



# Managing Teachers

**The centrality of teacher management to quality education. Lessons from developing countries.**

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## Foreword

“ *This valuable report offers a rich menu of examples from different countries of good practice in this critical area of teacher management and support.* ”

As the world makes gains in providing quality basic education for all children, the role of teachers becomes increasingly pivotal for achieving, consolidating and sustaining progress. This is firstly a matter of numbers, and much attention is rightly given to the estimate of 18 million additional teachers required by 2015 if all children should have a quality education. Secondly it is a matter of the qualification, training and motivation of teachers to ensure that the system is staffed with competent and dedicated professionals. There is much to be argued over and decided upon as regards qualification pathways and optimum models for training and motivating teachers in an environment of time and financial constraints. Thirdly there are the issues pertaining to teacher management and support for quality education systems. This is about rights of teachers in relation to systems for appointment, deployment, promotion and remuneration; as well as their working environment and conditions of service. There is often much tension between the need for teachers' unions to safeguard the rights of teachers and the need for governments to use scarce resources responsibly. These are often the stumbling blocks that need to be addressed through effective, efficient and fair systems for teacher management and support.

It is against this background and the pivotal importance of teachers that I find this joint VSO and CfBT Education Trust report extremely timely and relevant. The report outlines the causes, consequences and costs of poor teacher management, and provides clear examples of best practice for strengthening teacher management systems from a range of countries. It is therefore an essential resource for policy dialogue and for making critical investment decisions in the drive towards quality basic education for all. I highly recommend it to policy makers in government and decision makers in development partner agencies, as well as to senior officials in teachers' unions and civil society organisations. The main message from this report is that the world cannot afford to ignore the need to ensure that an adequate number of teachers, of the right calibre, will be there to deliver on the goal of quality basic education for all by 2015.

Progressive views of quality education have shifted from the single factor approach of simply training teachers and providing textbooks, etc; towards more holistic models such as UNICEF's child friendly schools. These models incorporate a myriad of quality-promoting features centred on the rights and well being of the child as the focal point for whom a quality learning environment and process is being created. Equally, these models recognise the central role of the teacher as the facilitator of learning and the custodian of the well being of the child. This then implies a need to safeguard the rights and professional well being of the teacher through a well designed teacher management and support system. Clearly quality education requires competent, motivated, well trained, adequately rewarded and well supported teachers. This in turn requires reform in the policies, systems and strategies relating to teacher management and support in many countries. Training patterns, remuneration packages and other professional reward systems, as well as mentoring and support mechanisms for teachers have to be reviewed. Capacity also needs to be strengthened in the schools, teacher training and support institutions, school management bodies and inspection/supervision authorities; in order to promote and sustain reforms that support teachers in delivering quality education for all our children.

This valuable report offers a rich menu of examples from different countries of good practice in this critical area of teacher management and support. It will therefore enable governments in developing countries to learn from each other about what works well in teacher management and support, so that their education budgets can be spent wisely, for teachers to get the training, support and incentives they need to teach effectively, and for all children to realise their right to a quality education.



**Cream Wright**  
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## Acronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
ASCD	Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
CfBT	Centre for British Teachers
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
DFID	Department for International Development
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management Information System
EQUIP	Educational Quality Improvement Program
GCE	Global Campaign for Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ISCED	The International Standard Classification of Education
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MUSTER	Multi-Site Teacher Education Research
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PASEC	Programme of Analysis of Education Systems
PTR	Pupil-Teacher Ratio
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
TTI	Teacher Training Institution
UIS	UNESCO Institute of Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas

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agement

strategies  
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classrooms.

# BIG CLASS

- CREATING GROUPS STUDIES
- DON'T GIVE MANY EXERCISE QUESTIONS
- SPEAK LOUDLY.
- MOVE ROUND THE CLASS.
- BE PATIENT AND KIND
-

## Executive summary

“ *The quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers.* ”

This report gathers together learning from primary research undertaken by CfBT Education Trust and VSO in thirteen developing countries and from other available national level research and international synthesis reports concerning the human resource aspects of quality education and in particular the role of teachers. The headline message of the report is that:

*‘The quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers.’*

(Barber and Mourshed, 2007: 40)

For the quality of teaching and learning to be improved the report argues that:

- **the role of headteachers is crucial** for improving teacher management and teacher motivation and ultimately for improving learning outcomes for girls and boys. The introduction of management training for school leaders would reap countless rewards, and should be prioritised
- management of education has many dimensions, but **the biggest investment of funds and human resources has always been and should always be in teachers.** With 18 million new teachers needed by 2015, it is vital that governments and donors prioritise teacher management
- **the quality of teacher training dictates the quality of teaching.** Moves to reduce the length and quality of pre-service teacher training to cut costs and meet the demand for 18 million new teachers by 2015, are damaging the quality of teaching and learning. When teachers are not adequately trained, children are denied their right to a quality education
- **gender and inclusion should be addressed in teacher management and training systems:** to ensure that there are a representative number of positive role models for girls, boys, children with disabilities and those from other excluded groups; so that teachers enjoy equal pay and conditions; and so that girls and so called ‘hard to reach’ children have a better chance of improved learning outcomes.

Chapter 1 presents the argument that improvements to teacher management systems are central to the achievement of the 2015

Education For All goals. Good management by effective school leaders has been shown to improve teaching and learning outcomes for children indirectly and most powerfully through its influence on staff motivation, performance and working conditions (VSO, 2002; GCE, 2006; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007). Governments and donors that are supporting education in developing countries cannot afford the detrimental effects of poor management on the financing and quality of education systems.

Yet as Chapter 2 outlines, teachers’ rights have not been consistently applied across developing countries. The 1966 ILO/UNESCO Recommendations Concerning the Status of Teachers were reiterated in 2006, 40 years after they were agreed: a sign that whilst significant progress has been made, the Recommendations have not been effectively implemented in all countries. This chapter makes some observations on the following areas:

- teachers’ salaries
- teachers’ choice of workplace
- academic freedom
- teachers’ responsibilities
- rights of all teachers
- professional dialogue between teachers and policymakers.

In chapter 3, the constraints and consequences of poor teacher management are outlined. In particular constraints include the following:

- overly tight fiscal management policies
- weak management of skills
- weak education systems where headteachers do not have the responsibility for recruitment and deployment of teachers
- weak management systems for the recruitment and deployment of teachers and administrators
- the lack or poor quality of training of all types – pre-service, in-service and continuing professional development (CPD) – for teachers, headteachers and administrative staff
- inconsistent appraisals for all these levels of education staff.

Some of the consequences of poor teacher management are then explored:

- regional, gender, and disability related imbalances in teacher deployment mechanisms
- inadequate teacher terms and conditions
- poor living and working conditions for teachers and school leaders
- inadequate or absent administrative support
- weak capacity and quality of teacher training institutions (TTIs)
- high levels of teacher attrition
- low motivation and morale of teachers and school leaders

The chapter concludes by discussing the economic and quality costs of poor management.

Chapter 4 provides examples and case studies from VSO's *Valuing Teachers* and other research into how education managers, governments and donors are approaching teacher management in developing countries. The approaches cited have yielded positive results where they have been applied and the authors recommend that, with appropriate adaptation to the context and culture, they could be applied in other countries, and yield similar positive improvements in the quality of education children experience. The case studies cover:

- effective decentralised teacher development
- teachers' voice in school management
- teacher allocation and deployment: rural – urban, gender and disability related imbalances
- management reforms related to teachers' salaries and working conditions (including reforms relating to equal pay, conditions and opportunities for female and disabled teachers)
- the use of para-teachers and contract teachers and the controversy around quality and costs
- pre-service training
- in-service training
- cluster approaches to Continuing Professional Development
- integrated approaches to school-based management.

In conclusion, the authors argue that quality discussions that only focus on learner achievements and outcomes, without discussing education management, are incomplete. They maintain that although pre- and in-service training of education managers can be costly, the cost to the quality of education where such training is absent is much higher.

They also maintain that while many types of exclusion are context specific, gender and disability related inequality cuts across all countries. All governments and donors should therefore ensure that gender and disability are addressed comprehensively in their teacher training and management systems. The need to recruit and train 18 million new teachers (for primary education alone) presents an unprecedented opportunity to address long-standing imbalances in class sizes and teaching quality between schools in urban and rural areas and between male and female teachers. The opportunity should also be used to address the under-representation of teachers with disabilities, teachers from linguistic minorities and other context specific excluded groups, in order to provide valuable role models for girls, children with disabilities and other currently excluded children, and importantly to encourage their parents not only to send their children to school, but to keep them there until they have completed their education.

Chapter 5 provides a summary of concluding recommendations. This includes the following:

## **Recommendations to developing country governments**

### **1. Stronger management systems, better decision-making and clearer roles and responsibilities**

For governments to:

- develop and use effective Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) at central, local and school levels to enable better planning and management in the training, recruitment, deployment and CPD of teachers
- encourage the active participation and involvement of teachers and headteachers in decision-making with clearly defined roles and responsibilities
- strengthen systems for the training, recruitment and deployment of teachers, including the provision of appropriate incentives for teachers working in hardship posts

- work to reduce pupil-teacher ratios to the UNESCO recommended level of 40:1 (UIS, 2006: 42) and avoid double and triple shifting unless different teachers are used for different shifts.

## 2. More flexible fiscal management policies

For governments to:

- improve salaries, incentives, living and working conditions for teachers, including making adequate arrangements for maternity and paternity leave
- invest in the capacity building of Teacher Training Institutions
- where the use of para-teacher<sup>1</sup> schemes is necessary in the short- to medium-term to attract and retain teachers in remote areas, ensure that appropriate levels of in-service training are given to para-teachers that enables them to qualify as regular teachers in the longer-term.

## 3. More sufficient and appropriate management of workforce skills

For governments to:

- ensure that pre-service teacher training duration is at least one year or if shorter, is coupled with adequate and formalised in-service training of a comparable level and quality
- provide all teachers with training and access to information about inclusion, focusing on gender and disability (and where appropriate on class, caste, language of instruction, HIV and AIDS or other context specific dimensions of exclusion) as part of their pre- and in-service teacher training
- provide effective CPD, leadership and school management training to ensure teachers, headteachers and educational administrators are adequately equipped and enabled to provide children with a good quality education

- put in place transparent appraisal systems for teachers and administrative staff
- prohibit discrimination against women, people with disabilities and minorities in teacher recruitment, posting and promotion systems through the use of laws, guidelines, codes of ethics, and monitoring and evaluation systems
- encourage women, people with disabilities and minorities to enter or remain in the teaching profession, by providing appropriate incentives and allowances.

## Recommendations to donors, inter-governmental organisations and teachers' unions

### 4. More flexible partnerships with developing country governments should support:

- improved EMIS to inform systems for the training, recruitment, deployment and CPD of teachers
- improved salaries, incentives, living and working conditions for teachers and headteachers
- capacity building for teacher and headteacher training including ensuring that advice provided on teacher training issues does not negatively impact the quality of teaching and learning
- capacity development of education managers in schools, and at district, provincial and national levels
- effective appraisal systems for teachers and administrative staff.

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<sup>1</sup>This report defines **para teachers** as those who do not meet the minimum standard required to teach in their country. Typically, these unqualified teachers may have received little or no pre-service training and are employed on different terms and conditions to professional, qualified teachers. They are distinct from '**contract teachers**' – which can refer to either qualified or unqualified teachers who are employed on short-term contracts and who do not receive the same benefits (pensions, paid leave, sick pay, maternity leave, etc.) as permanent teachers. '**Volunteer teachers**' can refer either to: graduates that have been recruited on 'Teach First' type schemes, who are qualified in the sense that they have a university degree and sound subject knowledge; or to unqualified teachers employed by schools managed by Community Based Organisations, NGOs or Faith Based Organisations, on either a voluntary basis or on much lower wages than professional teachers.



## 1. Introduction, context, methodology and definitions

“Effective teachers are key to delivering the education MDGs but good teaching is only able to thrive within a favourable environment.”

### 1.1 Introduction and context

#### 1.1.1 Education for All and the Millennium Development Goals

In 1990, representatives of the majority of the world's nations committed themselves at the World Conference on Education for All (EFA) in Jomtien, Thailand, to achieve universal primary education (UPE) and reduce illiteracy by the year 2000. As the new millennium approached, it was clear that many developing countries were still very far from reaching these targets, so in 2000 in Dakar, Senegal, representatives from the international community met again and committed themselves to achieving EFA by 2015 through six key educational goals, which correlate highly with two of the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). See Box 1A and 1B.

The 2008 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* found that out of 149 countries with available data (a further 54 countries had no data available), 63 had achieved UPE by 2005<sup>2</sup>; 28 were on track with a high likelihood of achieving it by 2015; 17 were moving towards UPE but had a low chance of achieving it by 2015. A further 17

were at risk of not achieving UPE as progress is too slow or they are moving backwards; and 8 were at serious risk of not achieving UPE 2015 (UNESCO, 2007: 180).

#### 1.1.2 The critical role of teacher management

In order to achieve the MDGs for education and the wider EFA goals, one of the critical inputs to the education system is the school teacher. Effective teachers are key to delivering the education MDGs but good teaching is only able to thrive within a favourable environment. Whilst there is evidence of increased education financing in terms of both aid and national spending on education (UNESCO PRESS, 2007), these increases have not been accompanied by improvements in education management systems. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) have indicated that teacher management at school level is crucial for teacher motivation and morale. Management of the whole education system affects teacher morale in that most decisions that affect teachers are made outside the school with minimal involvement of direct teacher managers.

#### BOX 1A: The EFA Goals

1. Expand early childhood care and education
2. Provide free and compulsory primary education for all
3. Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults
4. Increase adult literacy by 50%
5. Achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015
6. Improve the quality of education

#### BOX 1B: The Education MDGs

**GOAL 2:** Achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE), which contains **Target 3:** Ensure that all children (boys and girls) complete a full cycle of primary schooling by 2015; and

**GOAL 3:** Promote gender equality and empower women, which contains **Target 4:** Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and at all levels by 2015.

<sup>2</sup>These figures are calculated using enrolment data rather than completion data. If the latter were used in line with the full definition of UPE, the achievements cited would be even less positive.

“Efficient and effective systems of teacher management, deployment and training (including continuing professional development), are critical to ensuring a quality education is available for all children in developing countries.”

## 1.2 Rationale for this study

There is ample research, which illustrates the growing difficulty for developing countries as a result of their limited resources, to meet the immense needs of a rapidly expanding school population. UIS (2006: 100) estimated that an additional 18 million teachers would be needed between 2004 and 2015 to meet the UPE goal. Findings and conclusions from the Multi-Site Teacher Education Research (MUSTER) a four year programme of research on teacher education focused on insights from Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa and Trinidad and Tobago, are clear: the MDGs relating to education cannot be met unless the supply of teachers is adequate to keep pupil-teacher ratios (PTRs) within reasonable limits, and the quality of their training is sufficient to result in minimum acceptable levels of pupil achievement (Lewin and Stuart, 2003).

In addition to addressing the problem of teacher shortages and training, Göttelmann-Duret (2000) in a synthesis report on the management of primary school teachers in South Asia identifies the challenges of high turnover of teaching staff, particularly in remote rural areas; high rates of teacher absenteeism; and high levels of teacher dissatisfaction with current management and support practices. Anim, Halliday and Rodwell (1996) also indicate weaknesses in management processes as a key challenge. They point to the fact that responsibility for managing teachers – the largest cadre of public workers in many African countries – is often spread among various ministries and commissions. Weak management linkages among the employing authorities compound the problems inherent in this diffusion of management responsibility.

Describing the situation of the teaching profession from a review of national research from nine African and Asian countries, the Global Campaign for Education (GCE, 2006) gives an overview of the problems faced by teachers, education managers and governments in poor countries, and highlights a range of problems relating to teacher shortages, training, motivation, management and inclusion issues. There is a strong case for saying that the influence needed to address these issues rests equally with those who manage teachers as well as with teachers themselves.

The research cited above all notes that in developing countries today, ‘ministries of education are being challenged regularly on issues of management procedures, personnel grievances and conditions of service for teachers. In many countries the legal framework for teacher management is problematic and there is a need for debate and reform action’. (Bitamazire *et al*, 1996 cited in Göttelmann and Yekhelef, 2005: 60). The problems arise in how the legal frameworks are applied at country level given that they are developed based on international conventions and regulations.

Thus, in those developing countries where teachers and the education system are poorly managed, as highlighted above and examined in more detail later in this study, this can lead to overcrowded classrooms and children being turned away from school due to insufficient numbers of teachers and high PTRs resulting from inequity in teacher deployment policies, and low teacher pay. These problems can contribute to low teacher morale leading to teacher attrition, teacher absenteeism and a low quality of education delivered to children. Where teachers are not regularly present in the classroom or are de-motivated, this will have a direct negative impact on the quality of education, which will lead to increased repetition and dropout, thus threatening primary completion and the achievement of the EFA agenda and the MDGs. Efficient and effective systems of teacher management, deployment and training (including continuing professional development), are thus critical to achieving the EFA and the education MDGs and to ensuring a quality education is available for all children in developing countries.

Although much of the educational research reviewed identifies developing countries as its prime focus, the issues and challenges facing teacher management in public basic education are mirrored in the experiences of some higher income countries, such as those in the Gulf States. Whilst these countries enjoy a higher GNP, in some, educational infrastructure and management has not kept pace with overall economic development and the MDGs are an aspiration rather than a current reality. Farrell and Oliveira (1993) looking at teacher costs and effectiveness observe common issues across countries at different income levels and stages of development, and examine the most critical policy choices related to improving the performance of education systems. Whilst



“ *This report focuses on the human resource aspects of education management that education managers can improve that will both increase the motivation and morale of teachers, and result in better learning outcomes for children.* ”

some issues relate uniquely to developing countries, they note that many problems are shared equally by developed countries. This is also highlighted in Barber and Mourshed (2007), a McKinsey study examining the reasons behind the success of the world's top performing school systems which focuses mainly on OECD countries, but also includes some developing economies in the Middle East and Latin America.

### 1.3 Methodology

This synthesis report combines analysis of VSO country case studies<sup>3</sup>, and other national and international research reports, and a desk-based review of the principal international literature concerning teacher management issues.

This report focuses on the human resource aspects of education management (recruitment, selection, deployment and promotion systems, terms and conditions, training, inspection/supervision and system-wide communication and participation) that education managers can improve that will both increase the motivation and morale of teachers, and result in better learning outcomes for children. The report makes observations about aspects of the work of school, district and provincial level support staff, inspectors, supervisors, teacher trainers and others, with the focus on the aspects of their roles that provide (or should provide) support to teachers to enable them to deliver good quality education to the girls and boys in their classrooms. The report does not go into detail about the content of teacher training which is clearly very important (especially the gender responsiveness and inclusiveness of the teaching methodology) since it has a significant influence of the quality of teaching and learning, but goes beyond direct issues of education management, so was deemed to be outside the already wide scope of this report.

Comments were invited and incorporated from selected staff from CfBT Education Trust, VSO and other organisations with an interest in teacher management.

### 1.4 Education management

Management is generally understood as comprising different aspects of planning, organising, resourcing, leading, coordinating, directing and controlling an organisation or an area with the objective of accomplishing a goal. The management of education happens at various levels from system-wide policy-making and national decision-making through to local education management, inspection and supervision, and then very importantly to what headteachers and others with management responsibilities within schools undertake on a daily basis to ensure their schools function effectively.

Within education, during the twentieth century the terms 'educational administration' and 'educational management' have been superseded by the term 'educational leadership' as the former terms were seen as being more focussed on control and supervision, whilst the latter emphasises vision, strategy and dynamism. However, whilst leadership and management have a lot in common, both aspects are important in creating an effective educational system.

Education management encompasses many different areas including Education Management Information Systems (EMIS), the management of school buildings, classroom management, curriculum design, gender and inclusion policies and practice, community and civil society involvement. Some of these are strongly linked to leadership. The scope of this report as already mentioned is to focus on the human resource aspects of education management.

The most recent definitions and discussions of the nature of effective school management and administration indicate that: **school leadership is as influential as classroom teaching on pupil learning and as such, high quality leadership is a key characteristic of effective schools.** Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris and Hopkins (2006a: 5) note 'As far as we are aware, there is not a single documented case of a school successfully turning around its

<sup>3</sup>VSO's *Valuing Teachers* country case studies can be accessed from VSO's website [www.vso.org.uk/get\\_involved/Issues\\_and\\_Campaigns/valuing\\_teachers\\_main.asp](http://www.vso.org.uk/get_involved/Issues_and_Campaigns/valuing_teachers_main.asp) where a review, synthesis and analysis of other national and international research on the management and administration of teachers and their managers can also be found (GCE, 2006).

“ The link between school leadership, staff motivation and the quality of pupil learning is a profound one and features strongly throughout much current educational thinking. ”

pupil achievement trajectory in the absence of talented leadership’ and that ‘...the effects of transformational school leadership on pupil engagement are significantly positive’.

Research undertaken in the last five years (Bruns, Mingat and Rakotomalala, 2003; VSO Guyana, 2004; VSO Maldives, 2005; VSO Nepal, 2005; Leithwood *et al*, 2006b; GCE, 2006; Barber and Mourshed, 2007) makes a direct link between teaching and leadership as the two strongest influences on pupil achievement and there is common agreement that **school leaders improve teaching and learning indirectly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation, commitment and working conditions.**

The link between school leadership, staff motivation and the quality of pupil learning is a profound one and features strongly throughout much current educational thinking. A useful distinction is made by dividing practice into two aspects: the first is the role of leadership in building knowledge and skills that teachers and other staff need in order to accomplish organisational goals; the second is the building of staff commitment, capacity and resilience (dispositions) to persist in applying the knowledge and skills.

According to a particularly useful model for explaining workforce performance outlined in Leithwood *et al* (2006b), what teachers do is a result of their motivations, abilities, and the situations in which they work. The authors stress that these factors are interdependent and that all three need to be successfully taking place for quality educational provision to occur. The implications for leadership practice of this account of workplace performance are that leaders need to work towards improving all elements in the formula – teachers’ and other staff members’ motivations, abilities, and the settings in which they work. To be successful, therefore, requires the school leader to be in possession of a range of cognitive and effective qualities, strategies and skills.

The McKinsey report on the world’s best-performing school systems argues that the main driver in the variation of learning in school is the quality of the teacher. The report finds that high-performing schools do three things (Barber and Mourshed, 2007: 12–13):

1. They get the right people to become teachers.

2. They develop these people into effective instructors.
3. They put in place systems and support to ensure that every child benefits from excellent instruction.

The report concludes that whilst these variables are vital, all three are heavily reliant on the quality of management and leadership:

*‘School reforms rarely succeed without effective leadership, both at the level of the system, and at the level of individual schools... we did not find a single school system that had been turned around that did not possess sustained, committed and talented leadership. Changing the governance or management of a system might, therefore, be a necessary prerequisite for improvement.’*

(Barber and Mourshed, 2007: 40)

In developing countries, where years of budget cutbacks have left education management systems severely weakened, improvements to system leadership and teacher management in particular is essential. Teachers interviewed in VSO’s *Valuing Teachers* research recount that administrative and bureaucratic systems are often so weak that they are unable to deliver teaching and learning materials, information about new syllabi and curricula, or to provide effective supervision, continuing professional development (CPD) and fair promotion systems. The problems are compounded by ongoing but incomplete decentralisation processes that have transferred responsibility but not capacity to regional and local levels, with predictable results.

In a briefing for the 2006 Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers, *Making Education For All A Reality* (VSO International, 2006a: 6), VSO summarised the aspects of school-level teacher management that their national surveys of teacher motivation had highlighted as needing attention, as follows:

- motivational management of teachers, other staff, actively working with staff to develop their skills and enthusiasm
- CPD of teachers and staff
- transparent and fair appraisal, postings and promotion systems
- effective distribution systems for teachers salaries and teaching and learning materials

- voice and responsiveness in decision-making processes, involving students, parents, teachers
- downwards and upwards responsiveness and accountability between the different levels of the education system e.g. national, district, school and community
- whole district/school development including planning, budgeting, monitoring and evaluation.

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## 2. Teachers' rights and responsibilities

“Where supply-considerations necessitate short-term intensive preparation programmes for teachers, a fully professional, extensive in-service programme should be available in order to produce corps of professionally prepared teachers.”

### 2.1 Introduction

Provisions made by the UNESCO 1966 'Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers' largely underpin the international frameworks that exist around teachers' rights to management (and these should equally apply to the right of children and schools to effective management). This seminal document recognised the essential role of teachers in education and set out recommendations to ensure that teachers enjoyed the status commensurate with that role. The *Recommendation* worked from the premise that in spite of differences in laws, regulations and the organisation of teachers, the application of a common set of standards and measures regarding the status of teachers was needed. Areas around which recommendations were made included:

- preparation for the profession
- employment and career including conditions for entry into the profession
- further education
- tenure and disciplinary procedures
- medical examinations
- rights of married women
- conditions for effective teaching and learning
- salaries
- professional freedom.

A subsequent report by ILO/UNESCO (2006) summarises the analysis of the same issues affecting the status of teaching personnel. The report acknowledges the changing context of teachers' work and adds more vigorous recommendations in respect of teacher education. HIV and AIDS for example, is recognised as having a significant impact, which has impeded the effective application of the principles contained in the 1966 *Recommendations*.

It can be argued that the *Recommendation* has not been implemented in its entirety, and although significant progress has been made in improving the status of the teaching profession, there is still much progress to be made. This could potentially take place through a more binding Convention on Teachers' and Public Sector Workers' Rights or closer monitoring

and accountability of the implementation of the existing *Recommendation*.

OECD (2005) presents another current view of teachers' roles and responsibilities in 25 countries. It points to the rapid pace of social change and the heightened expectations of schools, which have broadened and deepened teachers' roles. It underlines the point that there is increasing pressure placed on teachers to prepare students for a society and an economy in which they will be expected to be self-directed learners, able and motivated to keep on learning over a lifetime. This has implications for the management of teaching and learning conditions and ILO/UNESCO (2006: 15) identify worrying trends in developing countries, for example in the increasingly large class sizes which continue to impede the achievement of educational goals.

The UNESCO (1966: 39–40) recommendation relating to teacher shortages sounded a warning that:

*'...certain expedients designed to deal with the shortage of teachers, such as over-large classes and the unreasonable extension of hours of teaching duty are incompatible with the aims and objectives of education and are detrimental to the pupils.'*

And went on to add that:

*'In developing countries where supply considerations may necessitate short-term intensive emergency preparation programmes for teachers, a fully professional, extensive programme should be available in order to produce corps of professionally prepared teachers competent to guide and direct the educational enterprise.'*

### 2.2 Teachers' choice of workplace

Teachers' choice of workplace is sometimes related to the cultural specificity of certain ways of working. These may differ from western models of rights (such as the right not to be assigned a particular place of work) but are sometimes nonetheless acceptable to teachers and beneficial to education. Cultural issues affect teachers' placement such as those observed in developing education systems in Islamic countries. In some Gulf States for example, single sex education in

“ *Participatory processes and consultations are not a panacea to resolve difficulties, but they are virtually the only mechanisms for overcoming suspicion and establishing a positive climate for making and implementing education policy.* ”

schools means that females do not work in boys' preparatory and secondary schools, which have male staff only. Most elementary schools are staffed by a female staff owing to the strict observance of cultural traditions governing the social interaction between adult males and females.

Mukhtar (2000) reports on rural families sending girls to schools in Pakistan, which are managed and staffed by females. In this study, findings show that the presence of a female teacher exerts a positive impact on the enrolment, regular attendance and academic performance of girl students. Shortages of female primary teachers owing to low numbers of local qualified women and socio-cultural obstacles such as purdah were noted; lack of transportation was also identified as a factor.

### 2.3 Academic freedom

ILO/UNESCO (2006: 7–8) reports violations of **academic freedom** based on 'security or private commercial concerns'; these are seen as growing in parallel with the decline in collegial self-governance and participation of staff in institutional decision-making processes. The basic requisites for dialogue, it adds are:

*'...a democratic culture, respect for rules and laws, and institutions or mechanisms that permit individuals to express their views individually through unions or associations on issues that affect their daily lives on both a personal and professional basis.'*

In the context of education, this translates as respect for professional freedom and teachers' active participation in deciding professional issues: curricula, pedagogy, student assessment and issues related to the organisation of education.

### 2.4 Professional dialogue between teachers and policymakers

Related to the issue of professional dialogue between teachers and policy makers, UNESCO (1966: 35) made recommendations on relations between teachers and the education service as a whole to the effect that 'authorities and teachers should recognise the importance of the participation of teachers, through their organisations and in other ways.' Disappointingly, ILO/UNESCO (2006: vi) discussing social dialogue in education, still notes that:

*'Qualitative research [has] identified the sense of undervaluing, disempowerment and alienation that the average classroom teacher feels in many developing countries... There is a strong sense of distance from regional and national-level decisions that are eventually communicated to teachers as immutable decisions, often divorced from their daily situation.'*

It goes on to note that:

*'Participatory processes and consultations are not a panacea to resolve difficulties, but they are virtually the only mechanisms for overcoming suspicion and establishing a positive climate for making and implementing education policy.'*

International agencies, including the World Bank, regional bodies and donor countries agreed to promote the principles of social dialogue in the 2000 *Dakar Framework for Action*, and should ensure that they are observed in educational reform, and make funding available to this end.

### 2.5 Teachers' salaries

In respect of **teachers' salaries** ILO/UNESCO (2006: 17) points to a situation where 'in a significant number of countries, teacher salaries are simply not comparable with those paid in other skilled occupations of equivalent professional or even lower occupational level.' The recommendations made by ILO/UNESCO (2006) reflect these concerns and call for member states to ensure that salaries paid to teachers are reasonably comparable to similar professions. In particular they state that teachers' salaries should:

- (a) *reflect the importance to society of the teaching function and hence the importance of teachers as well as the responsibilities of all kinds which fall upon them from the time of their entry into service*
- (b) *compare favourably with salaries paid in other occupations requiring similar or equivalent qualifications*
- (c) *provide teachers with the means to ensure a reasonable standard of living for themselves and their families as well as to invest in further education or in the pursuit of cultural activities, thus enhancing their professional qualification*

“ Equal rights for all teachers, regardless of gender, ethnicity, disability or any other perceived differences should apply across recruitment, deployment, pay scales, supervision, support services and promotion opportunities for teachers. ”

(d) take account of the fact that certain posts require higher qualifications and experience and carry greater responsibilities

(ILO/UNESCO, 1966: 11–12)

## 2.6 Right to fair treatment

Whilst the ILO *Recommendations* apply to all teachers, other international frameworks and conventions specifically address the rights of potentially marginalised groups to be treated equally and fairly in all areas of life including employment and training. Such marginalised groups may include women (where several clauses of the *UN Convention on the Elimination of All Discrimination Against Women* and the *Beijing Platform for Action* specifically address the rights of women to be treated equally as men); those with disabilities (where Article 27 of the *Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities* outlines principles of non-discrimination in the workplace against those with disabilities); indigenous groups (where Article 20 of the *Convention Concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries* outlines the equal employment rights of indigenous people); and those affected or infected by HIV and AIDS. This underlines the need for equal rights for all teachers, regardless of gender, ethnicity, disability or any other perceived differences and for these rights to apply across recruitment, deployment, pay scales, supervision, support services and promotion opportunities.

## 2.7 Responsibilities of teachers

UNESCO (1966) deals with the **responsibilities of teachers** by contending that the status of the profession depends to a considerable extent upon teachers themselves. In addition, the recommendations point to professional standards related to teacher performance, which should be designed and maintained with the participation of the teachers' organisations. This puts the responsibility for establishing codes of ethics or conduct on the teacher organisations.

The limitations of a dialogue between policymakers and teachers' unions are clearly evidenced in the conflict between teachers' unions and governments following the introduction of the reforms that typified the education systems of Latin America in the 1990s. Commenting on this in a monograph, Vaillant (2005) describes the way in which many education reforms put into effect throughout the 1980s and 1990s gave teachers more work and responsibilities; at the same time, the assimilation of new teaching and learning methods and technical concepts compelled them to train and adjust to the new modes of teaching and organisation without raising their salaries. The new education policies, Vaillant notes, have been vigorously rejected by some of the unions; in the light of this, little impact has been seen and the desired radical nature of the reforms has not been realised.



Photo: © Jon Spaull/VSO International



## 3. The constraints and consequences of poor teacher management

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an overview of the constraints to effective teacher management and then outlines the consequences of poor management on teacher retention, attrition and turnover, as depicted in Figure 1. The chapter concludes by outlining the economic and quality impact of poor management systems and practices.

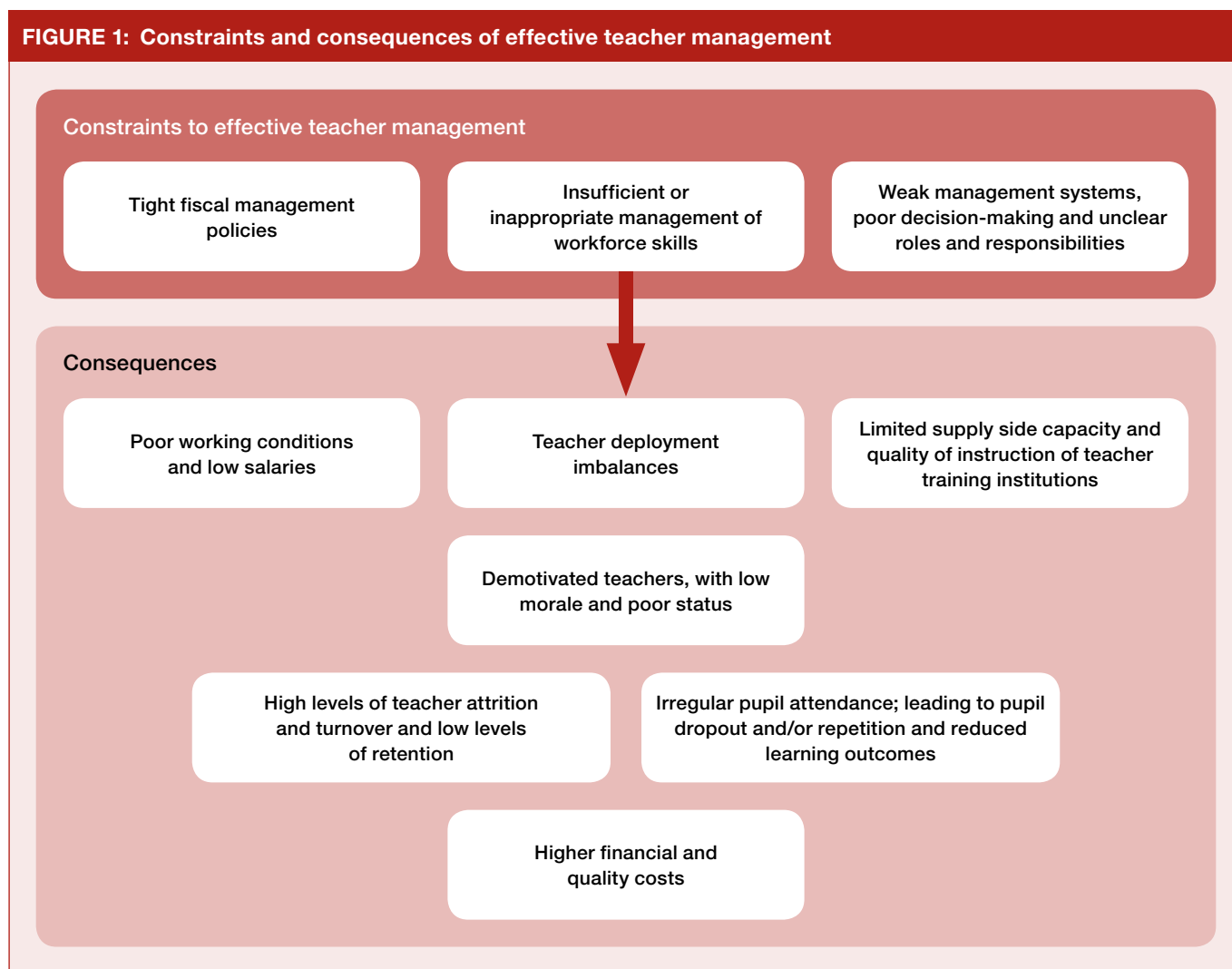
### 3.2 Constraints to effective teacher management

#### 3.2.1 Weak management systems and decision-making

##### Weak management systems for the recruitment and deployment of teachers and administrators

The total number of teachers and administrators needed is usually well known at school level, yet the capacity of national or decentralised systems to plan and implement education management processes and to coordinate efficient deployment systems to reduce educational staffing disparities between different

**FIGURE 1: Constraints and consequences of effective teacher management**



*“Headteachers do not have any choice or say over the quality or gender of teachers that are sent to their school. So, while headteachers may be well aware of the deficiencies of their schools they cannot do anything to balance this at the recruitment stage.”*

regions is often too weak to be effective. Similarly, at school level, where teacher managers are poorly trained and prepared for management responsibilities, teaching staff will not be efficiently managed to ensure punctuality, good quality teaching and learning and the provision of an appropriate level of continuing professional development (CPD).

### **Headteachers not having the responsibility for recruitment and deployment**

In many developing countries the recruitment and deployment of teachers is not the responsibility of the headteachers at each school, nor is the setting of teacher incentives. For this reason headteachers do not have any choice or say over the quality or gender of teachers that are sent to their school. So, while headteachers may be well aware of the deficiencies of their schools and the type of teacher that would complement the calibre of their current teachers, they cannot do anything to balance this at the recruitment stage. Similarly headteachers have no control over the level of incentives allocated to teachers or means to ensure compliance when incentives are given, even where they can see a genuine need for incentives for female teachers or to attract teachers to rural areas.

In some countries, this lack of involvement by headteachers in the recruitment process has a negative impact on the quality of education the school is able to provide. Every school needs to have a balance of experienced teachers and newly qualified teachers to enable the new teachers to have colleagues to turn to for advice or mentoring. Similarly headteachers would be able to serve the student population better if they were able to balance the number of male and female teachers to reflect the gender distribution of the school (which, according to Nilsson (2003) would result in the increased participation of girls), and be able to implement inclusive recruitment policies that enable them to have a representative number of teachers with disabilities or from local linguistic or other minorities.

### **3.2.2 Tight fiscal management policies**

Recent publications have indicated that teacher recruitment and deployment is not only hindered by national government resource constraints but can also be hindered by the inflexible limits imposed by the IMF on public sector wage bills, meaning that

some governments are effectively prevented from recruiting and training the teachers they desperately need or encouraged to recruit ‘cheaper’ contract or untrained teachers (ActionAid, 2006; Education International, 2007; GCE UK, 2008). (See Box 2 on page 27.)

Similar cases of the negative effects of IMF intervention have been documented by ActionAid (2007) in Guatemala, Bangladesh, India, Cameroon, Kenya, Nigeria and Sierra Leone, leading them to conclude that the impact of the IMF’s policy is widespread.

### **3.2.3 Insufficient or inappropriate management of workforce skills**

Where poor or ineffective systems of development, supervision, monitoring and evaluation of workforce skills are in operation, this is a cause of poor teacher management.

### **CPD of teacher managers**

The lack of training for teacher managers at all levels is concerning. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007: 44) found that out of 12 countries studied only one country provided training that is of good quality and is provided to all education managers. They cited political interference and weak education systems as some of the factors that affect the appointment and subsequent training of headteachers. In Nigeria headteachers are appointed on seniority and experience but there are concerns about corruption as cases of teachers paying bribes to obtain places on training courses have been documented (VSO Nigeria, 2007). The question that this raises is whether teacher management is taken seriously as a skill that requires professional training. Whilst there is an emphasis on pre-service teacher training for teachers, VSO’s experience has shown that, training for education managers does not seem to be given the priority it deserves.

The problem with headteachers who are experienced without being trained in specific teacher management, is that they only know how to manage according to the way they were managed during their time as classroom teachers. Bad practice from previous untrained managers is therefore replicated and embedded in an endless cycle that will never be broken until comprehensive management training is provided for all education managers. Evidence from interviews with teachers from Ethiopia indicates that the authoritarian style of management employed by school directors

## BOX 2: Fiscal Management Policies in Cambodia, Kenya and Zambia

The World Bank (unpublished: 46) has indicated that: 'teacher shortage in Cambodia is not a product of supply but of central planning restrictions to control the size of the public sector.' Ministry of Education central planners are aware of the impact of these decisions, as are donors. The latter are focussing on whether supporting recurrent costs such as teachers' salaries and allowances is sustainable in the long term and regularly voice concerns about creating 'donor dependency'. This is a somewhat contradictory stance in the context of some donors' commitments to support ambitious 10-year plans which provide predictable long-term funding. While such support does create dependency on aid for that period – and possibly longer – the justification for such aid is the need to provide recipient countries with enough time to be able to benefit from the long-term economic gains that will result from improved education. The hope is that in the longer-term their economies will have grown enough for them to be able to finance their education and other public services from their own revenues. Until that point donor support for recurrent costs, to allow governments to rapidly expand their teacher stocks in line with increasing enrolments and rises in school-age populations, is vital. Viewed in this light, donor concerns about dependency seem suspiciously like excuses for not expanding aid levels as far as they have repeatedly promised to. However, they are not necessarily also asking the questions about the economic and quality costs of not supporting teacher salaries.

If donors are putting money in all other parts of the education system except teacher salaries – such as building classrooms and paying for teacher training – the problem remains that sufficient numbers of teachers cannot be hired, and the quality of education children receive suffers.

Kenya and Zambia do not have sufficient numbers of teachers in the classroom yet there is an abundance of qualified teachers who are unemployed or employed outside the public education sector. In Zambia in 2004 up to 9,000 trained teachers were unemployed: '...many rural schools... [were] trying to function with as many as 100 pupils to a class' (GCE, 2004: 4). The main reason for this is budgetary constraints and fiscal deficit target agreements reached with international financial institutions.

Source: Education International, 2007: 68.

who have not received any management training has a profound impact on teacher motivation, school effectiveness and therefore on the quality of education.

*'Ethiopian teachers dislike an authoritarian style of leadership: 'The director doesn't see you as equal ... he is a non-democratic leader' (female focus group participants, Oromiya)... Where directors were seen as authoritarian there was a very negative response, and teachers reported not being motivated, and saw the director being more of a hindrance than a help. Conversely, positive leadership was welcomed... a director who involved her or his staff and listened to them was able to achieve more: 'Where the school director is very active and has an idea of leadership quality he or she can manage his or her staff very well and can create a good environment around the school' (Male secondary school teacher, Amhara).'*

(VSO Ethiopia, forthcoming).

## Appraisal systems for teachers and managers

In most developing countries appraisals for teachers are undertaken by school inspectors or school advisers, not by the head of department or the headteacher. This is often conducted as a 'policing' event where teachers are not informed in advance of when the inspection will take place or what they are looking for. Inspectors may have already studied the school records concerning pupil and teacher punctuality, attendance records, schemes of work and lesson plans but they may not ask teachers to prepare anything as the expectation is that they should always be prepared to do their job. Once they are at the school they observe the lessons, give feedback and then discuss their feedback with the head of department and the headteacher, and an action plan for improvement is developed.

Therefore, teacher appraisals where they are constructed in this way are primarily concerned with assessing teacher performance and with

“Where there is little formal supervision of teachers, teachers often end up recycling the same materials for years without making any adjustments to what and how they are teaching, and with little appraisal of how they could improve.”

‘policing’ teachers’ adherence to externally imposed performance criteria. The purpose of the appraisal is not part of CPD but rather it is designed for the purpose of punishing poor performance. This is where teacher appraisals become contentious because there is a conflict of interest between assessing performance and furthering teachers’ professional development on the one hand, and increasing the accountability of the education system to the national government through promotions or dismissals of teachers on the other (Montgomery, 2002).

Appraisal discussions should cover such issues as career development, yet VSO’s experience has shown that this is missing in many developing countries where teachers do not have any space within their formal system to discuss their career aspirations. This results in high staff turnover as managers do not know when teachers are going to leave whether it is for personal advancement or resignation. It would thus be more useful to have a teacher appraisal system aimed at professional development and that other ways are found for improving accountability for the education system so that all stakeholders needs are met.

### CPD of teachers

As noted in a joint report by ILO/UNESCO (2006: vii): ‘Many countries continue to lack systematic induction programmes for beginning teachers or to make adequate provision for the professional development of teacher educators.’ The agenda of education is changing from a system for selected pupils to one of mass education. The management and successful implementation of this change requires different skills and competencies from both existing and new teachers. A review of teacher education and motivation by Sida (2000) emphasises the widening gap between what is required from a good teacher and the skills that a teacher actually possesses. This underlines the importance of CPD to enable teachers to provide quality teaching and improved learning outcomes for increasing numbers of children in a changing environment.

*‘...assistance directed to school level designed to improve access, retention and quality has to include support for teacher development, since it is teachers who determine, more than anything else, the quality of learning that takes place.’*

(Lewin and Stuart, 2003: 194)

The MUSTER project found that the main focus of training for teachers was pre-service training with little or no formal induction or CPD for new teachers (Lewin and Stuart, 2003: 177). This was a situation also found in Rwanda where teachers and other education stakeholders commented that CPD provided by the Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Scientific Research was virtually non-existent, with no formal system in place (Ndaruhutse, 2006: 19). In such situations where there is little formal supervision of teachers, teachers often end up recycling the same materials for years without making any adjustments to what and how they are teaching, and with little appraisal of how they could improve.

### 3.3 The consequences of poor teacher management

The issues outlined in section 3.2 have direct consequences on teacher deployment decisions, salary levels and working conditions, and teacher attrition and retention rates.

#### 3.3.1 Teacher deployment – regional, gender, disability and other imbalances

##### Rural-urban disparities

One of the effects of weak education management systems and poor decision-making is that it results in disparities in teacher distribution between rural and urban schools. These are significant in many countries, with teacher shortages in remote rural areas reported to be especially high (Education International, 2007: 13). In Lesotho, Sierra Leone and Malawi, a DFID study found that there was an acute shortage of qualified teachers in rural areas and it was very difficult to recruit staff for rural postings (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007: 47).

##### Disparities in class size

Rich countries in North America and Western Europe benefit from PTRs that are generally below 30:1, allowing teachers to provide individual attention to each student. In stark contrast, UNESCO records that, as a result of poor teacher management some 45 countries around the world have PTRs higher than 35:1 – the majority of them in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. PTRs rise to almost double that (and more than triple the average in rich countries) reaching 70:1 in some countries,

“The predictable result of large class sizes is not just large numbers of children dropping out after their first or second year at school, and large numbers of repeaters, but also that schools end up reproducing the very inequalities education is meant to tackle.”

including Mozambique, the Congo and Chad, and urban primary schools in Ethiopia and Pakistan struggle with more than 80 children per class (UNESCO, 2005: 85–87; DFID, 2005: 33). (See Box 3.)

PTRs as high as these make classes overcrowded and unmanageable: teaching becomes little more than crowd control. In such situations, moves away from ‘chalk and talk’ rote learning, towards participative teaching and learning methodologies (involving small group work and individual attention), become unthinkable. The predictable result is not just large numbers of children dropping out after their first or second year at school, and large numbers of repeaters, but also that schools end up reproducing the very inequalities education is meant to tackle. Teachers (and headteachers, who are often required to teach a number of classes themselves in addition to their administrative and managerial duties) become exhausted and demoralised by the increased workload caused by increasing class sizes.

### Gender disparities

The shortage or complete absence of female teachers in rural schools, in many countries, is alarming, as it has been proven to have negative consequences on the improvement of gender equity and parity in schools. According to UNESCO, ‘girls’ enrolment rises relative to

boys’ as the proportion of female teachers rises from low levels’ (UNESCO, 2003/4: 60). It also has a significant impact on the retention of girls in schools as girls are less likely to progress to higher levels of schooling if their personal needs for coaching and counselling are not met due to the absence of female teachers. Some parents are unwilling to send their girls to schools where they know there are only male teachers and that chances of sexual abuse and violence are higher. El-Sanabary (1993) argues for the co-relationship between female teachers’ presence and girls’ attainment and achievement at school in that well-trained female teachers can spot girls’ vulnerability and those that are at risk of dropping out prematurely. Yet many countries have encountered problems in recruiting and retaining female teachers – particularly in rural or remote areas. For example it is well established that once a female teacher is transferred from a rural area to an urban area in Malawi it is virtually impossible to attract a replacement (Kadzamira, 2003: 21).

Although in some countries, shortages of male primary teachers creates different problems for boys (UNESCO, 2006a: 361–7), in countries furthest from achieving UPE, female teachers continue to be a minority (Beyond Access, 2005c: 6). See Table 1 on page 30.

The proportion of female teachers is lowest in South and West Asia and in Sub-Saharan

### BOX 3: Problems Caused by Large Class Sizes in India and Cameroon

*‘You have heard the outcry of the teachers assembled here. Their outcry is not first and foremost on their salaries; their outcry is on their sense of being professionals. Worldwide I hear many teachers who share with me their feelings of embarrassment and shame. They go home frustrated because they have – again – been confronted with the impossible task to teach 80 or more children. You can be frustrated once or twice, but not on a day to day basis. That leads to cynicism and demotivation and high stress levels amongst educators.’*

(Eswaran, General Secretary of the All India Primary Teachers Federation cited in Education International, 2006a).

*‘Four teachers for six classes – this is the reality at the state school in Balepipi (some 300 km northwest of Douala). Made up of three adobe bungalows, it suffers from a chronic shortage of teachers, as do many schools in Cameroon. Such a situation – which some might consider “normal” for an African country – is particularly regrettable in view of the fact that, at the same time, thousands of qualified teachers are unemployed or have gone on strike to demand the payment of over 30 months’ salary arrears...In Cameroon, there are officially some 11,000 primary state schools, with 55,266 primary school teachers catering for 3 million pupils. This gives us an average teacher/student ratio of 54:1, well below the minimum standard set by UNESCO [40:1].’*

(Education International, 2006b)

**TABLE 1: Countries with shortages of male and female teachers**

Countries with a shortage of female teachers	percentage of female teachers	Countries with a shortage of male teachers	percentage of female teachers
Chad	11	Sri Lanka	79
Togo	12	Botswana	80
Benin	19	Guyana	85
Guinea Bissau	20	Philippines	87
Afghanistan	24	Mongolia	93
Nepal	29	Kyrgyzstan	97
Pakistan	36	Kazakhstan	98

Source: UNESCO, 2005.

Africa. In 16 Sub-Saharan African countries, women hold only one-third or less of teaching posts (UNESCO, 2003/4:7), and in Benin and Chad, less than one-fifth of primary teachers are women.

### Deployment of teachers with disabilities

Statistics on the numbers of teachers with disabilities in developing countries are very hard to obtain, since they are not currently recorded by UNESCO. However, we can assume that the number is very low, given that people with disabilities are more likely to experience exclusion and discrimination in the labour market than those without disabilities (ILO, 2004). For example, until recently, in Cambodia, the Ministry of Education practice was to exclude disabled people from training to be teachers, and to remove teachers who become disabled from active classroom teaching to administrative roles (Thomas, 2005). This was the result of strict interpretation of the Civil Servants' Law, which states that government officials must be 'of good physical appearance' (VSO Cambodia, forthcoming).

Moreover, the lack of educational opportunities available to children with disabilities means that there is a very limited pool of disabled men and women who meet the minimum qualification standards to enable them to apply to train as teachers, even where legislation and opportunities do not pose barriers.

### 3.3.2 Poor working conditions and salaries of teachers, and supporting roles of administrative staff

Limited national budgets for education and tight fiscal management policies result in constrained resources for teachers' salaries. The effect of this can be felt in three ways: teachers' salaries are kept low; their working conditions remain basic so that the overall wage bill can be spread across a larger number of teachers; and little priority is given to ensuring teachers are supported by an adequate number and mix of administrative staff.

Stakeholders and teachers in the 13 countries VSO has researched and 12 case study countries that Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) have surveyed agree that teachers are seriously underpaid. Salary levels often push teachers below the poverty line, evident from the fact that newly qualified primary school teachers in some developing countries are paid as little as US\$20 per month (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; VSO The Gambia, 2007; VSO Cambodia (forthcoming); Education International, 2008) as can be seen in Table 2 on page 31.

In Africa, teacher salaries are now worth less than a half of their 1975 levels in real terms, and in Zambia teachers are now paid a quarter of their 1975 salaries (Oxfam, 2006).

Problems with the administration of payments whereby teachers receive salaries late have also been widely documented (VSO International, 2002; VSO Pakistan, 2005; VSO Nepal, 2005; VSO Nigeria, 2007, Education International, 2007). The combination of low salaries and their late payment puts financial accountability at

**TABLE 2: Teachers' gross salaries per month in US dollars (2005–2006)**

Level	The Gambia	Kenya	Lesotho	Uganda	Tanzania	Zambia
Primary	60	152	177	115	20	200
Lower Secondary	75	272	265	144	95	250
Upper Secondary	90	305	638	260	125	325

Source: Education International, 2008: 26.

district and provincial level into disrepute with teachers feeling that there is a lack of respect for their welfare. This also affects their position and status in society as they may be unable to pay their rent on time and teachers' children may be late or be forced to absent themselves from classes because they are unable to pay transport and subsistence costs or may be sent home from secondary school because of non-payment of fees.

Female teachers often have even lower pay and even fewer opportunities for promotion than men. Positions of authority in education systems are overwhelmingly dominated by men – in Bolivia, only 16% of headteacher posts are held by women (UNESCO 2003: 179). More often than not it is women who are employed as 'para-teachers', at a fraction of the salary of regular teachers, which has serious implications for the professionalism and status of women (Beyond Access, 2005a: 3).

Official policies do not always make female teachers' jobs easier. In some countries, women have inadequate arrangements for maternity leave (Beyond Access 2005a: 3), and the posting of female teachers to rural areas, often far from their own communities, may pose particular difficulties for them. For example, female teachers in Pakistan expressed concerns about the increased risks of physical insecurity and sexual harassment of being posted far from home (Choudhury, 2005: 22).

Limited budgets and poor management of resources has a direct impact on teachers' living and working conditions. In Nigeria, many teachers do not have a desk on which to prepare their work or even to sit on in the classroom (VSO Nigeria, 2007). The

absence of teachers' toilets and safe drinking water are some of the issues that affect the delivery of teaching and contribute to teacher absenteeism. This is worse for female teachers during their menstrual periods when they may be forced to stay at home because of inadequate facilities at school.

Issues that affect teachers' living and working conditions of course also include: teacher workloads, class sizes, double shifting, multi-grade teaching<sup>4</sup>, availability of electricity, water, toilets (including the availability of separate toilets for women and girls), support and professional development opportunities. It is therefore important that teacher managers work to improve the working conditions of teachers so that they are able to deliver education of good quality.

### Supporting roles of administrative staff

Administrative staff are recruited to perform supportive roles so that quality education can be achieved. This has a direct impact on the working conditions of teachers. In contrast with developed countries, schools in developing countries tend to have limited or no administrative staff support due to limited budgets and weak educational management systems; a fact that has important implications for the delivery of quality education. The range of support from administrative staff varies from basic filing, preparation of meals and cleaning duties, to more strategic management functions and budget oversight (Durbridge, 2007).

In developed countries, the roles and responsibilities of administrative staff depend on education qualification and this determines salary levels. Administrative staff are also

<sup>4</sup> Double shifting is where two groups of children use one classroom – one group in the morning and a different group in the afternoon. In some contexts, the same teacher teaches both groups; whilst in others a different teacher teaches each group. In multi-grade teaching, teachers teach differently aged children, at different stages of their studies in the same classroom.

“Expansion of education systems will require a step-change in the efficiency and capacity of education management and administration systems to enable them to cope with the management of ever increasing levels of financing and staff.”

sometimes part of the school management team. However this is not the case for most developing country administrative support staff whose roles are largely reflective of very basic administrative duties (except for a few that work on accounts and look after boarding facilities). The result is that teachers are asked to take on some of these administrative roles (such as taking charge of school finances) from time-to-time in most instances without extra pay and in many cases without the required training needed. There are also issues around administrative staff career progression as those who are recruited to a specific job with identified tasks often cannot progress within their role unless they have the opportunity to apply for higher-level administration roles.

### 3.3.3 Limited capacity and quality of instruction of teacher training institutions

#### Constrained capacity of teacher training institutions

Where budgets are constrained and management systems weak, this has a knock-on effect on the role and investment made in pre-service teacher training. UNESCO (2007) has reported that while enrolment rates have soared in many countries, they have done so at a much more rapid rate than teacher recruitment. One of the reasons for this is under-investment in teacher training institutes (TTIs) resulting in their limited capacity to produce a sufficient number of teachers in the time frame needed. (See Box 4.)

In addition, the focus on the rapid expansion of primary school places in many countries without sufficient forward planning to sustainably expand the secondary education sub-sector, means that a significant proportion of secondary school graduates will need to enrol in TTIs in the next few years to meet the demand for new teachers. It is questionable

whether all countries can meet this challenge given both budgetary and capacity constraints in the secondary sub-sector, and the demand for skilled labour in other sectors of the economy which will also be demanding secondary school graduates and potentially offering them the promise of higher wages.

#### Limited quality of pre-service training at TTIs

Not only do TTIs face capacity constraints, some of them also face challenges in the quality and length of initial training they provide due to the under-investment of financial and human resources. The quality of education pupils receive can only be as good as the calibre of the teachers that are put in the system (Barber and Mourshed, 2007). Pre-service teacher training should aim to build practical teaching skills for new teachers. Teachers need to be prepared on all aspects of education including school environment, school development, student management as well as content and methodology. The quality of student teacher trainees needs to be taken into consideration when determining policies on the duration of pre-service teacher training. However, recent trends in Lesotho and Tanzania have reduced initial teacher training to two and four weeks respectively (Education International, 2007: 69). In some instances significant pre-service training has been abandoned altogether in favour of using contract teachers who follow a crash course and then undertake the rest of their training by distance learning. Economic arguments about teacher training duration contend that training length is less important than content. Michaelowa and Wechtler (2006: 9) for example argue that:

*‘With respect to teacher education and training, the focus should be on quality rather than duration. In Anglophone Africa, where the duration of formal education*

#### BOX 4: Shortage of Skilled Personnel in Ghana, Lesotho and Malawi

The MUSTER project found that in Ghana, Lesotho and Malawi, pre-service teacher training systems did not have the capacity to meet the projected demands for additional teachers for the countries to meet the UPE target and that they would need to double or quadruple output capacity to change this situation. Expansion of education systems to effect this kind of improvement will require a step-change in the efficiency and capacity of education management and administration systems to enable them to cope with the management of ever increasing levels of financing and staff.

Sources: Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Lewin and Stuart, 2003.



*and teachers' subject matter knowledge are much more clearly correlated than in francophone Africa, longer duration of teachers' academic education significantly enhances student learning. However, the effect is only moderate in size and has to be carefully weighed against the equally high cost generally involved with salaries for teachers with higher educational attainment. Similar considerations are in order with respect to pre-service and in-service training. From a cost-benefit perspective, short but well designed and practice oriented programs appear to be most promising.'*

The difficulty with the trend in reduction of pre-service training is that the policy has only been partially implemented. Most governments that have reduced the length of pre-service training have justified this policy change by arguing that pre-service training will be complemented by at least a year of in-service training or distance support from local tutors or facilitators. VSO's experience has shown that this has only been very patchily implemented due to the unavailability of facilitators. The result is poorly trained 'para'-teachers who are ill prepared for their jobs which places an excessive burden on

headteachers to provide support that they are not trained to provide.

Overall, this situation creates a decline in the quality of education in the areas where para-teachers are employed. In the same country and education system, children have access to different qualities of education based on the area they live in or the schools their parents can afford. Often, para-teachers and/or contract teachers are employed in areas of a country where it has been difficult to recruit or retain teachers – usually rural areas or areas populated by the most disadvantaged communities. Whilst they are clearly critical to ensure access to education for children in these areas, it is crucial for quality that they do receive the necessary in-service training and support and have the opportunity to follow a career path that is similar in the longer-term to regular teachers. (See Box 5.)

### **3.3.4 High levels of teacher attrition and turnover**

In the recent DFID research covering 12 case study countries, attrition rates of under ten per cent were found in Sub-Saharan Africa. The fact that attrition rates were not higher still was due to the lack of alternative employment rather than high levels of job satisfaction

#### **BOX 5: Para-Teacher Schemes in Senegal and India**

*'The vast majority of new teachers [in Senegal] are now hired on a "voluntary" basis, [causing] teachers' unions [to] express outrage over the segmentation between civil servants and volunteers. The long-term sustainability of a policy maintaining two groups of teachers with blatantly unequal status is questionable. Senegalese experience suggests that the eventual absorption of "volunteer" teachers within the civil service may be difficult to avoid. The policy challenge that governments face is how to support "volunteer" teachers while ensuring that the conditions of service of regular teachers are not undermined and that para teachers are not exploited.'*

(UNESCO, 2004: 167–8)

*'India has witnessed a phenomenal rise in the number of para-teachers from primary to senior secondary schools...more than 220,000 para-teachers were engaged in full time/regular schools during the period from 1994–1999, the present count is likely to be substantially higher. Unofficial estimates put it in excess of 500,000. Recruitment procedures and service conditions of these teachers vary considerably across the states, as does the underlying stated rationale. In some states, such schemes were seen as interim or exceptional measures, whereas in others they are part of a long-term policy. Gradually, the exception appears to have become the "norm" all over the country. Often such a move is justified in financial terms as for one regular teacher's salary, 3 to 5 para-teachers can be appointed. However, there are now a large number of field-studies that suggest that such schemes have little merit. As well as creating "dualism" within the public provisioning, the damage to educational quality has been huge.'*

(GCE/ActionAid, 2005: 24)

(Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007: 49). Turnover rates were very significant, particularly in rural areas, due to the limited employment and further study opportunities, poor working and living conditions, and the low quality of schooling available for teachers' own children.

Where staff are deployed nationally without full choice over where they are sent, there is a tendency for teachers posted to rural areas to either not show up for the job they have been deployed to do, or to transfer as quickly as possible into an urban-based school. In Nepal, it was found that working conditions in the mountainous areas were so challenging that teachers only stayed a short period before leaving. In Zambia, one out of every three rural teachers and one out of every four urban teachers moved to a new job during the year. In Malawi, Sierra Leone, Tanzania and Zambia, rural turnover rates were higher than urban ones but were both in the double digits (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007: 41, 50–51). Michaelowa (2002: 26) in a study on PASEC data from five francophone African countries (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Madagascar and Senegal) found that '... teachers do not only prefer to teach in urban schools or schools close to urban areas... these schools also tend to provide better learning conditions.'

In rural areas, it is often the least qualified and experienced teachers who end up being posted to schools, probably because they are unable to find jobs elsewhere. This results in a lower quality of education for rural children and has a long-term negative impact on agricultural productivity. In Namibia, only 40% of rural teachers in the north are qualified compared to 92% in Windhoek (the capital) and other neighbouring areas. In post-conflict settings such as Sierra Leone, the divide is even more pronounced with only 25% of rural teachers in the northern districts being qualified compared to 96% in Freetown (the capital) (Bennell, 2004b: 16). Additionally, Ingersoll (2001)

outlines the practice of using qualified teachers to teach subjects that are not their speciality due to shortages or difficulties in attracting appropriately qualified subject specialist teachers to specific areas.

In countries such as Malawi, Zambia and Papua New Guinea, where teachers are poorly managed and poorly paid, where there are alternative jobs available they will be tempted to change jobs to find either more lucrative work or work where they are more highly regarded and given greater opportunities even if the level of pay is no higher (VSO International, 2002). (See Box 6.)

In Peru, only one in every five teachers wants to remain as a classroom teacher with the majority wanting to stay involved in education but move to either management positions or other aspects of education such as curriculum development or inspection where presumably the levels of pay are higher (Fanfani, 2004). Where these opportunities exist, they are likely to lead to high levels of attrition.

ILO/UNESCO (2006) notes that the decline in status of teachers in many developed countries has led to the migration of teachers from other English-speaking countries to meet the demand. South and West Asia and Africa, in particular, experience an even greater shortage of teachers as a result. Migration overseas adversely affects countries with a limited human resource capacity but Voigt-Graf (2003) studying Fijian teachers on the move records a substantial migration, not just overseas, but away from rural to urban areas. (See Box 7 on page 35.)

### 3.3.5 The consequences of poor teacher management on teacher motivation and morale

Where teachers and the education system are poorly managed, this will have a negative impact on teacher morale and motivation. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) and VSO

#### BOX 6: Teacher Attrition in Sudan

In Sudan, a county-level Sudanese education official commented on the poaching of teachers by non-government organisations (NGOs): 'Teaching in southern Sudan has become a waiting place. It's not a profession. Teachers just teach when they have nothing else to do. But when an opportunity comes, they leave. Actually, the most qualified teachers change their profession. They go and work with NGOs. As soon as they get an opportunity, they shift.'

Source: Sommers, 2005: 258.

## BOX 7: International Teacher Recruitment from Guyana and Jamaica

In Guyana, the Guyana Teachers' Union has complained about the British, American, and Caribbean recruiters who come each year to try and attract highly trained English-speaking Guyanese teachers to their countries to fill their shortages. The incentives are very appealing given the highest monthly salary of a Guyanese teacher is equivalent to €400, below that of a newly qualified teacher in the Bahamas, and well below average salaries in the US or UK.

In Jamaica, the Jamaica Teachers' Association estimates that 300 out of the total teacher stock of 23,000 leave annually to work in other countries, and whilst this may seem a small proportion, the teachers that leave tend to be maths and science teachers who are already in short supply in Jamaica.

Source: Education International, 2005.

International (2002) argue that low salaries are *the* major factor affecting teachers' morale and motivation and hence the delivery of quality education. In Mozambique, the issues that were rated as having the biggest impact on teacher motivation and morale were salary, material working conditions and training (VSO Mozambique, 2008).

Several important pieces of research argue that teachers' working and living conditions also have a great influence on teacher motivation and morale (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; VSO International, 2002; GCE, 2006; VSO Nigeria 2007; VSO Mozambique, 2008). VSO Nigeria (2007: 37) found that the lack of teaching and learning materials was the second most de-motivating factor reported by teachers and that better management of these resources through setting up of regional networks would enhance teachers' confidence. The consequences are clear: where teachers are poorly managed, teachers' status falls lower and lower and consequently, so does their motivation and morale.

### 3.3.6 The economic and quality impact of poor teacher management

Poor teacher management through the issues outlined above is likely to have three major knock-on effects: (i) teacher migration and attrition; (ii) teacher absenteeism; and (iii) irregular pupil attendance and high pupil repetition and dropout which reduce attainment and learning outcomes. These all have significant financial and quality cost implications to the education system which are generally negative. Governments sometimes justify them by highlighting the short-term cost savings. However more often than not these savings are at the expense of the quality of education being delivered.

### Teacher migration and attrition

Research shows that the reasons for teacher migration are not simply a response to poor terms and conditions. Some commentary, such as that of OECD (2005) reaches the conclusion that limited teacher mobility restricts the spread of new ideas and approaches and narrows the opportunities for diverse career experiences. What is certain, however, is that in developing countries, rural areas find it particularly difficult to recruit and keep qualified and experienced personnel.

High turnover rates create a significant administrative cost of recruiting and deploying new teachers and leave some posts in remote rural areas vacant for a considerable period of time, having a detrimental impact in the classroom. In these circumstances, either pupils from several classes are combined into one very large class, creating additional stress for the one teacher trying to teach a class of perhaps up to 100 pupils, or it means that one teacher moves from class to class doing blocks of teaching and then leaving the pupils without a teacher for several hours each day. Other schools employ multi-grade teaching without proper preparation for teachers for such a task. This is clearly going to have a negative impact on quality.

In addition, where teachers have low morale and are looking to transfer out of their jobs as quickly as possible, even if due to economic circumstances and limited alternatives it takes them a while to find a new job, they are unlikely to be staying in a school long enough to have a significant impact on learning. Those who are dissatisfied and unable to find a new job are also unlikely to dedicate themselves fully to teaching, again having a negative impact on the learning environment of children.

“Where teachers migrate from working in the public sector, this leads to a significant wastage of the financial resources invested in their training.”

The impact of teacher turnover is more severe in Africa than in Asia where there is stronger central control over teacher deployment and in some countries teachers have to pay bribes to be transferred thus putting this option out of the reach of many teachers.

Where teachers migrate from working in the public sector, especially if they are only recently trained, this leads to a significant wastage of the financial resources invested in their training by the public purse. Given that in some developing countries primary school teacher training takes up to three years, this wastage can be considerable, yet it can appear to be a ‘forgotten’ cost as it is spent before the teacher is deployed into a school. There has been limited use of tracer studies in developing countries from which evidence can be drawn to see how widespread this practice is and how much it costs an individual country.

### Teacher absenteeism

Teacher absenteeism is a significant problem in many developing countries due to legitimate reasons such as personal illness (including HIV and AIDS); caring for sick relatives (especially true in countries with high HIV prevalence rates); attending funerals; undertaking training; and the need for assistance in local government activities. Jishnu *et al* (2005) highlight in their study of teachers in Zambia that illness accounts for 60% of teacher absences. However, in many cases teachers are also absent because they are holding down several jobs (including teaching in private schools as well as public ones, or offering private tuition); they need to travel between urban areas where they live and rural areas where they may teach; they need to follow up administrative issues such as late payment or non-payment of salaries; or because they are farming to help provide for their families and survive as well as teaching (this is especially common in rural areas).

*‘In most countries, low pay forces teachers to find additional sources of income. Secondary income activities create divided attention and loyalty to teaching and impact negatively on the quality of schooling.’*

(Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007: xi).

In South Asia, absenteeism rates are higher than they are in Sub-Saharan Africa due to teachers being required to undertake official activities outside the school. Contrary to widespread opinion, a reasonably small

proportion of absences in Africa were found to be unauthorised (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007: xi). Despite this, even where absences are authorised, if they occur frequently and are for such issues as following up late or non-payment of salaries, this is likely to have a knock-on effect on the quality of education children receive in the classroom. Given the lack of ‘supply teachers’ in most developing countries, this leaves fewer teachers in a given school trying to teach the same number of children, and as outlined above this has a serious negative impact on the quality and continuity of teaching due to the reduced contact time and management of children’s learning. A DFID study found that in Pakistan, many teachers stayed in the public system despite low morale, because they could earn significant additional income through private tutoring of students (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007: 50). Around 75% of rural teachers in Tanzania admitted to secondary employment activities as well as 67% of urban teachers. In Zambia, these figures were 44% and 14% respectively (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007: 54). The practice of double shifting has made having a second job easier.

In Pakistan, teacher absence – especially among female teachers – was worse in rural areas, where there is greater physical insecurity, harassment and poorer facilities in schools, which significantly hamper the teacher’s ability to perform effectively and make schools unattractive work places. Female teachers discussed transport difficulties and the fact of commuting from urban areas with unknown men in buses as reasons for absenteeism (VSO Pakistan, 2005).

All these forms of absence contribute to the wastage of public resources. Whilst it is impossible to calculate a global figure or even a country specific figure of how much teacher absenteeism costs given the many legitimate as well as illegitimate reasons for absences, some research has been undertaken on the cost of AIDS-related teacher absences in several African countries which is summarised in Box 8 on page 37.

### Pupil absenteeism, repetition and dropout

Where teacher absenteeism is common or less qualified and experienced unmotivated teachers are sent to rural areas, this undoubtedly has an impact on classroom learning and on regular pupil attendance. This

## BOX 8: The Cost of AIDS-Related Teacher Absence in Mozambique and Zambia

In the 2006 *Education for All Global Monitoring Report*, an estimation was made for the cost of AIDS-related teacher absenteeism directly linked to personal illness of teachers in Mozambique and Zambia. In Mozambique in 2005, the cost of teacher absenteeism due to AIDS-related illness of teachers (not including time off to care for relatives with AIDS or to attend funerals) was estimated to be US\$3.3 million plus an additional US\$0.3 million in increased teacher training costs. In Zambia, the figures were US\$1.7 million and US\$0.7 million respectively. Projection data seems to consistently show that the cost of employee absenteeism is significantly more than the cost of training and recruiting new employees lost to AIDS with absenteeism costing employers 24% to 89% of overall HIV and AIDS costs and training and recruitment between 17% and 24%. This differential might be slightly lower for teachers given the length of their training (UNESCO, 2005: 89). Additionally, research by Jishnu *et al* (2005) in Zambia found that each 5% increase in teacher absentee rates reduces learning outcomes by between 4 and 8% of average gains in a year.

is likely to lead to higher rates of repetition and dropout and lower achievement by pupils.

Evidence from a range of studies on developing countries shows that repetition and dropout are more pronounced in rural areas and amongst poorer households (World Bank, 2005c; Hallman, Peracca, Catino and Ruiz, 2006; World Bank, 2003, and Machingaidze, Pfukani and Shumba, 1998). The reasons for this are related to the opportunity cost of attending school; health and malnutrition problems; and the low perceived relevance of education to many rural families. For those families already questioning the relevance of education, a regularly absent teacher or very large class sizes and under-resourced schools are not going to build the confidence of these families that education is relevant and of a basic quality.

Repetition and dropout undermine the EFA agenda and the achievement of the MDGs. Repetition worsens the access problem with repeating students taking up already limited places leading to the exclusion of new students or to their inclusion but at the cost of even more overcrowded classrooms. Bernard, Simon and Vianou (2005: 22) outline the situation in Cameroon in the 2002/03 school year, where the country had a sufficient number of places in primary schools to accommodate all primary school-aged children yet 140,000 children were not in school, largely explained by the fact that

approximately 25% of all children in school were repeaters and thus taking up the places of those who remained out of school.

Repetition and dropout are very costly. In the case of repetition, the public purse and additional family support have to pay for the additional years of schooling, whereas this money could be used more effectively in other ways to improve quality and enable more pupils in a cohort to complete primary schooling. Whilst there are many reasons for repetition and dropout that go much wider than poor teacher management (see Bernard *et al*, 2005, for more information), unmotivated, unqualified and frequently absent teachers are likely to exacerbate repetition and dropout rates (see Box 9 on page 38).

### The financial and quality costs of poor teacher management

Table 3 on page 39 summarises the financial and quality costs of poor teacher management.

Clearly, improved management would lead to fewer economic costs and greater quality gains. The exact impact of improved teacher and educational system management is likely to vary significantly from country to country depending on the baseline conditions of management and what reforms are undertaken in an individual country.

## BOX 9: The Cost of Repetition and Dropout in Selected African Countries

The following are examples of the specific cost of repetition and dropout rates within Africa:

- In 2003 in **Lesotho**, 43% of all education resources were wasted due to repetition and dropout (World Bank, 2005b: 42–43, 3).
- In 2000 in **Malawi**, 60% of education resources were wasted at primary level meaning that the government was financing 20 school years to generate every graduate from primary school, when it should have been financing only an 8-year cycle (World Bank, 2004a: 7, 56–7).
- In **Swaziland**, over 40% of education resources were wasted recently due to repetition and dropout rates. A model estimating the costs of achieving UPE by 2015 found that if repetition continues at current levels, an additional 226,000 school places at primary level and 96,000 at lower secondary level would be needed compared to only 189,000 and 86,000 respectively if repetition could be totally phased out. This would require a significant additional number of teachers. Factoring in staffing and non-staffing costs, the model estimated that savings of US\$11 million could be made on the 2015 primary annual budget and US\$7 million on the 2015 lower secondary budget (World Bank, 2006b: 22, 30).
- In 2003/04 in **Burundi**, a World Bank study (2006a: ix, viii) found that nearly 53% of all resources spent on primary education were wasted due to high repetition and dropout.
- In the 2003/04 school year in **Guinea**, 27% of education resources for primary education were wasted due to repetition and dropout (World Bank, 2005a: 84, 92).

**TABLE 3: The financial and quality costs of poor teacher management**

Financial Costs of Poor Management	Quality Costs of Poor Management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There is a high cost of wastage due to repetition and dropout;</li> <li>• There are inefficiencies due to high teacher turnover and the extra workload on administrators in recruiting and deploying replacement teachers;</li> <li>• There is a 'hidden' loss when teachers who are trained using public finances then work outside the public education sector due to weak management and poor terms and conditions;</li> <li>• When teachers spend time doing administrative tasks rather than teaching due to the lack of administrators in schools, this leads to inefficiencies as they are doing tasks at teacher pay of a job which is usually performed by non-teachers at a lower pay level;</li> <li>• There are direct and indirect financial costs of teacher absenteeism (both authorised and unauthorised);</li> <li>• Where mechanisms for delivering and monitoring salary and non-salary payments and benefits are not strong, there are greater opportunities for corruption; and</li> <li>• Poor education management leading to a failure to address issues of exclusion and discrimination can also contribute to social unrest.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Where teachers are absent either temporarily or due to high teacher turnover this will undoubtedly have a negative impact on quality;</li> <li>• When teachers spend time doing administrative tasks rather than teaching due to the lack of administrators in schools, this reduces contact time with children and will impact quality;</li> <li>• Employing under, unqualified or para-teachers on a lower pay level with less favourable terms and conditions can lead to significant cost-savings to governments – in India, between three and five para-teachers can be employed for the price of one fully qualified teacher (GCE/ ActionAid, 2005: 24) – but this can have a significant negative impact on the quality of teaching and learning outcomes for children;</li> <li>• Lack of investment in management training for headteachers can result in increased teacher absenteeism and attrition thus indirectly affecting quality;</li> <li>• Disparities in teacher and resource allocation can lead to the worsening of already existing disparities in the quality of education;</li> <li>• Teachers' strikes in protest at mismanagement of the sector results in reduced pupil/teacher contact time; and</li> <li>• Failure to listen to teachers and society views can lead to irrelevant curricula, pupil de-motivation, truancy and higher drop out rates.</li> </ul>





# 4. Case Studies and Recommendations for Improved Teacher Management

“*Weak management linkages among the employing authorities compound the problems inherent in this diffusion of management responsibility.*”

### 4.1 Stronger management systems, better decision-making and clearer roles and responsibilities

#### 4.1.1 The benefits of effective EMIS in decision-making and information sharing

Halliday and Hogan (1994) attribute inefficient teacher deployment and management as often being a consequence of a lack of adequate and reliable information on which rational planning and routine management decisions can be based. Weak management linkages among the employing authorities compound the problems inherent in this diffusion of management responsibility. The report goes on to describe the various approaches adopted by different countries including teaching service commissions and public service commissions. The OECD (2005) supports the view that development of better national and international information on teachers is a priority. This is consistent with VSO's experience in developing countries around teacher recruitment and VSO is now working more in education management and administration to help partner organisations to address the problem.

The World Bank has also supported the development and implementation of EMIS in over 40 of its projects; an indication that the need for an efficient and accurate flow of information between the different levels is important (Infodev, forthcoming). But it is important to emphasise that information

systems alone are not enough. What is important is the type of information that EMIS systems record, and how this information is used to influence policy-making. In addition to EMIS systems gathering information about gender balance amongst the student population, this should more routinely be expanded to capture information about the teacher population and the role of teachers and headteachers in addressing discrimination relating to gender, disability and other dimensions of exclusion.

EMIS provides useful tools for planning and communication with teachers about the status of the school and learning outcomes, as well as collecting baseline data on the numbers of teachers and students in each school (Cassidy, 2005: 37). They have also been used to develop policy positions to address the various problems identified in the education system. School improvement is one of the reasons that EMIS is important and has already been used for this purpose in some countries (see Box 10).

EMIS needs to be used at school level as well as at central level. At central level, EMIS helps ministries of education in formulating policies based on school-level information, but caution should be taken so that there is no duplication of what the schools are already doing. In addition, policy development should involve stakeholders at all levels and giving teachers feedback and an opportunity to air their views.

#### BOX 10: The Use of EMIS for School Improvement in Mexico

Several states in Mexico have developed and maintain their own education data and information systems. One example is the State of Aguascaliente. The State's education data website provides very easy access to comprehensive state and school-level education data including standard education statistics, examination results, six years of historical data and a school mapping facility. The Secretariat of Public Education for Mexico City maintains another site that enables users to compare the performance of schools across the city in a number of subject areas with the aim of supporting school improvement. Information can be accessed allowing users to compare the performance of schools in the federal territory and to see data on the ten highest performing schools. This information is available in tabular and graphic forms accompanied by explanations and options for each school to improve its performance.

Source: Cassidy, 2005:34.

## 4.1.2 Clearer roles and responsibilities for headteachers

Where the roles and responsibilities of different education stakeholders are clearly defined, this makes educational management decisions a lot easier, as is shown by the following examples from Nepal and Mozambique in Box 11 below.

There is also a need to clarify the role of a headteacher as one that should be giving constant feedback to the teachers. In Nigeria teachers prefer frequent supervision from inspectors as well as from their headteachers. Inspection and supervision helps them feel valued, makes them visible and noticed and helps improve their teaching skills (VSO

Nigeria, 2007:26). Headteachers in Guyana are clear about their role in working with communities as described in Box 12 below.

## 4.1.3 The value of two-way communication

There need to be clear communication channels between central educational planners, local education planners, education managers and teachers to ensure that EMIS has a use at school level as well as central level and that the relevant and appropriate data is collected and all stakeholders have the opportunity to engage with this data. This also involves the participation of teachers in educational decision making at every level

### BOX 11: The Roles of Education Managers at School Level in Nepal and Mozambique

In Nepal, the headteacher is seen as playing a crucial role in teacher support. Regular staff meetings and delegation of roles and responsibilities boost teacher morale and create a mutually accountable and collaborative team. However teachers recognised that in order to do this headteachers should be given the authority to reward and discipline teachers on the basis of their performance.

*'Lack of effective management can foster absenteeism among teachers. Conversely this can be reduced by improved management procedures. One VSO volunteer in Mozambique reported observing the change that took place when a new headteacher arrived at her school: "Everything is much more positive since the new director arrived. The teachers are actually coming to lessons now. There is a system to check on teachers."'*

The following are some recommendations for the issues faced by headteachers at school level:

- Train headteachers in school management and administration;
- Train headteachers in leadership and how to create a motivating school environment;
- Make resources available to improve the quality of working conditions within schools;
- Allow headteachers to have a timetable that allows for concentration on management issues; and
- Only recruit headteachers who are eligible for the task.

Sources: VSO Nepal, 2005; VSO Mozambique, 2007: 24.

### Box 12: The role of the headteacher in working with parents and the community

*'Headteachers recognise that forging strong links between the school and the community is critical and enhances the quality of education... All schools have PTAs through which many links could be developed. Headteachers complain that very few parents attend these meetings and that repeatedly asking the same group to support school activities actually puts a strain on relationships. They realise alternative strategies need to be used but feel a bit unsure about what they may be. One headteacher described a Parents' Day activity, which involved parents attending their child's lesson to get a feel for what is being taught and how it is being taught. Another headteacher was inviting parents into the school to talk about their professional experiences as part of careers guidance. These ideas for encouraging community participation could be usefully shared with other headteachers and schools, but headteachers find few opportunities to do so on a regular basis. The monthly headteachers' meeting which currently tends to be more about information dissemination, could provide the chance to discuss innovations for school development.'*

Source: VSO Guyana, 2003: 19.

“ Teachers are always remembered as implementers of education policies and directives, but it is common for governments and district and school-level education managers to forget that teachers are stakeholders in their own right. ”

– school, local and system level; a practice which has been lacking and has caused de-motivation for staff in some developing countries (GCE, 2006; VSO International, 2002). Both GCE and VSO recommend the use of two-way communication systems (such as newsletters, participatory action research, opinion polls, surveys and radio and television phone-in discussions – as well as more formal consultative meetings and workshops) so that the implementation of new policies and decisions is informed by the reality experienced by teachers and learners in schools, and is effectively implemented to the benefit of learners (see Box 13 below).

#### 4.1.4 Ensuring teachers' voice and participation in decision-making processes

A common theme pursued by Halliday and Hogan (1995 and 1999b) and VSO International (2002), is that of teacher participation in decision-making. The authors argue that if quality in education is to be achieved, major management decisions should be taken at as local a level as is practical. Traditionally the restructuring of education management is 'top-down'; Halliday and Hogan argue for a more participative approach to change. As a necessary underpinning for these ideas, they opt for the creation of a national teaching council.

Participation has been used as a tool for improving education quality in Uganda (Kanyike,

Omona, Birungi, Nuwagaba, Namanya, Kemeza and Carasco, 1999). Participation that is meaningful begins by identifying the relevant stakeholders for the subject being discussed. Once stakeholders have been identified then participation can take place. Teachers are always remembered as implementers of education policies and directives, but it is common for governments and district and school-level education managers to forget that teachers are stakeholders in their own right. Stacki and Pigozzi (1995) cited in Göttelmann and Yekhlef (2005: 67) argue that 'strong participation builds teachers' self-confidence and lifts their status in the eyes of the community', as highlighted by the Teacher Empowerment Project in India, and 'moves teachers from the periphery into the very centre of the education process'.

In order for any group of stakeholders to participate in decision-making processes they need a facilitator, who will enable them to meaningfully participate and also help to motivate them to be part of the process (Kanyike *et al*, 1999: 3). Teachers also need to be facilitated to voice their issues and suggest ways forward. Ideally then, it is teacher managers that should play this role of facilitator. Managers therefore need to be trained to be able to respond to the teachers' voices and consolidate policy directions in an empowering way (see Box 14 below).

#### BOX 13: The Importance of Two-Way Communication in Ethiopia

Where communication in Ethiopia between teachers and the district level was good, teachers felt supported and valued and provided with an avenue to raise issues and concerns. A close partnership was seen as promoting teaching and learning in the school. Teachers desired more autonomy to develop ideas and approaches more independently but agreed that dialogue with the Ministry of Education would empower them to influence decisions.

Source: VSO Ethiopia, forthcoming.

#### BOX 14: Teachers' Voice in School Management in Nigeria

Involving the teachers in the day-to-day management of the school in Nigeria and giving them the feeling they are working as a team motivates them, while being leant on too much or too little contributes to the de-motivation of teachers. Regular staff meetings are considered very important. They create a team spirit and give teachers an opportunity to voice and hear about each other's issues and achievements. The headteacher plays a central role in this, though it is recognised that transparency in headteacher nominations along with headteacher training is essential to achieve this.

Source: VSO Nigeria, 2007.

“The top performing school systems consistently attract more able people into the teaching profession, leading to better student outcomes.”

#### 4.1.5 The importance of whole-school development and improvement

*‘Dialogue takes place among different stakeholders that encourages them to reflect on the meaning of education, set goals for the school, follow them through, and assess progress.’*

(Barrow and Leu, 2006: 9)

Barrow and Leu (2006) emphasise the need for the involvement of all stakeholders in the school development processes. School leadership plays a major role in making sure this happens and has an enormous effect on how the teaching profession is perceived and valued. Parents and the community are able to understand the role of teachers and the challenges they face at the same time as understanding, in the case of reforms, why new reforms are introduced.

As decision-making processes are being brought nearer and nearer to local people and professionals, the need to involve all interested stakeholders gets more and more important. Leu (2005) argues that the decentralisation of decision-making around school, finances, personnel and curriculum has also been central to the involvement of stakeholders. This inevitably brings in issues of increased accountability of education systems that have led to discussions around whether it is fair to impose decentralisation reforms on educationalists when similar kinds of accountability mechanisms have not been requested of health and agricultural sectors.

The benefits of involving education stakeholders in school improvement on quality have not been consistent as Leu (2005) notes, since there are mixed feelings around the kind of satisfaction stakeholders have about the job teachers do. Nevertheless this has an impact on the role of headteachers in that they need to specifically be equipped on how they can do this. VSO’s experience has shown that there is not much support that is provided to headteachers in order for them to understand how their roles are changing as a result of decentralisation and also how they can effectively involve all stakeholders and still be able to meaningfully develop the school. Effective induction and work shadowing for headteachers would be one way of helping them to undertake this kind of a role alongside involving the community and students in holding teachers and schools accountable.

#### 4.1.6 Effective systems for the recruitment, selection and deployment of teachers

Clearly more efficient and effective planning processes through better EMIS and more involvement of teachers and headteachers in decision-making processes will improve the supply, training and deployment of teachers to locations that are most in need and will help governments to address the problems of spiralling class sizes and the plummeting quality levels they now face.

##### The selection of high quality teachers in the recruitment practices

Globally, school systems have engaged in major curriculum reforms, working towards new learner-centred, interactive teaching methodologies, gender equality and inclusion of students with disabilities, and those from linguistic or other minorities. These reforms have been more successfully implemented in developed countries than in most developing countries, though both groups of countries still have significant progress to make. To effect these changes, the role, preparation and careers of teachers need to be re-examined.

A comprehensive international study of policies for attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers in schools has been made by OECD (2005). Drawing on the experience of 25 countries, the project has analysed the key developments affecting teachers and their work and developed policy options for countries to consider. The report points to the larger number of new teachers entering the profession in the next 5–10 years than in the past 20 years and the consequent possibilities for educational renewal. It also sounds a warning note, which has international relevance and applies equally to both developed and developing countries. That is: **if teaching is not perceived as an attractive profession, and teaching does not change in fundamental ways, there is a risk that the quality of schools will decline.**

Barber and Mourshed (2007: 12, 16) also highlight the importance of selecting the right people to become teachers.

*‘The top performing school systems consistently attract more able people into the teaching profession, leading to better student outcomes. They do this by making entry to teacher training highly selective, developing effective processes for selecting the right applicants to become teachers, and paying good (but not great) starting compensation.’*

*'Taken together, all the evidence suggests that even in good systems, students that do not progress quickly during their first years at school, because they are not exposed to teachers of sufficient calibre, stand very little chance of recovering the lost years.'*

## **Addressing deployment imbalances that lead to large class size**

*'Class size should be such as to permit the teacher to give the pupils individual attention. From time to time provision may be made for small group or even individual instruction for such purposes as remedial work, and on occasion for large group instruction employing audio-visual aids.'*

(ILO/UNESCO, 1966: 10).

Maintaining small classes is especially important in countries that are struggling to open up access to education to all their children. Those countries that have recently abolished fees, for example, are welcoming thousands of children into education from communities never before served by schools. UNESCO argues that first generation learners actually need smaller class sizes than children from communities long served by primary education. This is because such children are usually from disadvantaged social groups and are more likely to belong to a linguistic, caste or class minority whose language or dialect may not be used as the medium of instruction (UNESCO, 2004: 114).

As the parents of first generation learners have, by definition, never experienced education, such children are further disadvantaged due to their parents' inability to help them with their homework or communicate with their children's teachers as effectively as educated parents are able to. They therefore need extra attention from their teachers to enable them to achieve the same learning outcomes as more advantaged children.

**A PTR of 40:1 is widely accepted as sufficient to enable teachers to manage the classroom effectively** (UIS, 2006; GCE, 2006; Mehrotra and Buckland, 1998; Bruns, Mingat and Rakotomalala, 2003; UNESCO BRED, 2005) so it would hardly be a new recommendation for this report to make, but it is one worth restating as a worthwhile aim for 2015 or before, that can and should be achieved if governments and donors invest in our children's future – by investing in teachers.

## **Additional allowances for hardship posts or to attract teachers**

UNESCO (1966) recommended special provisions for teachers in rural or remote areas including decent housing, preferably free or at a subsidised rent and special travel facilities. This approach can also be used to attract underrepresented groups such as females or ethnic minorities into teaching. There are implications here for the management of teachers at district and system level in the form of offering active encouragement and incentives to create a stable teaching workforce.

An example is non-salary incentives to work in rural areas such as accelerated access to professional development opportunities and tenure (see Box 15 on page 46). Non-salary benefits can also enhance teacher motivation for all teachers (see section 4.2.1 below for more details). These can include low interest loan schemes to allow teachers to buy and maintain their own housing in the event that free housing is not a condition of service. Other non-salary incentives that can be employed to enhance teacher motivation and encourage teachers to remain in the profession, particularly those in hardship posts, include:

- Policies for placing teachers in schools near to their extended families, in the communities where they were brought up in;
- Food and clothing allowances;
- Free health insurance (for teachers and their dependants), including access to antiretroviral treatment for teachers or members of teachers families living with HIV and AIDS; and
- Subsidised travel, which can take the form of discounted bus or train fares; loans to enable teachers to purchase annual travel passes; loans to allow teachers to purchase bicycles or motorcycles; or the provision of free bicycles (GCE, 2006: 45).

Whilst rural incentives and hardship allowances may go some way to addressing rural disparities they can have other unintended consequences. Several Latin American countries have put in place incentive packages to encourage teachers to teach in rural or remote areas including salary bonuses; giving priority tenure to teachers living and working in isolated areas (Ecuador); every three years of rural service counted as four in Bolivia and every extra half-year counted as one year in Honduras. However, whilst these incentives may attract teachers, some of them

## BOX 15: Rural-Urban Disparities in Teacher Allocation in Botswana

As with many countries which feature in this study, the education service in Botswana suffers from significant rural-urban disparities in the allocation of teachers. There are particularly strong incentives for an urban posting in Botswana, due to the relatively developed and culturally dominant nature of the capital, Gaborone, compared to the high levels of under-development and remoteness of many rural areas. Although teacher attrition rates are low, high levels of study leave and a high number of teachers who are married to each other constrain teacher redeployment to areas in need.

In contrast to many countries in this study, however, Botswana has sufficient resources at its disposal to implement a structure of incentives for teachers to accept remote postings, such as transport and other special allowances. These incentives sweeten the pill of compulsory transfers, which tend to be used more widely in Botswana than many other countries. Together with a system which allows voluntary transfers which accord with certain criteria to be requested (enabling, for example, spouses to follow one another to teaching placements) and a policy of attempting to recruit, train and deploy teachers in their home regions, this has served to ameliorate teacher resistance to the transfer process, and help to redress rural/urban imbalances to some degree. This process is still effectively fairly centralised, and aided by a reasonably effective EMIS, which promotes a holistic oversight of need throughout the country.

This 'carrot and stick' tactic, by which a fairly authoritarian approach to posting is mitigated by incentives and flexibility at the national level, is complemented by effective training of headteachers in teacher management at the local level, which has increased standards of teacher behaviour and performance. This has taken place within the context of pay levels sufficient to attract teachers from other countries to help address the teacher shortage, which has afforded greater room for manoeuvre in teacher allocation.

Sources: Göttelmann-Duret and Hogan, 1998; Bennell, 2004b.

when combined with other policies may have a less positive impact on quality. For example, in Ecuador and Peru, newly qualified teachers are required to begin their careers in rural areas which may match the least experienced teachers to the pupils of highest need and having less of a positive impact on quality (UIS, 2006: 99).

### Deployment of female teachers

Female teachers act as positive role models for girls: they can help encourage parents to enrol their daughters in school (in some countries parents feel it is safer leaving their daughters in the care of female teachers, or at least where there is a balance of female and male teachers). Female teachers can also motivate girls to complete their education and are less likely to discriminate against girls in classroom interactions.

*'It is important for schools to undermine, not underscore, stereotypes and unequal treatment of women—and to be wary of giving boys more resources, leadership, and attention. Female teachers are good role models for boys and girls, and even young women can be effective teachers*

*with training, support, and a programmed curriculum. Governments might consider setting national goals for hiring women and being flexible with age and education requirements for female teachers (while still providing adequate in-service training).'*

(World Bank, 2006c: 138).

There is a need in many countries to recruit more female teachers, as well as more women in administrative and leadership positions in the educational system and the expansion of education systems to provide universal access to fee-free basic education provides an unprecedented opportunity to correct the gender imbalance that exists in certain countries. In some countries policies have been introduced to increase the recruitment of female teachers. Age and education requirements have been relaxed and quotas on female recruitment imposed. However, as seen in Ethiopia where quotas have been introduced to ensure one-third intake into TTIs are female, it is vital that governments ensure that female teachers receive adequate – and empowering – initial and in-job training alongside these policies, to allow them to upgrade their qualifications in the longer term:

*'Since women are accepted with lower qualification levels than men, their performance tends to continue to lag behind, which may badly affect their self esteem. To address this, the Women's Affairs Office in the Ministry of Education [in Ethiopia] has designed training programmes to give additional support to women in these colleges, at the same time as providing them with assertiveness training.'*

(Beyond Access, 2005b: 3–4).

While ambitious targets for recruiting female teachers must be established, quotas and scholarships alone may not be enough, and multiple strategies will be needed to ensure that targets are reached. In many countries, support and encouragement are essential to enable women to break with powerful social norms and adopt a teaching career (UNESCO, 2003: 22).

### **Deployment of teachers with disabilities**

Teachers play a crucial role in modelling inclusive attitudes and establishing expectations in the classroom. As such, teachers with disabilities – as well as able-bodied teachers that are sensitised to disability issues – can be instrumental in combating discrimination, promoting positive identities in children with disabilities, and in breaking down prejudices of non-disabled children. Teachers with disabilities in particular can provide positive examples for parents of disabled children, who may feel that there is little point in sending their disabled child to school, because of the stigma and discrimination related to disability.

Particularly for deaf children for example, teachers able to use natural sign language are essential. Encouraging deaf people to become teachers, and other teachers with deaf children in their classes to learn sign language, should therefore be a high priority for governments whose duty it is to provide a quality education to all children – regardless of disability.

Indeed, all countries should ensure that discrimination against people with disabilities in the teaching profession is effectively prohibited and legislated against.

### **4.1.7 The level of decentralisation should be appropriate to the country context**

The debate or discussion in this report is not about whether or not to use centralised or decentralised systems of education as both

have proved to work very well in different countries and environments. It is a hasty generalisation that decentralised systems are better for developing countries when some governments and systems are not yet ready for this kind of governance. Also, governance structures should be cognisant of the different social and cultural systems in which they operate. Although the argument for decreasing the distance between local government, schools and central government is one that will help the promotion of decentralisation, power struggles between central and local government should not be underestimated as resistance to decentralisation can often be sourced to such power struggles.

Within a decentralised context, the capacity of education managers and administrators at local levels to be able to undertake their new responsibilities (such as new budget-holding and decision-making powers, and new teacher and staff recruitment responsibilities) needs to be considered with capacity strengthening activities provided for key staff in order for them to develop effective education systems.

The roles of education managers differ depending on whether a centralised or decentralised system is in place. In a decentralised system headteachers are expected to do more than teacher support and supervision, with increased financial management responsibilities.

It is important for teachers to get involved in the decisions affecting them and their profession at a local level since involvement is not only in implementation but also in the planning of developments at school level. Thus it is crucial to train teachers in effective participation, and headteachers in how to organise meaningful consultation processes and in giving effective feedback to teachers. Some of these issues might be considered less important but are critical where teacher morale and motivation is concerned as they make teachers feel valued and feel some ownership of these plans. As teachers are the very people who will be expected to implement these plans, giving them a voice in the decision-making processes that determines what the plans are and how they should be implemented is clearly vital. The Namibia case study below illustrates this clearly (see Box 16 on page 48).

## BOX 16: Effective, Decentralized Teacher Development in Namibia

In Namibia, the Ministry of Education has designed and implemented a bottom-up, decentralised teacher development strategy where teachers use self-assessment to communicate to the Ministry what kinds of CPD they need in response to any new policies and educational reforms that are taking place. Through this process, teachers are developing materials and strategies to implement instructional reforms required by policy and gaining a voice about the quality and type of CPD that they require. However, this process can be time-consuming as it involves a lot of data collection.

Source: Kay LeCzel and Gillies, 2006.

## 4.2 More flexible fiscal management policies

Many developing countries have seriously constrained budgets due to both limited national resources and in some cases, tight fiscal management policies imposed by the IMF. This makes it difficult to allow for significant increases in the wage bill for teachers and other public sector workers. However, there are some ways in which more flexibility can be achieved either through greater donor resources for education; a larger share of national resources being allocated to education where education expenditure is a low proportion of GDP; or a redistribution of resources within the education budget if certain lower priority sub-sectors are taking a disproportionate share of the education budget. Even where these options are not possible, ensuring more timely payments of teachers' salaries and other budget lines to schools can have a dramatic effect on increasing teacher motivation and morale.

### 4.2.1 Improved salaries, incentives and working conditions

With good management, and where necessary, with assistance from donors, there is the potential for teachers' terms and conditions to be improved dramatically, which (coupled with other interventions) would lead to positive changes in teacher motivation, morale and teacher retention, and ultimately in the quality of education they are able to provide.

At the national level, systems should also be in place for the effective monitoring of inflation and its effect on teachers' and other public sector workers' salaries in relation to the cost of living. Education system managers should be able to analyse the living conditions and costs in specific areas and advise those in charge of setting teacher salaries at the national level (in Public or Teacher Service Commissions for example) accordingly. Bennell argues that

teachers' salaries in most Anglophone Africa need to be doubled in order to attract new trainees and retain existing teachers (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007).

With effective planning it is possible to improve the timely payment of teacher salaries. Some analysis and monitoring of the causes for late payment would also help to identify the root causes of the problem and bring sustainable solutions. Direct funding to schools, for example, through systems similar to the capitation grants system in Ghana, where donor grants are paid directly to schools, have helped to enable schools to manage and have more control over their own expenditure. But this approach requires training in budgeting and financial management for school level managers.

Both GCE's and VSO's own *Valuing Teachers* research (GCE, 2006; VSO International, 2002; VSO Nepal, 2005; VSO The Gambia, 2007; VSO Mozambique, 2008) have shown that non-salary incentives around housing, health insurance, transport subsidies or bicycles, can go a long way to motivate teachers and increase their retention rates (see section 4.1.5 for more information). McEwan's (1999 cited in Göttelmann and Yekhle, 2005: 31) economic analysis of teaching and teacher education further stresses the importance of these non-monetary incentives, providing evidence of how teachers in developing countries tended to 'trade-off monetary aspects of their jobs against non-monetary aspects, such as geographic location and class size'. (See Box 17 on page 49.)

It is clear that policies – such as quotas and scholarships – aimed at increasing the numbers of female teachers, must be accompanied by measures to improve the working conditions, motivation, morale and status of women teachers and managers. These should include ensuring that women have adequate arrangements for maternity



## **BOX 17: Management Reforms Related to Teachers' Salaries and Working Conditions in Nigeria**

Nigeria has traditionally suffered from poor management of teacher remuneration, with low salaries which were frequently unpaid for extended periods of time, often due to diversion of funds for political purposes or to other areas of government. The politicisation of education management meant inconsistencies between the policy and practice of education authorities. Governance of schools was also unclear and hence ineffective, due to the lack of clear divisions of responsibility among the federal, state and local levels, which meant both that teacher management was poor and that the payment of teachers' salaries was not the clear responsibility of any one body. Partly as a result, teacher indiscipline was high, as the job was not valued and the need for secondary employment increased absenteeism.

However, following state-level changes following democratisation in 1999, indiscipline has reportedly lessened and motivation increased. These changes included the prompt payment of salaries and improved working conditions. Promotions which had long been promised but not fulfilled were finally enacted; workloads were reduced; and compulsory deductions from salaries halted. This has resulted in some degree of increased morale among the education workforce, and, although there is still much work to be done in improving management, it demonstrates that increased efficiency in the allocation of existing resources, rather than new resources, can do much to achieve the conditions whereby teaching quality can improve.

Source: Adelabu, 2005.

leave and the right to request temporary part time hours upon their return to work, without loss of pay or pension rights. To reduce the burden of childcare on women, policies should also allow paternity leave arrangements and part-time working for male teachers who are fathers. Teachers, whether male or female, who take their child care responsibilities seriously should not be penalised for doing so. Measures such as ensuring accommodation is safe – particularly for teachers living in rural areas, and placing more female teachers near to their own communities or extended families should be implemented. In many cases, this may involve actively recruiting and training women from the local area. Effective anti-discrimination disciplinary procedures, laws and codes of ethics should also be implemented and enforced.

### **4.2.2 The supportive role of administrative staff in improving working conditions**

Administrative staff in district or regional education offices are often responsible for processing teacher salary payments, for communicating information about national policies, and for gathering data for EMIS systems that is used to decide budget allocations for schools – all crucial tasks that, if efficiently handled, can have a significant positive impact on teachers' motivation and ability to do their jobs effectively. OECD (2005)

also adds that well-trained administrative staff can help reduce the burden on teachers.

As has been outlined in chapter 3, there is a danger that professional development is only planned for teachers without taking into consideration the needs of administrative staff. Yet administrative staff support teachers in the delivery of better quality education and also need CPD so that they are both able to adjust to new technology and advance in their career. Thus the CPD of administrative staff should be a core responsibility of an employer.

Selection of and support for administrative staff at school level is a major role of headteachers. Thus, headteachers need to be supported in this function during headteacher training programmes and as part of their line management and appraisal processes.

It is through the establishment of motivational management that such improvements can happen and contribute towards improved teacher morale and motivation and therefore to improvements in the quality of education they can deliver. Discussions of the quality of education that only consider student achievement address only part of the problem. The learning environment that is provided by schools, in terms of PTRs, teaching methodologies, school and classroom facilities, curricula and teaching and learning materials also needs to be considered

(Education International, 2004: 4), and without management training, education managers are not able to provide the support that their administrative staff need to be able to address these issues effectively.

### 4.2.3 The use of para-teachers and contract teachers to meet teacher supply challenges

Para-teacher schemes solve issues of increased access in the short-term but have a negative impact on the quality of education in the long-term unless the teachers have strong support through CPD. Lesotho and Tanzania use distance education to undertake the rapid training of new teachers due to supply-side capacity constraints. Lesotho requires trainees to complete a two-week crash course before being deployed to teach in schools, with the remainder of their training being undertaken by distance learning. In Tanzania, the licensee teachers undertake a crash course for four weeks before deployment to teach in secondary schools with the aim that each of these teachers will enrol on a diploma course within two years of deployment. However, Education International (2007: 69) argue that '[s]uch crash programmes do not give the trainees adequate time to grasp the necessary theory and subject content and to acquire the necessary pedagogical skills necessary for effective teaching'.

Such short-term measures have been the option of last resort for governments struggling with under-financed education budgets. Schemes that were originally intended as short-term emergency measures are morphing into long-term plans, gradually replacing qualified teachers with unqualified para-teachers who, through no fault of their own, are unable to deliver lessons or control classes. As a result, parallel systems for teacher training have developed in these countries (Nilsson, 2003: 24).

The World Bank has clearly been instrumental in this trend, although its actual position (as represented in its published research and in the annual World Development Reports) is somewhat self-contradictory. On the one hand, in their *World Development Report 2004* they explicitly recommend the use of 'para-teachers' – justifying their use on the grounds of greater community involvement, reduced costs and the apparent absence of conflict with teachers' unions:

*'Madhya Pradesh, India, has seen substantial improvement in test scores, completion rates, and literacy. Community involvement is strong in recruiting teachers, getting new schools built, and encouraging neighbours to enrol their children. Parents have been helped by the ability to hire local, less-than-fully-trained teachers at a fraction of standard pay scales for government teachers – with better results. This last aspect of the program complicates scaling up. The ability to avoid confrontation with public sector unions has been a great advantage. Will teachers' unions allow such recruitment to become standard?'*

(World Bank, 2004b: 72).

On the other hand, the World Bank has published research from four countries: Togo, Peru, Ecuador and Indonesia (Alcázar *et al*, 2004), which plainly contradicts the *World Development Report 2004* stance. This research concludes that the employment of 'contract teachers' has a direct causal link to a decline in the quality of teaching – due to reduced attractiveness of the profession, leading to lower quality applicants, and increased absenteeism as a result of fewer incentives and lower job security. (See Box 18 on page 51.)

Although attempting to do the same work as their colleagues, most of the time it is clear that para-teachers and contract teachers do not have many options to improve their conditions of service, since they often do not have the right to union representation. In some countries in West Africa, the professionals now represent less than 30% of the teaching population (GCE/ActionAid, 2005: 24). After a transitional period of a few years, the teachers' unions there are trying to cope with the situation by including issues related to para-teachers in discussions with the government. But the tendency is for splintering of unions with para-teachers organising themselves in new associations rather than joining existing unions. The result is an undermining of the bargaining power of unions so they can no longer negotiate living wages, fair contracts and decent working conditions.

The answer to the World Bank's question (*'Will teachers' unions allow such recruitment to become standard?'*) is therefore likely to be that they will not agree to the recruitment of para-teachers and contract teachers becoming standard practice. Indeed Education

## BOX 18: The Use of Contract Teachers in Ecuador

It has long been thought that contract teachers, due to the insecurity of their tenure, will tend to be absent less than permanent teachers, against whom it is harder to take disciplinary action. Some studies have found that absentee rates among contract teachers are lower, although the teachers' levels of job satisfaction are lower and their desire to change schools higher. Whilst this might negatively affect motivation and teaching quality, it had been considered that the incentivising effect of lower job security outweighed it. In resource-constrained environments, education services have been encouraged to move towards more contracted teachers, in the interests of greater efficiency, as the perceived lower costs and flexibility in employment were felt to be considerable. In Peru and Ecuador, however, World Bank studies have found that absentee rates among contract teachers are significantly higher than among permanent teachers. Furthermore, teaching quality is further compromised by the appointment of contract teachers through the consequent lower attractiveness of the profession, which discourages higher quality applicants from entering.

The overall effect of moving towards non-formal or contract teaching is thus, in fact, proving to be de-incentivising. This is leading to a re-thinking of policy. The World Bank reports accept that appointing a higher proportion of contract teachers may negatively impact on teaching quality, and suggest that budgetary considerations should not be the only factors influencing the terms on which teachers are employed. Although this has yet to feed back into practice in a meaningful way, the fact that evidence of the impact of considerations other than the purely financial is entering the policy research of the international financial institutions is important. Assuming contract conditions do ease as a result in Ecuador, it will be useful to note the impact on teacher motivation, management and quality.

Sources: Alcázar *et al*, 2004; Duthilleul, 2006; Fyfe, 2007; Michaelowa, 2002; and Rogers *et al*, 2004.

International<sup>5</sup> has been, and remains, one of the strongest opponents of the long-term use of such programmes.

A third type of non-professional teacher is often cited by proponents of reduced pre-service teacher training. This is the 'volunteer' teacher recruited by community-run schools, usually from the local community, who are provided with little or no teacher training and are paid very little in comparison to their qualified colleagues. The 34,000 non-formal primary schools run by the large Bangladeshi NGO BRAC are one such example. The enthusiasm and commitment that comes with teachers recruited from the local community, who may well be parents of children in the school they are working in, is cited as a reason for reportedly improved learning outcomes in such schools, as noted in a recent World Bank study:

*'Recruiting local people as teachers may help to address the deployment problem. In Lesotho, where the selection of teachers is*

*done by school management, schools are able to employ local people who are more likely to accept the post and remain in it. This results in recruitment of less qualified teachers in rural schools but provides a stable cohort of teachers even in the most remote schools.'*

(World Bank, 2008: 6).

However, while the involvement of parents and the community in the running of the school has certainly been shown to improve the effectiveness of both the management of resources and the relevance of teaching in the classroom, there is very little evidence that children enjoy stronger learning outcomes when taught by unqualified teachers. Indeed more evidence exists pointing to the opposite: that 'classroom transactions are of poorer quality under para-teachers' (Govinda and Josephine, 2004: 13). See also Vegas and De Laat (2003), UIS (2006) Pandey (2006) and Fyfe (2007) for similar evidence.

<sup>5</sup> Education International is the global federation of teachers unions, which represents nearly 30 million teachers and education workers in 171 countries. EI's 2004 World Congress *Resolution on Community Involvement in Education Development* stated that EI: 'Rejects appointment of low quality para-teachers, volunteer teachers, part time or contract teachers with lowest possible salary in the name of community involvement'.

All of these debates have been raging for over 40 years of course. Once again, the principles set out in the 1966 ILO/UNESCO *Recommendation Concerning the Status of Teachers* remain a pertinent guide for governments that are responding to population growth and pressure for universal access, or shortages caused by HIV and AIDS, migration and attrition, conflict or natural disaster. Articles 142–144 of the recommendation set out how governments can increase access to education, by increasing teacher numbers, without sacrificing quality in the long term.

### 4.3 More sufficient and appropriate management of workforce skills

#### 4.3.1 Effective pre-service training of teachers

If governments are to provide children with trained teachers, it would be helpful to examine here what the consensus is concerning what constitutes a trained teacher. UNESCO's current definition of a trained teacher does not set any global standard but rather defines a trained teacher as 'a teacher who has received the minimum training (pre-service or in-service) normally required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country' (UNESCO, 2005: 423). This reflects the fact that the number of years of schooling and academic training required to become a primary school teacher, differs enormously from country to country. It can range from eight or nine years in countries where the minimum standard is completion of lower

secondary education (six years at primary level and two or three years at lower secondary level) to 16 years where the standard is upper secondary education and a tertiary degree (UNESCO, 2004: 109). The International Standard Classification of Education system allows countries to compare their education systems by duration, entry requirements, and theoretical versus practical or technical content. (See Box 19 below.)

Although UNESCO does not take a position on what length teachers' education should be or what combination of secondary and post-secondary education qualifications teachers should have in order to be described as 'trained', it is clear that the more training teachers get, the better. A teacher who has completed upper secondary school and at least one year of teacher specific training will be much better equipped to teach than a teacher with only a primary education and a one-month long pre-service induction. Donor countries, and institutions such as the World Bank that advise developing country governments on the length of teacher training and that provide financing based on that advice, should bear in mind the standards in their own countries before advising much lower standards for teachers in developing countries.

#### 4.3.2 Effective training of school leaders and managers

Several observations from VSO's *Valuing Teachers* national level research reports indicate how improved management training would help improve teacher motivation and morale:

#### BOX 19: The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)

- **ISCED 2:** Lower secondary: between 8 and 9 years of schooling, 2 to 3 years after primary education.
- **ISCED 3:** Upper secondary: between 12 and 13 years of schooling, including lower secondary.
- **ISCED 4:** Post-secondary, non-tertiary. These programmes serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already completed a programme at level 3 and typically have a full-time equivalent duration of between 6 months and 2 years.
- **ISCED 5A** programmes are theoretically based and provide qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research programmes (e.g. to earn PhDs) and professions with high skills requirements (e.g. medicine, law, architecture, engineering). Minimum duration is 3 years after completion of ISCED 3.
- **ISCED 5B** programmes that are generally more practical/technical/occupationally specific than ISCED 5A programmes. Minimum duration is 2 years full-time education after completion of ISCED 3.

Source: : UIS, 2006.

- To enable heads to implement strong management, they themselves require guidance on the management of financial, human and material resources (VSO Rwanda, 2003);
- Headteachers mostly receive no management training hence personal styles influence how schools are run (VSO The Gambia, 2007); and
- Lack of training is recognised as a catalyst for inefficient management – where headteachers are not trained, resources for teachers are not well managed and communication systems are poor, so teachers are not informed (VSO Mozambique, 2008).

Halliday and Hogan (1999a) discuss some of the major principles of good teacher management at school level, but the principles can also be applied in local and system level scenarios. These include: promotion of staff participation in decision-making; being seen to be open to change; ensuring staff are sensitised to policies which seek to redress gender and other inequalities; encouragement of administrative efficiency; effectiveness in the

deployment of financial and human resources, money and materials; conveying policies and procedures to staff at all levels through a well-structured communication system; providing continuous evaluation and monitoring of performance; and ensuring opportunities for staff development and training.

Some positive results have been reported as a result of efforts to introduce school-based management. Bennell and Akyeampong (2007: 44) report that greater autonomy at the school level can lead to improvements in teachers' performance, supervision systems and availability of teaching and learning materials. The report also noted that teachers, parents and community members registered dissatisfaction with management at other levels of the system. The following example from Kenya, see Box 20, where an integrated approach<sup>6</sup> has been used to deal with the teacher management illustrates the issue.

### **Qualities and leadership approaches of good teacher managers**

In terms of building the commitment, capacity and resilience of staff to make an impact

#### **BOX 20: Integrated Approach to School-Based Management in Kenya**

Since the adoption of the MDGs, there has been a large increase in enrolment in Kenya, enabled by the abolition of fees for primary education. This has come about at the same time as renewed efforts by the government to connect education with the requirements of the economy, in the belief that it is growth facilitated by education, rather than education itself, which will contribute towards increased human development. This has meant a greater focus on skills-based education, reflected in greater emphasis on post-basic education and training in the national education sector strategy. The attendant greater focus on the delivery and transformative contexts of education has resulted in a programme of teacher development aimed at encouraging more process-led styles of teaching and learning.

School-based teacher development programmes attempted to integrate greater parental involvement, headteacher capacity-building, management committee development and support for local professional development offices in an effort to ensure sustainability. This integrated approach means that Kenya's traditionally high levels of teacher absenteeism and low motivation have improved. Although a fully co-ordinated sector-wide strategy has yet to arise, the fact that this training has taken place within the context of improved pay and conditions for teachers is significant. Together with the underlying condition of the economy, which meant that employment opportunities outside the education sector were scarce, higher pay has also attracted a higher quality of teacher trainee into the profession. The result is that the teacher motivation crisis of the 1990s has, to a large extent, dissipated and teaching quality improved.

Sources: Andersen and Nderitu, 2002, Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Palmer, Wedgwood and Hayman, 2007.

<sup>6</sup>An 'integrated approach', in this case, refers to the involvement of the community and teacher managers to increase education accountability and improve skills. Otherwise professional development is only aimed at teachers, administrative staff and their managers.

“ A solid evidence base identifies the benefits of school managers creating opportunities for teachers to engage in critical reflection on their work. ”

on learning, research indicates that building a shared vision and direction is the most fundamentally important activity. Hallinger and Heck (2002) see this as crucial to fostering the acceptance of group goals and stimulating high performance from school leaders. Leithwood *et al* (2006b) notes that it is a 'basic stimulant for one's work'; Bush and Glover (2003: 8) comment:

*'Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.'*

Closely related to Leithwood *et al* (2006b) are several recent studies (Gronn, 2003; Harris, 2002; James *et al*, 2006; Silins and Mulford, 2002) setting out a compelling case for what is often termed 'distributed leadership'. This is the notion that in every school the opportunities for leadership should be explored and engaged at all levels of the organisation. James *et al* (2006) for example, refer to the role of leaders in developing 'density and depth' of leadership throughout the school. They note that successful school leaders '...increase the amount of leadership, the leadership density, by continually seeking to develop the leadership capability of others.'

Leithwood and Riehl (2005) support this perception noting that 'School leadership has a greater influence on the school and pupils when it is widely distributed'. This specific leadership claim is then illustrated by reference to a recent study that indicates that 'total leadership': the combined influence from all sources of leadership in a school, 'accounted for a quite significant 27% of the variation in student achievement across schools. This is a much higher proportion of explained variation than is typically reported in studies of individual headteacher effects'.

Research shows that effective school managers and administrators cultivate positive dispositions among staff, which enable them to remain focused and perform better. Leithwood *et al* (2006b) identify with this idea and refer to 'redesigning the organisation' – in other words, establishing working conditions, which for example, allow teachers to make the most of their motivations, commitments

and capacities. The authors specify these as: building collaborative structures; restructuring and 'reculturing' the organisation; building productive relations with parents and the community and connecting the school to its wider environment; generally buffering negative influences; and filtering distractions and unhelpful side issues. Comparable practices in Yukl's (1989) managerial taxonomy include managing conflict and team building, delegating, consulting and networking.

Related to these ideas is a solid evidence base that identifies the benefits of school managers creating opportunities for teachers to engage in critical reflection on their work for example the *colectivo pedagogico* in Cuba, described by UNESCO (2005: 51) as 'a group of subject teachers meeting frequently for mutual learning and joint development of curricula, methods and materials.' Van Graan, Pomuti, Leczel, Liman and Swarts (2003) describe a Namibian case study on how critical practitioner enquiry was adopted and adapted in three teacher education projects. It outlines the positive outcomes in terms of teachers' self-assessments developing gradually to fall in line with their real performance on indicators as observed by outsiders.

In summary, good school leadership and management directs its energies at four key aspects:

- Providing teachers with effective CPD, including induction;
- Developing corporate vision and shared goals with teachers;
- Distributing leadership and developing teachers' ability to take on leadership responsibility; and
- Enabling teachers to concentrate on the core task of teaching for learning, and developing their ability to reflect critically on how they teach.

### **The role of education leadership in guarding against discrimination**

Education leadership also has a role in guarding against discrimination of all vulnerable groups of teachers including ethnic and linguistic minorities, teachers with disabilities, those living with HIV and AIDS, and those of low caste. Education systems are as inclusive as their leaders' inclusiveness. In particular, attention needs to be given to the following:

“Supervision, support and guidance are essential motivating factors for teachers.”

- Training and supporting headteachers so that they can support teachers from these vulnerable groups to perform better and challenge practices that exclude them;
- Sensitivity around the needs of the most vulnerable groups to help identify who are the excluded and how they can be brought into mainstream education systems;
- Recruitment of teachers from excluded groups through quota systems or other positive discrimination;
- The promotion of gender sensitive education policy-making, management and planning (Gaynor, 1997).
- The recognition of headteachers in building a diverse staff team;
- The identification by headteachers and education managers responsible for promotion, of women, disabled staff and staff from ethnic minority groups that are performing well;
- The recognition of teachers that are including children from marginalised groups and their role as mentors for those that find it difficult to do so (however, the responsibility to identify the teachers that are doing well and those that need support should sit with education managers);
- The provision of in-service courses in inclusive teaching methodologies.

The role of inclusive education for national development and unity should not be underestimated especially in environments

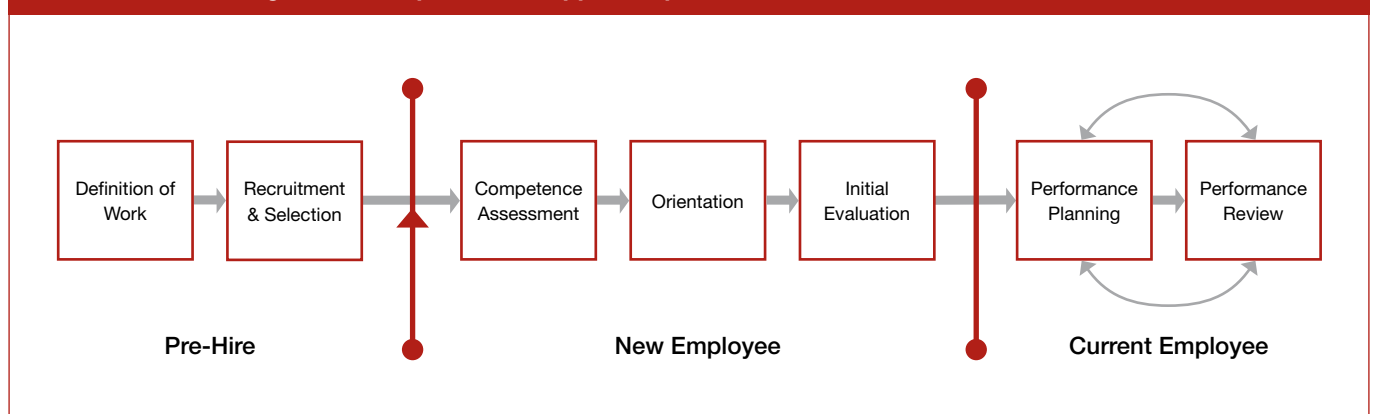
where there is ongoing ethnic conflict. Perpetually discriminating against a certain group can have serious repercussions for economic development and civil unrest. Education through leaders should be a tool for fighting inequality rather than perpetuating it. The major starting point is making sure people from marginalised groups are in school so that they are educated to enable them to be appointed as teachers as well as making space for them through positive discrimination measures in teacher training programmes, recruitment and promotion processes. This will help children from excluded groups to learn by giving them a role model from their group of origin to identify with.

### 4.3.3 Effective appraisal systems

At school-level, supervision, support and guidance are seen to be essential motivating factors for teachers. Teachers want to know how they are doing and how they can improve their teaching, and supervision from the headteacher and academic experts is regarded as fundamental to improving their performance. Effective appraisal as described in Figure 2 begins at recruitment, to induction through to CPD.

Teachers need to be given time to prepare for appraisals so that they are able to demonstrate their performance in the teaching profession rather than catching them unawares. The day-to-day issues of whether they follow their teaching plan or schemes of work should not be a matter to be dealt with at central level. Rather, this should be a matter managed at

FIGURE 2: Three stages and components of appraisal process



Source: Panning, 2007.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>7</sup> Taken from: [http://www.ascls.org/jobs/grads/performance\\_appraisal.asp](http://www.ascls.org/jobs/grads/performance_appraisal.asp).

the school level by heads of departments and headteachers. This is both sustainable and empowering.

It is therefore important in education management to look at the objectives of teacher appraisal; the process including preparation for the appraisal (both the teacher and the one conducting the appraisal) and what takes place during appraisal; and the use of the appraisal information. In order to connect the process of appraisal to recruitment it is therefore important to charge headteachers with the recruitment process or at the very least, involve them more meaningfully in the process.

Appraisal systems used in developing countries need to be adapted to the environment in which teachers are working to increase their effectiveness. As an example, Walker and Dimmock (2000) have argued that appraisal systems in China need to be adapted to Chinese culture, norms and values, rather than simply importing an appraisal process wholesale from a completely different country context.

Appraisals also represent an important mechanism for addressing gender inequalities in teacher promotion systems as the Commonwealth Secretariat has argued in its useful *'Gender Mainstreaming Manual for Public Service... and Other Stakeholders'*:

*'Public service commissions and central personnel offices also have a key role in instituting a gender-aware performance appraisal system and providing gender training to members of the public service.'*

(Commonwealth Secretariat, 1999:14)

#### 4.3.4 Effective CPD of teachers

Teacher training of any kind has as at the centre of its objectives the goal of improving the quality of education pupils receive. Well-trained teachers are able to deliver quality education since training is centred on how teachers master the subjects they teach and, in most recent times, how pupils are able to participate in the lesson. Providing CPD for teachers helps them both to feel valued and keep their subject knowledge and teaching practice so that they can continue to function in a professional way throughout their careers. CPD is well documented as one of the key ways of motivating teachers in the teaching profession which then has a direct

link to improving the quality of education (VSO International, 2002; GCE; 2006).

In a world where changes in education systems are frequent, teachers also need to be able to adapt to these changes rapidly. This is where CPD is vital for teachers so that they can perform as highly as expected by society and pupils. The importance of CPD for staff and teachers cannot be overemphasised. As Barber and Mourshed (2007: 41) state: in high-performing systems, ten per cent of working time is used for CPD. The problem in developing countries is that teacher CPD is either absent or happens rarely and in an ad hoc way. Managers do not usually have budgets to implement CPD and it is not planned in the school calendar.

Barber and Mourshed (2007: 32) argue that most reforms that have failed, have failed because they did not have any impact on teaching and learning experienced by children in the classroom. Managers need to grasp how each of the reforms being proposed would affect teaching and learning in the classroom, as this is the core business for education.

A study by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida, 2000) demonstrated that educational reforms, which include changes that are expected to take place in classrooms, must be reflected in teacher education. In order to enable teachers to meet the various demands placed upon their profession, it is increasingly recognised that teachers' skills need to be continuously upgraded. 'One of the main recommendations of the study is that the teacher education system needs to be unified and co-ordinated, ensuring that pre- and in-service education is seen as one single process.' (Sida, 2000 cited in Göttelmann and Yekhelef, 2005: 55). This includes effective systems of induction.

CPD need not be a complicated issue. Barber and Mourshed (2007: 28) have identified four ways of helping teachers improve instructional quality as follows:

1. Building practical skills during the initial training;
2. Placing coaches in schools to support teachers;
3. Selecting and developing effective instructional leaders; and
4. Enabling teachers to learn from each other.



These four ways are already what education systems are supposed to implement in the professional development of teachers in developing countries and these can be summarised as pre-service or initial teacher training, in-service training or CPD.

An important American study (ASCD, 2003) examining the effects of CPD on teachers' instruction, concludes that effective CPD is:

- Organised with the collective participation of teachers (from the same school, department or grade levels);
- Focused on active learning activities (teachers are allowed to apply what they are learning); and
- Coherent (aligned with teachers' professional knowledge or community, as well as with state or district standards and assessments).

In addition UNESCO (2005: 163) has clearly suggested that professional development of teachers should take cognisance of study opportunities; regular supportive line management meetings and appraisals; support, evaluation and assessment from in-service advisers and inspectors; schools exchanges; and peer consultation and

experience sharing in subject themed district or provincial level groups.

CPD is an end in itself as it motivates teachers thus contributing to improved quality of education: 'Where in service training was available teachers felt motivated and positive about it' (VSO The Gambia, 2007: 20). It needs to happen in an environment where there is trust that the information being gathered is such that the teacher can develop rather than be punished for underperformance or rewarded for good performance. The purpose of data collection in professional development always has implications on who undertakes the process and how this is done. The example from Guinea (see Box 21) explains the importance of this.

GCE (2006) argues that CPD should not be left to teachers to organise in their own time, rather that it should be the responsibility of managers to set aside time on the school calendar for it. The location for training needs to be given careful consideration. It can take place in schools so that more teachers are able to take part, alternatively it can also take place at college where it can be tailored to the needs of specific groups of teachers from different schools. The example in Box 22 on page 58 from Malawi illustrates how this works in practice.

## **BOX 21: A Cluster Approach to CPD in Guinea**

Faced with the challenges of growing student numbers, curriculum reform, teacher quality, unqualified teachers, the movement towards child-centred learning, and a growing understanding of the centrality of the teacher in the education process, in 1999 Guinea instigated a cluster approach to CPD as part of its Fundamental Quality and Equity Levels project. This expanded rapidly to the point where, by 2004, 25,000 teachers were meeting bi-monthly in 1,342 clusters. Roundtable discussions and lesson observations, taking place in meetings held by school cluster members on a rotating basis and chaired by respected local professional leaders, led to an atmosphere of professional collaboration and shared problem solving. Experiences were shared in a supportive environment, which promoted experimentation with innovation teaching practice and the development of open and co-operative partnerships where it was considered to be good and not bad to seek support for improvement in members' teaching skills.

This has transformed the way teachers talk about teaching, and provided a catalyst for mutually rewarding professional relationships. As well as this success in professional network-building, the participatory and process-orientated nature of the sessions, which have been led by master teachers, external advisers and teachers themselves, has enabled participants to experience for themselves alternative pedagogies. The project has had particular success in isolated rural communities who had previously felt unsupported and alienated in their need for support in implementing new teaching methodologies. The project is a good example of how decentralisation can work to build local human and social capital.

Source: USAID EQUIP1, 2004.

GCE (2006) contends that there should be close collaboration between pre-service teacher training providers and in-service training providers as they are aiming to

achieve the same goal of improving the quality education and should therefore work to complement each other.

## **BOX 22: In-Service Teacher Training in Malawi**

The Malawi Integrated In-service Teacher Education Project is a mixed college- and school-based programme designed in response to the demand for teachers brought about by universal free primary education. The majority of trainees are untrained teachers, and they undergo a two-year skills-based programme, most of which is school-based supervised distance learning.

Although the programme had many problems, including its suspension due to funding difficulties, there are a number of examples of good practice which indicate that school-based training is possible even in very resource-poor environments. These included the use of locally-written, well-illustrated student teacher handbooks, which outlined the structure of the course and stimulated discussion; zonal seminars for trainees, where practical and relevant skills were exchanged; and the enabling of successful mentoring between experienced teachers and trainees.

Follow-up evaluation of the trainees once in teaching posts indicated that small but positive increases in teaching performance had been achieved, which suggests that greater integration between teacher training programmes and schools can result in better quality of teaching. This approach also has the potential to produce an output of new or trained teachers that more closely matches demand, although the project did demonstrate that there were significant capacity and cost restraints to maximising this potential.

Sources: Kunje and Chiremba, 2000; Croft, 2002.





## 5. Summary of Recommendations and Conclusion

### 5.1 Summary of Recommendations

Chapter 4 has outlined detailed recommendations under three main areas:

- (i) the need for stronger management systems, better decision-making and clearer roles and responsibilities;
- (ii) the need for more flexible fiscal management policies; and
- (iii) the need for more sufficient and appropriate management of workforce skills.

This report prioritises the following four recommendations to developing country governments, donors, international governmental organisation and teachers' unions:

#### Recommendations to Developing Country Governments

##### 1. Stronger management systems, better decision-making and clearer roles and responsibilities

For governments to:

- develop and use effective Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) at central, local and school levels to enable better planning and management in the training, recruitment, deployment and CPD of teachers.
- encourage the active participation and involvement of teachers and headteachers in decision-making with clearly defined roles and responsibilities.
- strengthen systems for the training, recruitment and deployment of teachers, including the provision of appropriate incentives for teachers working in hardship posts.
- work to reduce pupil-teacher ratios to the UNESCO recommended level of 40:1 (UIS, 2006: 42) and avoid double and triple shifting unless different teachers are used for different shifts.

##### 2. More flexible fiscal management policies

For governments to:

- improve salaries, incentives, living and working conditions for teachers, including

making adequate arrangements for maternity and paternity leave.

- invest in the capacity building of Teacher Training Institutions.
- where the use of para-teacher schemes is necessary in the short- to medium-term to attract and retain teachers in remote areas, ensure that appropriate levels of in-service training are given to para-teachers that enables them to qualify as regular teachers in the longer-term.

##### 3. More sufficient and appropriate management of workforce skills

For governments to:

- ensure that pre-service teacher training duration is at least one year or if shorter, is coupled with adequate and formalised in-service training of a comparable level and quality.
- provide all teachers with training and access to information about inclusion, focusing on gender and disability (and where appropriate on class, caste, language of instruction, HIV and AIDS or other context specific dimensions of exclusion) as part of their pre- and in-service teacher training.
- provide effective CPD, leadership and school management training to ensure teachers, headteachers and educational administrators are adequately equipped and enabled to provide children with a good quality education.
- put in place transparent appraisal systems for teachers and administrative staff.
- prohibit discrimination against women, people with disabilities and minorities in teacher recruitment, posting and promotion systems through the use of laws, guidelines, codes of ethics, and monitoring and evaluation systems.
- encourage women, people with disabilities and minorities to enter or remain in the teaching profession, by providing appropriate incentives and allowances.

## **Recommendations to Donors, Inter-Governmental Organisations and Teachers' Unions**

### **4. More flexible partnerships with developing country governments should support:**

- improved EMIS to inform systems for the training, recruitment, deployment and CPD of teachers.
- improved salaries, incentives, living and working conditions for teachers and headteachers.
- capacity building for teacher and headteacher training including ensuring that advice provided on teacher training issues does not negatively impact the quality of teaching and learning.
- capacity development of education managers in schools, and at district, provincial and national levels.
- effective appraisal systems for teachers and administrative staff.

and disability are addressed comprehensively in their teacher training and management systems. The need to recruit and train 18 million new teachers (for primary education alone) presents an unprecedented opportunity to address longstanding imbalances in class sizes and teaching quality between schools in urban and rural areas and between male and female teachers.

The opportunity should also be used to address the under-representation of teachers with disabilities, teachers from linguistic minorities and other context specific excluded groups – in order to provide valuable role models for girls, children with disabilities and other currently excluded children, and importantly to encourage their parents not only to send their children to school, but to keep them there until they have completed an education of good quality.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

Effective teacher management at all levels is the bedrock for ensuring good levels of teacher motivation and morale. Although the immediate effects are more evident at school level for the delivery of quality teaching and learning outcomes for children, what happens at all the other levels is crucial for quality education in general.

Improved teacher management will have positive effects on teacher deployment; teacher working conditions and salaries; the quality and capacity of TTIs to produce a sufficient number of appropriately trained teachers; and will reduce teacher attrition and turnover rates whilst increasing teacher retention. All of these factors will then have a direct positive impact on teacher morale and motivation and will reduce the economic and quality costs of poor teacher management, making the education systems of developing countries more efficient and effective and giving them a greater chance of achieving the education MDGs.

While many types of exclusion are context specific, gender and disability related inequality cuts across all countries. All governments and donors should therefore ensure that gender

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## CfBT Education Trust's *Evidence for Education* research and publications

### Further Research Publications

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- *Grade Repetition in Primary Schools in Sub-Saharan Africa: An Evidence Base for Change*, Susy Ndaruhutse with Laura Brannelly, Michael Latham and Jonathan Penson
- *Private Schools for the Poor: A case study from India*, James Tooley and Pauline Dixon
- *Supporting National Educational Reform in Sub-Saharan Africa*, Michael Latham, Susy Ndaruhutse, Dr Harvey Smith

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- *Advocacy-driven educational programming in emergencies and early reconstruction: A case study: making safe spaces work for children*, Jonathan Penson and Kathryn Tomlinson
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- *Base-Line Primary Education Research in Angola*, Professor Lynn Davies Education Action International
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# VSO Valuing Teachers research and publications

Since 2000, VSO's *Valuing Teachers* research has been conducted in 11 countries and is currently underway in two further countries. Following the research, advocacy strategies are developed, which include the development of volunteer placements in: civil society education coalitions; and Ministries of Education. In addition to this publication the following research may also be of interest:

- *Learning From Listening – A Policy Report On Maldivian Teachers Attitudes To Their Own Profession*, Louise Wheatcroft
- *Lessons from the Classroom – Teachers' Motivation and Perceptions in Nepal*, Purna Shrestha.
- *Listening to Teachers – The Motivation and Morale of Education Workers in Mozambique*, Simone Doctors.
- *Making Education For All a Reality – VSO policy briefing*, Chikondi Mpokosa and Stephen Nock.
- *Making Teachers Count – A Policy Research Report on Guyanese Teachers' Attitudes to Their Own Profession*, Leena Vadher
- *Seen But Not Heard – Teachers' Voice in Rwanda*, Reed Thomas and Ruth Mbabazi
- *START – Simple Toolkit for Advocacy Research Techniques*, Lucy Tweedie
- *Teachers for All – What governments and donors should do*, Stephen Nock and Lucia Fry
- *Teachers Speak Out – A Policy Research Report on Teachers' Motivation and Perceptions of Their Profession in The Gambia*, Sara Cowan
- *Teacher Talking Time – A Policy Research Report on Malawian Teachers' Attitudes to Their Own Profession*, Marianne Tudor-Craig
- *Teachers' Voice – A Policy Research Report on Teachers' Motivation and Perceptions of Their Profession in Nigeria*, Helen Sherry.
- *They've Got Class! – A Policy Research Report on Zambian Teachers' Attitudes to Their Own Profession*, Saskia Verhagen
- *What makes teachers tick? – VSO policy report*, Lucia Fry

### Forthcoming publications

- *Valuing Teachers Cambodia (working title)*, Peter and Margaret Harvey, Sarah Jago, and Julia Lalla-Maharajh
- *Valuing Teachers Ethiopia (working title)*, Julia Lalla-Maharajh and Nigel Parsons
- *Valuing School Leaders in The Maldives (working title)*, Susan O'Shaughnessey

To learn more about *Valuing Teachers* contact [stephen.nock@vso.org.uk](mailto:stephen.nock@vso.org.uk) or visit [www.vsointernational.org/how/advocacy-campaigns/](http://www.vsointernational.org/how/advocacy-campaigns/) To learn about the work of our International Federation Members visit:

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