0.001). However, no statistical differences are observed

backgrounds Mean ± SD							
DSE	8.49 ±1.854	8.78 ±1.962	-1.980	0.048*			
DE	9.05 ± 1.780	9.43 ± 1.672	-2.950	0.003**			
ES	9.53 ± 2.737	9.75 ± 2.941	-1.029	0.304			
DR	11.88 ± 2.150	12.28 ± 2.133	-2.439	0.015*			
DTLM	13.59 ± 3.882	14.25 ± 3.954	-2.193	0.029*			
DA	9.70 ± 2.907	10.52 ± 2.820	-3.724	0.000***			
TDC	62.24 ± 11.906	65.02 ± 11.849	-3.045	0.002**			

 Table 6

 Results of the differences in digital competence among teachers with different educational backgrounds

Note: *.Sig < 0.05; **.Sig < 0.01; ***.Sig < 0.001.

Table 7

Results of the difference analysis of teacher digital competence based on teaching experience

			Years of teaching				
Dimension	~3	4~6	7~18	19~30	31~	K-W	Sig.
			Mean \pm SD				
DSE	9.161 ± 1.797	8.837 ± 1.835	8.516 ± 1.861	8.288 ± 1.921	8.063 ± 1.973	26.016	0.000***
DE	9.489 ± 1.657	9.081 ± 1.693	9.340 ± 1.711	8.891 ± 1.869	8.375 ± 1.563	22.162	0.000***
ES	9.905 ± 2.691	9.326 ± 2.793	9.447 ± 2.887	9.712 ± 2.694	9.979 ± 2.869	4.476	0.345
DR	12.613 ± 1.892	11.953 ± 1.855	12.006 ± 2.221	11.769 ± 2.233	11.333 ± 2.183	20.312	0.000***
DT	14.599 ± 3.750	13.512 ± 3.592	13.597 ± 4.019	13.673 ± 3.921	14.125 ± 3.898	9.316	0.054
DA	10.832 ± 2.513	10.419 ± 2.433	9.881 ± 3.051	9.301 ± 2.901	9.729 ± 2.970	24.812	0.000***
TDC	66.599 ± 10.393	63.128 ± 10.317	62.786 ± 12.239	61.635 ± 12.536	61.604 ± 12.943	17.713	0.001***

Note: *.Sig < 0.05; **.Sig < 0.01; ***.Sig < 0.001.

Table 8
Results of the differences in teachers' digital competence across different regions

		Mean \pm SD			
Dimension	East	Center	West	K-W	Sig.
DSE	8.963 ± 2.045	8.425 ± 1.652	8.392 ± 2.007	16.124	0.000***
DE	9.695 ± 1.675	8.887 ± 1.697	9.000 ± 1.787	33.808	0.000***
ES	9.931 ± 2.730	9.601 ± 2.712	9.177 ± 3.014	5.822	0.054
DR	12.638 ± 2.053	11.717 ± 2.074	11.707 ± 2.224	31.024	0.000***
DT	14.533 ± 4.022	13.852 ± 3.838	12.801 ± 3.671	18.753	0.000***
DA	10.654 ± 2.955	9.563 ± 2.822	9.823 ± 2.793	20.056	0.000***
TDC	66.415 ± 11.828	62.044 ± 11.649	60.901 ± 11.704	23.701	0.000***

Note: *.Sig < 0.05; **.Sig < 0.01; ***.Sig < 0.001.

in the dimensions of empowering students and digital teaching and learning management across varying levels of teaching experience (p > 0.05).

4.5. Differences in digital competence among teachers in various regions

Table 8 indicates that teachers in the eastern region report the highest levels of self-perceived digital competence, whereas those in the western region report the lowest. The statistical differences in self-perceived digital competence among teachers from the various areas are extremely significant (TDC, p = 0.000).

When examining specific dimensions of digital competence namely, digital safety and ethics, digital engagement, digital resources, digital teaching and learning management, and digital assessment—there are significant statistical differences among teachers from the eastern, central, and western regions (p = 0.000). However, no statistical differences are observed among these regions in the dimension of empowering students (p = 0.054 > 0.05).

5. Conclusion and Discussion

5.1. The overall digital competence of Chinese secondary school teachers: Strong but uneven across dimensions

Data analysis reveals that the overall digital competence of secondary school teachers in mainland China is relatively strong, with an average self-perception score of 63.209, which places it within the "moderate" range. This result aligns with findings for

in-service mathematics teachers [20] and surpasses the competence levels observed in pre-service teachers [21].

In terms of specific competencies, Chinese secondary school teachers demonstrated their strongest performance in the domain of digital engagement, which may be attributed to China's well-established professional development system that supports teacher growth. However, the analysis also identified significant gaps in teachers' abilities to manage digital teaching and learning. Previous research by Lindberg et al. [22], based on small focus group interviews, indicated that teachers are acutely aware of the challenges posed by the digital era to their competence. A range of factors—including limited policy support, insufficiently targeted professional training, and a lack of adequate digital resources—contribute to this deficiency.

5.2. Distinct patterns of digital competence across teacher groups

There are notable patterns in the digital competence levels among teachers from different educational backgrounds. Specifically, teachers with postgraduate degrees (master's or higher) exhibit stronger digital competence compared to those with undergraduate degrees or below. This finding aligns with the research of Chen et al. [23], which reported that Chinese teachers with a master's or doctoral degree demonstrated higher overall information literacy. Similarly, Diz-Otero et al. [24] observed that "higher competence is seen in the use of digital content creation among faculty with master's degrees."

Our findings also indicate that younger teachers exhibit higher levels of self-perceived digital competence, consistent with the results of Nieto-Isidro et al. [25]. In contrast, older teachers [26] and those with more teaching experience [27] tend to report lower levels of self-assessed digital competence. One possible explanation for this discrepancy is that younger teachers are more likely to have been introduced to digital technologies earlier in their careers, which may lead to a more positive disposition toward these tools [28], as well as more frequent use of digital hardware and software.

5.3. Uneven development of digital competence among secondary school teachers across regions

Our research offers empirical evidence confirming the existence of a digital competence gap among teachers in mainland China. Previous studies have highlighted a significant decline in teachers' information literacy from the eastern to the central and western regions of China, with notable disparities across these areas [23]. In the western region, teachers encounter insufficient digital infrastructure and lower levels of information literacy [29]. In central China, while teachers acknowledge the importance of digital pedagogy, they have yet to fully integrate digital technologies into all phases of the instructional process [30]. In contrast, the eastern region, being the most economically advanced, exhibits higher levels of digital competence among teachers, who frequently incorporate information technology into their teaching practices [31].

The regional disparities in digital competence among secondary school teachers in China may stem from the economic prosperity of the eastern region, which ensures ample funding. This not only equips schools with advanced digital teaching facilities such as smart interactive whiteboards and virtual reality teaching equipment, establishes robust campus networks, but also offers teachers competitive salaries and abundant professional development opportunities, attracting highly educated talent proficient in cutting-edge digital technologies to the education sector. In contrast, the central and western regions face economic underdevelopment, strained educational budgets, inadequate teaching resources, and insufficient teacher compensation and career advancement prospects, all of which severely hinder the development of teachers' digital competence.

6. Recommendations and Strategies

Developing teachers' digital competence requires a systematic and sustained approach, involving coordinated efforts across educational, technological, and administrative sectors [32]. Additionally, it is essential to develop and effectively utilize high-quality educational resources. This includes integrating national education with public service platforms and support systems at various levels [33].

Enhancing teachers' digital competence also hinges on proactive innovation at the institutional level. Schools should evaluate their digital maturity to identify effective applications of digital resources and technologies within student management and studentcentered instructional processes. Furthermore, schools should formulate personalized digital competence development plans tailored to the specific needs of each educator [34].

To address regions and schools with deficient levels of digital competence, it is crucial for local authorities to strategically coordinate educational resources. Priority should be given to resolving challenges related to digital equipment, resources, and faculty in these underserved areas. This includes enhancing the equitable distribution of digital infrastructure and resources, such as smart classrooms, digital learning platforms, and digital tools, to foster a digital educational environment.

Funding

This research was funded by the Shanghai Education Science Research General Project (NO. C2024270) and Shanghai Municipal Education Commission's "Key Research Base for 'cultivating virtue and nurturing people' in Humanities and Social Sciences (Life Sciences)" Project (2024 1-1-11).

Ethical Statement

This study does not contain any studies with human or animal subjects performed by any of the authors.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest to this work.

Data Availability Statement

The data that support this work are available upon reasonable request to the corresponding author.

Author Contribution Statement

Lei Jiang: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. Na Yu: Resources, Data curation, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

References

- Gudmundsdottir, G. B., & Hatlevik, O. E. (2018). Newly qualified teachers' professional digital competence: Implications for teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(2), 214–231. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017. 1416085
- [2] Ferrari, A. (2012). Digital competence in practice: An analysis of frameworks. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.
- [3] Pettersson, F. (2018). On the issues of digital competence in educational contexts–a review of literature. *Education Information Technologies*, 23(3), 1005–1021. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s10639-017-9649-3
- [4] Søby, M. (2013). Learning to be: Developing and understanding digital competence. *Nordic Journal of Digital Literacy*, 8(3), 134–138. https://doi.org/10.18261/ISSN1891-943X-2013-03-01
- [5] Tsankov, N., & Damyanov, I. (2019). The digital competence of future teachers: Self-assessment in the context of their development. *International Journal of Interactive Mobile Technologies*, 13(12), 4–18. https://doi.org/10.3991/ijim.v13i12.11068
- [6] Basilotta-Gómez-Pablos, V., Matarranz, M., Casado-Aranda, L. A., & Otto, A. (2022). Teachers' digital competencies in higher education: A systematic literature review. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 19(1), 8. https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-021-00312-8
- [7] Ghomi, M., & Redecker, C. (2019). Digital competence of educators (DigCompEdu): Development and evaluation of a self-assessment instrument for teachers' digital competence. In *Proceedings of the 11th International Conference on Computer Supported Education*, 541–548. https://doi.org/10.5220/ 0007679005410548
- [8] Redecker, C. (2017). European framework for the digital competence of educators: DigCompEdu. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. https://doi.org/10.2760/159770
- [9] Santo, E. d. E., Dias-Trindade, S., & Reis, R. S. d. (2022). Self-assessment of digital competence for educators: A Brazilian study with university professors. *Research, Society and Development*, 11(9), e26311930725. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.33448/rsd-v11i9.30725
- [10] Trindade, S. D., & Moreira, J. A. (2020). Assessment of high school teachers on their digital competences. *Magis: Revista Internacional de Investigación en Educación*, 13(1), 1–21.
- [11] Galindo-Domínguez, H., & Bezanilla, M. J. (2021). Digital competence in the training of pre-service teachers: Perceptions of students in the degrees of early childhood education and primary education. *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education*, 37(4), 262–278. https://doi.org/10.1080/21532974. 2021.1934757
- [12] Pascual, M. A., Ortega-Carrillo, J. A., Pérez-Ferra, M., & Fombona, J. (2019). Competencias Digitales en los Estudiantes del Grado de Maestro de Educación Primaria. El caso de tres Universidades Españolas. [Digital competences in the students of the degree of primary education teacher The case of three Spanish Universities]. *Formacion Universitaria*, *12*, 141–150. https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-50062019000600141
- [13] Touron, J., Martín, D., Asencio, E. N., & Victoria Íñigo, S. P. (2023). Construct validation of a questionnaire to measure teachers' digital competence (TDC). *Revista española de pedagogía*, 76(269), 17. https://doi.org/10.22550/REP76-1-2018-02

- [14] Du, Y. Y., & Huang, Q. S. (2021). he yi ti sheng zhong xiao xue jiao shi shu zi su yang ji yu x sheng he y sheng zhong xiao xue jiao shi diao cha shu ju de shi zheng yan jiu. [How to enhance the digital literacy of primary and secondary school teachers: An empirical study based on the survey data of primary and secondary school teachers in provinces X and Y]. Educational Research and Experiment, No. 201(04), 62–69.
- [15] Yang, L., Martínez-Abad, F., & García-Holgado, A. (2022). Exploring factors influencing pre-service and in-service teachers perception of digital competencies in the Chinese region of Anhui. *Education and Information Technologies*, 27(9), 12469–12494. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-022-11085-6
- [16] Benali, M., Kaddouri, M., & Azzimani, T. (2018). Digital competence of Moroccan teachers of English. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology*, 14(2), 99–120.
- [17] Mattar, J., Ramos, D. K., & Lucas, M. R. (2022). DigCompbased digital competence assessment tools: Literature review and instrument analysis. *Education and Information Technologies*, 27(8), 10843–10867. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-022-11034-3
- [18] Yan, H. B., Li, X. Y., & Ren, Y. Q. (2018). Development and validation of self-measurement tools for pre-service teachers' ICT competency. *e-Education Research*, 1, 98–106. https://doi. org/10.13811/j.cnki.eer.2018.01.014
- [19] Jiang, L., & Yu, N. (2023). Developing and validating a teachers' digital competence model and self-assessment instrument for secondary school teachers in China. *Education and Information Technologies*, 29, 8817–8842. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s10639-023-12182-w
- [20] Moreno, D., Palacios, A., Barreras, Á., & Pascual, V. (2020). An assessment of the impact of teachers' digital competence on the quality of videos developed for the flipped math classroom. *Mathematics*, 8(2), 148. https://doi.org/10.3390/math8020148
- [21] Guillén-Gámez, F. D., Lugones, A., & Mayorga-Fernández, M. J. (2019). ICT use by pre-service foreign languages teachers according to gender, age and motivation. *Cogent Education*, 6(1), 1574693. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019. 1574693
- [22] Lindberg, O. J., Olofsson, A. D., & Fransson, G. (2017). Same but different? An examination of Swedish upper secondary school teachers' and students' views and use of ICT in education. *The International Journal of Information and Learning Technology*, 34(2), 122–132.
- [23] Chen, M., Zhou, C., Man, S., & Li, Y. (2023). Investigating teachers' information literacy and its differences in individuals and schools: A large-scale evaluation in China. *Education* and Information Technologies, 28(3), 3145–3172. https://doi. org/10.1007/s10639-022-11271-6
- [24] Diz-Otero, M., Portela-Pino, I., Domínguez-Lloria, S., & Pino-Juste, M. (2023). Digital competence in secondary education teachers during the COVID-19-derived pandemic: Comparative analysis. *Education+ Training*, 65(2), 181–192. https://doi.org/ 10.1108/ET-01-2022-0001
- [25] Nieto-Isidro, S., Martínez-Abad, F., & Rodríguez-Conde, M. J. (2022). Observed and self-perceived information literacy among teachers and future teachers and their relationship with sociodemographic variables. *Revista de Educación*, 396, 35–61. https://doi.org/10.4438/1988-592X-RE-2022-396-529
- [26] Hämäläinen, R., Nissinen, K., Mannonen, J., Lämsä, J., Leino, K., & Taajamo, M. (2021). Understanding teaching professionals' digital competence: What do PIAAC and TALIS

reveal about technology-related skills, attitudes, and knowledge? *Computers in Human Behavior*, *117*, 106672. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.chb.2020.106672

- [27] Lucas, M., Bem-Haja, P., Siddiq, F., Moreira, A., & Redecker, C. (2021). The relation between in-service teachers' digital competence and personal and contextual factors: What matters most? *Computers & Education*, *160*, 104052. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.compedu.2020.104052
- [28] Štemberger, T., & Čotar Konrad, S. (2021). Attitudes towards using digital technologies in education as an important factor in developing digital competence: The case of Slovenian student teachers. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, 16(14), 83–98.
- [29] Zhou, Z. B., Wu, J. S., & Wang, J. (2016). diān xī piàn qū jiào yù xìn xī huà xiàn zhuàng diào chá jí fā zhăn cè luè yán jiū. [Current situation survey and development strategy research of education informationization in mountain areas of Western Yunnan]. *China Educational Technology*, 11, 79–86.
- [30] Wu, D., Li, C. C., Zhou, W. T., & Lu, C. (2016). wǒ guó zhōng bù dì qū jī chǔ jiào yù xìn xī huà fā zhǎn shuǐ píng yán jiū—jī yú hú běi 、 hú nán 、 jiāng xī 、 hé nán 、 ān huī 5shěng 14 gè shì (qū) de diào chá fēn xī. [Study on the ICT development level of elementary education in Central China—Based on the data analysis of 5 provinces 14 cities (Districts) From Hubei, Hunan, Jiangxi, Henan and Anhui]. *China Educational Technology*, 354(7), 1–9.

- [31] Chen, M., Zhou, C., Wang, H., & Wu, D. (2020). zhōng xiǎo xué jiào shī xìn xī sù yǎng zhǐ shù yán jiū —_jī yú dōng bù Xshěng jiào shī xìn xī sù yǎng diào chá fēn xī. [Research on information literacy index of K-12 teachers: Based on survey and analysis of teachers' information literacy in Eastern X Province]. *e-Education Research*, 41(4), 7.
- [32] European Commission. (2017). DigComp 2.1: The digital competence framework for citizens (JRC science for policy report). Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. https://doi.org/10.2760/38842
- [33] UNESCO. (2019). Guidelines on the development of open educational resources policies. USA: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. https://unesdoc.unesco. org/ark:/48223/pf0000370939
- [34] Ertmer, P. A., & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T. (2013). Removing obstacles to the pedagogical changes required by Jonassen's vision of authentic technology-enabled learning. *Computers* & *Education*, 64, 175–182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu. 2012.10.008

How to Cite: Jiang, L., & Yu, N. (2025). Evaluating Digital Competence: An Examination of Secondary School Teachers in China. *International Journal of Changes in Education*. https://doi.org/10.47852/bonviewIJCE52024880