TEACHER
POLICY DEVELOPMENT
GUIDE

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International
Task Force on Teachers
for Education 2030

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Foreword

At the World Education Forum in Incheon (Republic of Korea) in May 2015, the global education community, under the leadership of UNESCO, framed the priorities for a common education agenda within the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for the next 15 years. Participants in the Forum pushed for the Education SDG (SDG 4), aiming to "Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and [to] promote life-long learning opportunities for all".

To achieve this goal, the participants unanimously acknowledged the important roles of teachers and teaching for effective learning at all levels of education. That is why they committed to *ensure that teachers and educators are empowered, adequately recruited, well-trained, professionally qualified, motivated and supported within well-resourced, efficient and effectively governed systems*. The provision of such a teaching force on a sustainable basis within educational systems cannot be done without context-responsive, evidence-based teacher policies and regulations that are elaborated with the full participation of all relevant stakeholders.

Drawing on lessons learnt since its establishment in Oslo (Norway) in 2008, through its policy dialogue fora and the review of prevailing trends in teacher policies and practices, the International Task Force on Teachers for Education 2030 has pulled together its resources to proactively develop the present Teacher Policy Development Guide. The objective is to support the realization of the teacher target in the SDGs and Education 2030 by putting at the disposal of Member States and partners a tool that will facilitate the development or the review of national teacher policies.

The abridged version of the Teacher Policy Development Guide was published in seven languages (Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish) in 2015. Lessons learnt from its use in some countries have called for the need to publish this revised full version, including data, case studies and other illustrations that future users will find relevant. Available in English and French as an interactive tool to be adapted to country contexts and to the needs of users, this version will be a key instrument for the implementation of the Teacher Task Force's 2018-2021 Strategic Plan which aim to strengthen teachers and the teaching profession through, among others, the development of holistic national teacher policies.

The Guide includes five key sections: Chapter 1 presents the purposes, rationale, scope and intended audience of the Guide; Chapter 2 explains the need for framing the teacher policy within a sector plan and national development priorities; Chapter 3 examines the most important dimensions for a teacher policy, and their correlations; Chapter 4 describes the phases in the process of developing a teacher policy; and Chapter 5 outlines the steps and issues to address when implementing the national teacher policy.

We call on governments intending to use the Guide to develop a national teacher policy to take participatory and inclusive approaches, especially to involve teachers and their representative organizations in the process.

We express our appreciation and thanks to the authors and all those who have contributed to the production of this valuable tool.

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Acknowledgements

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AITSL	Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership
CEART	Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendations concerning Teaching Personnel
CMEC	Council of Ministers of Education (Canada)
CPD	Continuing/Continual professional development
CPTD	Continuing professional teacher development
CTPDS	Continuing Teacher Professional Development System
DBE	Department of Basic Education (South Africa)
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training (South Africa)
DoE	Department of Education
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education for All campaign/framework/goals
EI	Education International
EIP	Evidence-informed policy
EMIS	Education Management Information Systems
ENHANSE	Enabling HIV and AIDS, TB and Social Sector Environment Project (Nigeria)
ESD	Education for Sustainable Development
FTI	Fast Track Initiative
GDP	Gross domestic product
GEQAF	General Education Quality Analysis Framework
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
HIV and AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ICT	Information and communication technology
IIEP	UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning
ILO	International Labour Organization
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
INSET	In-service teacher education and training
IPET	Initial professional education of teachers
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ITT	Initial teacher training
MCTE	Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education (South Africa)
MoE	Ministry of Education
MP	Member of Parliament
MTEF	Medium-Term Expenditure Framework
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NPFTED	National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (South Africa)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OREALC/UNESCO	*Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe*, UNESCO Regional Bureau of Education for Latin America and the Caribbean
PCPD	Post-conflict and post-disaster

PTA	Parent teacher association
PTR	Pupil–teacher ratio
QTS	Qualified teacher status
RTE	Right to Education Act (India)
SABER	Systems Approach for Better Results in Education
SACE	South African Council for Educators
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SEAMEO	Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation
SSA	School self-assessment
TALIS	OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey
TB	Tuberculosis
TEMP	Teacher Education Master Plan (Tanzania)
TESSA	Teacher Education for Sub-Saharan Africa
TMIS	Teacher Management Information System
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UPE	Universal primary education
UK	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VSO	Voluntary Service Overseas
WHO	World Health Organization

CHAPTER 1.
Background

This chapter outlines the purposes, intended audience and rationale of the Guide.

1.1. Introduction

1.1.1 At the heart of learning: Teachers and teaching

International standards, expert bodies and reviews consistently place teachers at the centre of universal access to high-quality and equitable education. Government and education experts who framed the ILO/UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers (ILO/UNESCO, 1966, hereafter referred to as the 1966 Recommendation) based their work on the idea that 'advance in education depends largely on the qualifications and ability of the teaching staff in general and on the human, pedagogical and technical qualities of the individual teachers' (ILO/UNESCO, 1966: 4). Extensive research in diverse countries and education systems concludes that 'teachers are the single biggest in-school influence on student achievement' and that 'teacher effectiveness is the most important school-based predictor of student learning', often playing its most important role in overcoming the learning deficits of disadvantaged students (Asia Society, 2014: 7; OECD, 2014a: 32; World Bank, 2013: 5).

There are several good reasons therefore why teachers and teaching should be at the top of education and other policy-makers' concerns:

- **The importance of education:** education is one of the key human priorities, even in the poorest countries and communities. Education is associated with poverty reduction, improved health and life expectancy, quality of life and respect for human rights. Parents place great emphasis on (and make sacrifices for) the education they can give their children. Education depends first and foremost on human interaction between learners and their teachers; however, teachers are supported by learning aids, technology and other educational resources.

- **Learning quality and success:** evidence shows that apart from factors that are external to schools and factors that are difficult for policy-makers to influence (for example the individual, family and community background), teachers and teaching are some of the most important influences on student learning. There is broad consensus that teacher quality is the single most important school variable influencing student achievement (OECD, 2005: 23–25; ILO, 2012:

1). Teachers are all the more important in relation to what is termed a 'learning crisis' facing millions of in- and out-of-school learners (UNESCO, 2014: 191). To maximize teacher effectiveness and help resolve these issues, an education sector plan should incorporate a good teacher policy (Chapter 2).

- **Human resources and budgets:** teachers are one of the largest components of a nation's labour force (2–3% or more of formal employment in many countries); they are both the principal human resource in any education system or learning environment and the largest single financial component of any education authority's budget, accounting for anywhere from 60% to more than 80% of recurrent (non-capital) public education expenditures (OECD, 2014b: 280–283; UNESCO, 2014: 254; UNESCO, 2010: 81). Recent international policy tools (from UNESCO, the ILO, OECD, the World Bank and others, cited in this guide) reinforce the concept that high-quality teachers and teaching based on teacher professionalization and excellence in human resource policies yield the best learning results and reduce costs to education systems. These factors alone justify a comprehensive teacher policy that seeks to maximize learning outcomes and a nation's investment in quality teachers.

- **Education objectives and reforms:** estimates of difficulties in reaching countries' overall education objectives, as well as reforms periodically launched to deal with major national challenges, regularly point to several factors related to teachers:

  - *Teacher shortages* are a major challenge, whether in specific education subjects, geographic areas or across the board. In 2013, it was estimated that an additional 3.3 million primary teachers and 5.1 million lower secondary teachers would be needed by 2030 to provide all children with basic education. However, chronic shortages of teachers are expected to persist for decades beyond 2015 if current recruitment trends continue (UNESCO Institute for Statistics – UIS, 2013: 1). This means that learners will not have access to an education, or will have a poorer-quality education than they need and deserve.

- *Teacher motivation and sense of professional responsibility* are crucial factors in the success of individual learning and education systems. Dedicated teachers with empathy for and high expectations of each and every learner have significant impact on learner outcomes. Unmotivated teachers with little professional commitment lead to widespread absenteeism, high turnover and attrition rates of both good and ineffective teachers, and poor teacher performance, all of which undermine the very foundations of quality education.

- *Lack of teacher involvement in reforms* — reforms are too often designed and put into place by education authorities unilaterally or with minimal stakeholder input. The individuals most directly concerned and most important to reform success are teachers and their representatives. At best, such top-down reforms work only partially, because they have not fully involved the professionals who are responsible for implementing them. At worst, they may be so strongly opposed by teachers and their representatives that they fail outright. The evidence, however, shows the positive role that teachers and teacher unions can play in successful, quality education reforms, if they are properly engaged from the beginning (UNESCO, 2014: 220–222).

1.1.2 Comprehensive policies work best

To achieve maximum learning benefits, a teacher policy must have a vision for the way forward and a comprehensive (holistic) approach that encompasses a broad range of interlocking dimensions affecting how individuals choose to become and remain teachers, train for their work and perform effectively. As Chapter 2 suggests, a teacher policy that considers only some of the key factors is not very effective in reaching priority education objectives. At a minimum, a comprehensive teacher policy includes:

- Thorough and relevant initial teacher and school leadership education (including good pedagogical theory and practice for a range of learners);

- Continual professional development and support for all teachers, school leaders and support staff;

- A remuneration and material incentives package that attracts and retains the best candidates in the profession compared to similar professionals; and

- A safe, healthy, stimulating teaching and learning environment.

This Guide addresses these issues, and more. For example, what teacher policies work best to ensure quality teachers and teaching? The evidence from OECD countries supports policies that create an environment for high levels of teacher effectiveness. These, in turn, are positively associated with teacher job satisfaction, positive teacher behaviours, as well as student motivation and achievement (OECD, 2014a). Other research shows that high-performing education systems build their human resources by focusing on attracting, training and supporting good teachers, rather than on attrition or firing weak teachers (Asia Society, 2014: 8). Resource-poor, low-income countries often have to balance cost consideration issues more carefully in deciding on teacher recruitment, education and employment terms to meet access and quality demands; yet they still depend on policies to attract, retain and motivate the best individuals to teaching. The Guide summarizes such options and offers recommendations on integrating various policies so that they can work in a wide range of countries and education systems – rich or poor, large or small, largely urban or still very rural.

A holistic, national teacher policy that is adequately resourced and implemented with the necessary political will and administrative skill can be a vital first step on the road to achieving a highly motivated, professional teaching corps. Achieving this objective is arguably the best investment in learners' education that a country can make.

The next chapter of this Guide discusses the importance of formulating a teacher policy, how it should be aligned with other policies, and some of the main principles that should underpin a policy.

1.2. Purpose and scope

1.2.1 Purpose

This Guide is designed to assist national policy- and decision-makers and education officials to develop an informed teacher policy as an integrated component of national education sector plans or policies, aligned to national development plans and strategies.

More specifically, the Guide is a tool designed to contribute to the elaboration of an evidence-informed national teacher policy, specific to each national context and drawing on the evidence of good practices from a wide range of countries and organizations.[1]

Based on the best available evidence on teacher policy and the teaching profession, the Guide aims to:

- Present an overview of teacher-related policy dimensions and issues that need to be considered when elaborating a national teacher policy and how they are interrelated;

- Outline policy responses that need to be considered; and

- Suggest steps to elaborate and implement a national teacher policy.

The Guide is not a diagnostic tool as such – it assumes that a careful diagnosis of the status of teachers and teaching has already been completed prior to policy development, or is to be conducted as part of the teacher policy development process. Chapter 2 (Section 2.3) provides examples of some diagnostic tools or instruments developed by international organizations.

1.2.2 Scope

The Guide covers:

- 'Teachers' as defined by the international standard specific to teachers, the 1966 Recommendation: 'all those persons in schools or other learning sites who are responsible for the education of children or young people in pre-primary, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education';

- *Teachers or educators*[2] in early childhood education (ECE) for learners 0–3 years old, and teachers in lower or upper secondary vocational education, where either are provided in a formal school setting, as defined by the respective International Standard Classification of Education (International Standard Classification of Education – ISCED 2011) levels 0, 2 and 3 (UIS, 2012: 79, 83).

- Teachers in both public and private institutions (including non-governmental organizations);

- School heads, directors or principals and deputies as part of school leadership and governance; and

- Holistic teacher policy dimensions and issues (see Chapter 3).

The Guide **does not** cover the following categories of teachers although much of the analysis applies to these groups:

- Early childhood 'care'-oriented settings where the education component does not meet the minimum intentional education component, as defined by ISCED 2011 (UIS, 2012: 33–34; also ILO, 2014: 2–3, for distinctions between ECE educators and caregivers);

- Training staff providing technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in specialized training institutions not considered schools as defined by ISCED 2011, in workplaces providing work-based education and in informal learning places (UIS, 2012: 83–84);

- Any post-secondary teaching staff, including higher education teachers as defined by the UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Status of Higher-Education Teaching Personnel, 1997 (it is foreseen that higher education will be the object of a separate or extended version of this guide at a later stage);

- Teachers or educators in non-formal education, as described in ISCED 2011 (UIS, 2012: 81).

The Guide is intended to help policy- and decision- makers integrate a national teacher policy within the national

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1   Where considered useful for policy development, the Guide also refers to practices that do not appear to support good teacher policy.

2   While in some countries, such as South Africa, the term educator is used, this Guide uses the word teacher as defined in the text.

education sector plan or policy, avoiding fragmentation and lack of cohesion in their respective implementation. Other relevant policies – for example those targeting children's welfare and rights or human rights more generally, or those designed to address specific issues such as the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) – are to be considered alongside the Guide's recommendations on framing teacher policy (discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2).

1.3. Target audience

1.3.1 Public education authorities

In the first instance, this Guide should assist national authorities responsible for education and teacher policy, planning and practice. At a national level, potential audiences may include:

● Ministries or departments of education;

● Ministries or departments of labour, or civil or public service;

● Ministries of finance;

● Teaching or public service commissions or equivalent bodies dealing with any of the major dimensions of a national teacher policy, especially teacher recruitment, initial education, professional development and all facets of employment; and

● Professional bodies involved with teachers, such as teacher professional councils or statutory quasi-government bodies, such as joint bargaining forums, including unions and governments.

Although designed to facilitate a national policy, the Guide should by extension also assist those at the sub-national level — regional, provincial or state, and local, municipal or village — who are responsible for teacher-related issues.

1.3.2 Private education providers

The Guide applies equally to public and private education providers and teachers – all of whom, as discussed in Section 1.1.2 above, should be included in a national policy. Private education providers include those for whom the government has a supervisory or regulatory function as part of its national responsibilities, including:

● Private for-profit or non-profit schools or networks of schools or other learning centres, including faith-based or religious schools, established to complement public education policies; and

● Non-governmental organizations or communities responsible for providing education in situations where funding gaps exist, or in emergency, disaster, war or civil conflict situations.

1.3.3 Education stakeholders

In addition to public and private education authorities, this Guide should be of assistance to all stakeholders who may be involved in a policy dialogue with a government as part of developing and implementing a sound national teacher policy, including representatives of the following (see Chapter 4 for a more detailed list):

● Teachers, i.e., their unions or associations;

● Head teachers/principals and their associations;

● Teacher education institutions;

● Learners,[3] for instance student associations;

● Parents or guardians, for example parent-teacher associations (PTAs) or equivalent bodies;

● Private sector organizations and providers involved in teacher education; and

● International agencies and organizations.

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3   'Learners' in this guide refers interchangeably to 'students' or 'pupils'.

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CHAPTER 2.
Contextualization

This chapter covers key aspects of framing a teacher policy. It begins by outlining the need for a coherent and integrated approach to developing a teacher policy, notably with regard to other education policies and national development plans and priorities. It follows with a discussion of guiding principles for developing a teacher policy. It concludes with a summary and review of key resources that may assist national governments in framing and developing a teacher policy.

2.1. Aligning teacher policy with education and other national policies

2.1.1 Why a national teacher policy? Planning and coordination

There are several important reasons for policy- and decision-makers to formulate and implement a national teacher policy: the importance of education, teachers and teaching; ensuring equitable learning success for all learners; maximizing a country's investments in education; and guaranteeing sufficient numbers of competent and motivated teachers, particularly in locations where they are most needed (Chapter 1).

These multiple objectives require careful planning and coordination among many different actors. This entails establishing or strengthening coordination mechanisms to address the complex and interrelated factors that affect education and teaching, including: a country or community's political, economic, social and cultural framework; family considerations; the education and school system; and school-level factors (OECD, 2005: 30). The process of developing and implementing a teacher policy will need to identify and address these interlocking factors that impact on teachers and teaching.

Due in part to their complexity, teacher policies may not rank high on the list of country priorities, given their political and financial costs – particularly if, as the Guide suggests, they are comprehensive. For maximum effectiveness, a teacher policy needs to be applicable to all teachers, in all regions and at all school levels within the scope of this Guide. Too often, policy- and decision-makers eschew or postpone such comprehensive policy changes because of the implementation costs and timeframes (Chapter 5). However, if addressed only partially or not at all, the policies are likely to have limited impact on the challenges (OREALC, 2013: 90). Political will, reflecting the maximum national consensus on the way forward, is therefore a key determinant of the policy process, including its initial framework.

2.1.2 Aligning teacher policy with education policy

Coordinating a teacher policy with a country's education policy or plan is particularly crucial to its success. A teacher policy that is well integrated within a wider education sector plan will be guided by the same overall vision, in addition to sharing its other essential characteristics: strategic, holistic, feasible, sustainable, and context-sensitive (Global Partnership for Education/GPE, 2014; International Institute for Educational Planning – IIEP and GPE, 2012: 7). The GPE has produced a guide for education sector analysis (GPE, 2014) that provides a useful framework and tool to link teacher policy development to overall education planning. In particular, the GPE guide outlines an approach for linking teacher quantity and quality issues to improving education quality. A comprehensive teacher policy should address the overall objectives and major challenges as set out in the education policy/plan, the funding required to achieve these objectives, the demographic parameters of the learner population and the human resources required to achieve universally accessible quality education.

This Guide is based on the concept that a single, holistic policy is preferable to a less comprehensive policy, or to several documents that address only one or a few of the major dimensions defining good teacher and learning conditions, thereby suffering from a lack of coherence. If developed and implemented in harmony with the overall education sector policy, a teacher policy should not result in greater policy fragmentation. It does not, however, need to be a completely new policy document, and it may unify more piecemeal approaches to important dimensions. The country-specific existing and future education sector and related policies presented below – relative to HIV and AIDS, gender, etc. – will also guide the choice of a single policy document or of another approach at the national level.

As things now stand, most education sector plans create more fragmentation and less coherence; they address teacher policy dimensions only partially and do not systematically include all the major determinants of learning success linked to teachers, i.e. recruitment; initial education; balanced deployment; continual professional development; decent salaries; career prospects; and working (teaching/ learning) conditions (see Hunt, 2013, for a review of 40 national education plans related to teaching and learning; UNESCO, 2014a: 22). Ghana provides an example of a sector plan featuring some broadly defined strategies covering many teacher policy dimensions (Box 2.1). However, certain important elements of a comprehensive policy (see Chapter 3) are missing that would encourage greater teacher motivation and professionalism (as described in Section 2.2).

BOX 2.1: GHANA EDUCATION STRATEGIC PLAN 2010–2020 – TEACHER POLICY DIMENSIONS

The Fifth Education Sector Plan (ESP) prepared by the MoE builds on previous plans and analysis of their implementation through national assessments, ESP reviews, sector analysis and national statistical sources. The plan acknowledges linkages to other national and international education and development policies, including a 2008 'pre-tertiary teacher development and management policy', in which very general strategies to address the following teacher policy dimensions are formulated:

- Enhanced status of teachers through a career path linking incentives with professional growth;

- Improved teacher quality through a continuous school/cluster-based professional development scheme, including distance learning for all teachers;

- Rationalized teacher supply and demand based on district level projections of teacher needs, in line with teacher management decentralization;

- A teacher qualification and licensing framework based on standards and requirements set by the National Teaching Council;

- Mandatory induction for all beginning teachers and regular school-based in-service training for early career teachers, to secure long-term commitment to teaching excellence;

- Improved teacher management through provision of resources and incentives for local school management.

The guiding principles of the plan refer to improving the quality of learning and teaching and developing an effective, efficient and properly rewarded teaching service, while policy objectives for teachers in basic and secondary education include: improving the preparation, upgrading and deployment of teachers and head teachers (for basic education, especially in disadvantaged areas, with an emphasis on female teachers); and ensuring that the teaching service "provides value for money in terms of pupil contact time". The objectives refer to teacher presence in classrooms and hours of work, and teacher and head teacher performance appraisal are included. Further objectives target cost savings by replacing government stipends for initial teacher education by loans, increasing multi-grade teaching, phasing out professional development study leave in favour of distance training and 'rationalizing' staffing costs by weeding out 'ghost' and 'unutilized/underutilized' staff. Pupil–teacher ratios are expected to rise at all levels.

Although evidently designed to address specific problems within the education system in Ghana, the plan does not appear to pay sufficient attention to issues such as recruitment and deployment incentives, comprehensive professional development for all teachers, improvements in balanced hours of work and other factors affecting teacher motivation and professionalization.

For more information: Government of Ghana, 2012; http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/sites/planipolis/files/ressources/ghana_esp_2010_2020_vol1.pdf
http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/sites/planipolis/files/ressources/ghana_esp_2010_2020_vol2.pdf

A teacher policy is an important component of an overall education policy to promote education quality and achieve a country's vision: where a teacher policy is aligned with education policy, it reinforces education objectives; where the two are disjointed, both teaching status and learning quality suffer. Boxes 2.2 and 2.3. summarize two very different approaches.

BOX 2.2: EDUCATION OBJECTIVES AND TEACHER POLICY IN EAST AFRICA

The adoption of the 2000 Dakar Framework for Action's commitments to EFA goals helped spur policy changes to boost universal primary education (UPE) in Kenya and Tanzania in 2002–2003. School fees were abolished or severely curtailed, vastly increasing primary school enrolments. National education plans addressed teacher recruitment and training, new infrastructure and financing changes in the first few years. However, no comprehensive teacher policies existed to address many other specific recruitment, training, deployment and teaching condition challenges that either already existed or were likely to emerge with the new education policy.

The dramatic enrolment increases reportedly impacted on teacher job satisfaction and motivation as class sizes and workloads increased, especially in urban areas, at the same time as resources became more constrained, despite international donor support. Additional resources were largely used to increase enrolment capacity, without directly addressing teachers' material and professional needs.

In Tanzania, increased teacher recruitment was planned, but the targets for new recruits were proportionately lower than the very large enrolment targets, falling short of the goals over time (50% increase in teacher numbers compared to a 100% increase in enrolment). Government employment freezes led to some trained teachers leaving for other employment. Double-shift classes and multi-grade teaching, which increased to offset the teacher and classroom gap, led to a decline in teacher performance. Planned increases in teacher housing were partially met, but were not sufficient to overcome the shortages of teacher deployments to rural areas. HIV further affected teaching staffing. Initial teacher preparation was shortened, and the planned improvements to in-service professional development failed to fill the gaps due to financial and logistical pressures. This had a negative impact on preparing teachers in more effective teaching/ learning techniques, especially for the larger classrooms.

The overall effect was to further lower the overall standing of teaching in relation to other professions. As such, recruitment of better-qualified teacher candidates continues to be a problem. At the same time, while overall basic learning indicators have improved, this has not been the case for poor and disadvantaged learners, with further stagnation at the lower secondary level. The absence of a more detailed teacher policy as part of the ambitious (and successful) access goals has hindered achieving the quality objectives.

For more information: Bennell, 2011; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Mbelle, 2008; Nordstrum, 2013; URT, 2006; UNESCO, 2014a: 203-6.

BOX 2.3: EDUCATION OBJECTIVES AND DE FACTO TEACHER POLICY IN FINLAND

Education and teacher policy in Finland receives consistently high ratings in international learning assessments, pointing to the importance of integrating teacher policy with the overall education objectives of individualized learning and success for all learners.

Strictly speaking, there is no formal teacher policy: teacher 'policy' has been established by default over many years through the promotion of very high initial education standards (Masters Degree) for employment as a teacher in Finnish schools, and requirements for all teachers to regularly undergo professional development. Initial education and continuous professional development (CPD) are fully funded by the government. A university-acquired degree is a licence to teach – there are no alternative paths to a teacher's job. The teacher preparation and professional development programmes emphasize research-based teacher learning and thorough knowledge of content and pedagogical strategies for the desired education level.

As a result, individually and through their union, teachers have a large degree of classroom autonomy over teaching methods, materials and student assessment, together with a high degree of participation in decisions on local curricula and national education reforms. A high degree of professionalism exists, reinforced by trust in teacher competences and skills. There is no external evaluation: teacher evaluation and improvements are dealt with through annual consultations between principal and teacher. Teacher salaries and conditions are set by national collective bargaining. Salaries are not significantly higher than the national average wage and are comparable to other professions. Teaching hours are low compared to other OECD countries to permit more teacher preparation and student assessment time.

The result is a de facto policy, which accords high professional status to teaching and encourages top secondary school graduates to seek teacher positions: only one of every ten applicants to primary teacher training programmes is accepted.

For more information: Finnish National Board of Education, 2014; Sahlberg, 2010.

Table 2.1 sets out examples of the alignment of some dimensions of a teacher policy with an education plan, drawing on the ILO/UNESCO Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers, the UNESCO General Education Quality Analysis Framework (GEQAF) and the ILO *Handbook of good human resource practices in the teaching profession*[4]

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4   The Checklist does not claim to be exhaustive. It lists major topics or issues that should be considered at a minimum in defining a coherent national teacher policy in relationship to education objectives/ goals set out in national education policies or plans. For more details, please consult the Checklist references.

TABLE 2.1: CHECKLIST FOR ALIGNING TEACHER AND EDUCATION POLICY

Education policy	Teacher policy
Achieve quality education for every child/learner goals established at the national level: ● Maximum ECE enrolment ● 100% primary (basic) gross enrolment and graduation ● Maximum secondary enrolment and graduation ● 100% literacy rate country-wide ● Demographic projections to guide enrolment forecasts	Sufficient numbers of well-qualified teachers for every level of education: ● Current future recruitment needs/future projections ● Standards for admission to teaching by level of education ● Recruitment projections/teacher profile (urban, rural and disadvantaged areas, minority populations, male and female) ● Attrition: projections for retirement, illness, death, professional and personal reasons
National curricula and/or guidelines for decentralized education authorities on curricula choices to achieve desired student competence levels on graduation from each level of education ● Recommended pedagogical methods to meet learning goals ● Revisions in current/previous curricula to meet education reform objectives	Initial teacher preparation, certification and ongoing professional development programmes to meet expected learning outcomes: ● Teacher competence and skill profiles ● Qualification levels and allowed exceptions ● Certification/licensing criteria and procedures ● Professional development requirements and programmes for all teachers ● Teacher educator profiles, knowledge and qualifications ● Monitoring, evaluation and revision of teacher education ● Access to CPD for all teachers
Financing of the education system: ● Goals for national, regional, local resource investment – percentage of gross domestic product (GDP), public sector contributions and government expenditure by education level ● Private sector investment/contributions, including family and individual	Financing of teacher preparation and employment: ● Investments for initial teacher preparation and recruitment ● Funding for career-long continuing professional development (CPD) for all teachers ● Salaries and incentives to attract, deploy and retain teachers, including social security ● State provision and/or standards for private sector teachers
Organization and governance of education: ● Mix of public and private provision – standards and regulation ● Centralized or decentralized organization coordination for coherence among education levels ● Education management structures to ensure efficiency and goal-setting ● School leadership for learning outcomes ● Participation of stakeholders in policy and governance	Teacher management and support: ● Standards, procedures, authorities/agencies responsible for dimensions of teaching ● Coordination between national, regional and local levels on teacher dimensions ● School leadership development and support programmes ● Mechanisms for social dialogue on teaching conditions ● Dialogue mechanisms on teacher dimensions
Learning environment and conditions: ● Required days and hours of instruction ● Standards for pupil-teacher ratios (PTRs) ● Safe and healthy school rules and provisions ● Construction/renovation of schools/classrooms ● Provision of learning support aids and equipment	Effective teaching and learning conditions: ● Required hours of instruction, teacher presence in schools, planning, preparation, collaborative work, professional development, parent consultations ● Class size standards ● Teacher auxiliary support/para-professionals ● Teaching materials and equipment provided
Assessing the education system's performance: ● National, regional or local inspectorate services to assess performance and recommend changes ● Roles of professional associations/councils/bodies in standard-setting and review	Teacher accountability: appraisal, roles and responsibilities ● Rights, roles and responsibilities of teachers established and procedures for application, including disciplinary mechanisms ● Teacher evaluation standards and procedures ● Professional development requirements or opportunities to improve performance

For more information: ILO, 2012 (http://www.ilo.org/sector/Resources/publications/WCMS_187793/lang--en/index.htm); ILO/UNESCO, 1966 (http://www.ilo.org/sector/Resources/sectoral-standards/WCMS_162034/lang--en/index.htm); UNESCO, 2012a (http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/strengthening-education-systems/quality-framework/)

2.1.3 Teacher policy across education levels and priorities

Aligning teacher policy within a country's different education levels – early childhood, primary, general and vocational secondary – and according to evolving priorities can enhance adaptability to ensure more cohesion in meeting changing education needs. Governments tend to compartmentalize teacher recruitment and preparation by education level. When deciding to enter the teaching profession, individuals usually seek a career at a certain education level. However, personal, professional and material conditions change and influence mobility among levels.

International standards encourage such possibilities. Government policy and planning should take into account that teachers choose to leave one level of education for another, or leave classroom teaching for other educational responsibilities in management, research or teacher preparation (ILO/UNESCO, 1966). By accommodating forward-looking planning to meet changing education needs, teacher policy can help avoid unnecessary shocks that lead to quantitative or qualitative shortages. Examples include:

- Assuring parity or comparability in salary and other employment conditions at different levels of education, according to skill requirements and education need – the growing importance of ECE and the need to recruit, educate and retain increasingly qualified teachers at this level in relation to primary schools is one example (ILO, 2014: 10–20 – see also Section 2.1.4);

- Reflecting the importance of primary or basic education (inclusive of lower secondary education) in terms of salaries, school resources and teaching conditions, compared to more subject-specialized higher secondary teachers. While the latter tend to be educated differently and remunerated at higher levels, there is an equal need for highly qualified, motivated and resourced primary or lower secondary school teachers (OECD, 2014a: 46–48);

- Putting policies in place to address teacher shortages at different levels originating from a generalized lack of qualified teachers or gaps in specific skill profiles (in terms of subject areas, languages, or pedagogical competences to meet specialized needs, such as those of young children and marginalized populations) (UNESCO, 2014a: 239–240).

- Planning for changing demographics in staffing needs and preparing for new education priorities, which requires:

  - Recruiting more males to ECE or female teachers for primary and secondary schools in countries and areas where they are underrepresented, to facilitate girls' educational access;

  - Achieving a greater balance in rural/urban teacher deployment, including hard-to-staff disadvantaged schools in urban or remote areas (one of the thorniest problems facing policy- and decision-makers in a wide range of countries);

  - Rejuvenating the profession when the teaching corps ages, adjusting for factors that drive attrition rates among young teachers or discourage new entrants;

  - Achieving inclusive education for disadvantaged populations, such as learners from ethnic minorities, nomadic or minority language communities, or learners with special education needs (OECD, 2005: 54–60; OECD, 2014a: 32–33, 40–43; UNESCO, 2014a: 22, 25, 28).

A forward-looking teacher policy, capable of anticipating and addressing potential difficulties and offering solutions to ensure effective teaching and learning despite resource constraints, is particularly important in exceptional crisis situations, where significant numbers of both teachers and learners may be internally displaced or refugees (Education International – EI, 2014a; Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies – INEE, 2009; Teacher Task Force, 2011a; UNESCO, 2014a; see also Section 3.1). These situations include:

- Civil strife or armed conflict zones, internally or externally generated;
- Emergencies created by natural or human-made disasters; and
- Exceptional public health challenges, such as the 2014 West African Ebola crisis or the continued fall-out from HIV in a number of countries.

2.1.4 Aligning teacher policy with other national policies

A teacher policy should be consistent with education sector policies or plans and recognize diverse policy contexts, such as children's rights and related human rights policies; HIV and AIDS policies where these exist, or where

this is a particularly important national concern (such as in high- prevalence countries); and national gender policies or equivalent plans for reducing gender disparities.

Children's rights policies

Children's rights to education are related to other basic rights, such as general welfare, health and safety, including protection from various forms of abuse. These are codified in one of the most ratified international conventions, the United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989 – http://www.ohchr. org/ EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CRC.aspx). Since most countries have ratified the Convention, legislation and policies have been created to implement these standards. These instruments frequently recommend or impose requirements on teachers to respect children's rights or monitor the welfare of children in their charge in such areas as domestic violence, sexual abuse, trafficking or child labour. A teacher policy needs to be aligned with such requirements, to ensure proper teacher recruitment, training, reporting and disciplinary measures for non-compliance. It should also ensure that teachers' rights and responsibilities are aligned with children's rights and protection. International organizations engaged in child welfare and protection have a number of resources to help guide policy on these questions (see, for example: EI, 2004; EI, 2014b; ILO, 2012: 20; Poisson, 2009).

HIV and AIDS policies

Similarly, countries around the world – particularly in regions of Africa, Asia, the Caribbean and Eastern Europe most affected by the HIV and AIDS pandemic since the 1980s – have national policies in place to address the causes and effects of the disease. Teacher policy should be aligned with a national effort to address HIV and AIDS, given the devastating human consequences of the pandemic and the disruptions it provokes in teaching and learning (illness, absenteeism and death of teachers and learners, creation of orphans, additional human and financial costs for the education system) (ILO, 2012: 67–70).

Aligning teacher policy with the measures adopted under a national HIV and AIDS policy helps mitigate the adverse effects on quality education and human resources, as well as reduce the financial costs resulting from the lack of cohesion between the two policies. A 2011–2012 international survey of progress in this domain found that two-thirds of nearly 40 surveyed countries with significant prevalence levels had adopted an education sector policy linked to the national HIV and AIDS policy/plan; close to

one-half of the countries had developed an education sector workplace policy applicable to employment and training issues relevant to teachers and other education workers (UNESCO and UNAIDS-IATT, 2013: 16, 20–27). Guidelines on the content and processes of developing such a policy specific to countries in two high prevalence regions – the Caribbean and Southern Africa – have been developed by the ILO and UNESCO (ILO/UNESCO, 2006a and 2006b). The Teachers Service Commission of Kenya (TSC) adopted such a policy in 2007 (TSC, 2007).

Civic and human rights policies

Teacher policy should also be linked to national civic and human rights legislation and policies. Teachers are called upon to instruct future citizens. They are also expected to serve as role models for a nation's commitment to basic civic and human rights, including non-discrimination in education and the larger society. Teacher policy needs to establish a framework for initial education, professional development and ethical codes that enshrines professional rights and responsibilities, and gives teachers the tools to teach and behave according to the highest professional standards, as model citizens (Tomasevski, 2004; UNESCO, 2014b).

Early childhood education

Investing in ECE as a foundation for all other education is important for improving quality and achieving equity (UNESCO, 2006). The quality of care and teaching is critical to assuring the provision of high-quality ECE. Based on evidence from a wide range of countries, the ILO (2014) guidelines on decent work for ECE staff note that 'High-quality ECE provision is dependent on adequate investments in initial ECE personnel education and training that ensure preparation for all ECE personnel comparable to that of primary school teachers with equivalent professional status and responsibilities.' The guidelines further emphasize a high professional, social and material status for ECE personnel, built around a comprehensive recruitment, development and retention policy or strategy developed at national level, to ensure ECE excellence (ILO, 2014: 10, 13). Given the importance of this education foundation, a teacher policy should in the first place be aligned with and enhance policies related to ECE.

Gender Equality

A teacher policy should also be linked to national efforts to reduce gender disparities in education, training,

employment, income and access to social services. Whether or not a national gender policy exists, many national education plans address gender imbalances as part of efforts to achieve Goal 5 of the Dakar Framework for Action on EFA (UNESCO, 2000). These policies mostly target girls' access to quality education and training, although countries in some regions – such as the Caribbean – must address boys' engagement at secondary and higher education levels. Box 2.4. cites examples.

BOX 2.4: LINKING TEACHER POLICY TO GENDER IN EDUCATION

Many countries include measures linking teacher policy to important gender imbalances that they wish to reduce or eliminate, most often to improve girls' universal access to quality education. For example:

- **Afghanistan, Interim Education Plan, 2011–2013:** Improvements in girls' enrolment and retention rates in school, reduction in gender and rural disparities and improvements in students' learning achievements are to be monitored by the Education Management Information Systems (EMIS). An annual report also focuses on pupil–teacher ratios, student–classroom ratios, exam results and other data on learning achievements.

- **Kenya, Education Sector Support Programme 2005–2010:** Envisages teacher training for gender responsive, child centred and interactive teaching.

- **Lao People's Democratic Republic, Education Sector Development Framework 2009–2015, Teacher Education Strategy 2006–2015 and the National Education Sector Reform Strategy:** Foresee that the majority of new teacher education graduates are to be posted to underserved and remote areas to achieve gender and ethnic population parity. Related policies prioritize filling remote school vacancies with teachers with an ethnic language, notably through a quota system for recruiting and retaining good teachers in poor districts.

- **Nigeria, Roadmap for the Nigerian Education Sector 2009:** targets gender parity in teacher recruitment.

For more information: Hunt, 2013, Annex Two.

2.1.5 Defining and coordinating policy in different education systems and contexts

In federal states and decentralized education systems, subnational education authorities are likely to be the principal policy- and decision-makers or to share responsibilities with national authorities. Hence, a national teacher policy must address shared responsibilities for policy development and implementation through coordination across subnational boundaries. Countries such as Brazil, Canada, Nigeria, and the United States (United States of America) have developed different approaches to harmonizing policies promoting equal access and quality standards while also taking into account the subnational contexts (Boxes 2.5 and 2.6).

Where they appear in federal systems, good teacher policies are frequently defined very generally, recognizing the subnational-level control over teacher and teaching practices. Federal governments' main tool to harmonize policy nationwide is financial; it is usually tied to defined standards for improving learning or education, with direct or indirect impacts on teacher dimensions.

BOX 2.5: FEDERAL SYSTEM APPROACHES TO TEACHER POLICY IN BRAZIL AND NIGERIA

In Brazil, the National Education Plan (PNE) adopted in 2010 and the Plan for the Development of Education (PDE) cover many education and teacher policy questions. The PDE specifically seeks to strengthen a systemic, nationwide approach to greater equality of access and education quality across Brazil's many regions and states. Both draw on two previously adopted laws creating national funding mechanisms to achieve greater equality of access and education quality for poorer regions, states and municipalities: the Fund for Primary Education Administration and Development for the Enhancement of Teacher Status (FUNDEF); and the Fund for the Development of Basic Education and Appreciation of the Teaching Profession (FUNDEB), supplemented by the 'Bolsa Familia' programme providing cash transfers to families in return for children attending school.

FUNDEF greatly increased federal government investments in education, earmarking 60% of funds for teacher salaries and 40% for school operations. The establishment of a national minimum teacher salary allowed teachers in poor northern states to upgrade their qualifications so that by 2002, almost all teachers had acquired the minimum required training. It also encouraged an influx of fully qualified teachers in those areas, resulting in an increase of 20% in the teacher workforce between 1997 and 2002. The special funds have led to large increases in school enrolments in the poorer northern regions, to a rise in average school attendance among children from the poorest 20% of families and to increases in mathematics scores for students. The PNE and PDE have also led to greater cooperation in initial teacher education and professional development between higher and open education institutions and state and municipal employers of teachers. New education system tools have also been developed to further nationwide coordination in key areas such as teacher education, professional development and teaching resources.

Nigeria's education sector plan for the period 2011–2015 is subsumed in a "roadmap" published in 2009. Education is a shared responsibility between federal, state and local levels. The Federal Ministry of Education (FME) is responsible for national policy, data collection, uniform standards including quality assurance, curricula development and harmonizing state policies and procedures.

Teacher recruitment, quality, development, motivation and retention along with inadequate infrastructure and instructional resources are identified as challenges in the roadmap, along with general strategies, indicators and timelines grouped in a teacher education and development cluster, and touching upon a range of teacher policy dimensions:

* Teacher recruitment (including gender parity) and appropriate school staffing;

* Incentives for teacher deployment and school presence in rural areas;

* Implementation of national teacher education policy, frameworks for professional development and teacher induction and mentoring;

* Harmonization of national and state salary structures;

* Teacher career development;

* Conducive working environments for teachers, including good pupil–teacher ratios; and

* Enhanced school head leadership and training.

Although the education sector plan is broad in its coverage, most strategies and indicators are general, with very short timeframes for implementation. A 2012 implementation report highlighted challenges and implementation shortfalls, often attributed to funding issues.

For more information: Brazil: Ministry of Education, Brazil, 2007; Bruns et al., 2012; UNESCO, 2014a; Nigeria: FME, 2009 and 2012; Teacher Task Force, 2011a.

BOX 2.6: FEDERAL SYSTEM APPROACHES TO TEACHER POLICY IN NORTH AMERICA – CANADA AND THE USA

In Canada, teacher policy and programmes are the domain of local school boards and the provinces. Nevertheless, the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (CMEC) provides a forum in which the provincial/territorial ministers of education share information, consult on matters of mutual interest, undertake cooperative initiatives and represent the interests of the provinces/territories with the federal government and internationally, at all educational levels. CMEC work on teacher policy to date has essentially been limited to harmonizing pan-Canadian standards for teacher certification and assessing credentials of educators trained and recruited from outside Canada.

In the United States, as in Canada, education and therefore teacher policy dimensions are the prerogative of state and local authorities. In recent years, the federal government has tried to influence state and local policies through successive reform initiatives to meet federal criteria (or federally supported core standards elaborated by national professional bodies), using federal block grants. Known as the 'No Child Left Behind Act' and the 'Race to the Top' initiative of the Obama presidential administration, these aim to improve learners' outcomes, with a focus on disadvantaged populations, through improved teacher effectiveness and systemic accountability mechanisms. Dimensions of teacher policy directly or indirectly influenced by the criteria and grants at state and local levels include teacher recruitment, professional development, support and assessment; effectiveness and performance-based pay; incentives and sanctions affecting employment, remuneration and careers; up to dismissal of teachers and principals if targets are not achieved. Critics of the policy, including many classroom teachers required or pressured to apply teaching methodologies based on testing, decry the overly heavy reliance on standardized test results and emerging 'value-added models' to measure success, to the detriment of other school and learning factors.

For more information: Canada: CMEC (2008 and 2014); Hargreaves and Braun (2013); US Department of Education (2009).

Other policy questions arise in very large and small (especially island) states, often in relation to the sheer size and geographic extent of education in the former (see Box 2.7 for an example from the People's Republic of China) and the human and financial capacity constraints of the latter.

BOX 2.7: TEACHER POLICY IN LARGE STATES – CHINA

As in almost all countries, China embeds elements of teacher policy within its ten-year education sector plan, rather than constructing a dedicated teacher policy. The plan has a chapter on teachers, which focuses on key elements to improve teacher/teaching quality in the continued political and economic transition of the world's most populous country and second-largest economy. These include:

- Promoting professional ethics in relation to teacher appointment, employment, evaluation and misconduct;

- Raising professional efficiency through training to strengthen both knowledge and pedagogical proficiency, with a focus on teacher leaders, mentors and principals; all teachers are expected in the future to undergo professional development every five years; the plan calls for bilingual training to strengthen minority areas;

- Concentrating policy tools on rural teacher recruitment, deployment and quality, through career and salary incentives;

- Raising teachers' working and living conditions to increase the talent pool and commitment to lifelong careers, through such measures as legislation to guarantee salaries comparable to or higher than other civil servants, performance-based salaries, incentives for remote and border areas, preferential housing and improved social security measures (a policy objective that rarely figures in other plans or policies);

- Strengthening teacher management, especially at local (county) level, through credentialing and a permit system to determine appointment decisions; career progression is to be more subject to service in rural and remote areas.

For more information: Government of China (2010); UNESCO (2014a).

Specific teacher policy considerations also apply to conflict and post-conflict or post-disaster contexts. The INEE Guiding Principles on Integrating Conflict Sensitivity in Education Policy and Programming in Conflict-Affected and Fragile Contexts (INEE, 2013) identify several important policy aspects relating to teachers, including:

- Strengthening the process of supplying and training teachers (and teacher trainers);
- Strengthening the Teacher Management Information System (TMIS), the EMIS and teacher salary systems; and
- Ensuring adequate numbers of trained teachers who reflect the diversity of their societies (different ethnic and religious groups, and gender).

2.2. Foundations and guiding principles for a teacher policy

Guidelines for education sector plans or policies emphasize ownership, coordination, participation and sustainability through capacity development. Key principles or elements may include: a vision or mission statement setting direction; identifying strategies, capacities and priorities; a holistic approach; a feasibility analysis of trends, constraints and stakeholder commitment affecting implementation and often closely associated with political, economic and natural 'vulnerabilities' that form the national context within which a plan is developed and implemented (IIEP and GPE, 2012).

As with a national education policy or plan, a good teacher policy should build a foundation around a number of key principles and elements essential to implementing and achieving this plan, notably:

- A vision or mission statement and objectives;
- Targets, benchmarks and timelines;
- Comprehensive coverage of key dimensions;
- Assessing the environment: difficulties/challenges/gaps;
- Relevant data and management;
- Coordination mechanisms;
- Funding needs and sources;
- Participation and stakeholder commitment; and
- Evaluation and revision.

2.2.1 Vision or mission statement and objectives

A teacher policy needs at least a brief statement of what it is about and why it is important, setting some overarching objectives that map out directions and defining where the country or system wants its teaching profession to be at some point in the future. Three key concepts should prevail in objective-setting:

- Teacher effectiveness;
- Teacher motivation; and
- Teacher professionalism.

The ultimate objectives are universal access to education of the highest quality possible by all citizens of society, even the most marginalized. Based on evidence from many countries, teachers are the single most important factor determining whether those objectives will be achieved (at least in terms of factors that can be influenced by education policy-makers). Teacher effectiveness is therefore a crucial part of the mission statement.

Effectiveness can be defined in terms of achieving certain learning targets, both statistical (100% literacy) and less tangible (thoughtful and engaged citizens), 'adding value' to the work of previous educators (including families and communities), or outlining the key teacher dimensions that reportedly affect effectiveness (see Chapter 3). Whatever the values assigned to these indicators, it is important to define the policy's mission in a way that ties teachers' work to the basic and universal educational objectives (Moon, 2013: 22–25; OECD, 2005: 30–33; World Bank, 2013).

Teachers' motivation to do the best job they can with the training and tools at hand is a crucial building block of effectiveness. No amount of teacher education or material incentives to perform well will compensate for unmotivated, disinterested individuals in a teaching and learning situation (although both are critical dimensions of the question – see Chapter 3). Thus, a teacher policy should define a general objective to achieve maximum motivation (and its other dimensions, i.e. dedication to tasks and to learners) for all who enter teaching (Bennell, 2011).

A third guiding principle in the policy's mission statement/objectives should be maximum levels of teacher professionalism. 'Professionalism' has many dimensions, the most important of which are arguably high standards of education/training, job skills, fulfilment of duties and responsibilities, and a maximum amount of autonomous decision-making. Even – or especially – in education systems that are missing one or all of these factors (for example, due to high numbers of poorly qualified teachers or strict control of teachers' work through top-down supervision and standardized testing), a good teacher policy will set its own objectives at the highest professional level (ILO/ UNESCO, 1966: Arts. 6, 61–63, 66, 71–73).

2.2.2 Targets, benchmarks and timelines

To know if a policy is working (achieving objectives) it is helpful to establish targets, benchmarks and timelines to measure progress. In addition to general objectives (such as improving teacher quality, reducing teacher attrition or absenteeism, and increasing access to instructional materials), it is generally advisable to set indicative targets and benchmarks (such as the percentage of qualified teachers recruited, the number of teachers undergoing professional development, teacher salaries at comparator levels with other professionals, and the number of teachers with basic learning aids). More specific targets or benchmarks allow progress to be monitored more easily and efficiently. Targets are formulated over a given timeline that includes both intermediate and final targets. The timeline is most useful if it is aligned with the national education plan and accounts for both short-term priorities (teacher recruitment to fill all identified shortages) and the long- term nature of educational planning and outcomes (years to educate and properly form a good teacher) (IIEP and GPE, 2012: 12–13; UNESCO, 2012a: 23–25; UNESCO, 2010: 26–27).

2.2.3 Comprehensive coverage of key dimensions

A teacher policy will be most effective if it is comprehensive, encompassing at least the most important dimensions of teacher preparation and work (OECD, 2005; ILO, 2012; see Chapter 3 for more details):

- Non-discriminatory, comprehensive, professional teacher recruitment;
- Effective and relevant initial teacher preparation;
- Universally accessible, career-long CPD (for all teachers);
- Monitoring and support, including effective teacher induction and mentoring;
- Teacher remuneration and incentives to attract, deploy and retain effective teachers;
- Career progression, including transfers and promotions;
- Support to decent teaching and learning conditions – defined hours of work, class sizes, aids and organization to meet learning needs, access to adequate teaching and learning materials;
- Professional standards, accountability, rights and responsibilities, including a degree of autonomy, codes of ethics and conduct, and disciplinary procedures;

- Formative teacher assessment linked to learning objectives;
- Social dialogue – information sharing, consultation and negotiation to give teachers a voice in decision making; and
- Effective school governance and leadership, including managing and supporting teachers.

Most reviews of education and teacher policies note that policies and strategies are usually fragmented or incomplete with regard to covering these dimensions, focusing instead on those policies that seem most relevant at a given time (Teacher Task Force, 2011a and 2011b; UNESCO, 2014a: 22). A good teacher policy should foresee all of the dimensions and take a long-term view, since teachers' preparation and learning impact are measured in years, if not decades.

2.2.4 Assessing the environment: difficulties, challenges, and gaps

A teacher policy should not hide the challenges, uncertainties and potential roadblocks a system faces to reach its objectives, including the political dimensions of policy formulation and implementation (see Chapters 4 and 5). These are equivalent to threats, vulnerabilities or risks in other planning terminology, whether political, economic, social, cultural or natural. A policy should clearly identify the known existing teacher gaps, both quantitative and qualitative, and assess the strengths and weaknesses of previous policies and strategies that have attempted to address them. These elements bring a sense of reality in terms of capacity and constraints (demographic, human resource, financial or other); they further define pragmatic benchmarks and timelines, and help increase the chance that the policy will be effective (IIEP and GPE, 2012: 9, 16, 19, 21, 24; UNESCO, 2012a: 36–38).

2.2.5 Relevant data and management

An effective policy requires solid and relevant data to underpin its development, allow assessment of the progress made and objectives achieved, and enable its possible revision. Bearing in mind the resource constraints and difficulties of obtaining reliable and good-quality data (not just numbers), especially in resource-poor systems, the data set should cover inasmuch as possible the major dimensions of teaching (as set out in Chapter 3) for all geographic areas, population groups and education levels within the scope of this Guide. Capturing information on attitudes, beliefs

and perceptions (as an experts' review described it , what is in the 'black box') through qualitative teacher surveys can be vital to understanding motivation (or frustration) – and consequently, effectiveness. Analysis of teacher indicators should be read closely with indicators of learning outcomes to meet the basic objectives (Teacher Task Force, 2011a: 18, 25; UNESCO,2012b: 11–16). Several international organizations offer cross-national indicators and databases that can inform country policy (see Section 2.3).

2.2.6 Funding needs and sources

A teacher policy needs to be budgeted in all its dimensions (Chapter 3), including the policy development process (Chapter 4) and implementation (Chapter 5). Teacher preparation, recurring costs (mostly staff salary and benefits) and capital costs related to teaching, and linked to the national, local or school budget projections as appropriate, should figure in the policy. As with other education objectives – increasingly present in international indicator work – the policy may establish public budgetary allocation targets for specific policy line items, supplemented by national private (enterprise, community, family)[5] and international donor contributions. Among others, the percentage of national resources necessary for major dimensions of a healthy teaching profession merit attention: the numbers of newly qualified teachers to meet attrition projections; initial teacher education; CPD for all teachers; salaries to attract and retain effective teachers; incentives for balanced deployment; social security; and the various components of teaching/learning conditions related to education objectives. Where necessary, the policy may delineate alternative funding sources (Chapter 3) to ensure adequate financing of these dimensions, if not already set out in the national education plan (IIEP and GPE, 2012: 10–11, 14–15, 22; ILO, 2012; UNESCO, 2012a: 46–49).

2.2.7 Participation and commitment

Like the policy development and implementation processes (Chapters 4 and 5), the process of framing a teacher policy should build on the widest possible participation of all major stakeholders to ensure ownership and commitment to achieving the policy's goals. The most important partners and stakeholders are the teachers 5 Care should be taken with the family element to avoid erecting barriers to schooling for poor families through open or disguised school fees, themselves

and their collective representatives, i.e. teacher unions and professional organizations (teacher professional associations and colleges), followed closely by key system actors, notably teacher education institutions and professional certification, regulatory or standard-setting bodies. A second tier of stakeholders comprising students, parents and community representatives should also have a voice in defining the policy, hopefully committing to its achievement.

Consulting those individuals that are most knowledgeable about the subject because they are engaged in teaching and learning situations on a daily basis is a crucial foundation of good policy development. However, international reviews have consistently pointed to a noticeable lack of teacher voice in determining education (including teacher) policy. Not only does this demoralize teachers, it can have negative consequences on proper policy development and the commitment to seeing them through (ILO and UNESCO, 2010: 7–18; Ratteree, 2004; UNESCO, 2014a: 220–222). Framing an inclusive and holistic teacher policy should be occur through social dialogue (between education authorities/ administrations and teachers, teacher unions and professional organizations) and policy dialogue with other stakeholders close to the classroom teaching and learning dynamic (ILO/UNESCO, 1966: Arts. 9, 10(k), 75; ILO, 2012: 202–204; OECD, 2005: 214–218; World Bank, 2013: 21). Chapters 4 and 5 address in more detail the role of teachers, teacher unions and professional organizations in policy development and implementation.

2.2.8 Evaluation and revision

Like any other policy that establishes a roadmap to guide operations, a teacher policy should build in an evaluation tool or process to help determine whether and why objectives and benchmarks have been met (or not) and timelines respected, and what needs to change in future policy definition and implementation (see Chapters 4 and 5 for a more extensive discussion). Assessment of the policy's effectiveness should pose key questions about measurement criteria (quantitative and qualitative indicators), the individuals responsible for performing the assessment (education planners, evaluation specialists, teaching staff, or other stakeholders), the timing of the reviews (ongoing, mid-term, or end of plan) and how the assessment results can best be utilized in policy and practice (IIEP and GPE, 2012: 17–18; UNESCO, 2012a: 24, 37–38).

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5   Care should be taken with the family element to avoid erecting barriers to schooling for poor families through open or disguised school fees.

2.3. Using existing tools: Analytical works and available policy documents on teachers and education

A number of international and regional organizations[6] produce data, indicators and analytical tools and publications that can assist policy- and decision-makers in defining, implementing, assessing and revising a national teacher policy. Many have been developed, validated or piloted at the country level, in close consultation with education authorities, as well as teacher representatives (unions, professional associations and individual teachers) and representatives of learners and other education stakeholders. This section briefly summarises some of the more important sources, and how they may assist in teacher policy work, and provides links to digital and print sources.

In terms of national sources, the Guide refers selectively to education legislation or acts relevant to various teacher policy issues. Access to a fuller list of national legislation by country – and in some cases in the relevant language – is also available through certain organizational websites mentioned below.

2.3.1 ILO and UNESCO

The global standard on teacher policy, the ILO/UNESCO Recommendation on the Status of Teachers (http://www.ilo.org/sector/Resources/sectoral-standards/WCMS_162034/lang--en/index.htm), was adopted by a special intergovernmental conference convened by the two organizations in 1966, after years of joint preparatory work. The Recommendation remains the sole international standard dedicated to the major parameters defining a professional teaching service. It can be used as a reference work by policy- and decision-makers to construct or revise teacher/teaching policy. The standard is structured around twelve chapters, covering the following subjects:

- Guiding principles and educational objectives and policies;
- Initial preparation and further education for the teaching profession;

- Employment and careers in teaching;
- Rights and responsibilities of teachers, professional autonomy, ethics/codes of conduct;
- Conditions for effective teaching and learning;
- Teachers' salaries;
- Social security; and
- Teacher shortage policies.

The Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendations concerning Teaching Personnel (CEART) produces an international monitoring report every three years on gaps and progress in applying the 1966 Recommendation (http://www.ilo.org/global/industries-and-sectors/education/WCMS_162256/lang--en/index.htm). These reports can help policy-makers improve teacher policy and practices. In the past, the governments and teacher unions of Japan (among others) engaged in a dialogue with the CEART on issues of teacher appraisal linked to careers, while those of Senegal discussed contractual teacher policy.

2.3.2 UNESCO

UNESCO has prepared a GEQAF designed to strengthen the capacity of education ministries to analyse, diagnose and monitor the quality of their general education systems through a systemic approach and strengthened national leadership and ownership. The GEQAF contains sections on teachers and teaching set within the overall framework of development goals, desired outcomes, core processes, core resources and supporting mechanisms.

The sections on teachers and teaching cover:

- Teacher attraction, selection, recruitment, deployment and retention;
- Teacher training;
- Teachers' working conditions, salaries and incentives;
- Management and utilization of teachers;
- Teaching processes, equity and effectiveness;
- Teacher monitoring and support; and
- Conditions for teaching.

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6   The list of organizations is not exhaustive, and does not include many regional intergovernmental and international organizations or regional non-governmental organizations engaged in education and/or teacher policy work of some kind. Links to many of these organizations may be obtained from the websites of the organizations listed in this section.

Together with technical support from UNESCO the GEQAF can be used to help establish teaching policy priorities as part of a diagnosis of the general education system.

UNESCO and the Senegal-based Pôle de Dakar (now part of the IIEP) have developed, published and applied a Methodological Guide for the Analysis of Teacher Issues (http://unesdoc. unesco.org/images/0019/001901/190129e.pdf). The Methodological Guide is designed and used in joint country missions as a diagnostic tool for teacher policy development and reviews of policy application in sub- Saharan African countries. The diagnostic missions involve national education ministries, agencies and stakeholders, supported by regional and international specialists. In addition to the general education context, the Methodological Guide contains chapters on teacher needs, education, management, recruitment, deployment, absenteeism, professional status, remuneration and careers, and the professional and social context of teaching.

As part of a regional project on teachers and in association with its member countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, the UNESCO Regional Bureau of Education for Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC/UNESCO Santiago) has prepared a series of publications on teacher policy and practice, including a report, Background and Criteria for Teacher-Policy Development in Latin America and the Caribbean, in Spanish and English (OREALC, 2013 – http:// w w w.orealc.cl/wp - cont ent/blogs.dir/1/files_mf/politicasdocentesingles27082013.pdf). The report is broken down into two parts: the first is a 'state of the art' overview of teachers and teachers' organizations in the region, initial teacher training, continual training/professional development, the teaching career and teaching policy institutions and processes. The second part proposes guidelines and criteria for policy development on initial and continual training, teaching careers, and teaching policy institutions and processes in the region. More recent publications (OREALC, 2014a and 2014b) produced through the project respectively include a review of country experiences and successful practices in these areas, as well as provide a series of diagnostic working documents with systematized regional information and comparative evidence in the main subject areas.

In the Arab Region, a Regional Teacher Policy Framework and Resource Pack was discussed at a regional workshop in December 2014 in Beirut, Lebanon, with a view to its finalization. The document is proposed as a framework for teacher policies in the region. It looks into the main assumptions, values and principles that underpin forward-thinking teacher policies and points to different policy levers that can help translate such policies into practice.

2.3.3 UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

UNESCO-UIS collects global teacher data and maintains an online database (http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/teachers-statistics.aspx) for approximately mostly low-income 150 countries. Such indicators allow users of this Guide to compare indicators in their country with those of similar countries in their region or globally. The data and indicators cover:

● Teacher headcounts, by level of education (early childhood, primary, secondary), public or private, programme orientation (general education, TVET), gender and training status (trained or untrained);

● Trained or qualified teachers, including the percentage of trained teachers, of qualified teachers ,and of trained and qualified teachers;

● Teacher and gender; and

● PTRs.

Annual data collection and indicators for 64 high- and middle-income countries include:

● Teacher age profiles: by gender and level of education (all programmes); proportions of teachers in different age categories; proportions of females and males by age categories; percentage of teachers less than five years away from retirement;

● Teacher qualifications: highest level of education completed, compared to level of education taught; distribution of teachers by qualification level; minimum International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level required to teach; minimum number of years of training required to teach;

● Teacher salaries: by level of education (general programmes, relative to GDP/purchasing power parity); length of service (starting salary, salary after fifteen years and salary at end of career); training status (trained vs. untrained); educational level taught (ISCED 1-3); total remuneration (including salary and additional bonuses); percentage of additional bonuses as compared to total income; and

● Teacher workload: working and teaching hours by level of education; proportion of working time used to teach; proportion of working hours allocated to

professional development; teacher unit cost; and total annual working/teaching weeks, days or hours.

Regional modules covering the majority of African countries, some Arab states and South and East Asia variously provide indicators from the data collected, such as teacher headcounts and characteristics, including age, sex, training and qualification, subject taught, teaching experience and professional status and type of institution. Special factsheets on teacher needs to meet UPE goals are also available. The UIS is developing a global module on teachers, to be launched in 2015, that will consolidate much of the data and indicators at global and regional level.

2.3.4　International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)

The IIEP provides published resources on teacher management, notably teacher codes of conduct, teachers in emergency and reconstructive contexts, HIV and AIDS, and teacher preparation and recruitment. It prepares training manuals and runs courses on education sector planning, including components on teachers. The IIEP also maintains a database on national education sector plans, programmes and legislation which can be linked to from the organization website (http:// www.iiep.unesco.org/ en).

2.3.5　International Task Force on Teachers for Education 2030

The International Task Force on Teachers for Education 2030, hosted by UNESCO, maintains a library of resources on teacher policy and practice with links from its website (http://www.teachersforefa.unesco.org).The resources include:

- Reports of international and regional policy dialogue forums and experts' meetings;
- Task Force publications on teacher country policies and themes such as teacher attrition, inclusion in teacher education and gender equality in teaching;
- Country diagnostic reports (African countries);
- Links to publications by Task Force members and partners.

The policy dialogue forums summarize the viewpoints, research and experiences of decision-makers, practitioners, researchers and teachers on salient teacher issues and promising practices from country, regional and international perspectives. Reports of expert meetings, bringing together high-profile specialists on teacher policies and practices,

provide a deeper understanding of teacher-specific themes as a basis for policy development and improvement of practice. The country, member and partner publications offer insights into issues for policy formulation, application, review and revision.

2.3.6　International Labour Organization (ILO)

The ILO developed and published a *Handbook of good human resource practices in the teaching profession* (http://www.ilo.org/sector/Resources/publications/W CMS_187793/lang-- en/ index.htm). The Handbook contains eight modules dealing with the major issues education authorities need to address to establish and maintain a high-quality teaching profession. The contents are based on international standards specific to teachers, international labour standards applicable to professional workers (such as teachers), and good practice and principles derived from contemporary human resource management and development from a wide range of countries and organizations.

The Handbook covers:

- Recruitment and employment of teachers, including professional competences;
- Conditions of employment, including staff leave conditions and career development;
- Professional roles, responsibilities and accountability of teachers;
- Teaching/learning and work environment, including hours of work and workload, class size and PTRs, and health and safety issues;
- Policies related to and management of teacher rewards, salaries and incentives;
- Teachers' social security;
- Social dialogue and labour relations within the teaching profession; and
- Initial and further teacher education and training as part of lifelong professional development

An index contains an alphabetical listing of hundreds of key words and phrases that allows users to access the module(s) for that subject.

The ILO has also produced the *ILO Policy Guidelines on the promotion of decent work for early childhood education* personnel (http://www.ilo.org/sector/Resources/ codes-of-practice -and- guidelines/WCMS_236528/ lang--en/ index.htm), which provide policy guidance for early

childhood education teachers and other staff related to: general roles and responsibilities, including for public and private education providers, trade unions and other stakeholders; objectives and policies, including curricula, teaching methodology and financing; teacher education and training; recruitment, deployment and retention; professional and career development; employment terms and conditions; learning and teaching conditions; social security and social protection; ECE personnel evaluation; and governance and social dialogue.

2.3.7 World Bank

The World Bank's online Systems Approach for Better Results in Education (SABER) contains a teacher component, SABER-Teachers (http://saber.worldbank.org/index.cfm?indx=8&tb=1), which documents and analyses teacher policies in public schools of education systems in fifty middle- and low-income countries and territories. SABER-Teachers collects, organizes and analyses information to classify levels (latent to advanced) at which education systems reach policy goals and publishes a framework paper on teacher policies, country and regional analytical reports on eight policy goals:

- Setting clear expectations for teachers;
- Attracting the best people into teaching;
- Preparing teachers with useful training and experience;
- Matching teachers' skills with students' needs;
- Leading teachers — with strong principals;
- Monitoring teaching and learning;
- Supporting teachers to improve instruction; and
- Motivating teachers to perform.

The information and analytical reports can be used by policy- and decision-makers to determine how their systems and comparable national systems meet policy objectives as a means to develop or revise teacher policies. Supporting laws from selected countries in the national languages are also available for consultation through the SABER website links.

2.3.8 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

The OECD annually publishes a report on education indicators in member countries and a number of middle-income partner countries. The most recent edition, *Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators* (http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm), contains teacher indicators and analysis on:

- Teacher salaries;
- PTRs and class size;
- Teaching time;
- Initial teacher education and professional entry requirements; and
- Professional development.

The indicators provide very detailed cross-country comparisons, which can help policy-makers assess their country's performance and progress over time in reaching certain policy goals as measured by the indicators.

Roughly every five years, the OECD also publishes the results of a survey of teachers and school leaders from more than thirty member and partner countries. The most recent publication, *Talis 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning* (http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264196261-en) emphasizes the experiences of teachers and school leaders in areas that research suggests can influence effective teaching, including: teachers' initial training and professional development; feedback from teacher evaluations; the classroom and school environment; teacher job satisfaction; and teachers' perceptions of their professional abilities. The report examines more closely than most international reports the intangible factors that influence individuals to choose teaching as a career, remain in the profession throughout the length of their career, stay motivated and perform effectively. It looks beyond statistics and indicators to understand the personal desires and frustrations affecting millions of teachers in their daily work, thereby helping to influence policy measures to create the best teaching and learning environment.

2.3.9 Global Partnership for Education (GPE)

The GPE maintains a focus area on teachers in its website and has published the Education Sector Analysis Methodological Guidelines (http://www.global-partnership.org/content/methodological-guidelines-education-sector-analysis-volume-1). Volume 1 of the guidelines focuses on primary and secondary education, providing guidance on integrating teacher policies in education sector policies and plans.

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CHAPTER 3.
Dimensions

As Chapters 1 and 2 establish, teacher quality is generally accepted as an important determinant – although not the only one – of education outcomes. Good-quality teaching and teachers rely on high levels of teacher professionalism and autonomy: teachers need to be active agents in ensuring effective teaching and learning. Discussion of teacher quality should be underpinned by a contextualized and clear understanding of the pedagogical processes that generate quality learning and how a teacher agency can enact them (Sayed and Ahmed, 2014).

Good-quality teachers are a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for successful education. Good teaching is the result of a complex combination of different skills and competencies, working environments and support, as well as factors such as motivation and commitment. A body of evidence now shows that a number of factors impact both positively and negatively on teacher quality or performance. These include: initial education, CPD and qualifications; class sizes and PTRs; employment conditions, including rewards and incentives; working conditions and environment; access to resources; respect for teachers and their perceived social and professional status; involvement in decisions which affect them; and professional autonomy.

This chapter examines the most important dimensions a teacher policy needs to address. Many are interrelated and rooted in the historical, political, cultural or economic contexts of a given country or education system. For this reason, they must be addressed together as part of a holistic, integrated teacher policy.

Although the chapter focuses on the most important elements of a teacher policy, these must be seen in the context of a specific country or education system. Some of these elements have been the subject of extensive research and study, and the space available does not allow an exhaustive discussion of each. This chapter sets out the basic principles of each dimension; it then provides references to more detailed sources (in the form of both embedded references and hyperlinks) to allow the users of this Guide to research them in greater detail, as required. The chapter presents the basic principles of nine key dimensions that are considered crucial to any comprehensive teacher policy:

- Teacher recruitment and retention;
- Teacher education (initial and continuing);
- Deployment;
- Career structures/paths;
- Teacher employment and working conditions;
- Teacher reward and remuneration;
- Teacher standards;
- Teacher accountability; and
- School governance.

3.1. Teacher recruitment and retention

The recruitment and retention of teachers is a fundamental aspect of any teacher policy. This section focuses on the need for a recruitment strategy based on:

- Current and projected needs;
- Attracting and retaining teachers;
- Employment status of teachers;
- Licensing or certification;
- Equity in teacher recruitment;
- Recruiting school leaders; and
- Recruiting teachers in fragile states and emergency situations.

3.1.1 Evidence-informed recruitment and retention strategies

A teacher recruitment and retention strategy should be viewed as a necessary complement to the national education programme or plan (see Chapter 2, Table 2.1), whether the strategy itself is national or decentralized/local. It should take into account, in equal measure:

- Quantitative needs – sufficient numbers for all classrooms, schools or learning groups at all levels of education (including ECE), geographic areas and subjects;

- Qualitative concerns – all teachers should be well-qualified, skilled and effective classroom practitioners, inasmuch as teacher education capacity and funding permit; and

- Current and projected future needs, for example the time span of an education plan and the teacher preparation and recruitment cycle.

A recruitment strategy should take into consideration the following factors (both current and projected):[7]

- Teacher attrition rates (teachers leaving the profession and due to retire);

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7   For more information see ILO, 2012; UNESCO, 2010a.

● Changes in birth rates and demographic trends: for example, changes in infant mortality rates and migration rates;

● Class sizes and PTRs;

● Impact of global education goals on school enrolment;

● Impact of the current expansion of ECE on the need for ECE teachers and on primary enrolment rates;

● Impact of increased enrolments and completion rates at lower education levels (pre-primary and primary) on the demand for, and enrolments in, higher education levels (primary and secondary);

● Urban/rural needs, particularly rural; and

● Gender profiles (the need to improve gender balance by recruiting more males in most countries/regions and more females in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia in particular).

Planning a recruitment strategy requires access to information:

● National data on the existing teaching force: education sector human resource information systems (also known as TMIS or EMIS) provide integrated, teacher-level information about teacher profiles, education and careers, as well as allow the monitoring of teacher recruitment, deployment, retention and education, teacher supply and shortages in key subject areas. These information systems also allow planners and policy-makers to see disaggregated data (in terms of age, gender, the urban/rural divide, etc.) about the teaching force. Where such systems do not currently exist, introducing them is an important first step towards developing a coherent teacher policy (ILO, 2012: 14–16; see also Chapter 2, Section 2.2.5 and Chapter 4, Section 4.4.4).

● Macro-level data, such as that produced by UNESCO-UIS (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3).

3.1.2   Attracting and retaining teachers

A teacher policy should have a recruitment strategy in place to ensure that an adequate number of the 'right' teachers enter the profession. It should identify the characteristics required of teachers and determine how to attract candidates with the desired profile. Likewise, the strategy should include plans to retain teachers: it is not efficient for education systems to use precious human and financial resources to train and recruit teachers who will not remain in the profession for at least a minimum duration. Strategies to retain teachers include:

● Targeted recruitment to ensure the future or trainee teachers selected are committed, motivated and aware of the realities of teaching, rather than simply seeking to obtain a qualification;

● Ensuring employment and work conditions are attractive and conducive enough to retain teachers;

● Providing real options for career advancement, linked to CPD and access to increased responsibilities, along with appropriate incentives; and

● Making a minimum period of exercise a requirement for benefiting from state-funded teacher training (so that teachers who do not teach for a minimum number of years after qualifying are required to reimburse part of their training cost).

A growing body of evidence shows that teacher attrition and low motivation are closely linked to factors such as work and employment conditions, remuneration, career prospects, administrative support for teachers (for example, timely payment of salaries), PTRs/class sizes, living conditions (especially housing and transport) and access to health care (Bennell, 2004; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Mulkeen, 2010; Mulkeen and Chen, 2008; VSO, 2002 and 2008). Where country-specific information is not already available, research may be commissioned on the factors impacting on teacher recruitment, retention and motivation in a particular context.

A strategy to attract and retain teachers will be specific to a particular context and should directly address those factors that have been shown to minimize the attraction of teaching, hinder recruitment and contribute to attrition (Box 3.1).

A recruitment policy may also encourage qualified, experienced teachers who have retired, taken career breaks or changed profession to return to teaching. Evidence shows that such a policy can provide a wealth of experienced teacher talent, particularly from the pool of qualified female teachers – often relatively young – who have taken career breaks for family reasons (OECD, 2005). Such returns should be structured as part of education human resource policies and should especially be accompanied with refresher training and ongoing CPD, in addition to induction and other appropriate professional support. Several states of Australia, such as Queensland (QCT, 2013), have organized and detailed programmes in place that clearly set out the requirements and conditions for returnees to reintegrate teaching.

3.1.3 Contract, para- and community teachers

A growing number of countries in Africa, South and Southeast Asia and Latin America have moved away from a teacher corps largely or exclusively devoted to permanently employed teachers (civil service or other) to engage large numbers of contract teachers. Contract teachers are recruited for a variety of reasons in different country contexts:

- Equity and access: to extend education access, especially in rural and remote regions facing difficulties to recruit qualified teachers;
- Economic: as a low-cost means of meeting budgetary constraints in teacher hiring;
- Accountability: to enhance local accountability by reducing teacher absenteeism and improving performance; and
- Diversity: to recruit local teachers from the same ethnic or language group as learners from disadvantaged groups to improve their learning outcomes.

Contract teachers are usually recruited on temporary or fixed-term (usually annual) contracts. They may not possess a teaching qualification, often have minimal pedagogic training (from a few weeks to three to six months at most) and are paid much lower salaries than regular teachers (as low as one-eighth of a regular teacher's salary). In many countries, contract teachers are younger, often less experienced and sometimes more female, but these profiles are not uniform (Duthilleul, 2005; Fyfe, 2007; Kingdon et al., 2013).

The results of the various regimes are mixed. Contract teachers have permitted substantial increases in enrolments and lower PTRs in West African countries, where they were first introduced on a massive scale. However, these countries still rank at or near the bottom of international classifications for access to education and learning. On the other hand, India's increased hiring of contract teachers has not worsened the quality of education, and in some local contexts may even have improved learning outcomes. The lower levels of training for contract teachers have reportedly been offset by an increased school and teaching effort, but the differences are often very small and the overall impact is minimal. Contract teachers are more likely to attend school than civil service teachers in Benin and India, but more likely to be absent in Indonesia and Peru (Alcázar et al., 2006; Bhattacharjea et al., 2011; Chaudhury et al., 2006; Senou, 2008). Absenteeism may be lower among contract teachers in countries such

as Benin and India partly because they typically live in the communities where schools are located and have fewer non-teaching responsibilities than civil service teachers (UNESCO, 2014a: 268).

Several conditions ensure the successful use of contract teachers that are not simply related to their status. Among these is greater parental or community involvement, because the teachers are recruited locally. In one experiment in Kenya, the benefit of halving class size by hiring a contract teacher was observed only in communities where parents had been trained to monitor teachers, and relatives of local civil service teachers were not allowed to be hired as contract teachers (Duflo et al., 2012). Similarly, in Mali, the language and mathematics scores of Grades 2 and 5 students were consistently higher under contract teachers who were closely monitored by the local community (Bourdon et al., 2010; UNESCO, 2014a: 259).

Several initiatives have been developed to integrate progressively contract teachers into national teaching forces. Contract and community teachers in Benin have been absorbed into the civil service with the necessary training to meet national pre-service standards. Indonesia has an ambitious teacher appraisal, professional development and career programme to integrate its large percentage of contract teachers into the civil service, at the cost of a sizeable increase in the government's education expenditure (Chang et al., 2014; UNESCO, 2014a: 258).

Several promising initiatives provide professional development support to untrained teachers through distance education. In Ghana, the Untrained Teacher Diploma in Basic Education programme provides support for more than half of the untrained teachers in the fifty-seven most disadvantaged districts (UNESCO, 2014a: 249).

Recruiting underqualified and undertrained community teachers can provide support for schools in remote areas and marginalized communities. In Viet Nam, the Teaching Assistants and School Readiness programme launched in 2006 has provided learning for over 100,000 children. Over 7,000 locally recruited bilingual teaching assistants in 32 provinces were deployed to help ethnic minority children in remote locations prepare for school through early childhood education activities for two months prior to their entry into Grade 1; the children were also provided additional instruction once they were in school, including help with learning Vietnamese (Harris, 2009; UNESCO, 2014a: 280). In Cambodia, teacher trainees normally have to complete Grade 12 for entry into teaching; however, this requirement was relaxed for remote areas where

upper secondary education is unavailable, resulting in an increasing supply of teachers who are motivated to stay in remote areas and able to teach in the local language (Benveniste et al., 2008; UNESCO, 2014a: 235).

Some high- and middle-income countries have developed similar systems recruiting top-level tertiary graduates as teachers directly from higher education. These alternative entry routes, first initiated in the United States with the 'Teach for America' programme, recruit university graduates who are motivated to teach in disadvantaged urban and rural schools, providing them with limited initial training and induction prior to beginning teaching. These programmes have spread to several other OECD and Latin American countries. Independent reviews of the 'Teach for America' programme have shown that the teachers are as effective in achieving learning outcomes based on standardized tests as other similarly untrained teachers, but not as effective as certified beginning teachers who have undergone traditional teacher education preparation. Moreover, 50% of these young people leave teaching after two years and 80% after three years – an even higher ratio than the average attrition rates in the USA. This high turnover rate is costly in terms of providing stable learning environments for disadvantaged pupils and the added recruitment costs to the educational authorities employing them (Vasquez Heilig and Jez, 2014: 1, 13–14).

A teacher policy should carefully weigh the pros and cons of large-scale recruitment of contract teachers in relation to education access, quality and diversity objectives. Although often necessary and beneficial for greater access in rural and remote areas in low-income countries, two different entry qualifications and standards lead to a reduced professional status that hinders recruiting high-quality candidates in the long run. Such a programme can also lead to a poorer teaching and learning environment in schools, created by tensions and reduced cooperation between contract and permanently employed teachers. Although some of the examples discussed above show that it is possible to formulate good policy in less than ideal circumstances, when developing an appropriate policy for contract/community teachers, it is advisable to:[8]

● Establish a timeline for ensuring parity between contract/community and civil service teachers;

● Provide the professional development these teachers require and need;

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8   ADEA, 2011: 26; ILO/UNESCO, 1966.6

- Institute induction, mentoring and supervisory programmes by qualified, experienced teachers or school directors to improve teaching practices;

- Ensure that contract/community teachers have similar rights and benefits compared to regular teachers; and

- Involve teacher union representatives in decisions on such policy.

3.1.4 Teacher licensing or certification

Most countries have procedures in place for the licensing or certification of teachers, to ensure individuals wishing to teach possess the necessary knowledge, competences and attributes. These vary widely, but may include education levels, teaching skills, citizenship, proficiency in the language of instruction, and medical and security checks. The individuals developing a teacher policy will wish to work with professional bodies (such as teaching professional councils where they exist) or create such structures where they are not in place, to ensure that the procedures for licensing teachers reflect wider development and education policy. Such measures will include reviewing licensing bodies and procedures, as well as ensuring coherence between the licensing policy and teacher education (see Section 3.2) and teacher standards (see Section 3.6). It is important to ensure that licensing processes are transparent and equitable, and do not result in the exclusion of particular groups or individuals (Darling-Hammond, 2001: 751–776; ILO, 2012: 16–17).

3.1.5 Equity in teacher recruitment

Equity and transparency in teacher recruitment and retention are fundamental principles. Equity should be understood not only as a practice that is inclusive in terms of gender, age, language and ethnicity, but as a broader approach impacting on the entire recruitment process. For example, recruitment policy and procedures should include practical measures to ensure equal access to candidates with disabilities, as well as candidates who belong to minority groups, come from rural communities, have family responsibilities or live with HIV. This requires policies or actions such as:[9]

- Publicizing recruitment opportunities amongst under-represented groups;

- Providing information or training to under-represented groups to ensure equal access;

- Setting targets for recruitment from certain groups;

- Using recruitment criteria that will not unfairly disadvantage some groups or individuals;

- Training recruiters in applying equity principles;

- Using positive action where necessary; and

- Ensuring transparent and fair recruitment procedures.

3.1.6 Recruitment of school leaders

Effective school leaders are among the main determinants of effective schools, effective teachers and hence, educational outcomes. In many contexts, however, school leaders or 'acting leaders/heads' are selected from within the existing teaching staff and assigned to school leadership functions without the necessary skills, training or authority to perform the role effectively (ILO, 2012: 42; OECD, 2014a: 68–70). A teacher policy should provide for a recruitment of school leaders underpinned by the principles of efficiency, equity and transparency. Although it is possible in some contexts to combine school leadership with classroom teaching, all school leaders should be formally appointed to and remunerated for their leadership responsibilities.

The recruitment of school leaders will be closely associated with education and training in school leadership, whether delivered prior to recruitment or in-service, as part of CPD. The process should be based on the standards required of school leaders in terms of qualifications, knowledge, competences, and attributes (see Sections 3.7 and 3.7.3). Qualification standards for school leaders are likely to include a combination of academic qualifications, professional teacher training, management training (including a focus on school administration, instructional leadership and school improvement) and a minimum period of teaching experience (ILO, 2012: 43; OECD, 2014a: 71–72).

The recruitment process should be based on these standards and designed to identify candidates who can meet them in a transparent and open manner. A framework for recruitment procedures and eligibility criteria has been recommended to facilitate the process. When positions for school leaders become vacant, they should be well publicized through locally appropriate and broadly accessible communication channels, both within and outside the school. Clear information regarding the required profile (person specification), the job description and the application process should be freely available. Selection panels should comprise employer, teacher and parent representatives, as well as members of school governing bodies or school councils who have been

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9   ILO, 2012: 9–11; ILO/UNESCO, 1966: Art. 7; UNESCO, 2014a: 234–236.

trained in recruiting school leaders. Where no candidate fulfils the specifications, a candidate who demonstrates the potential to perform the role with sufficient professional support, preparation and training may be appointed; in such cases, confirmation of the appointment should be made conditional on the candidate achieving the requisite level of qualification and performance within an agreed timeframe (ILO, 2012: 41–45; OECD, 2009: 22, 39).

3.1.7 Teacher recruitment in fragile states and emergency situations

There are very specific requirements in terms of teacher recruitment in fragile states and emergency situations,

including post-conflict and post-disaster contexts (PCPD). Such recruitment must be planned systematically and include: long-term coordinated plans to secure teacher supply and stability; clarity about work and employment conditions; and professional support and development for teachers working with learners experiencing conflict and trauma.

INEE has produced minimum standards for the recruitment and selection of teachers in emergency situations (Box 3.2).

BOX 3.2: MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR EDUCATION IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS

INEE has suggested that the objective in emergency situations should be: "A sufficient number of appropriately qualified teachers and other education personnel are recruited through a participatory and transparent process, based on selection criteria reflecting diversity and equity." (p.95)

Guidance notes to realize this objective recommend the following:

- **Job descriptions:** These are equitable and non-discriminatory, and include roles and responsibilities, clear reporting lines and a code of conduct.

- **Experience and qualifications:** Teachers are qualified and have appropriate credentials and skills to provide psychosocial support to learners and teach learners with disabilities. Where possible, teachers should speak the learners' mother tongue. Where candidates no longer have their certificates and professional documentation due to the emergency, their teaching skills should be assessed.

- **Selection criteria:** These should include academic background, teaching experience, including teaching children with disabilities, sensitivity to

psychosocial needs of learners, trade or other technical skills, relevant language ability.

- **Diversity criteria:** these should reflect those of the community, taking into account underlying social tensions and longstanding inequalities which may have an effect on the recruitment process.

- **Other qualifications:** teachers should be able to interact with and be accepted by the community; where possible they should be selected primarily from the affected community because of their understanding of the social, economic and political context.

- **References:** where possible, these should be checked to ensure learners are not put at risk.

- **Class size:** sufficient teachers should be recruited to set locally defined, realistic limits on class size.

For more information: INEE, 2010: 95–97

3.2. Teacher education — initial and continuing

A coherent and holistic teacher education framework is an essential component of a teacher policy. 'Strong, objective-led policy for teacher training, that clearly outlines supply and demand, budgetary and resourcing needs and how these will help meet education goals, is necessary at national and international levels' (ILO, 2012: 225).Teacher education includes three interrelated stages: initial teacher preparation; the induction period, when newly qualified teachers begin to teach and should receive supervised mentoring and support, prior to being licensed or certified; and continuing professional development or in-service education and training (INSET), particularly important for untrained or undertrained teachers (UNESCO, 2014a: 236).

3.2.1   Initial teacher education

Initial teacher education (also known as pre-service teacher education or training) is key to the teacher quality and performance. Darling-Hammond (2000: 1) notes that:

> The findings of both the qualitative and quantitative analyses suggest that policy investments in the quality of teachers may be related to improvements in student performance. Quantitative analyses indicate that measures of teacher preparation and certification are by far the strongest correlates of student achievement in reading and mathematics, both before and after controlling for student poverty and language status … This analysis suggests that policies adopted by states [in the USA] regarding teacher education, licensing, hiring, and professional development may make an important difference in the qualifications and capacities that teachers bring to their work.

In India, pre-service teacher training and having a Master's level qualification were found to have a significant positive correlation to learner outcomes (Kingdon, 2006). A study using the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) data set found that years of professional training in teachers showed a positive relationship to mathematics achievement in some cases, but not achievement of students in four out of five countries (Spreen and Fancsali, 2005).

However, initial teacher education should be part of an integrated professional development model linked both

to induction and mentoring at the beginning of a career and to ongoing professional development throughout a career. Initial teacher education is likely to be planned as part of a teacher recruitment strategy based on current needs (Section 3.1). For this reason, coordination among teacher preparation programmes, education ministries or departments – including decentralized structures – and the bodies responsible for financing teacher training and recruitment is essential, particularly as the emphasis moves toward more school-based, learner-oriented outcomes (ILO, 2012: 224–226; Moon, 2013: 11–14).

3.2.2   Candidate selection and entry requirements[10]

Too often, candidates are recruited on the basis of minimum entry requirements, without examining their attitude, motivation and suitability for the teaching profession. Selection processes may include interviews, aptitude tests and screening for suitability and motivation. Although costly to implement, such measures pay dividends in the medium- and long- term, in terms of enhancing teacher retention and performance. Providing scholarships for able candidates can enhance the recruitment of candidates to teach scarce subjects. Policy developers should introduce selection processes aimed at identifying suitable, motivated candidates for initial teacher training.

Entry requirements will vary according to the context: countries with few graduates may recruit candidates who have successfully completed secondary schooling – or even ten years of schooling – to train as primary teachers, while candidates for training as secondary teachers will require a degree. Minimum entry requirements should, however, strike a balance between attracting those with a sufficiently high level of education and the potential to become effective teachers and ensuring that there are sufficient candidates to meet needs. In general, revising minimum entry requirements upwards is an effective strategy to attract the most qualified candidates, thereby enhancing education quality. However, this has budgetary implications, since better-qualified candidates are more likely to be selected for other sectors and are therefore able to command higher salaries. Higher standards may also reduce diversity in teacher recruitment and negatively

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10   Sources and additional information: ILO, 2012: 231–237; Moon, 2013: 16–18; UNESCO, 2010a: 52–54; UNESCO, 2014a: 233–235; World Bank, 2013: 14, 28

affect equity concerns – resulting in fewer women, ethnic or language minorities, disabled candidates and hence fewer future teachers – entailing a trade-off based on the higher priority for initial teacher education (see also Section 3.2.6). Generally, where one of the objectives of a teacher policy is to improve education quality, minimum entry requirements for teacher training should be high enough to ensure that teachers with adequate knowledge, competences and attributes graduate from training (see the example in Box 3.3).

BOX 3.3: POLICY TO RECRUIT GOOD QUALITY CANDIDATES INTO INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION IN NEW SOUTH WALES, AUSTRALIA

Discussions on how to improve the quality of teaching and learning in schools in New South Wales, Australia led to a "Blueprint for action, Great Teaching, Inspired Learning", intended as a basis for reform. Recognizing that pupil performance is most closely influenced by teacher quality, this includes future directions for recruitment of suitable candidates for initial teacher education.

"Entrants into teacher education will be high academic performers, have well-developed literacy and numeracy skills and show an aptitude for teaching." Applicants admitted to initial teacher education must achieve specified minimum scores in their school leaving examinations and have literacy and numeracy skills equivalent to the top 30% of the population; where they do not meet the required literacy and numeracy benchmarks, they may be admitted to initial teacher education but will be required to complete study during their training and a new literacy and numeracy assessment before their final-year professional experience placement to demonstrate they meet the required skills levels.

"Teaching will attract more of the brightest and motivated school leavers and career changers." Incentives and scholarships will be targeted to attract more of the "best and brightest" school leavers into teaching, in particular in subjects where there is a shortage of teachers and in rural and remote communities. Secondary schools will be encouraged to identify high performing students with an aptitude for teaching as early as year 10 and encourage them into teaching, for example by providing work experience placements based on teaching careers.

For more information: NSW Government, 2013: 7–9.

3.2.3 Content, curricula and school-based teaching practice

The content and curricula of teacher training programmes will necessarily be specific to the local context, and should be aligned with national education policies and specific classroom issues, such as language policies. However, a converging body of evidence demonstrates that the most effective approaches to teacher education combine theory and practice, with trainees actively participating in their training. The most effective teacher training courses involve active, experiential, practice-based learning focusing on outcomes rather than inputs. These courses consider trainee teachers as 'reflective practitioners', who learn both by doing and reflecting on their practice.

This means that teacher training should include a significant amount of classroom-based teaching practice supervised by selected experienced, qualified teachers, where trainee teachers can develop school and classroom competences. Practical, school-based teacher training prepares trainee teachers for the realities of working in schools. Trainee teachers who are aware of the realities of teaching – including working in remote schools with few teaching and learning resources, where teachers need to be creative and motivated in order to perform well – are more likely to be effective teachers once they begin teaching. Teacher training colleges such as those run by the Humana People to People organizations explicitly train trainee teachers for this reality; the training includes preparing for living and teaching in remote communities, including producing teaching and learning aids from locally available materials (Humana People to People, 2013).

3.2.4 Profile/qualifications of teacher educators[11]

Effective, motivated and inspiring teacher educators are necessary to ensure trainee teachers are well trained, although few policy frameworks emphasize this aspect enough (Moon, 2013: 23; Naylor and Sayed, 2014: 11). Depending on the needs of the context, a teacher policy may include recommendations or requirements for the profile, qualifications and professional development of teacher educators. Teacher educators should understand and use active learning methods, and effectively support training. They should understand pedagogy and be able

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11   Sources and additional information: ILO, 2012: 240–242; Moon, 2013: 11–14; OECD, 2014a: 6–7; Naylor and Sayed, 2014: 9–10; UNESCO, 2010a: 236; UNESCO, 2014a; World Bank, 2013: 14–15, 28

to convey a variety of teaching methods, techniques and processes; be knowledgeable and experienced in practical issues related to day-to-day work in the classroom and schools; and be involved in or at least informed of research directly related to their area of expertise. They should be able to model good teaching behaviour in their classrooms, so as to give trainee teachers a genuine learning experience, with first-hand insights into teaching and learning that might not be fully appreciated or understood (for instance related to diversity of learners), were they to be discussed or conveyed in other ways' (European Commission, 2013: 9; see also UNESCO, 2014a). They should have in-depth knowledge of the national education system and its context; good skills in teamwork and collaborative work; and an enjoyment of teaching, so as to generate a positive attitude towards teaching amongst their students (ILO, 2012: 242–43).

Exercising the profession of teacher educator requires access and commitment to lifelong learning. In addition to keeping abreast of developments in education, teaching, and their own profession, teacher educators also need to be lifelong learners to promote lifelong learning with the teachers they train. As is the case for teachers, this will include selection and initial training, induction and career-long CPD (European Commission, 2013: 21).

Selection and initial training

Selection criteria may include formal qualification as a teacher educator; they may specify a combination of minimum qualification levels (such as a Master's degree) and teaching experience at primary or secondary level, or be based on a competency framework (see Section 3.7). Although teacher educators are often selected on the basis of their subject knowledge or research experience, rather than on their competence in teacher education, 'the criteria of entrance qualifications and prior experience can be useful instruments to provide a minimum level at the start of the teacher educator career' (European Commission, 2013: 21-22).

Induction

As many teacher educators do not benefit from specific training, an induction phase facilitates the transition from teacher to teacher educator. It promotes an understanding of the role, developing professional confidence and accessing the knowledge base and language of teacher education (European Commission, 2013: 22).

Continuing professional development (CPD)

Teacher educators should have access to and responsibility for undertaking ongoing professional development linked to agreed teacher educator standards (UNESCO, 2014a: 246–247). They should also undergo regular appraisals, linked to these standards and to their CPD plans. A policy may include formal requirements for CPD, or create incentives, mechanisms and favourable conditions to stimulate professional learning, including self-directed CPD.

Professional communities and associations of teacher educators help to develop and reinforce the professional identity of teacher educators: this needs to be developed from within the professional community and cannot be implemented only by policy measures (European Commission, 2013: 31). Such professional communities may be formal professional organizations, able to represent their members in dialogue with external stakeholders such as a unions, associations of individual members or professional associations with a regulatory function. Alternatively, they may be informal communities and networks of teacher educator professional.

Not only do teacher educators play a vital role in fostering, maintaining and improving high-quality teaching and learning, they are ideally placed to contribute to the formulation of education and teacher policy. Yet teacher educators and their representatives are too often neglected when policy is being developed, meaning that policies do not benefit from or reflect their knowledge and experience (European Commission, 2013: 29). Teacher educators and their representatives should be key players in the development and implementation of teacher policy in general and policies related to their own profession in particular (Darling-Hammond, 2006: 3, 13).

3.2.5 Qualification, induction of new teachers, mentoring and probation

Successful completion of initial teacher training, including the practicum, leads to qualification or obtaining Qualified Teacher Status (QTS). In practice, this is only the beginning of a teaching career, which will involve ongoing development. Before certification or licensing, newly qualified teachers may be required to successfully complete a probationary period. This provides an opportunity to encourage and induct new entrants in the world of teaching and learning, establish and maintain proper professional standards, and develop teachers'

practical teaching proficiency. While not all countries require a probationary period, it is increasingly viewed as an essential step prior to confirmation in a teaching career and should be considered a vital part of teacher policy. The normal duration of probation – usually ranging from several months to as much as three years (OECD, 2005) should be laid out in advance, and the conditions for satisfactory completion should be strictly related to professional competence. If a candidate teacher fails to complete the probation period satisfactorily, more professional support should be provided for a second chance, but ultimately a failure to successfully complete probation indicates a lack of suitability for teaching. Procedures should nevertheless be in place to ensure due process for those who want to appeal a negative assessment (ILO/UNESCO, 1966: Art. 39).

Where a probationary period precedes teacher certification, this may be associated with ongoing professional training or a formal induction programme, assessed by a formal examination or by the teacher, demonstrating the teacher meets the standard for certification. In Scotland, for example, the induction process lasts one year and ends with a formal assessment of a 'Final profile' submitted by the teacher to demonstrate fulfilment of 23 professional standards (European Commission, 2010: 33; see also Section 3.6 8). Where induction periods are used, the requirements and criteria governing them should be realistic and context-appropriate so they do not add disproportionately to the burden on newly qualified teachers and their supervisors.

Ideally, whether or not probationary periods are used, newly qualified teachers should undergo induction programmes where they can further the knowledge, skills and attitudes developed during initial training, supported by mentors who are experienced teachers. Along with other forms of professional support and mentoring programmes, induction for beginner teachers can enhance job satisfaction, increase the effectiveness of new teachers (as measured by higher learning gains) and improve retention (ILO, 2012: 22; OECD, 2014a: 88). Where there is little or no induction or other professional support, particularly in isolated contexts such as remote or minority language areas, teacher motivation and effectiveness suffer and teacher attrition is more likely (Bennell, 2004; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; VSO, 2008).

It is important that induction be regarded as one stage in lifelong learning, building on initial education and feeding into CPD; effective links must exist between the providers and coordinators of these different aspects (European Commission, 2010: 23).

Induction may be school-based (the school is responsible for supporting a new teacher); community-based (teacher unions provide support programmes); municipality- or cluster-based (municipalities or school clusters implement induction programmes); or based on a cooperative approach between schools and teacher education institutions (mentor training or group/individual mentoring organized by the teacher training institution; this approach is most commonly found within formal induction programmes during a probationary period). School clusters – which link a number of schools to promote the professional development of the teachers within the cluster – are a common form of professional development in the developing world, normally led by a co-ordinating school (which can be designated on a rotating basis) that initiates and promotes professional development. Teacher clusters share experiences and problems, and provide professional support. The key issues for clusters are ownership and control over the cluster.

Induction should provide new teachers with personal, social and professional support; it may include mentoring, inputs by expert teachers or teacher educators, peer support and self-reflection (European Commission, 2010: 16–21; ILO, 2012: 245–246). Research has found that successful induction programmes are comprehensive, collaborative and focus on professional learning:

- **Comprehensive**: the induction process is 'highly structured, comprehensive, rigorous and seriously monitored'; the roles of staff developers, administrators, instructors and mentors are well defined;
- **Collaborative**: the teaching culture is based on collaborative group work; the creation of a group identify is fundamental; new teachers are treated as colleagues, who share experiences, practices, tools and language.
- **Professional learning**: seen as one phase in a lifelong professional learning process, inductions focus on the growth, professional learning and professionalism of teachers (European Commission, 2010: 41).

Mentors play a key role in induction programmes and are growing in importance; in Singapore, structured mentoring programmes extend induction and the formative initial years for new teachers for up to two years (OECD, 2014a: 90, 93). Where experienced teachers act as mentors for newly qualified colleagues, criteria for their selection should be clear and based on competency frameworks;

there should be adequate support to and training of mentors, their mentoring should be regularly appraised, and they should be given a reduced teaching load and/ or incentives, such as a responsibility allowance (UNESCO, 2014a: 244). Where competency criteria are respected, using retired teachers to mentor newly qualified teachers can ensure their valuable experience and expertise are not lost to the education system once they leave teaching.

The absence of induction in many countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, may be one of the reasons for high attrition rates. Having a mentor from the same field or common planning time or collaboration with other teachers are factors that are most likely to reduce teacher turnover, with "teachers participating in combinations or packages of mentoring and group induction activities [being] less likely to migrate to other schools or leave teaching at the end of their first year" (Smith and Ingersoll, 2004: 706).

Policy-makers may consider a number of key questions when designing an induction programme tailored to the local context:

- What are the policy aims of the induction programme?
- Does the policy cover the key aspects of induction?
- Have all actors been involved in defining the policy?
- Are the roles and responsibilities of each actor clearly defined?
- Have all actors received the preparation they need to fulfil their responsibilities?
- How is the induction process integrated into the continuum of teacher lifelong learning?
- Have adequate financial and time resources been allocated?
- What measures can ensure that the policy is implemented consistently?

Box 3.4 contains a checklist for policy-makers.

BOX 3.4: A CHECKLIST FOR POLICY-MAKERS

Aims and objectives

- In what specific ways could a systematic induction programme benefit learners in your country, and fit in with your national policy goals?
- What are the expectations of stakeholders? (Minister, beginning teachers, serving teachers, school leaders, teacher educators, local authorities, unions, professional bodies ...)
- What will the policy aims of your induction programme be? What concrete measures will you use to measure progress towards these aims?
- In what ways do you want the induction programme to link to school development, or to the professional development of experienced teachers, teacher trainers and school leaders?

Design

- What kind of induction programme would fit your goals and national context? E.g,. one that is linked to a probationary period before registration as a teacher, or a non-formal programme? Will it be compulsory for all beginning teachers?
- What exactly are you looking for in a teacher? Does your country have an explicit statement of the competences that teachers must possess at each stage in their career?
- In what ways will your induction programme provide personal, social and professional support to all beginning teachers? Which people and institutions will have responsibility?

- In your context, how can you best provide interlocking systems for: mentoring, peer support, expert support and self-reflection?

Implementation

- Have you secured adequate financial support, especially for the training of mentors, and for reduced timetables for beginning teachers and mentors?
- Do you intend to introduce a pilot programme to test out your ideas?
- Does each of the stakeholders support the proposed scheme?
- Is the role of each of the actors (stakeholders) in the proposed scheme clearly stated?
- Have you put in place adequate structures for communication and cooperation between all relevant stakeholders? Is there a relationship of trust?
- Have school leaders been adequately trained and supported to create a culture of learning in schools?
- Have mentors been adequately trained?
- Does the induction programme build on the curriculum in initial teacher education and prepare for CPD?
- Have you an effective system of monitoring, review and quality assurance of the policy and procedures once implemented?

Source: European Commission, 2010: 38-39 (reproduced with permission).

3.2.6 Training in inclusion and equity

Principles of inclusion and equity should characterize all levels of initial teacher education, from the recruitment of trainee teachers to the recruitment of teacher educators, and the content and approach of the training. Initial teacher training curricula should include an explicit focus on training in inclusion and equity, so that trainees learn to teach in ways that are inclusive of all learners, regardless of gender, disability, ethnicity and language or membership of minority groups. Teachers should be aware of the mechanisms of exclusion, prejudice and discrimination, and should be enabled to adapt their methods and teaching aids to suit the different learning needs of different groups of learners, including those with special educational needs. Training should include education in citizenship and equity, to ensure effective participation. An equity focus in training would ensure that there are sufficient numbers of teachers who are trained to offer instruction in the home language (UNESCO, 2010d: 186–87; UNESCO, 2014a: 218, 239, 247).

Training in inclusion and equity in initial teacher education should reflect the national policy for inclusive education. Where such a policy does not already exist, governments should consider developing one, while ensuring coherence with the teacher policy.

3.2.7 CPD

As stated above, teacher education should be ongoing, and last for a teacher's entire career. Access to good-quality, regular CPD ensures that teachers are effective and motivated, and more up-to-date on subject knowledge, classroom skills and policy changes; the evidence shows clear benefits for increased learning (ILO, 2012: 75; OECD, 2014a: 97, 107). CPD should be aligned with other dimensions of an integrated, holistic teacher policy. Teacher career structures or paths, based on agreed standards defining the core competencies and behaviours a teacher should possess at different stages in their professional development (see Section 3.4 below), may include successfully completing CPD as a criterion for career and salary progression (see Section 3.6 below).

Teacher CPD should be well integrated with, and a continuation of, initial teacher education. Effective CPD should be school-based (to the extent that resources permit effective CPD in schools), practice-focused, integrated with teachers' everyday work in the classroom and linked to systemic reforms aiming to improve education quality. While CPD can significantly improve

student achievement, school systems need to think strategically about its content and delivery, and customize training to the specific needs of different teachers. In-person, on-site coaching is an effective way to deliver advice on classroom practice, and coaching should be the core of any good professional development programme. It should also be tailored to teacher needs, provided in schools and focused on teaching approaches (particularly learner-centred approaches) and skills that teachers can use in the classroom (Schwille et al., 2007; Sayed, 2009; UNESCO, 2014a: 245). Effective CPD should sufficiently lengthy and ongoing to make an impact on a teacher's practices – one-shot, short-term cascade training is not an effective form of CPD, particularly if the aim is to change teachers' pedagogic practices.

Employers should provide a supportive environment for CPD, including ensuring that teachers are granted the necessary time and opportunities for professional development while in school (OECD, 2014a: 107–108). It is important that school-based CPD include input from outside the teacher's immediate environment and experience. This might take the form of training courses facilitated by expert teachers at the school or cluster level, distance education courses using paper or electronic materials, or short residential courses in teacher training colleges (ILO, 2012: 77–79). Mentoring by expert teachers, as well as peer mentoring, peer observation and team meetings for lesson preparation and support, are all valuable aspects of school-based CPD (see also Section 3.2.5).

Given their status as professionals, teachers have both the right and the obligation to engage in CPD to develop their professional competencies and keep abreast of developments in their field. This is particularly important in the teaching profession, where views of good practices evolve regularly as new evidence becomes available. The principle of teacher ownership of their own professional development is important if teachers are to be active professionals, with a strong degree of autonomy over their practice in the classroom.

CPD should be available to all teachers, regardless of their level of qualifications and geographical location, so that they teach as 'reflective practitioners'. In particular, a teacher policy needs to identify creative ways to allow teachers deployed to rural and remote areas access to regular professional development opportunities. Offering attractive CPD options may be part of a package designed to incentivize teachers to accept remote postings for a defined period of time. One aspect of CPD for teachers

in remote postings is likely to be the creation of teaching and learning aids using locally available materials. The CPD opportunities offered by new technologies and blended learning are of particular interest to teachers in remote postings, as discussed below.

CPD should be included in education budgets at the national, regional, local or school level, depending on the nature of the education system. A teacher policy should integrate dedicated financing for CPD to avoid education monies being used for other purposes, such as salary shortfalls. An annual CPD allocation per teacher, adjusted for purchasing power parity, including the cost of paying to supply teachers where necessary, may be a strategy to finance CPD. Box 3.5 indicates a country example.

The provision of CPD should be included in education budgets, at national, regional, local or school level, depending on the nature of the education system. It is advisable that a teacher policy integrate dedicated financing for CPD to avoid education monies being used for other purposes such as salary shortfall. An annual CPD allocation per teacher, adjusted for purchasing power parity, may be a strategy to financing CPD and may include the cost of paying for supply teachers where necessary. Box 3.5 indicates a country example.

subject matter and teaching techniques will be very different at different times in their professional lives. This is why ongoing professional development plans, integrated with appraisals and personalized professional support, can help teachers plan their professional development, based on their current strengths, weaknesses and needs, as well as on the needs of their school and the wider education system. Indeed, CPD should be systematically tied to appraisals and feedback, based on established standards (OECD, 2013c; see also Box 3.6 below). Education systems with existing school development plans should integrate individual professional development plans within them. In this case, a review of teachers' individual plans can constitute one element of a school inspection. Supporting teachers in developing individual professional development plans can help them take ownership of and responsibility for their CPD. The plan then becomes the basis of an agreement between teacher and employer that lays out the conditions and responsibilities on both sides: how much time will be made available to the teacher for CPD, both in and outside the school? How will specific courses or other CPD opportunities be funded? What will the employer contribute to the teacher's CPD? What will the teacher contribute?

Box 3.6 below presents one example of CPD from Japan.

BOX 3.5: RECOMMENDATIONS ON RING-FENCING TEACHER CPD BUDGETS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (UK)

In 2010, after examining the available evidence, the Children, Schools and Families Committee of the UK House of Commons noted that the impact of professional development on teacher effectiveness is "often as much as an extra six months of pupil progress per year." The report found that "the specification of a minimum level of spending on professional development (as a percentage of the school's overall budget) would support wider efforts to embed a culture of professional development within the schools workforce" and recommended that "such ring-fencing of funds is put in place at the earliest opportunity."

For more information: UK parliament, (2010, p.47) https://publications.parliament.uk/pa/cm200910/cmselect/cmchilsch/275/275i.pdf

BOX 3.6: LESSON STUDY IN JAPAN — AN EXAMPLE OF CDP

'Lesson study' (from the Japanese term *jugyokenkyu*) is an example of team-based, teacher-led and ongoing CPD, which has existed in Japan for 200 years. The method has been highly successful in Japan and has also been adapted and implemented in other countries. Teachers meet to plan, discuss and improve their teaching practice. This may involve teachers collectively planning a lesson, then observing as a member of the group delivers the lesson to students. Following the lesson, the teachers discuss how the lesson went, how students reacted and what could be improved. The lesson may then be delivered again to a different group of students, incorporating the improvements.

The lesson study includes all the key characteristics of a successful CPD activity: it is based in the classroom and usually linked to school-wide efforts, as all teachers in the school are encouraged to participate. It is participatory, teacher-led, and focuses on discussions about how to improve teaching. It is centred on what students are being taught and how they are learning and is an ongoing process with constant feedback.

Source: © International Labour Organization, 2012, p. 76 (adapted with permission)

Teaching is a dynamic and constantly changing activity that evolves along with social needs and cultural, economic and technological environments, both global and local. Teachers also evolve throughout their careers: their confidence, teaching style and mastery of both

3.2.8 Teacher education and Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)

The possibilities offered by ICTs are essential to teacher education for two reasons: on the one hand, these technologies allow teacher training and CPD – both presence-based and delivered through distance training, including through Massive Open Online Courses, or MOOCs (Fyle, 2013) – to be coordinated and delivered either partly or wholly using electronic tools and media. On the other hand, teachers in the 21st century – where many learners are daily, or at least very regular, users of internet-based technologies – need to be aware of the potentials for ICT-based pedagogy in the classroom and conversant with the use of different educational tools. Evidence from middle- and high-income countries shows that teachers rate such training highly (OECD, 2014a: 107). The need for teachers to be able to support learners in using ICTs does not imply that such tools can replace teachers or substitute for traditional learning. On the contrary, the use of ICTs in the classroom requires thoroughly training teachers to use them and gain the skills to develop applications that are responsive to specific needs and over which they have ownership (IICD, 2007).

ICTs should be taught as a subject and embedded in subject teaching in initial and in-service teacher training (Latchem, 2010). A number of ICT competency frameworks for teachers exist, including the UNESCO ICT Competency Framework for Teachers (UNESCO, 2011). A review of national policies on ICTs and initial teacher education in 31 OECD countries reveals that many countries focus more on using them in continuing education rather in than initial teacher education. The review advocates increased integration of ICTs in initial teacher education, along with a clearer definition of the digital competencies required of teachers. More bottom-up development of national ICT policies and strategies for teacher education is needed, to avoid their being overly prescriptive and to ensure their credibility and ownership by the stakeholders who will implement them. Coherence is needed between the different ICT policies in areas such as curriculum development, teacher competency frameworks, and assessment frameworks and practices (Rizza, 2011: 40). UNESCO Bangkok presents case studies on integrating ICTs into initial teacher education programmes in Australia, China, Republic of Korea, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam (UNESCO, 2013).[12] Organizations with extensive experience and evidence on preparing teachers to use ICTs in the classroom include UNESCO, the Commonwealth of Learning (see Danaher and Umar, 2010, for an extensive review of country experiences and issues in open and distance learning and teacher education), the Commonwealth Educational Media Centre for Asia and OECD.

In addition to their use in initial teacher training, ICTs offer many valuable possibilities for CPD for distance teachers. Practising teachers can develop their professional skills and knowledge through exclusively electronic courses, accessed off- or online, or blended learning courses combining some presence-based training with autonomous study using digital materials. As well as facilitating the distribution of teacher education materials, the internet supports self-accessed CPD by allowing teachers to choose materials according to their own needs, aims and preferences, and caters to different learning styles and paces. However, teachers need to learn how to evaluate the available materials and tools critically and to make judicious choices, which usually requires some level of support. The internet also allows teachers to engage and communicate with other teachers and learn from one another within a wide community of practice. Technological developments mean that in many contexts, e-learning is now evolving into 'm-learning' (supported by mobile devices and wireless transmission), which offers greater accessibility to teachers in areas that do not currently have access to wired internet, but are covered by mobile phone networks (Mayes and Burgess, 2010).

3.2.9 Training teachers in Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)

Awareness of the unsustainable nature of many aspects of modern lifestyles and practices has prompted ESD, an approach to education based on the principle that education is key to promoting the values, behaviour and lifestyles necessary for a sustainable future. The UNESCO programme on Educating for a Sustainable Future has produced a teacher education programme, 'Teaching and learning for a sustainable future,' which aims to place environmental and sustainability issues at the heart of the teaching and learning process and to help learners 'better understand the world in which they live, addressing the complexity and interconnectedness of problems such as poverty, wasteful consumption, environmental degradation, population, health, conflict and human rights that threaten our future' (UNESCO, 2010b: www.unesco.org/education/tlsf/mods/theme_gs/mod0a.html). A teacher policy should include the principles of

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12   The space available does not allow a complete review of the issues.

ESD in teacher training and ensure that other aspects of the policy, such as school governance, are coherent with principles of sustainable development (UNESCO, 2010b).

3.2.10 Training of school leaders

Successful schools are often led by effective leaders; conversely, schools that are not doing well may have leaders who are struggling. School leaders have a vital role to play in ensuring the effective management of a school. In conjunction with a management team, which may include deputy heads, governors and/or representatives of other stakeholders, they are ultimately responsible for the education delivered within the school, for managing and supporting the teaching and non-teaching staff, and for fostering the material and moral environment of the school. This role requires carefully planned recruitment (see Section 3.1.6) and appropriate support and training, especially for less experienced school leaders and those in rural and remote areas. Training for school leaders should be based on the local context and identified needs; it will likely include management and instructional leadership focusing on managing teachers, including monitoring teachers' assiduity, time keeping, professionalism and performance; providing teachers with pedagogical support, guidance and counselling; interacting with and orienting learners and their parents; and handling financial and other management issues and school administration (ILO, 2012: 255–257; OECD, 2014a: 80–81; UNESCO, 2014a:

303). Initial training and CPD of school leaders should be based on standards defined within an appropriate competency framework, and linked with an appraisal system (OECD, 2009). Specialized leadership schools have been established in countries such as Australia and the United Kingdom to develop and promote standards and provide leadership training (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership – AITSL, 2014; UK National College for Teaching and Leadership, 2014).

3.2.11 Teacher education in post-conflict and post-disaster (PCPD) contexts

Teachers working in PCPD contexts require appropriate training, based on the needs of the specific context in which they are working and reflecting the needs of both learners and teachers. If possible, education authorities should coordinate the design and implementation of teacher education activities; where this is not possible, guidance and coordination may be provided by an inter-agency coordination committee. Because teachers in PCPD contexts may have varying levels of experience and training and may be older learners or community members, they should have access to training in core subject knowledge if needed, as well as in pedagogy and teaching methodologies, including positive discipline and classroom management, learner-centred, participatory approaches and inclusive education with regards to approaches to diversity and discrimination (INEE, 2010: 83–4). Training in the following may also be necessary:

- Codes of conduct for teachers, including condemnation of gender-based violence against learners;
- Disaster risk reduction and conflict prevention;
- Psychosocial development and support, including for teachers working with children dealing with trauma, and working with displaced communities;
- Principles and perspective of human rights and humanitarian law and how these interface with learners' needs and the responsibilities of teachers, learners, communities and education authorities;
- Other content appropriate to the context.

3.2.12 Public-private partnerships in teacher education

Although teacher training is often assumed to be the role of the state, under the auspices of ministries of education, there are many instances where non-state actors make an

invaluable contribution to teacher training. For example, NGOs may train teachers instead of – or on behalf of – the state: this might occur where state teacher training institutions and programmes are no longer functional (for example, during or following conflicts) or in parallel to state-run initiatives within integrated teacher education programmes. Either scenario requires a clear partnership framework, addressing aspects such as regulation and monitoring.

The existence of diverse teacher education partners, when well regulated and monitored, may contribute to the development of stronger teacher education methodologies and pedagogical methods throughout a national teacher education system. In Mozambique, for example, 11 teacher training colleges run by ADPP Mozambique, a national non-governmental organization that is a member of the Humana People to People Federation, function alongside a network of state-run teacher training institutions (Humana People to People, 2013). They teach the same curriculum, and trainees take a common examination; the ADPP-run institutions are widely considered to have had a positive impact on the teacher education training methods employed by the state-run institutions.

3.3. Deployment

3.3.1 Deployment strategy

A deployment strategy based on current needs requires reliable, up-to-date information about the characteristics, needs and preferences both of teachers seeking deployment and schools seeking teaching staff. As noted above, the efficient use of well-designed TMIS or EMIS is the most effective way of managing this deployment strategy (for more information, see ILO, 2012: 14–16).

Two basic models of teacher deployment exist:

● Centrally managed systems coordinated at the national or provincial/state/district level, which assign teachers to vacant posts; and

● School-based systems, where schools advertise vacant posts and teachers apply for them directly. Schools may also use intermediaries such as teacher recruitment agencies.

The choice of the model will depend on how public services, including education, have historically been organized in a given country. Each model has advantages and disadvantages. One of the negative effects of national or subnational deployment models can be the allocation of teachers to areas where they do not speak the home language, with negative consequences both on their well-being and their ability to teach. However, school-based systems may exacerbate existing inequities in teacher deployment, advantaging well-to-do and urban schools.

In theory, centrally managed systems should provide for a more equitable deployment of teachers, in terms of matching the needs of schools with the profiles of teachers seeking a position. In reality, both models result in allocating the more desirable posts – those in (often urban) schools with good performance records – to more experienced, highly qualified teachers. Posts which are less desirable to teachers – for example, in schools in remote rural, ethnic minority or disadvantaged urban areas – tend to be offered to the least qualified or experienced teachers, who may be the least able to cope with them. These posts are also more likely to remain vacant and to experience high turnover rates. Whether teacher deployment is centrally managed or school-based, interaction and communication between the national and local authorities is essential to ensure appropriate quantitative and qualitative deployment of teachers at the local level. Within a school-based system, a national teacher policy may seek to promote greater equality among local areas, so that inequalities are not further accentuated by schools' selection of teachers.

An effective deployment strategy must find ways of allocating teachers to appropriate posts, balancing the needs of schools and the well-being of teachers. Achieving this 'fit' is essential to allow teachers to perform well and ensure their commitment to the post. Developing a deployment strategy is a complex task, which should be linked to career structure, access to CPD and rewards and incentives. As such, it is a key aspect of a teacher policy, and includes financial implications that need to be costed. Financing a deployment strategy is part of the complex process of costing and identifying funding for a teacher policy described in Chapters 4 and 5.

3.3.2 Deployment to rural, remote and difficult urban areas[13]

In an effective deployment strategy, teachers are deployed where they are needed most. A deployment strategy should in particular ensure the provision of teachers in remote rural and difficult urban areas. Such a strategy must engage with the realities and specific needs of schools in these areas; it should identify, recruit and retain teachers who have the necessary skills and commitment to work in those schools and are able to engage with and motivate learners, their parents and the wider community. Several promising strategies allow deploying teachers to such locations:

- Rewarding service in hard-to-staff schools with accelerated progression along the career and salary path;

- Tying education subsidies to mandatory placements in rural or remote areas;

- Applying fast-track programmes giving teachers identified as future leaders access to Master's programmes or training in education management after a minimum period of service in a hard-to-staff school;

- Selecting and training students who are motivated to serve in rural or remote areas;

- Training and recruiting students from rural or remote communities;

- Facilitating professional development for rural education workers;

- Providing access to distance CPD, including distance programmes to improve academic or education management qualifications;

- Waiving fees to access distance education programmes;

- Offering study leave;

- Providing smart phones, e-readers or laptops and mobile Internet connections for CPD;

- Providing housing and/or transport;

- Providing real financial incentives that are not cancelled out by other incentives or advantages, and are important enough to motivate change; and

- Fostering interaction between urban and rural education workers.

As discussed above, meeting the needs of schools in hard-to-reach areas may also include recruiting and training local teachers, who are likely to be well accepted and integrated in the local community, already speak the home language and are committed to remaining in the school or local area. It should be recognized that these strategies are not mutually exclusive: a deployment strategy may include, for example, employing and training local teachers while simultaneously attracting teachers from other geographical areas by providing significant incentives, thereby fostering diversity and quality in the teaching staff of hard-to-staff schools. Incentive strategies are only effective if they are part of a well- designed and implemented policy that effectively mitigates perverse and unintended consequences.

> **BOX 3.8: STRATEGIES TO ENSURE EQUITABLE DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS IN SOUTHEAST ASIA**
>
> Countries in the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization have adopted a number of creative incentives to ensure teachers are deployed where they are needed: creation of special teacher positions for very remote areas (such as the mobile teacher programme in the Philippines); award systems or other incentives to attract teachers to underserved communities (housing allowance in Lao PDR, special stipends for some subject areas or funding for projects in Viet Nam); education stipends in exchange for agreed postings in remote areas (Indonesia and Lao PDR); awards and prizes (China, Philippines, Viet Nam); expanding multi-grade classrooms in small school districts (Lao PDR and Indonesia): mobile teacher programme (Philippines); local hiring, in-service training close to workplaces and simple, transparent information for local-level mangers about deployment (colour-coding scheme in Philippines).
>
> Source: Teacher Task Force, 2011.

Box 3.8 mentions the expansion of multi-grade provision as a strategy for equitable distribution. Multi-grade education is normally a strategy for developing countries to meet education needs in remote rural and farming areas, where there are low population settlements. UIS (2012) data suggest that in some countries in sub-Saharan Africa, including Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, Senegal and Togo, at least 10% of students study in multi-grade classrooms. In Chad, almost half of all students are taught in such classrooms. Cambodia's Education Sector Strategic Plan aims to develop training in multi-grade teaching methodology for teachers in remote schools, with priority given to those who already teach multi-grade classes. It

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13   For more information, see "Deployment to rural and remote areas for all teachers" (ILO, 2012) and "Teacher deployment" (UNESCO, 2010a, 67–74).

also aims to develop an annual action plan on multi-grade teaching in remote areas and those populated by ethnic minority groups (UNESCO, 2014a).

3.3.3 Deployment to initial postings

Deployment of newly qualified teachers to initial postings should be part of an integrated deployment system, and based on the principles of equity and transparency. Such deployment should also ensure that:

● Newly trained teachers are deployed to schools where they can benefit from support and mentoring from more experienced colleagues;

● Teachers are not deployed to postings where they may be vulnerable, due to their gender, ethnicity or other factors;

● Teachers with disabilities are deployed to postings where the infrastructure allows them to carry out their professional role and access the necessary support and facilities, including medical facilities;

● Teachers with medical conditions, including HIV and AIDS, are deployed to postings with appropriate support and medical facilities.

3.3.4 Deployment and the right to family life[14]

Deployment should respect the right to family life. People with family responsibilities, in particular with children of and below school age, should be deployed to postings that allow them to carry out these responsibilities. Postings should take into consideration the employment location of teachers' partners. Where postings are proposed that are not compatible with family life, family relocation packages should be offered, including appropriate accommodation. Teachers who accept postings that do not allow them to live in their family home should be offered travel expenses to allow them to return home regularly.

3.3.5 Managing transfers[15]

Provision should be made for transferring teachers whose personal or professional circumstances change, as far as this is compatible with the staffing needs of schools. Transfers should be managed according to the same principles of equity and transparency that govern deployment, balancing the needs of teachers and schools. The use of EMIS/TMIS can facilitate applications for and management of transfers.

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14   For more information, see "Placement criteria for first assignments" (ILO, 2012).
15   For more information see ILO, 2012: "Transfer criteria" (pp. 27-28) and "Management of deployment and transfers" (pp. 28).

3.4. Career structure/path

The existence of a career structure or path that allows for progression and development over a teacher's career is crucial to attracting, motivating and retaining teachers, thereby helping to build a teaching force with the necessary knowledge, competencies and attitudes to enhance learning. Fostering career progression ensures that there are experienced and competent teachers who can mentor and train less-experienced teachers. A career structure also impacts on teacher retention, as teachers are motivated by the possibility of progression. While career paths may be seen as costly, they are less costly than providing training for teachers who leave soon after their initial appointment to a teaching post. A career path should provide meaningful rewards and incentives, both financial and non-financial, to motivate teachers to progress. As discussed above, progression along a career path is linked to access to meaningful CPD options. CPD must therefore be aligned to the different roles within the teacher career structure, so that teachers can access systematic professional development that supports their career development.

The career structure should be equitable and allow equal opportunities in career progression; this will be based on effective job classification and clear, transparent, equitable criteria for evolution and for promotions. Career structures should reflect the needs of the education system and the individual context: if, for example, an education system suffers from excessive teacher attrition or a shortage of teachers with the necessary profile to become mentors or school leaders, the career structure should be adapted to respond to these needs (ILO, 2012: 54).

3.4.1 Diversified career development opportunities offering differentiated but equivalent paths

A good teacher career structure that reflects the needs of the education system will be diversified, offering multiple but equivalent career options for teachers.

Horizontal career development opportunities

Until relatively recently, the only way for teachers to progress beyond a certain point in terms of both responsibility and rewards, was too often to leave the classroom for positions in school management, education administration or policy development; this was known as 'vertical' career development. Today, a range of options allow 'horizontal' career growth, recognizing the need to allow good teachers to continue teaching and use their experience and competencies to benefit other teachers. A horizontal career path will involve several categories, with corresponding salary ranges. Promotion from the first category – that of newly qualified or graduate teacher – to confirmed teacher status may depending on the teacher becoming licensed or obtaining certification. Different education systems have established a series of different categories or levels, with titles such as 'accomplished teachers', 'expert teachers', 'leading teachers', 'mentor teachers', 'advanced skills' or 'master teachers'. Each category should be associated with a clear competency framework describing the required performance standards and the evidence used to define them (see Section 3.7).

Opportunities for horizontal career development usually include remaining in the classroom as an 'expert' or such as curriculum and materials development, colleague support and mentoring, planning and teaching coordination within a given subject area or grade (as head of department or head of year), or 'advanced skills' teacher, while taking on responsibilities supporting school leadership. It may also include outside school roles, such as mentoring teachers in a cluster of schools, providing leadership or training to groups of teachers, or contributing to curriculum development or research. In addition to increased salary, such positions may entail additional rewards, such as 'teaching and learning responsibility payments', grade and subject coordinator allowances, mentoring allowances, or reduced teaching hours.

Vertical career development opportunities[16]

Vertical career paths typically involve progression to a teaching support role, usually in a management or leadership position. Such paths often include promotion to head teacher or deputy head teacher, school inspector, teacher trainer, education officer at district, regional/provincial or central level, or administrative, management, advisory or planning posts in ministries or departments of education. There are advantages to promoting teachers to vertical career opportunities, provided such promotions are accompanied by the necessary training and support. Teachers who know the reality of the classroom and the school environment are more likely to apply this inside knowledge in their new role; their expectations and management of schools and teachers may therefore be fairer and more realistic. The risk, however, is that their contributions may be limited by existing practices, and that they might be less likely to instigate significant positive change. Whenever teachers are promoted to school leadership positions, they should be formally appointed, receive training in leadership functions and be remunerated for these responsibilities.

Leave terms and access to part-time teaching within a diversified career structure[17]

Giving teachers access to leave and enabling them to teach part-time at various stages in their career is an important component of a diversified career structure. Teachers should be entitled to take leave or perform part-time work so that they may undertake further professional development or training to further their career progression. They should be able to train to move from one level of education to another, for example from ECE to primary teaching (see Sections 2.1.3 and 3.2). Moreover, the flexibility and ability to combine a career with other responsibilities, such as caring for young children, taking on different family responsibilities, or pursuing other personal or professional development plans, is a factor in attracting and retaining individuals to teaching. Such flexibility exceeds statutory leave entitlements, such as maternity leave or sick leave for chronic and debilitating illnesses. It requires a policy to provide for, employ and fund substitute teachers (also known as replacement or supply teachers) to cover for teachers on different types of leave.

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16   For more information, see ILO, 2012: "Career diversification and job classification" (pp. 54-61).
17   For more information see "Diversified career structure and leave terms for specific groups of teachers" (ILO, 2012: 63-71); "Leave terms" (ILO, 2012: 71-74); and "Study and professional development" (ILO, 2012: 75-79).

A career structure should include a provision for teachers to apply to work part-time at certain stages in their personal and professional lives, with the possibility of returning to full-time work once their circumstances change. Allowing individuals to work part-time or take a period of leave is likely to retain teachers who would otherwise be forced to resign or retire early. Applications for access to leave or part-time work should be considered, taking into consideration the current needs of the school or education system and the possibility of recruiting replacements to cover the leave or part-time work. Such applications should be based on clear, transparent and equitable principles and criteria.

3.5. Teachers' employment and working conditions

A teacher policy should strive to establish the most conducive working (teaching/learning) environment for motivating individual teachers and the school team to achieve three simultaneous and interacting goals:

● Produce the highest levels of professional teaching and job satisfaction;
● Focus on core teaching and learning responsibilities; and
● Maximize teacher effectiveness, measured by learning achievements or outcomes.

A number of principles should guide policy on education working environments:

● The work of professional teachers is enhanced by the provision of a supportive working environment in which:
  • Teachers are able to work autonomously;
  • Their responsibilities are clearly delineated; and
  • Management/supervision strikes a balance between respect for teacher autonomy and fulfilment of their responsibilities to learners.

● Teachers will provide a high level of professional service based on policies they help design, implement and evaluate;
● Teachers are able to foster the best learning environment for students and help achieve the highest learning outcomes if they are provided the time and support to engage in:
  • Collegial activities within the school team;
  • Appropriate and regular interaction with students and parents;
  • Professional development and other reflective activities as a regular part of their professional activities.

In accordance with international standards, policy on teacher working conditions should be established in consultation or negotiation with teacher union representatives – also a key factor in improving learning quality (ILO/UNESCO, 1966; ILO, 2012; OECD, 2005; UNESCO, 2014a).

Employment and working conditions have a strong impact on the perceived status of the teaching profession, on the profession's ability to attract and retain high-quality candidates, and on teacher motivation, morale and profession satisfaction (see, for example, Bennell, 2004; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Mulkeen, 2010; Mulkeen and Chen, 2008; VSO, 2002 and 2008; UNESCO, 2010a). The working conditions that affect positively or negatively teachers' motivation and morale, as well as attraction, retention and commitment, include:

● Hours of work, workload and work-life balance;
● Class sizes and PTRs;
● School infrastructure;
● Availability and quality of teaching and learning materials;
● Student behaviour and discipline;
● School violence; and
● Autonomy and control.

3.5.1 Hours of work, workload and work-life balance

The 1966 Recommendation (Articles 89–93) calls for hours of work to be based on all dimensions of teachers' work and on personal and family needs. However, in many contexts, teacher contracts are not explicit about exactly the definition of 'hours of work'.

Whether based on a definition of teaching/instructional time, presence at school/work or total expected hours of work by day, week, month or year, a teacher policy should

set out teachers' expected hours of work taking into consideration:[18]

- Teaching/instructional time as the core teacher responsibility based on numbers of learners and classes;
- Instructional support time based on lesson preparation, student assessment and counselling;
- Professional development time in or out of school, including personal reflection, mentoring, collaborative teaching and learning;
- 'Administrative' responsibilities, such as student supervision, record-keeping and other school management tasks;
- Extra-curricular activities, including after-school clubs, school trips and projects;
- Parent/guardian interaction time;
- Specific conditions applying to teaching and learning in rural, remote and disadvantaged areas, including double shifts and multi-grade classes.

In addition to defining teachers' hours of work, it is within the remit of a teacher policy to define certain principles of classroom teaching, notably in relation to private tutoring, which in some contexts displaces classroom teaching (see UNESCO, 2014a: 271–72 for a discussion of this issue and examples of policy responses from a number of countries).

Where schools function in several shifts owing to insufficient schools or teachers for the school-age population, teachers are often required or choose to undertake multi-shift teaching. Where teacher salaries for single-shift teaching are inadequate, this 'choice' is actually a necessity. Multi-shift teaching leads to reduced instructional time for pupils and tired, less committed teachers; it jeopardizes education quality and is one of the factors contributing to low social and professional esteem for teachers in many poorer countries (ILO, 2012; UNESCO, 2010a; VSO, 2008). Policy-makers are encouraged to work towards phasing out multi-shift teaching as soon as possible; furthermore, teachers should not be obliged to teach multiple shifts through financial necessity owing to unacceptably low salaries (see Section 3.6).

A good teacher policy will allow for flexible workloads and time arrangements to meet teacher effectiveness and work-life balance goals, including arrangements favouring younger or older teachers, men and women with family responsibilities, teachers wishing to work part-

time or in job-sharing arrangements, and teachers with special health conditions such as HIV status or a disability. Such policies will need to adjust for and, inasmuch as possible, avoid overly burdening teacher administration/management. They may include provisions for:

- Flexible working hours — staggered hours and 'flexitime';
- Shorter or compressed working hours or weeks, including part-time work;
- Work- and job-sharing;
- Certain types of shift work; and
- Individualized working hours, subject to respecting expected workload overall and learner needs (ILO, 2012; OECD, 2005).

3.5.2 Class size and pupil-teacher ratios (PTRs)

Class size is a significant factor in teacher workload and job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Larger classes are associated with lower levels of professional satisfaction in a number of countries (UNESCO, 2010a).

In addition to establishing teacher recruitment needs as a function of desirable PTRs, a teacher policy may establish regulated limits or more flexible indicators for class size as a measure of the real teaching and learning environment. Notwithstanding claims that class size is not an important policy matter for learning success, sufficient evidence supports establishing class size regulations or indicators targeting teacher effectiveness and learning goals, especially:

- Creating learner-centred approaches (which are compromised by excessively large classes);
- Allowing teachers to give pupils maximum individual attention, with provisions as needed for small group or individualized instruction, or larger groups with teaching aide support, including ICT-based methodologies; and
- Targeting specific groups of learners or education levels, such as disadvantaged learners, dual-language classes, learners with special educational needs, early childhood and early primary learners.

The evidence from research and real-life experiences points to the importance of policies that address the specifics of class size in accordance with country contexts, especially as they pertain to:

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18   European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2013; ILO, 2012; ILO/UNESCO, 1966; UNESCO, 2014a.

● Ensuring equity in class size targets between regions/ districts, rural and urban areas;

● Providing training and support to help teachers adapt pedagogical methodologies to realize learning gains for smaller class sizes; and

● Providing training and support for teaching excessively large, double-shift or multi-grade classes.

Because of its implications for teacher recruitment requirements and therefore available resources, as well as the need to maintain quality standards in smaller class sizes, class size policy must take into consideration current, projected and potential education financing (see Section 3.6) (ILO/UNESCO, 1966; ILO, 2012; OECD, 2005; OECD, 2013a; OECD, 2014a; UNESCO, 2014a; UNESCO/OREALC, 2013, World Bank, 2013).

3.5.3   School infrastructure

School infrastructure is a major factor in educational outcomes and teacher satisfaction, motivation and social status. Poor, inadequately maintained school infrastructure and furniture hinders learning and sends negative messages about the value of teachers and education (UNESCO, 2014a; VSO, 2002 and 2008). Teachers should have access to staff rooms or dedicated spaces where they can undertake non-instructional professional tasks, consult with colleagues, and so on. Teachers' employers have a duty of care to ensure that school buildings are safe and functional for effective teaching and learning and extra-curricular activities, in cooperation with teachers and their representatives. Teachers and other school staff should be consulted on school design and construction.

Schools should meet established sanitary standards. They should have a clean, safe water source and sanitation facilities that are adequate in quality and quantity, including separate, safe toilets for male and female students and male and female teachers, with nearby hand-washing facilities.

Since the school infrastructure necessarily affects the well-being and effective development of pupils, teachers and other school employees, it is a matter for wider education policy. However, a teacher policy may set out the principles of teacher consultation in school design and maintenance issues, as well as a safe, hygienic, functional working environment for teachers (see also Section 3.9 on school governance and Section 3.10 on the school environment).

3.5.4   Availability and quality of teaching and learning materials

The availability to teachers of sufficient, good-quality instructional materials and to learners of sufficient, good-quality educational supplies and materials, including text books, is a major factor in teacher satisfaction and motivation, as well as in educational outcomes (UNESCO, 2014a). Teachers should be consulted on the types of teaching and learning materials they will use, and involved in their choice and development (ILO/UNESCO, 1966). In addition to prioritizing the availability of good-quality teaching and learning materials, a teacher policy may promote creative solutions to maximize instructional effectiveness. In low-resource contexts, teacher education – both initial and continuous – can focus on helping teachers deliver effective teaching using the locally available resources, as well as training teachers to produce teaching and learning aids using local materials. Where teachers are expected to create their own teaching aids, this should be reflected in their hours of work.

3.5.5   Student behaviour and discipline

Teacher policy should attempt to address the classroom environment within the measures designed to improve teacher health, safety, job satisfaction and effectiveness, thereby ensuring better learning outcomes. The evidence from high- and middle-income countries has underlined the growing importance of student indiscipline and misbehaviour in classrooms and schools; it points to a major impact of student behavioural issues on teachers' job satisfaction and sense of self-efficacy. The quality of school governance and management (Section 3.9) is a major factor in creating better school and classroom environments for teachers and learners (ILO, 2012; OECD, 2005; OECD, 2014a; UNESCO/OREALC, 2013).

3.5.6   School violence

In many countries, teaching is a high-risk profession. In recent years, attacks on schools, teachers and pupils have occurred frequently in countries including Afghanistan, Colombia, Georgia, India, Iraq, Nepal, Pakistan, Palestine, Thailand and Zimbabwe. Schools and teachers may be attacked for any number of reasons: to prevent education, especially girls' education, from taking place; to target students, teachers or academics for their views, political activity, support for human rights or involvement in trade union activity; during security or military operations, or as a part of military tactics; to abduct children and adults

to join rebel or armed forces; or to provide forced labour or sexual services. Whatever the motives, such attacks 'involve the deliberate use of force in ways that disrupt and deter provision of or access to education' (UNESCO, 2010c: 27–28). Such school violence has many consequences for teachers, including:

- Physical effects on individuals, including loss of life and injury;

- Physical effects on and loss of school buildings, school equipment, and teaching and learning materials;

- The psychological effects of murder, injury, torture and disappearance of students, teachers and staff, including trauma, fear, insecurity, de-motivation and despondency;

- Children who are afraid to go to school, parents who are afraid to send them and teachers who are afraid to go to work;

- Negative effects on teacher recruitment and retention;

- School closures;

- Limiting education's contribution to economic, political and human development; and

- Attacks on education trade unionists deny teachers and their representatives influence on the provision of education, which in turn undermines the quality of the education provided (UNESCO, 2010c: 27–28).

Context-appropriate policies to promote the support and protection of teachers will constitute one element of a policy response to "promote respect for schools and other education institutions as sanctuaries and zones of peace in order to protect the right of education" (UNESCO, 2010c: 36).

Other forms of violence in schools, such as gender- based violence against female pupils and teachers, as well as corporal punishment, are perpetuated by teachers themselves: gender-based violence damages girls' chances of learning and is a factor in female teachers leaving the profession (UNESCO, 2014a: 266, 269). A teacher policy should feature provisions to make teachers aware of their professional roles and responsibilities and establish penalties for teachers who breach professional conduct codes (as set out also in Section 2.1.4). The policy should refer explicitly to violence against pupils; penalties should reflect legal child rights and protection frameworks, and should be effectively applied (UNESCO, 2014a: 303). In Kenya, new Teacher Service Commission regulations, drafted with support from teachers' unions, contain provisions for teachers convicted of sexual offences

against pupils to be deregistered (UNESCO, 2014a: 269–70) (see Box 3.9).

BOX 3.9: **GOOD PRACTICE FROM KENYA TO DEVELOP AND IMPLEMENT POLICY ON GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE BY TEACHERS**

Working directly with teacher unions is a way to build support for taking action against teachers who violate codes of conduct. In Kenya, the Stop Violence against Girls in School advocacy team collaborated with the Teacher Service Commission, the Ministry of Education, the Kenya National Union of Teachers and the Children's Department to draft a parliamentary bill based on a 2010 Teachers Service Commission circular on sexual abuse. The bill aims to reinforce procedures for reporting incidences of abuse or violence carried out by teachers, and to ensure that convicted teachers are not simply transferred to other schools. The circular states, moreover, that any failure to report or attempt to cover up an incident would lead to disciplinary action. The Union, which previously was often a block to reform, is now reported to be committed to avoiding protection of teachers found guilty of an offence, and a centralized database has been established to track teachers convicted of sexual offences.

Source: UNESCO, 2014a: 270.

3.5.7 Autonomy and control

Teacher professionalism is associated with a 'bundle' of factors: high-quality initial and ongoing education; relatively high levels of reward and social status; and a degree of autonomy and control over professional practice for both individual teachers and the profession as a whole. These different elements interact: teacher quality and education must be sufficient to allow for effective teacher autonomy. In Finland, teachers have a high educational, social and professional status and enjoy a high degree of autonomy over their classroom and working conditions, having 'earned the trust of parents and the wider society by their demonstrated capacity to use professional discretion and judgement in the way they manage their classrooms and respond to the challenges of helping virtually all students become successful learners' (OECD, 2011b: 11; see also Box 2.3). Conversely, where teachers and their representatives lack influence and control over their working practices and working conditions, they are more likely to feel demotivated, less empowered and less able to produce the best possible outcomes for learners. This, in turn, leads to a vicious circle of low social status, low motivation and morale, and poor professional performance and outcomes. A holistic teacher policy will

promote strategies to progressively develop a high-quality teaching profession by promoting the different dimensions of professionalism, including greater autonomy, as part of an integrated approach.

3.5.8 The employment relationship

The relationship between employer and employee is defined by rights and obligations. A teacher policy should lay out the terms of the employment relationship between teachers and their employers. In some cases, this may be included as a separate policy under labour law, in which case the teacher policy should be aligned with such

a policy. The teacher policy should define teachers' rights and responsibilities, which are specific to the country and context. These include provisions and procedures for teacher recruitment and employment, certification, tenure or job security, evaluation/appraisal and dismissal. In many cases, they also include the right to freedom of speech and religion and – where these are not covered by a separate policy – the possibility of belonging to a union and taking part in collective bargaining. The policy may also define instructional rights and responsibilities, such as what can and cannot be taught, academic freedom, methodology, grading policies, use of student records and student safety and well-being (Osborne and Russo, 2011).

3.6. Teacher reward and remuneration

Reward' includes the full range of monetary and non-monetary payments provided as compensation for work, typically as a 'bundle' of different components. In addition to base pay (basic salary), such rewards as targeted allowances, bonuses and a wide range of financial and non-financial incentives, including pensions and other forms of social security, leave entitlement and access to CPD opportunities, can act as policy levers. A comprehensive teacher policy will foresee all of these factors in relation to teacher recruitment, retention, development, motivation and effectiveness. They form part of the teacher reward policy to a greater or lesser degree depending on national needs and circumstances.

3.6.1 Salary policy

Teacher salary is important to teacher recruitment and retention. From a labour market perspective, education systems that pay attractive salaries relative to comparable professions will prove more successful in attracting and retaining good-quality teachers. Individuals' decisions to become teachers and enter teacher education programmes are especially influenced by salary levels and professional incentives that together contribute to making teaching a high-status career. A salary policy that values teaching in comparison to other career choices helps attract the best secondary school graduates to the teaching profession. The evidence within the last decade points to salary as a key (although not the only) factor in the success of what are now known as 'high-performing education systems' (OECD, 2005; OECD, 2013a; World Bank, 2013).

Conversely, where teacher salaries are not perceived as commensurate with the levels of education, training and responsibilities required, or do not allow teachers to live decently without taking second jobs, the teaching profession loses in prestige, with an adverse impact on the three policy concerns of teacher recruitment, motivation and retention. Salaries that do not meet even the basic household poverty line in very low-income countries result in teacher recruitment difficulties, absenteeism and low teacher performance of various kinds (UNESCO, 2014a: 254)

To meet the policy objectives, teacher salary levels should be established in relation to:

● National income levels – usually measured in GDP per capita;

● Minimum living standards in very poor countries;

● Comparator professions: professions requiring similar qualifications, length of training, knowledge, skills and responsibilities; and

● Education authorities' fiscal or revenue capacity (ILO, 2012: 148–150; UNESCO, 2010a: 2–3).

For many countries, policy that meets the multiple demands of recruitment, retention, motivation and effectiveness will increasingly be placed in the framework of the post-2015 EFA agenda and discussions of cost-effectiveness, entailing in many cases difficult policy choices and trade-offs (GPE, 2014: 152–156, for issues of status and salaries).

In some contexts, this will mean prioritizing education funding over other claims on resources. In part because of its proximity to much richer South Africa, Lesotho, one of the poorest countries in the world, spends 13% of its GDP and over 30% of total government expenditure on education to maintain teachers' salaries at much higher levels than in many comparable African countries – between 3 to 5 times GDP per capita in 2005, but still below other public servant salaries (Mulkeen, 2010; GPE, 2005: 6–7).

Many low-income countries have been advised to limit teacher salaries to a benchmark initially established under the EFA Fast Track Initiative (FTI) at 3.5 times GDP per capita, in order to ensure resources for other teaching and learning needs. Such a benchmark has been a factor in large-scale hiring of contractual teachers (see Section 3.1). If used, it should be adjusted as a function of the country's GDP – especially in very low-income countries with a small formal-sector economic base – otherwise it may lead to unreasonably low salaries that sometimes below national poverty lines (UNESCO, 2010a: 16; UNESCO, 2014a: 254). Since such a benchmark also does not necessarily take into consideration the comparative salaries of other public or private sector jobs in the country requiring the same level of training and responsibilities, it can be a disincentive for teacher recruitment and retention.

In some countries, higher salary levels may require trade-offs with other policy objectives because of the limits on government revenues. The most obvious trade-off is between salaries and teacher numbers, and the PTRs and class sizes that depend on them. Teaching, instruction time or total required hours of work may also be increased to reduce the required numbers of teachers and create more capacity for higher salaries. In both cases, the potential impact on teaching and learning quality should be weighed before adopting policies that increase class sizes or teaching time – both of which have an impact on teachers' workload (Section 3.5) and may decrease teacher job satisfaction in challenging classroom conditions (OECD, 2013a: 191).

In fact, some high-income countries choose to pay much higher salaries to well-trained teachers and accept relatively higher PTRs and class sizes in exchange. The Republic of Korea, Japan and Singapore are high-income countries with average class sizes in secondary education that exceed thirty learners per class and slightly less in primary education, but still well above the OECD average. These countries pay their teachers considerably more than the GDP per capita or the average salaries earned by education graduates in comparable public or private sector jobs (OECD, 2013a: 45; OECD, 2014b: 411, 454).

Middle-income Indonesia, on the other hand, has chosen in recent years to emphasize salary increases for civil servant teachers as part of a greater professionalization of teaching, while at the same time keeping PTRs relatively low, partly thanks to the large-scale hiring of contract teachers. Like civil servant teachers, these contract teachers are also expected to benefit eventually from employment, salaries and professionalization measures (Chang et al., 2014; UNESCO, 2014a).

Those countries that already have very large PTRs and class sizes, particularly in primary schools, while at the same time struggling to achieve UPE and EFA and facing large-scale teacher shortages, will face difficulties in choosing this type of trade-off as part of a teacher policy. And alternative to massively recruiting lower-paid contract teachers while maintaining salaries at a level sufficient to attract and retain good teachers might be to expand and diversify the funding sources for education. Many countries with low salaries and recruitment/retention difficulties have relatively low levels of funding for education as a percentage of GDP or GNP. Only 41 countries in the world devote at least 6% of their GNP to education, which is the recommended goal for achieving EFA. Despite significant increases since 2000 in the low-income group as a whole, 25 of these countries dedicate less than 3% of GNP to education; some actually decrease funding even further. A substantial increase in those countries not yet reaching the 6% goal would permit allocating a greater share of the budget to education, which would in turn provide more funds for hiring and paying reasonable salaries to the teachers needed to meet shortages (UNESCO, 2014a: 24, 110–113).

Policy choices are also more difficult for countries that substantially depend on international aid for their education funding. Long-term funding commitments from international donors are necessary to supplement national government' commitment to prioritize education funding, including teacher salaries. There is also a need for policy dialogue and coherence among all partners and education funders. Despite the principles of aid effectiveness – which promote aligning donor funding mechanisms with strategic targets in the education sector – donors favour supporting projects over supporting budgets, due to the absence of reliable medium-term budget frameworks and fears of financial mismanagement (Steiner-Khamsi, et al., 2008: 43, 46; OECD 2005/2008). Combined with a reluctance to support recurrent costs

(such as teacher salaries) and cutbacks in aid to education in recent years, this means other sources of funding need to be found at the same time that pressure is applied on major donors to honour previous commitments (UNESCO, 2014a: 127–133).

A number of ways have been suggested for 'creating fiscal space' to make increased resources available to fund teachers' salaries. These include:[19]

● Increasing revenue through better tax collection, and reduced exemptions and tax evasion;

● Diversifying the tax base to include large corporations, small- and medium-sized enterprises and the informal sector;

● Reprioritizing spending within government budgets towards education and away from relatively non-productive budget lines such as military spending;

● Relaxing restrictive international practices on responsible government borrowing; and

● Aligning donor aid policies for macro-economic stability with recurrent education expenditures such as teacher salaries.

3.6.2 Teacher salary scales[20]

Many countries use a single salary scale, featuring classes or bands based on academic qualification and incremental salary progression within these, based on seniority or years of service. They are increasingly using skill or performance levels, based on standards defined in competency frameworks, as a basis for salary increases (see Section 3.7). Typically, regular incremental increases within such salary scales are based on years of experience, whereas larger increases are associated with movement up the skill levels defined by the career structure – for example, from newly qualified teacher to professional licence holder, then accomplished teacher, then expert teacher (or whatever terms are used in a particular career structure, as described in Section 3.4).

In many countries, it is not possible to make changes to the civil service teacher salary scale without extending these to all civil servants.

3.6.3 Other financial incentives[21]

In addition to base pay or basic salary – which may include retirement pension and social security provisions (including medical care and sickness benefits, employment injury and invalidity benefits, and retirement and survivors' benefits) – other financial incentives comprising teacher reward packages include allowances for particular responsibilities, incentives to attract teachers to hard-to-staff schools, family benefits, housing provision or subsidies, transport subsidies and financial contributions towards further training and CPD.

As discussed, financial incentives may be used to attract teachers to work in hard-to-staff schools, such as schools in remote rural and disadvantaged areas. These incentives might include hardship allowances; housing allowances or the provision of good-quality houses; removal and transport costs; and either scholarships for teacher training in exchange for a commitment to serve in hard-to-staff schools or scholarships to study for higher-level qualification once in post.

3.6.4 Other non-financial incentives[22]

Non-financial incentives include various leave (including study leave) provisions, enhanced promotion opportunities, access to different types of CPD, provision of smart phones, e-readers or laptops with internet connections for CPD, and housing.

Financial and non-financial incentives should be part of a holistic strategy (including career progression) to attract teachers to hard-to-staff schools.

3.6.5 Performance pay

Some countries or education systems link teacher rewards with performance, in the form of additional salary or bonuses (in the past and in some countries, often referred to as 'merit pay'). Such plans may aim to attract and retain high-quality teachers, as well as to encourage motivation and effort to improve learning outcomes. As the evidence base is inconclusive (OECD, 2012), policy developers will want to carefully consider the arguments for and against performance-related schemes, the experiences of systems where they have been implemented, as well as their

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19 Action Aid, 2007; UNESCO, 2014a. For more information, see "Remuneration, incentives and benefits" (UNESCO, 2010a: 90-100); "Cost of achieving UPE — domestic/external funding sources for teachers" (UNESCO, 2010a: 105-107).

20 For more information and a more detailed discussion of salary scales, including an example, see "Salary criteria and scales" (ILO, 2012: 153-162); "Salary scales" (UNESCO 2010a: 100-103).

21 For more information, see "Material incentives/bonuses for rural and disadvantages areas" (ILO, 2012: 172-173) and "Module 6: Social security" (ILO, 2012: 181-197).

22 For more information see "Non-material incentives for rural and disadvantaged areas" (ILO, 2012: 197-74).

objectives and design, before incorporating them in a teacher policy.

The arguments in favour put forward research evidence that performance pay has been effective in raising teacher and student performance. The World Bank (2013: 34–35) cites a number of studies in high- and middle-income countries to support this finding; see also OECD (2012: 1, 4). Tying compensation directly to teacher assiduity and pupil outcomes is perceived as resulting in reduced teacher absenteeism and greater teacher instruction effort, indicators seen as major contributors to the learning progress. Such progress is almost always measured by standardized test results in the advocates' studies. Other proponents suggest that, when applied within school-based programmes, performance-related incentives reinforce the teamwork ethos, and where based on teacher appraisal, motivation is reinforced by reward, thus combining both professional rewards (satisfaction with students' progress) and financial ones (more income). These arguments and the evidence they cite strongly associate performance pay incentives with key education objectives.

The arguments against these schemes put forward research indicating there is little evidence of improvements in education or learning from performance-related pay (ILO, 2012: 166–168 cites studies and case studies from a range of countries – mostly high-income; see also OECD, 2012: 1, 4). Opponents argue that there is much evidence of negative impacts, such as reinforcing disparities among schools, thereby making it harder for disadvantaged schools to attract the teachers they need. Teachers working in such plans tend to 'teach to the test', to ensure that learners perform well on standardized tests, thus narrowing the skills and knowledge acquired. Performance pay schemes may fail to account for factors over which teachers have no control (such as poverty, language, parental engagement and the impact of previous teachers) that affect learning. Any such plan based on objective-setting and performance management is complex and requires time, skills and training that can overburden school managers. When based only on rewarding individuals, performance pay undermines teamwork as a factor in learning progress and good schools, as well as individual teacher motivation when a plan is perceived as unfair. These arguments are based on evidence that performance pay incentives fundamentally work against key education objectives.

When performance-related incentives are used more frequently, the evidence gathered in recent years suggests that the way in which they are applied makes a significant difference in achieving education goals. Key factors to consider are the methods of teacher appraisal as the basis for rewards; the size of the incentives and their financial sustainability over time; the close connection between expected behaviour and rewards; and the level of awards, either for the individual teacher, group of teachers or the school as a whole (see Harris, 2007; Ingvarson et al., 2007; World Bank, 2013, citing a range of studies). The overall salary system also plays a role. As an example, the high- and middle-income OECD member countries use a variety of reward plans for outstanding teacher performance, including positioning on the base salary scale and supplemental and incremental (step or grade) payments. Student performance is generally better when performance pay systems are in place in countries with comparatively low teacher salaries (less than 15% above GDP per capita) and lower in countries with relatively well-paid teachers (more than 15% above GDP per capita) (OECD, 2012: 2–3).

Human resource management policy suggests that a performance pay plan in teacher policy needs to answer the following questions:

- Whose performance is being assessed: individual teachers, a team or group of teachers, or all of the school's employees?

- How performance is to be measured and evaluated: by outputs (the achievement of individual or group learning targets, for example) or inputs (teacher skills, knowledge and behaviour)?

- How performance is to be rewarded: assessment of individual or group performance, by whose judgement and on what criteria? (Kessler, 2005)

The administrative principles to follow to ensure successful performance pay include equity and transparency in application, diverse and relevant criteria, good communication, wide teacher understanding of the system and professional support to teachers whose performance does not meet the standards, up to the point where such support is no longer helpful (see also Section 3.9).

In sum, where the teaching and learning needs, management capacity and available resources suggest that performance pay could be useful and feasible, policy developers may wish to consider the following issues (ILO, 2012: 166, citing several pay specialists):

● Performance indicators: are they limited to very narrow, measurable indicators of student achievement by means of standardized tests in core subjects, or do they encompass a broader array of learning objectives, such as creativity or the capacity to reason or solve problems?

● Measuring progress: will success be determined by standardized tests or a more diversified array of measurements, such as student learning profiles and teacher evaluation results (peer, school supervisor or external assessors)? Is measurement based on progress from year to year in comparison with a desired benchmark or on a value-added definition? What weight is to be given to the contributions of teaching support staff in achieving learning improvements? Is the data used sufficient and reliable, particularly over time, as a basis for reward decisions?

● Adjusting for external factors: have the measurement instruments taken into consideration factors outside the school, such as poverty and disadvantaged learners, parent roles and differences in funding between schools or school systems?

● Eligibility and funding: will all teachers/staff be eligible? Will the plan focus on individual performance, whole-school performance or both? How large will the reward be in relation to other compensation? Are funds for the rewards sustainable over time?

A final crucial consideration for all teacher policy work is to enhance acceptance and cooperation and ensure the success of any performance pay plan by involving the teachers and their representative unions/associations in its design and application through social dialogue (ILO/UNESCO, 1966: Art. 124). Many, if not most, schemes fail if they choose to ignore this principle.

3.7. Teacher standards

In an effort to understand and define what makes a good teacher and promote teacher competency and professionalism, with the overall aim of improving education quality and learner outcomes, an increasing number of countries are developing professional standards for teachers (hereinafter referred to as standards). While different concepts of 'standards' exist, this Guide defines standards as expectations about teacher knowledge, competences and attributes and the desirable level of performance (performance standards). It is generally agreed that standards should describe clearly and concisely what constitutes good teaching in a particular context, and what teachers need to know and be able to do to implement such good teaching.

Setting standards for teachers can serve multiple purposes:

● Developing a shared understanding, as well as a common goal and language, regarding quality teaching among teachers, other education professionals and the public;

● Providing a framework to guide teachers' professional learning and development;

● Providing a clear and fair framework for professional accountability;

● Providing a framework to improve consistency and coherence of teacher policies (including but not limited to teacher education, selection, promotion, reward and development); and

● Contributing to professionalization and raising teaching profession status.

3.7.1 Structure and content of standards

Most current standards documents are generic, in that they are common to teachers of most levels and subjects – with some notable exceptions like Chile, which has elaborated specific standards for primary teachers and

specialist teachers in secondary schools (Ingvarson, 2012). Some standards frameworks define two to four different attainment levels, based on core competencies and teacher career stages. These levels include standards for provisional registration (graduate, entry level, emerging and beginning teachers), full registration (proficient teachers), accomplished teachers (experienced and advanced) and lead teachers (distinguished).

Standards frameworks typically have several levels, from general to specific statements (see Table 3.1). However, not all standards frameworks contain all levels, and they may also differ in matters of detail.

TABLE 3.1: LEVELS OF STATEMENTS WITHIN STANDARDS FRAMEWORKS

Level 1 Principles	Guiding vision of quality learning and teachers' work
Level 2 Domains	Organizing categories for the teaching standards
Level 3 Standards	Descriptions of what teachers should know and be able to do within each domain
Level 4 Elaborations	Elaboration of what the standards mean for particular fields of teaching

Source: Ingvarson, 2012, p.11 (reproduced with permission).

Level 1 Principles

Many standards documents contain vision statements that describe good teaching in the context. For example, the InTASC Model Core Teaching Standards (USA) describe 'a new vision of teaching for improved student achievement' (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2011).

Level 2 Domains

Many country frameworks organize their standards into several domains, as seen in Table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2: STANDARD DOMAINS

Country	Domain 1	Domain 2	Domain 3	Domain 4
Australia	Professional knowledge	Professional practice	Professional engagement	–
Scotland (UK)	Professional values and personal commitment	Professional knowledge and Understanding	Professional skills and abilities	–
Singapore	Professional practice	Leadership and management	Personal effectiveness	–
InTASC (USA)	The learner and learning	Content knowledge	Instructional practice	Professional responsibility
Quebec (Canada)	Foundations	Teaching Act	Social and educational context	Professional identity
Danielson's Framework for Teaching[23]	Planning and preparation	The classroom environment	Instruction	Professional responsibilities

Source: Elaboration by the authors

23   Danielson's Framework for Teaching has influenced a number of teacher evaluation systems around the world (OECD, 2013b).

Level 3 Standards

Standards are generally expressed either in clear and concise statements or in sets of short titles accompanied by their descriptions. They usually name all the key dimensions of teacher knowledge and practice valued by an education system. Most standards frameworks contain similar elements, such as strong subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical skills, knowledge about learners, skills to plan instruction, assess student learning and manage the learning environment, and the capacity to continue developing.

Level 4 Elaboration

To translate a standard into observable performances, the general statements must be elaborated further, so that they are specific enough to be operationalized. The Qatar standards framework provides a clear illustration of standards and the level of elaboration (Figure 3.1).

FIGURE 3.1: THE QATAR STANDARDS FRAMEWORK

The standards are presented in a common format. Each standard comprises the elements shown below.

The **standard title** is a short, action-oriented statement that describes the key area of professional practice for teachers and leaders.
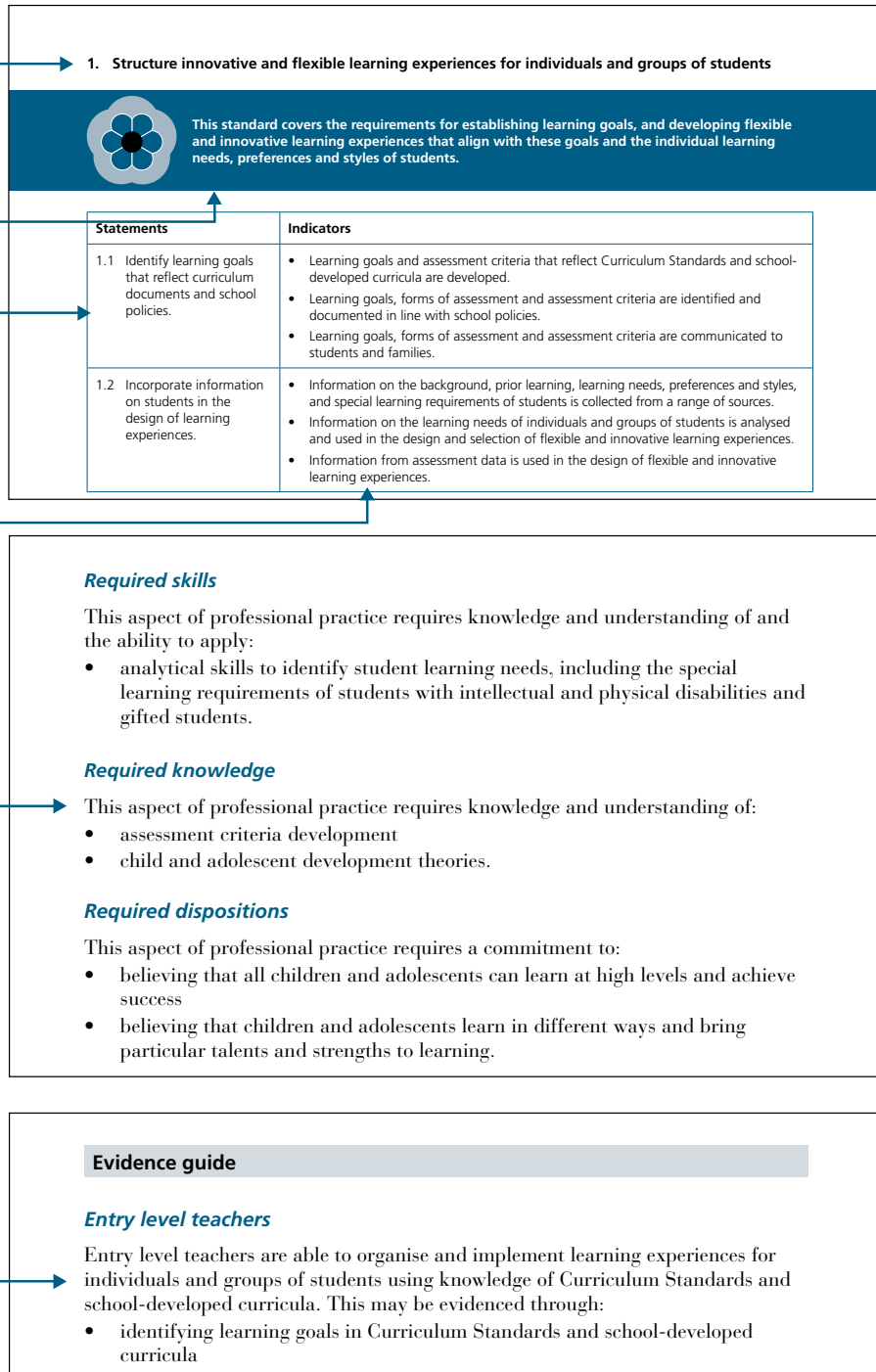
The **standard descriptor** is a brief description of the aspect of professional practice covered by the standard.

Statements describe in outcome terms the key components of professional practice covered by the standard. Statements are focused on performance and can be demonstrated.

The **indicators** are not a checklist. They identify the actions a teacher or leader would normally take to perform the aspect of professional practice detailed in the relevant statement. This is an example of a statement and some of the associated indicators.

This section identifies the **required skills, knowledge, understandings and dispositions** that underpin the aspect of professional practice described in the standard. It also indicates broad areas of learning and development that teachers and school leaders might consider to strengthen this aspect of their practice.

The **Evidence Guide** identifies the performance expected of teachers and school leaders at each stage of career development. It also includes a list of the types of evidence that teachers and school leaders may present to show that they have achieved the required level of performance.

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1. Structure innovative and flexible learning experiences for individuals and groups of students

This standard covers the requirements for establishing learning goals, and developing flexible and innovative learning experiences that align with these goals and the individual learning needs, preferences and styles of students.

Statements	Indicators
1.1 Identify learning goals that reflect curriculum documents and school policies.	• Learning goals and assessment criteria that reflect Curriculum Standards and school-developed curricula are developed. • Learning goals, forms of assessment and assessment criteria are identified and documented in line with school policies. • Learning goals, forms of assessment and assessment criteria are communicated to students and families.
1.2 Incorporate information on students in the design of learning experiences.	• Information on the background, prior learning, learning needs, preferences and styles, and special learning requirements of students is collected from a range of sources. • Information on the learning needs of individuals and groups of students is analysed and used in the design and selection of flexible and innovative learning experiences. • Information from assessment data is used in the design of flexible and innovative learning experiences.

Required skills

This aspect of professional practice requires knowledge and understanding of and the ability to apply:
• analytical skills to identify student learning needs, including the special learning requirements of students with intellectual and physical disabilities and gifted students.

Required knowledge

This aspect of professional practice requires knowledge and understanding of:
• assessment criteria development
• child and adolescent development theories.

Required dispositions

This aspect of professional practice requires a commitment to:
• believing that all children and adolescents can learn at high levels and achieve success
• believing that children and adolescents learn in different ways and bring particular talents and strengths to learning.

Evidence guide

Entry level teachers

Entry level teachers are able to organise and implement learning experiences for individuals and groups of students using knowledge of Curriculum Standards and school-developed curricula. This may be evidenced through:
• identifying learning goals in Curriculum Standards and school-developed curricula

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3.7.2 Use of standards

Some countries may develop standards for a specific purpose, while others may use them as a framework for multiple purposes. For example, Australia's National Professional Standards for Teachers describe core competences, along with performance levels set for four professional career stages: Graduate, Proficient, Highly Accomplished and Lead (AITSL, 2014).

In some contexts, standards are used to stimulate teachers' professional learning and improve the quality of teaching. In those cases, the education authorities must give serious thought to motivating and supporting teachers to meet the standards. Placing additional responsibilities on already overloaded teachers without any support is likely to have no effect, or possibly a detrimental effect.

Well-defined standards can provide a systematic and useful framework for teacher development, including CPD, as well as mentoring for teachers who need additional assistance, formative assessment that provides feedback to teachers,[24] diagnostic self-assessment and self-learning tools. The AITSL website provides a broad range of tools and resources that support teachers' professional learning.

Countries that set standards for novice teachers should ensure that pre-service education and induction settings are adequate. This may require revising the curriculum of teacher preparation courses. If a country has an accreditation system for teacher education institutions/ programmes or other regulations, the assessment criteria should be aligned with the standards. The standards may also provide a reference point for setting criteria for selecting the individuals who will enter teacher preparation programmes.

Standards for performance-based assessments can also be used for management and accountability purposes.[25] These types of assessments hold teachers accountable for their performance, and require well-designed, valid and comparable assessment tools, as well as assessors trained to ensure fairness of judgement.

3.7.3 Standards for head teachers

In addition to standards for teachers, some countries have developed standards for head teachers. The key purposes for establishing such standards are: 1) specifying the function of head teachers; 2) guiding professional development; 3) defining criteria for assessment; and 4) guiding the selection of principals (CEPPE, 2013).

Although standards vary significantly in their structure, standards for head teachers are developed similarly as standards for teachers, as described above.

3.7.4 Key conditions for successful implementation

Explicit link to student learning objectives

Most importantly, standards for teachers and head teachers must align with the education system's student learning objectives, as the ultimate aim of a standards framework is to improve the quality of learning opportunities for students in schools (OECD, 2005).

Standards frameworks aligned to a comprehensive strategy to improve teaching

Coherent policies and systems that continuously support teacher improvement throughout all career stages are crucial. Without a well-articulated strategy, teacher policies in different domains may be poorly connected, fragmented and incoherent, thereby undermining the effective improvement of the teaching profession. Darling-Hammond (2012b) suggests several key elements for such a systematic approach:

- Common standards for teaching that are related to meaningful student learning;

- Performance assessments based on these standards that guide authority functions such as teacher preparation and licensing;

- Various on-the-job assessments of practice aligned on the same standards;

- Support structures to guarantee these mechanisms, including trained evaluators, mentoring for teachers,

- Aligned professional learning opportunities that support teachers.

In effective systems, standards frameworks must form an integral part of a holistic strategy to improve teacher quality.

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24   For more information, see 'Teacher evaluation, assessment and feedback' (ILO, 2012: 89-97).
25   For more information, see 'Teacher evaluation, assessment and feedback' (ILO, 2012: 89-97).

Teachers' ownership and broad agreement

Teacher participation and/or leadership is essential in setting standards. Teachers are ultimately responsible for both applying the standards in their practice and investing in their own professional development aligned with such standards (Asia Society, 2013; Hayes, 2006; OECD, 2013b). Just as many professional bodies in other professions – such as medicine, engineering and law – assume responsibility for defining and maintaining high standards, teaching councils should provide a space for profession-led standard-setting and quality assurance.

Evaluation and revision of standards

Standards require continuous evaluation and research,. Some common questions are whether standards actually identify good teachers, and whether they are applicable to different levels (Darling-Hammond, 2001). The growing body of knowledge and experience about teachers and teaching, and the changing role of teachers in different contexts, suggest a need to keep standards under constant review.

Dangers of managerialism

Education authorities must guard vigilantly against the use of standards as a tool to reduce and limit the teaching profession to that which can be audited and measured.

Standards should not militate against the use of diverse approaches, simplify complexities of practice, or ignore the profoundly social and contextual dimensions of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2001). When standards are used as top-down, 'managerialistic' measure, rather than as a profession-owned instrument, they can constrain teaching practice and result in superficial compliance, rather than meaningful pedagogic changes.

Balance central guidance and local autonomy

The implementation of national standards and assessment systems must fit the country's specific governance context. In countries where decentralized education systems allow greater autonomy for individual schools and teachers, it may be counterproductive to introduce national standards and standards-based assessment systems. For example, Finland does not have national standards or a teacher assessment system. Instead, head teachers are seen as leaders in quality management; principals and teachers have annual 'development conversations', and most teachers have individual development plans aligned with the school development plan. Some countries have national standards, but incorporate considerable flexibility at implementation stages. Countries need to consider the best balance between central guidance and local flexibility to fit the national context, ensuring consistency and accountability (OECD, 2013b).

3.8. Teacher accountability

3.8.1 Accountability, performance and quality

The principle that teachers are accountable for their performance and the quality of their teaching is of key to ensuring a high status of the teaching profession and enhancing learning. The reciprocal principle is that education systems should be accountable to teachers, in terms of providing effective support and acceptable working conditions. This is an important point, as teachers do not have control over many of the factors affecting their own performance and that of their students. While a teacher policy should emphasize accountability, this should be part of a wider policy to improve teaching and education. It is essential that public and political calls

for teacher accountability do not translate into blaming teachers for all of the problems in an education system.

3.8.2 Performance evaluation and appraisal[26]

It is good practice for teachers – as for all employees – to undergo regular appraisal to evaluate their performance and inform their professional development. Appraisals can also be used to measure individual teachers' progress against their professional development plan: indeed, appraisals and feedback should be closely tied with CPD

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26   For more information, see 'Teacher evaluation, assessment and feedback' (ILO, 2012: 89–97).
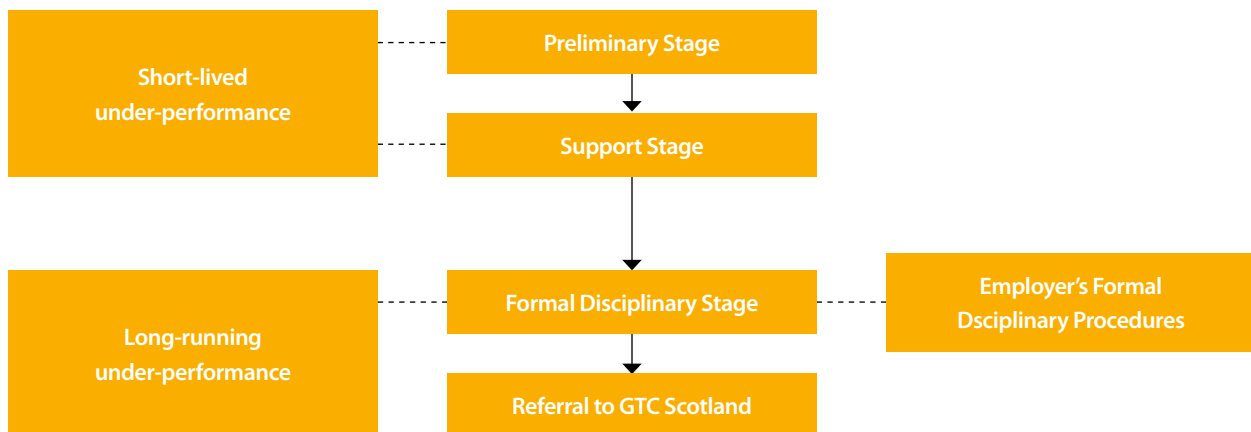
(OECD, 2013c; also see Section 3.2 above). As noted above, appraisals or performance-based assessments are likely to be based on standards frameworks. Teacher appraisal should be formative; focus on improving professional practice; linked to school-wide evaluation, strategy and goals; and based on holistic criteria, including specific aspects of the school context.

The objectives of appraisals should be clear and shared by all concerned; in particular, appraisals should be transparent, equitable and fair, and should balance the need for improvement with positive feedback. Moreover, whether the appraisal is being used for accountability or improvement – or possibly both – should be made clear. However, combining the two functions poses risks, as it can lead to teachers hiding their weaknesses, rather than using the appraisal as an opportunity to discuss strategies for overcoming them.

Performance evaluation and appraisal is tied to assessing teacher under/poor performance. For poor performance related to curriculum instruction, the same principles pertaining to performance evaluation – namely, fairness and transparency – apply. However, the legal route to performance evaluation should be used as a last measure. Good performance evaluation measures, rooted in a culture of continuous improvement and reflective practice should identify teaching weakness at an early stage and put in place measures for improvement. Only when such measures fail should more formal procedures to remove underperforming teachers be taken.

The General Teaching Council of Scotland Framework (2012), which features support for under-performing teachers as a key component of an improvement strategy, provides a useful summary of dealing with under-performance (Figure 3.2).

FIGURE3.2: DEALING WITH TEACHER UNDER- PERFORMANCE

Source: reproduced with permission from the General Teaching Council, Scotland, 2012 (http://www.gtcs.org.uk/web/FILES/teacher-regulation/framework-on-teacher-competence.pdf).

3.8.3 Performance evaluation and incentives

As discussed in Section 3.7.5 above, performance evaluation may be linked with incentives, which may be financial or non-financial rewards, such as access to professional development or study leave. Where performance-related incentives are used, the criteria for administering them must be equitable, transparent and credible, and the individuals responsible for applying them must be well trained and able to use them consistently and fairly. Poorly administrated and unfair performance evaluations based on subjective criteria, patronage or favouritism can be a major source of demotivation. Where

teachers' performance is found not to meet the standards, they should be given clear, constructive feedback explaining which aspects of their performance need to be improved, and how, and offered support in achieving this.

3.8.4 Quality assurance[27]

Regular monitoring and assessment of teaching by qualified, supportive colleagues can support teachers in using appropriate methods and practices and foster their professional development, thus contributing to overall education quality. Teacher assessment should

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27   For more information, see 'Teacher evaluation, assessment and feedback' (ILO, 2012: 89-97).

include supporting teachers to identify whether student are achieving the desired learning outcomes and implement appropriate remedial action where necessary. In many countries, teacher assessments are undertaken by inspectors, members of specialist inspectorates attached to regional education authorities, or under the auspices of national education departments or ministries. Since these external inspectors may be feared and mistrusted by teachers, their visits can disrupt school routines and be a major source of teacher anxiety and stress. Where external inspectorates are used, inspectors should be recruited according to well-designed competence frameworks, ensuring that they have the knowledge, competences and attributes to assess and support teachers. Furthermore, inspectors should use unambiguous and inclusive assessment frameworks in a consistent, objective and equitable manner. They should receive training, particularly with regard to equity, non-discrimination and avoiding bias. Inspections should be constructive rather than punitive, focusing on providing formative feedback to inform continuous improvement.

A growing trend is a move away from external inspections and towards more collegial, flexible and school-based systems of teacher evaluation (ILO, 2012: 94). Fellow teachers, head teachers, school management bodies, school councils or boards of governors and learners can

all play a part in teacher evaluation, which can also include self-assessment. Where these methods are used, those responsible for assessing teachers should also receive training to undertake consistent, objective, equitable and constructive assessment.

A teacher policy should also provide for evaluating the performance of school leaders, determine the frequency and method of evaluation, and establish clear and transparent evaluation criteria. Appraisal systems for school leaders will include gathering feedback on their performance from the teachers and other individuals they manage, as well as from their own managers. The evaluation criteria will be aligned and integrated with national education policy and priorities; they may include criteria such as student learning outcomes; student care; teacher management and supervision; and teacher satisfaction and retention. Evaluation and appraisal systems should be integrated with CPD and other opportunities for career development. The people responsible for evaluating the performance of school leaders should be properly trained. The evaluation process 'should not become a pro-forma, box ticking exercise and should be discerning enough to understand underlying behaviour patterns which have come about as a result of effective management' (ILO, 2012: 45).

3.9. School governance

School governance has been identified as a crucial factor in both teacher motivation (and therefore teacher morale, performance and retention) and learner performance and education outcomes (Hightower et al., 2011; UNESCO, 2014a). Examples of the consequences of poor school governance impacting negatively on learners include: teacher absenteeism and poor time-keeping; teachers offering uncontrolled private tuition as an alternative to carrying out their basic teaching duties, in order to supplement their income; and gender-based violence and other unprofessional behaviours. The *2013/14 EFA Global Monitoring Report* reinforces the integration between school governance and the other teacher management dimensions presented in this chapter by identifying four strategies to improve governance: attract the best teachers; improve teacher education so all children can learn; get teachers where they are most needed; and provide incentives to retain the best teachers (UNESCO, 2014a: 266). Other keys to promoting governance include

training school leadership and other stakeholders and holding them responsible for playing their roles effectively, and ensuring all those evolved in establishing and maintaining the material and cultural school environment recognize the key function this plays in promoting effective teaching and learning.

3.9.1   School leadership

The role of leadership in creating successful schools and promoting teacher governance is well documented (see, for example, Pont, Nusche, and Moorman, 2008; Hightower et al., 2011; UNESCO,2014a). Although there is increasing awareness of the need for effective recruitment and training of school leaders or principals (see Sections 3.1 and 3.2), many countries still lack strategies for identifying and preparing school leaders, who tend to be promoted from within the teaching staff and are expected

to manage a school and its resources, both material and human, with little or poor preparation.

As explained in Section 3.2, school leaders are ultimately responsible for the education learners receive within the school, both directly in the classroom and indirectly in the communal areas of school assemblies and recreation grounds. They are also responsible for managing and supporting teaching and non-teaching staff, includingmonitoring teacher attendance and punctuality, as well as the material and moral environment of the school. The roles and responsibilities of school leaders include mentoring, supporting and counselling teachers; guiding learners; communicating and liaising with parents and guardians; managing the school finances and other administrative functions; and setting the tone, culture and ethos of the school. A teacher policy must enable head teachers to play this crucial role, with provisions to: identify, recruit and retain motivated, talented school leaders (see Section 3.1.6); ensure appropriate training (initial and CPD) for school leaders (see Section 3.2.10); and conduct regular evaluations/appraisals of school leaders (see Section 3.8.4).

3.9.2   Roles and responsibilities of other stakeholders

Other groups and stakeholders also have an important role to play in school governance. These include parents; school governors; PTAs; community members and leaders; local education officials; teaching staff; and non-teaching staff, such as administrators, caretakers or janitors, maintenance staff and gardeners. Anyone who works at the school regularly or comes into the school – for example as a volunteer assisting with school activities, such as sports or school meals – has a role to play in setting and reinforcing the school's culture and ethos. All these individuals should ensure that their behaviour conforms to the highest standards, that they set a good example to learners, and do not harm learners, teachers or other staff in any way. The head teacher and deputy head teacher are responsible for communicating and enforcing these rules and standards; they should be supported in this by members, particularly the head of the school council or governing body.

3.9.3   The school environment

The school leadership, in partnership with other stakeholders, is responsible for creating and maintaining a school environment that is safe, fit for purpose and able to promote good-quality education. The school environment includes both the physical/material environment and the cultural environment.

The material environment

Creating and maintaining an effective material school environment includes managing and maintaining infrastructure and school furniture, and ensuring the school is kept clean, hygienic and free of litter, pollution and hazards. Toilets should be safe, so that learners (particularly girls) can use them with confidence and without fear; paper and water for hand- washing should be available. Creating and managing an environment that is conducive to teaching and learning includes ensuring this the school is free from excessive noise and is as aesthetically pleasant as possible. Schools where learners' school and art work is prominently displayed give learners, parents and visitors the message that this work is important and valued. An effective school environment is learner-friendly, girl-friendly and teacher-friendly, so as to enhance the motivation and performance of learners and teachers (see the discussion of the interaction between working conditions and teacher motivation and performance in Section 3.5). Responsibility for maintaining such an environment lies with all those who use it, but is the ultimate responsibility of the school leadership.

The cultural environment

Equally important and linked to the school's material environment is the prevailing cultural environment. A school should be a space where learning is valued and learners and teachers feel supported and appreciated. It should be imbued with the values of tolerance, inclusion and equity at all levels and in all activities. Any vulnerable group should be protected, and the school should promote an active culture of equality. Creating a cultural environment in which learners learn to live in society and treat one another and their teachers with respect requires strong leadership, which is the responsibility of the head teacher.

This chapter has presented and discussed several different but interrelated dimensions that should underpin a holistic, integrated teacher policy. Figure 3.3 illustrates some of the main issues or problems, discussed in this chapter, that a teacher policy may seek to address. It illustrates that effective teacher policy-making and programmes depend on the relationship of key variables within the education and teacher education environments, factoring in the global as well as the national political, economic, social and cultural contexts.

FIGURE 3.3: SCHEMA OF TEACHER POLICY ISSUES
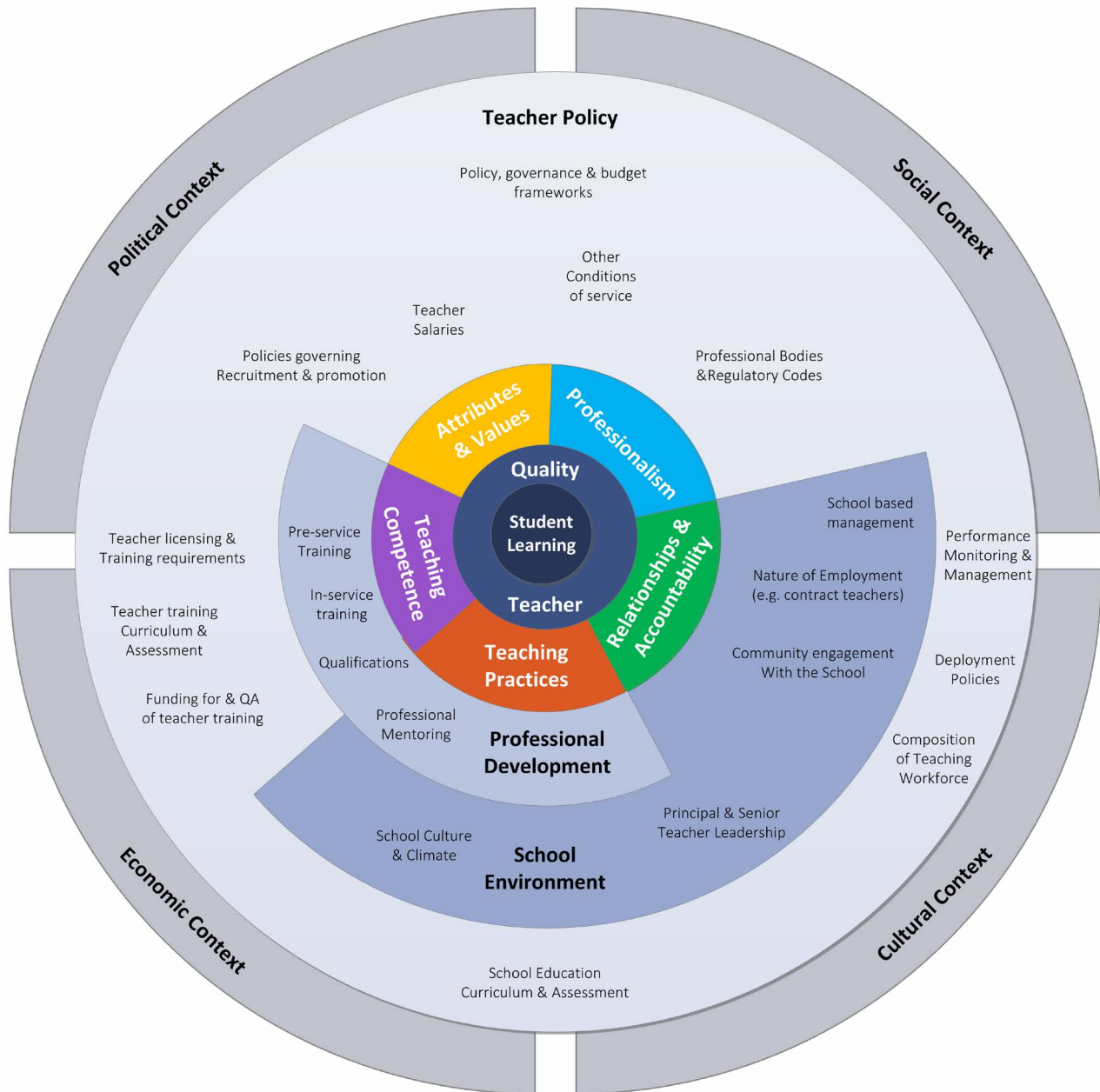
The next chapter examines the process of developing such a policy.

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CHAPTER 4.
Phases

This chapter considers some of the practical issues related to the process of developing a teacher policy. It builds on Chapter 2, which discusses the framing of teacher policies in different contexts, and Chapter 3, which describes various dimensions of teacher policy. It should be read in conjunction with Chapter 5, which considers key aspects of implementing national teacher education policies.

Teacher policy is a key aspect of public policy. It serves as an instrument for the direct allocation of public resources and actions. Its goal is to enhance teacher quality, thus improving teaching and student learning. For the process of policy development to succeed, it must be well planned from the outset; there are strong linkages between policy development, planning for implementation, implementation, and resourcing. Usually planning units in MoEs play a key role in the process. For example, the MoE in Singapore has a Planning Division, whose mission is 'to formulate and review education policies as well as manage and analyse key MoE data to support MoE management in decision-making' (http://www.moe. gov.sg/about/org-structure/pld/).

The MoE/Department of Education (DoE) is a key actor in organizing the teacher policy development process. At the outset of such a process, the MoE should clarify the phases and stages of the process, identify the relevant bodies to be involved in the process, the timeframe, and the costs. An important consideration in developing any teacher policy is to ensure that there is a task force or group steering the process. Often,

governments appoint a task force or committee of MoE personnel, together with experts including academics and representatives of partner organizations, such as teacher unions and donor agencies, to manage and lead the process. The committee's tasks may include convening meetings, commissioning relevant research, overseeing consultations with stakeholders and generally organizing the policy process. Such a task force or group is ultimately accountable to the MoE.

It must be recognized that preparing a teacher policy is often a long, complex, and daunting task. There is no universal 'one size fits all' approach to policy development, as the process is highly context-specific. The United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) Teacher Policy (2013) notes that 'Any policy has to be set in context', recognizing that its policy is part of 'the multi-faceted UNRWA Education Reform of which the Teacher Policy is one key aspect'. The type of policy to be developed – whether it will take the form of a legislative act or programme, or set of regulations or regulatory guidelines (Chapter 5) – also dictates the approach to be taken in the policy development processes, as each country has its own rules and procedures to be followed.

4.1. Key phases

This section synthesizes numerous and contested models of policy development to provide a framework for the policy development process.[28] It presents the model below as an analytical tool to help policy- makers identify the key elements in formulating policy. However, it should be recognized that policy formulation and implementation is rarely a technical- rational exercise. Rather, it is an inherently political process. Policy-making as such is characterized by social conflict and struggles, as well as trade-offs between competing priorities and goals. It involves contestation between social forces and movements at all stages of the policy processes, from agenda-setting to formulation, adoption and implementation. This means that popular struggles can shape policy-making and policy outcomes, and can modify the teacher policy as contained in official texts.

Contestation about what constitutes policy, and therefore what should be included in any teacher policy, reflects different views of what is desirable and what is feasible.

Rizvi and Lingard (2010) note that values are central to policy-making. A policy in the form of a text or document reflects particular values and is the 'authoritative allocation of values' (Rizvi and Lingard, 2010). As a value-laden exercise, policy development is a normative process in which certain voices are privileged while others are more marginalized, reflecting power differentials in society. This section therefore begins with a discussion of stakeholder participation in general and teacher involvement in particular. Meaningful consultation and participation of all stakeholders, particularly those who are marginalized, is crucial to all aspects of the policy development process, particularly during the agenda-setting phase.

The above discussion suggests that developing a policy is not a simple and straightforward process. The policy life-cycle approach suggested below should therefore be understood as an analytical tool to assist ministries in formulating policies. This framework should be used as a flexible guide to developing a teacher policy and not as a rigid, prescriptive model to be followed in a narrow and linear fashion. It should be emphasized that the phases

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28   Rizvi and Lingard (2010) provide a helpful review of the diverse and contested meanings of the word policy and the policy-making process.

suggested are often iterative and overlapping, and are not sharply distinguishable as is often implied. Public policy-making as argued above is a complex, multi-layered, and iterative activity, with often multiple policy initiatives underway simultaneously (Badat, 2014).

4.1.1 Consultation — ongoing and meaningful throughout the policy process

Consultations with appropriate groups should be embedded throughout the teacher policy development process; however, consultation with various stakeholders and interest groups once the policy has been drafted is also important.

The groups that should be consulted include local government bodies (where they exist), other ministries beyond the MoE, national and international civil society organizations, international agencies, private education providers, teachers, parents and learners, and the organizations that represent them.

Ensuring wide participation and varied voices in the policy process ensures that the concerns and viewpoints of different actors are taken into consideration. It also increases the likelihood that the policy, once completed, will have the support of the public, stakeholders, the front-line staff expected to implement it and funders (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2013). The consultation process has crucial impacts on public and professional responses during the implementation phase of the policy and, consequently, impacts on its outcomes (Adams, 2001; ILO/UNESCO, 2003; Ratteree, 2004; VSO, 2002a; VSO, 2002b; VSO, 2002c).

The complex power and political contexts in which invitation to and participation in consultation take place within and among institutions should be considered when coordinating participation (Lewis and Naidoo, 2004). Coordination should ensure that everyone involved has a voice and is respected, regardless of their power or influence in or outside of the policy process (ILO/UNESCO, 2003; ILO/UNESCO, 2008; VSO, 2002a; VSO, 2002b; VSO, 2002c). As many have argued, this inclusive process should include not only teachers, but also students (Flutter and Rudduck, 2004; Morgan, 2011; Pedder and McIntyre, 2006; Ratteree, 2004; Thompson, 2009).

The selection of policy options to realize policy objectives is rarely clear-cut, as different strategies may address the same problem. The consultation process can become intense and contested, requiring negotiation among

interest groups. Thus, the consultation process is crucial to making policy choices, particularly when alternative strategies and interventions have been suggested to address the identified problems and issues.

Social dialogue and consultation take different forms in different countries. In Nigeria, consultation included a survey of public opinion in selected states (Box 4.1).

BOX 4.1: COUNTRY EXAMPLE: NIGERIA TEACHER POLICY CONSULTATION

The Nigerian teacher policy process involved task force cooperation among the FME, UNESCO and USAID through the ENHANSE project (Enabling HIV and AIDS, TB and Social Sector Environment). The goals of the task force were to evaluate existing teacher education policy in Nigeria, to identify, analyse and ascertain problems, and to make recommendations for the development of a comprehensive national policy to those in government and involved in education.

The process included a wide range of stakeholders actively participating in identifying problems. Policy development involved meetings and consultations in six states of the country, using questionnaires, classroom observations, interviews and discussions. The outcome of this process was the identification of several policy choices, including: requiring mandatory teacher professional development, introducing teacher re-certification and licensing, introducing a code of conduct for teachers, introducing minimum qualifications and work experience, establishing new requirements for appointment of school Inspectors, and instituting regular supervision of schools.

Source: UNESCO, 2007.

As noted in Chapter 2, the involvement of teacher unions in education reform is not only a right, but is also essential to successful implementation. Teacher involvement in education and in the development of a teacher policy is more than simple consultation; it should substantively engage teachers in identifying and enacting in practice (implementation phase) the changes necessary to enhance education quality, recognizing teachers as professionals. In this respect, teacher unions play a crucial role in influencing and taking ownership of policies. A review of the involvement of teacher unions in education in Latin America (Gindin and Finger, 2013) features several examples of how teacher unions contribute to enhancing quality and equity. The authors highlight the case of Bolivia (Plurinational State of), where the teacher union, the Confederation of Rural Education Teachers Bolivia, played a key role in advocating for instruction in indigenous

languages for indigenous groups (Gindin and Finger 2013: 17–20). They note how the union has been an important advocate for indigenous education rights in Bolivia, ensuring that such rights are constitutionally enshrined.

4.1.2 Phase 1: Issue identification and agenda-setting

The starting point in any teacher policy development process is agenda-setting, which involves identifying, agreeing on and clarifying the issues or problems requiring further government attention.

The teacher policy agenda may emanate from other sources besides government, such as public opinion, international agencies and teacher unions. Whatever the source, government plays a crucial role in taking up and acting on the agenda. The processes of agenda-setting and developing a teacher policy reflect power relationships – particularly in relation to such questions as 'who can speak, when and with what authority' (Ball, 1990: 17). Various actors and stakeholders have different power positions in society and bring these to the policy process. It is therefore important to pay attention to the manner in which – and by whom – the policy problem is identified and framed as it develops; power dynamics impact on the entire teacher policy development process, from the manner in which the proposed agenda evolves and is acted on, to which aspects eventually become policies.

Section 4.2 reviews the roles and responsibilities of relevant bodies in designing, drafting and validating a national teacher policy.

4.1.3 Phase 2: Policy formulation – analysis, principles and options/choices

Once the problems requiring policy attention have been identified and the teacher policy agenda has been agreed, the next phase is to develop the policy options and ideas for subsequent consultation. This stage requires gathering information and research to identify feasible and implementable policy options that could address the agreed agenda.

Needs/situational analysis/diagnosis

As mentioned in Phase 1 above, policy options are developed to fit particular social, political, economic and cultural contexts. They therefore require a needs analysis to examine the situation systematically, recommend the

issues for immediate attention and determine ways of addressing them. Policy options should be costed, and consideration should be given to which policy instruments – legislation, programmes, or regulations – are most appropriate.

An important activity during this phase is a comprehensive situation analysis on teachers in the particular country, including those aspects impacting on teacher effectiveness, attrition and shortage. In post-conflict and post-disaster contexts, particular attention should be paid to key aspects such as teacher supply and deployment, as well as teachers' role as agents of peace-building, reconciliation and disaster preparedness. Research is a key component of such a situation analysis, to identify the facts and those measures that are considered successful. Chapter 3 provides a synthesis and evidence of some of the main aspects.

Policy work in this phase should enable policy-makers to make informed decisions about the policy changes required to address the identified problem. It is likely that in the course of developing policy options, previously identified problems may change and new problems will be identified.

Agreeing on principles during policy formulation

A clear set of principles and factors should guide the teacher policy development process, at the heart of which should be a commitment to quality teaching and learning (see Box 4.2 for the example of UNRWA). Such a set of principles and factors should include:

● Equity: will the policy result in greater equity in education? Do the options and choices consider the needs of marginalized and disadvantaged groups? How do the policy options and choices address disabilities?

● Comprehensive and holistic: is the policy comprehensive? Does it address holistically the interrelated aspects of teacher quality, status and conditions, and teacher education? Is it integrated and linked to existing social and other education policies?

● Financial sustainability: are the policy choices and options affordable and financially sustainable?

● Feasibility: are the policy options and choices feasible and easy to implement? Are they manageable from an administrative standpoint? Is there adequate capacity to implement?

Drafting policy options and choices – paying attention to costing and implementation

The drafting of policy options and choices should be consistent with the analysis of the situation in the country and the principles agreed upon. This is often the task of a dedicated group of people, who may comprise a Task Force or Commission established by the government or may be MoE officials. In some cases, the task force or MoE may choose to contract out the work to experts involved in the policy process. This is the phase where teacher education experts are sometimes brought in. A well-crafted teacher policy should clearly outline the vision, the issue to be addressed, the possible policy options and solution to the problems. Crucially, it should also include the costs and benefits of each policy option, as well as the conditions and implementation issues to be addressed for the policy to be successful.

Following consultations, a final policy document, setting out the agreed policy choices, should be issued.

4.1.4   Phase 3: Adoption/decision

The appropriate government official or body, such as the president, congress, minister, state legislators, agency officials or court, makes a decision about the final policy. Deliberations of such parties and bodies may, at times, result in the policy being altered or modified and, in exceptional cases, rejected in its entirety. However, the previously recommended consultation phase should help to mitigate this.

The process of policy approval and adoption depends on the country context. In many countries – where the final policy is regarded as a major plank in the government's platform – a final draft is compiled for the parliament's endorsement and approval. In other cases, the policy becomes a document of the MoE, requiring endorsement by the Minister of Education. Any policy that is endorsed may require governmental actions, including budgetary appropriation, changes in existing rules and new regulations. Laws-making differs in each country. In South Africa, for example, all major education policies are issued initially in draft form as white papers (and in some cases as green papers), after which they follow the parliamentary process of Bills, Readings and finally Act. Box 4.3 explains the general process of making a law in South Africa, which also applies to the adoption of a teacher policy.

BOX 4.3: THE PROCESS OF MAKING A LAW IN SOUTH AFRICA

Parliament is the national legislature (law-making body) of South Africa. As such, one of its major functions is to pass new laws, to amend existing laws, and to repeal or abolish (cancel) old laws. This function is guided by the Constitution of South Africa, which governs and applies to all law and conduct within South Africa.

Who Makes the Laws?

Both Houses of Parliament, the National Assembly (NA) and the National Council of Provinces (NCOP), play a role in the process of making laws. A Bill or draft law can only be introduced in Parliament by a Minister, a Deputy Minister, a parliamentary committee, or an individual Member of Parliament (MP). About 90% of Bills are initiated by the Executive.

What Is a Law?

Law is a system of rules, usually enforced through a set of institutions to regulate human conduct. It shapes politics, economics and society in many ways. There are different types of laws, namely contract law, property law, trust law, criminal law, constitutional law and administrative law. Constitutional law provides a framework for the creation of law, the protection of human rights and the election of political representatives. Law also raises important issues concerning equality, fairness and justice.

The Process of Making a Law

The process of making a law may start with a discussion document called a Green Paper that is drafted in the Ministry or department dealing with a particular issue. This discussion document gives an idea of the general thinking that informs a particular policy. It is then published for comment, suggestions or ideas. This leads to the development of a more refined discussion document, a White Paper, which is a broad statement of government policy. It is drafted by the relevant department or task team and the relevant parliamentary committees may propose amendments or other proposals. After this, it is sent back to the Ministry for further discussion, input and final decisions.

What is a Bill?

It is a draft version of a law. Most Bills are drawn up by a government department under direction of the relevant minister or deputy minister. This kind of Bill must be approved by the Cabinet before being submitted to Parliament. Bills introduced by individual Members are called Private Members' Legislative Proposals. A Bill becomes an Act when the State President of South Africa gives assent – that is, signs the Bill. In the case of Provincial Bills they become acts when the Provincial Premier gives assent.

Before a new Act comes into force, it has to be 'enacted'. This process involves the State President declaring its commencement date in the Government Gazette. For an Act to be fully enacted, the responsible Ministry/department has to indicate that it is ready and has the requisite capacity to implement the new law.

Source: Public Education Office, Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2014 (adapted with permission).

The process of making law is subject to contestation and conflict, and often involves legal challenges. In federal states, for example, provinces, regions or states may challenge central government if they are held responsible for financing the implementation of the law. Box 4.4 describes the contestation over the Right to Free Education Act in India.

BOX 4.4: COUNTRY EXAMPLE – INDIA'S ADOPTION OF THE RIGHT TO FREE EDUCATION ACT 2009

The Indian government initiated legislative action in 2002 to ensure that its education policy was in keeping with global shifts in national education policies, seeking to make free and compulsory education a fundamental right for all children in India between ages 6–14. To this end, building on existing legislation in the Indian constitution, the 86th Amendment Act (2002) Article 21A (Part III) was initiated in December 2002.

By October 2003, a first draft of the legislation, the Free and Compulsory Education for Children Bill, 2003, was formulated and made available for public consultation. The public was invited to comment and suggest possible areas of change or improvement.

In 2004, after taking into account public feedback, a revised draft of the bill was issued, entitled Free and Compulsory Education Bill, 2004. This was reviewed further in 2005 by the Ministry of Human Resources and Development and the Prime Minister. However, in 2006 the Finance Committee and Planning Commission rejected the bill, on the basis of insufficient funding. As a result, a model bill was sent to the states to make the required arrangements for its funding and implementation.

After much debate and many legal appeals, the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Bill, 2008, was passed in both houses of Parliament in 2009. The law received the President's approval in August 2009. Article 21-A and the Right to Education Act came into effect on April 1, 2010.

Despite its approval, the Act was subject to legal appeals, especially because the states were asked to fund implementation of the policy. In 2012, the Supreme Court upheld Parliament's approval, making implementation the legal responsibility of each state.

For more information: Selva 2009; Radhakrisshnan, 2012.

4.1.5 Phase 4: implementation – communication and dissemination

Chapter 5 of this Guide deals more extensively with implementation of approved policy.

This section discusses the issue of communication and dissemination.

Because of its level of 'concreteness', the implementation process highlights the existing structural capacities, as well as stakeholders' actual ability to yield the desired change. In some cases, this may require rethinking and adjusting aspects of the policy.

Effective implementation of the policy should be promoted through well-designed information campaigns targeted at all stakeholders, as well as other interested groups (Box 4.5 provides an example from UNRWA). Promoting the policy increases the probability of successful implementation, as it builds public support and endorsement, which are crucial to achieving the desired goals. Media exposure can help ensure that the public understands and supports the policy process.

4.1.6 Phase 5: Monitoring and evaluation

The policy development process should include a clear plan for monitoring and evaluation, to help determine whether the implemented policy is achieving the intended objectives. Timely provision of sound information can improve a policy's relevance, efficiency and effectiveness. Efforts to improve the use of information focus on making it more usable by policy-makers, particularly in the wake of calls for more 'country-led monitoring and evaluation systems' (UNICEF, 2009). Monitoring and evaluation should measure the policy's effectiveness in addressing the problems originally identified, and determine whether the policy is bringing about the desired changes. The problems identified during monitoring and evaluation may require changes in policy design. However, the monitoring and evaluation process should not simply be summative and conducted at the end of the process. It should also include formative and continuous monitoring to adjust the policy as it is being implemented (see Chapter 5 for a more detailed discussion). The main aim of robust monitoring and evaluation of a teacher policy should be to enhance and improve the policy; as such, it should be framed within a continuous improvement approach.

BOX 4.5: COUNTRY EXAMPLE – UNRWA TEACHER POLICY COMMUNICATION

Advocacy and communication prior to the start of the implementation of the Teacher Policy is essential. This shall include:

- Field level advocacy and communication towards education stakeholders, including education staff, parents and communities; and

- Headquarters to support Fields (offices outside headquarters) through: i) Meetings with the unions; ii) Production and dissemination to the Fields of materials regarding the Educational Reform in general and the Teacher Policy in particular; and iii) Advocacy meetings in the Field.

Source: UNRWA, 2013 (reproduced with permission).

4.2. Roles and responsibilities

A clear delineation of the roles of the different players involved in the process is vital to an effective policy development process (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2013), and ensures that the views of different stakeholders are reflected and incorporated into a final policy text. Thus, a crucial step in any teacher policy process is to identify relevant institutions and organizations, including MoEs, ministries of finance, schools, organizations representing teachers and students, parents' associations, and international agencies (OECD, 2005). Different stakeholders play different roles at different stages of the policy process. For example, adoption/decision-making is usually the prerogative of parliaments or equivalent legislature in contexts where a teacher policy passes through a legislative process. Table 4.1 lists some of the main stakeholders and indicates their potential roles and positive involvement in the policy cycle. As noted earlier, all relevant bodies should crucially be involved in all stages of the policy development process to ensure effective policy development.

TABLE 4.1: STAKEHOLDERS/RELEVANT BODIES TO INVOLVE IN THE POLICY PROCESS

Body/Organization	Roles	Impact of involvement on policy process
Teachers and their representatives (e.g. teacher unions)	Provide teachers' practical experiences. Represent teacher concerns/needs. Participate in drafting and validating a policy.	Teachers are essential to improving education at every level. They are responsible for implementing policy. Involvement ensures that policy is effectively implemented and that teachers feel valued (OECD, 2005).
Teacher/Teacher regulatory bodies (e.g., teacher councils.).	Provide forum for profession-led policy development/input.	Contribute to professionalizing the teaching profession, achieving a balance between professional autonomy and public accountability, such as have long characterized other professions such as medicine, engineering and law.
Government – including MoE and ministry of finance (in federal states, regional/provincial/state governments must also be involved, particularly where they have concurrent powers over education and raise revenues)	Facilitate the process. Responsible for ensuring policy is adopted and adequately resourced. Facilitate needs assessment. Lead the policy process.	Ensure that implementation achieves the desired goals. Secure political commitment. Ensure professionalism, accountability, efficiency and competence, resulting in development of an effective policy (ILO, 2012). The ministry of finance is crucial in ensuring that the policy is adequately financed and consistent with national development plan and budgets.
Scholars and researchers, 'think tanks' (e.g. policy and research institutes)	Provide expertise, input and evidence to inform policy options. Possible members of task force for situational analysis/drafting policy.	Enable informed decision and evidence-based policy formulation.
School leaders (head teachers and deputy head teachers)	Provide experiences and understanding of those involved in managing schools	School leaders are essential in ensuring effective teaching and learning at the school level and enhancing teacher quality.

Body/Organization	Roles	Impact of involvement on policy process
Parents and their representatives (e.g. PTAs)	Represent the needs/concerns of parents/local communities Act as link to school communities	Local involvement and ownership are fundamental to development of a teacher policy. Local involvement ensures effective buy-in and support for policy implementation.
Students and their representatives (e.g., student representative councils)	Often overlooked. Attempts to develop education policies in general, and teacher education policies in particular, should include the learners.	Ultimately, their understanding and involvement in policy impacts on education quality.
Private sector	Represents the needs and interests of companies and businesses in policy development. In many countries, they are education providers at all levels, including in some cases providers of teacher education through private higher education institutions.	Where there are private providers of teacher education, they have an important role to play in policy development. The private sector also provides perspectives of companies and businesses about education in general and teachers and teacher education in particular.
International agencies	May fund the process. Provide accountability checks and balances. Support drafting of the policy. Technical assistance. Capacity-building.	Where donor funding or involvement is required or necessary, donors and other aid agencies have an important role to play. Provide international agency perspectives on teacher policy.

Source: Elaboration by the authors

The above table suggests some of the main stakeholders and relevant bodies that should be involved in the policy formulation process. The particular list for a given case is best determined at the country level, taking into account the specific socio-political and socio-economic context. Effective involvement of relevant bodies and stakeholders is contingent upon meaningful participation and capacity. In principle, stakeholders should have a say (as noted above) in all aspects of policy development, although not at the adoption stage (even though stakeholders may influence the process, for example by lobbying parliamentary representatives), which is mainly the prerogative of elected parliamentary representatives. Teachers, through their representative structures (such as unions) are a key constituency that should be involved in any teacher policy development process.

Participation requires creating spaces and mechanisms that facilitate social dialogue between government authorities and stakeholders, particularly as it regards teachers. In a democracy, the different stages of policy-making may be relatively public, open, and accessible to citizens, and the law may facilitate the participation of social actors in policy-making. Badat (2014) notes that such participation may take different forms, including formal and informal requests by those developing the policy for advice, consultations with statutory bodies such as teacher service commissions, and submissions and advocacy by stakeholders at public hearings and other events. As noted above, it is important to recognize that stakeholders possess very different and often unequal policy resources, including expertise and finances to engage in policy development.

Meaningful involvement and relationship-building require a culture of transparency and openness: stakeholders and relevant bodies involved in policy development should therefore be committed to the highest level of honest and open communication, and be willing to listen and to share information.

Information is crucial to participation, and governments should be committed to making information widely available. Open government and unrestricted access to information – to which many countries have committed – ensure that stakeholders and relevant bodies involved in teacher policy development are able to make informed choices and decisions.

Box 4.6 lists some questions that may help define the roles of relevant bodies and organize policy consultation.

> **BOX 4.6: CHECKLIST FOR ORGANIZING CONSULTATIONS FOR A TEACHER POLICY**
>
> - Have all bodies and stakeholders affected by teacher policy been identified?
>
> - Are learners, teachers and parents, as well as their representatives, included as key actors?
>
> - Are the roles of the relevant bodies involved in the policy development process clearly defined and agreed upon?
>
> - Have all those involved been provided with adequate information about the need for a policy and their own roles?
>
> - Is there a need to provide training and support for relevant bodies and stakeholders involved in this process?
>
> - Does this process require expert input? If so, by whom?
>
> - Is information relevant to the policy process available to and widely shared with all stakeholders?
>
> Source: Elaboration by the authors

4.3. Costing

The financial aspects of a teacher policy must be examined in the early stages of its development. Failure to effectively link policy-making and national budgetary processes is one of the main contributors to ineffective policy implementation. For instance, neglecting to consider the funding aspect of a policy could result in 'unfunded mandates'.

To strengthen linkages between policy, planning and budgeting, many countries rely on a multi-year budgeting process, which often takes the form of a medium-term expenditure framework (MTEF) (Box 4.7).

> **BOX 4.7: THE THREE KEY COMPONENTS OF ANY MTEF**
>
> Baseline budgets: Understand the cost of policy commitments by rigorous analysis;
>
> Programme evaluation: Understand which policies work and which do not, and why;
>
> Fiscal space: Forecast the amount of additional resources that can be allocated to implement new polices.
>
> Source: Elaboration by the authors

Sector MTEFs are integrated into national multi-year fiscal frameworks, ensuring that resources are allocated for policy priorities within the national budget and within a reasonably long-term framework. This can be significant, particularly in developing countries, where most of the resources are often committed to existing programmes, and financing new policy implementation is difficult.

Financing a new policy depends on the priority given to the problem, the costs and the availability of resources to implement the policy. New policies' priority within the long- and medium-term education sector plans must be clearly defined. Moreover, the new policy needs to be carefully and realistically budgeted.[29] MoEs may need to strengthen their technical capacity for financial policy modelling, costing and gathering of financial data (Clarke, 2010). When considering the costs of the policy process, costing of the implementation phase of the process should be included (UNESCO, 2007).

Well-considered financial planning of policies can contribute to the development of sustainable and effective teacher policies. Different countries have adopted different strategies in costing teacher policies: in Kenya, for example, costing involved an analysis of existing resources and sources of potential additional funding for the policy process (Box 4.8).

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29 Some countries have produced guides for costing new projects, e.g., *the United Kingdom's Green Book, Appraisal and Evaluation in Central Government* (HM Treasury, 2011). https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/220541/green_book_complete.pdf.

BOX 4.8: COUNTRY EXAMPLE – COSTING THE KENYAN EDUCATION POLICY

Several aspects of costing were involved in developing the 2005 Kenya Education Policy. First, potential sources of available resources were identified, such as donor agencies and institutions interested in the issue being explored. Examining existing collaborations between government and other organizations, such as local authority trust funds and World Bank-funded projects, incorporated an appreciation of ongoing projects and how any new policy development would impact them in the short- or long-term.

For more information: Kenya: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2005.

Analysing these relationships and coordinating new and ongoing resources was seen as crucial to developing and implementing a cost-effective policy.

When drafting the policy, costs for each policy objective were thus estimated, including every one of its elements, such as retention schemes, human resources, curriculum development, etc. The costs were estimated for the proposed lifetime of the policy, taking into account how long it was expected to run.

In South Africa, costing also involved considering the legal responsibilities of the institutions involved in funding education policies (Box 4.9).

BOX 4.9: COUNTRY EXAMPLE – COSTING THE SOUTH AFRICAN TEACHER POLICY

The Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development was jointly developed by the Department of Basic Education and the Department of Higher Education and Training. Costing the policy involved gathering information on several aspects:

• Legal advice on funding mechanisms was solicited from the legal team of the DoE;

• Information was collected about sources, such as state budgetary allocations for teacher training;

• Documents, such as budget statements, were analysed;

• Discussions about available finances for teacher development were held with provincial education departments, universities and national student financial programmes;

• There were also consultations about available resources with officials of the Ministry of Finance, who were helpful in providing accurate information about available funding opportunities.

This wide-ranging analysis provided information about available resources, where and how they could be accessed or utilized.

Source: adapted with permission from the South Africa Department of Basic Education and Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011.

Potential barriers to taking such an approach – such as lack of transparency about available resources – must be considered. Thus, costing the policy process includes identifying all elements and the main objectives of the policy involved. All the objectives, and the actions needed to achieve them, are costed individually.

4.4. Conditions for successful teacher policy development

This section lists some important issues to be considered when formulating a teacher policy that is more likely to be effectively implemented. A successful teacher policy is clear and specific in its choices to address key challenges.

4.4.1 Consistency between new policy and existing policies and structures

Teacher policy development should not occur in isolation from other policies in general, and education policies in particular. Moreover, any teacher policy process should build on existing policy. When introducing a new teacher policy, a thorough analysis should be undertaken to investigate how the new policy may impact on existing policies and what changes, if any, need to be made to the existing policy. Coherence and collaboration should be ensured among different sections/departments of MoEs, as well as with other ministries. In some instances, this may require creating new structures and bodies, such as teacher service commissions, which oversee various aspects of teacher governance, including recruitment and deployment. Where such structures exist, their roles may be redefined in light of a teacher policy – for example, if a teacher policy advocates for decentralizing teacher deployment to either the provincial/regional or school level.

4.4.2 Comprehensive strategic planning

Integrated strategic planning is crucial to effective policy development. A teacher policy needs to be an integral part both of other education policies and of governments' overall strategic plans.

In South Africa, the 2009 Teacher Development Summit called for the development and subsequent implementation of an integrated plan for teacher education and development. The government commissioned working groups and issued an Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa, which guides numerous actions for 2011–2015, based on the comprehensive review of the sector and aligned to its twenty-five-year education plan. Even given these coordinated efforts, inconsistencies still exist between these education plans

and the National Development Plan, reinforcing the need for an integrated planning process (DBE and DHET, 2011).

4.4.3 Engaging teachers

Teachers are the main stakeholders in teacher policies; their understanding, acceptance and support of a teacher policy is vital to its successful implementation. The concept is enshrined in the 1966 Recommendation, which considers the inclusion of teachers and teachers' organizations in a wide range of educational policy development – as well as employers, workers, parents and other stakeholders – a cornerstone of education policy development (ILO/UNESCO, 1966: Articles 9, 10k). Active teacher involvement in policy development and implementation, and teachers' sense of 'ownership', underlie the success of any reform (ILO/UNESCO, 2003; OECD, 2005; Yelland and Pont, 2014: 35).

As noted above, social dialogue with teachers can take different forms at different phases of the policy formulation and implementation stages.

● *Information sharing* can employ a wide array of communication channels among education authorities and teachers, from high-level policy meetings with teachers' organizations on the whole range of a teacher policy to workplace (school and classroom) discussions on implementation, involving oral or written communications in varying degrees of formality.

● *Consultation*, in which authorities actively and respectfully listen to the views of teachers without any commitment to act on these views, may be formal or informal, but should be at least meaningful. In other words, the consultation process should be genuinely open to the possibility of changing policies based on proposals from both authorities/employers and teachers/unions engaged in the consultation process. Consultation subjects may include initial teacher education and professional development programmes; curricula; teacher assessment; codes of professional conduct or ethics; school organization and innovations in learning as part of education reforms: and school infrastructure adapted to the specifics of learning needs in a country or system. Many OECD

countries successfully rely on consultation forms and institutions related to these matters to develop their education and teacher policy reforms (Asia Society, 2014; ILO, 2012: 206–207; ILO/UNESCO, 1966; Yelland and Pont, 2014: 36).

● *Participation*, which involves granting teachers a role in decision-making through a school- or system-based council or committee structure without necessarily implying a negotiated agreement, is a compromise between consultation and negotiation. Teaching councils in many countries, or other professional standard-setting bodies such as those that exist in the United States and South Africa, are examples of engaging teachers in participatory forms of policy development (ILO, 2012: 207-208; MacBeath, 2012; 109 – see also Chapter 3 on standards).

● *Negotiation* is a social dialogue that often takes the form of collective bargaining on the terms and conditions of employment – including salaries and performance assessment, hours of work and related workplace conditions – that have implications for other teaching and learning policies, such as teacher hiring and PTRs/class sizes. Negotiation is more likely to apply to the translation of a policy into action than to its elaboration (ILO, 2012: 203, 205, 206).

To be effective, social dialogue requires some conditions (ILO, 2012: 205–206):

● Strong, independent, representative and democratic teachers' organizations and, where organized, education employers' organizations, whether public or private;

● Political will, trust and commitment of all parties to engage in these processes, including both educational authorities who develop a policy and teachers' organizations that are not always accustomed to, or do not always have the capacity to engage in, policy development and application;

● Respect for the fundamental rights of freedom of association and collective bargaining as a basis for institutionalized social dialogue; and

● Social dialogue institutions, since informal or ad hoc forms of social dialogue are unlikely to have a lasting impact. A statutory framework based on social conduct laws in their various forms is vital for consultative bodies with defined responsibilities and structures (for representation on issues such as teacher education programmes, professional standards and curricula for

better learning outcomes) or for collective bargaining on employment terms and conditions (such as salaries and working hours, whether at the national, local or school level).

Various forms of social dialogue used to engage teachers in the policy process may feature considerable overlap between policy development and implementation (see also Chapter 5). It is therefore important to plan for these implications in the development process, for example by adopting a policy on teacher salaries that anticipates the negotiation process – which may in turn determine whether, and how, the policy will be implemented. While a true consultation may be difficult and time-consuming, token consultation and a rushed process places successful policy implementation at risk.

4.4.4 Evidence-informed policy (EIP) development

EIP has been promoted in the last few decades in the field of development studies. Policy development should consider the available evidence to design teacher policies resulting in better outcomes. EIP is particularly important in developing countries (Sutcliffe and Court, 2005). Facilitating EIP may require developing the country's research capacity and fostering the systematic integration of research and policy. Likewise, to facilitate greater use of evidence by policy-makers, academic researchers need to strengthen their understanding of the policy research nexus and of how to communicate relevant policy evidence to policy-makers (Segone, 2008).

Evidence-informed policy development requires managing and collecting data for use in teacher policy development (and implementation – see Chapter 5). An effective TMIS may help manage the data, either as a stand-alone database or component of a larger EMIS. A TMIS may feature data relating to all aspects of the teaching force important to a teacher policy. Certain conditions determine the usefulness of a TMIS (or EMIS) for effective policy, including: reliability, consistency and timeliness of data across education levels and administrative boundaries (national and decentralized); funding, maintenance and technical support capacity over time; user and core professional engagement (notably teachers and principals/head teacher) in planning, testing, piloting, rolling out and feedback; and user friendliness, training and capacity (ILO, 2012: 13–14).

4.4.5 Country ownership

Ownership of the policy process by developing countries is among the foundational principles of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, which hold that:

- Partner countries commit to exercise leadership in developing and implementing their national development strategies through broad consultative processes; and

- Donors commit to respecting partner countries' leadership, and help strengthen their capacity to exercise it (OECD, 2005/2008: 3).

Clarity about roles is therefore essential – particularly with regard to ownership, when international agencies are involved in policy development.

The Paris Declaration clearly indicates that the policy development process must be a country-led process. National governments are accountable for preparing their development-oriented policies and strategies through broad consultation. When international consultants or donors provide technical assistance for policy-making, national governments must ensure that the process is designed to develop national capacities.

The Accra Agenda for Action in 2008 notes that while recipient countries will 'strengthen the quality of policy design', donors should commit to 'capacity building of the development actors – parliaments, central and local governments, CSOs, research institutes, media and the private sector', so that they are empowered to play an active role in the policy development process (OECD, 2005/2008: 16).

4.4.6 Capacity of MoEs

A precondition for developing sound teacher policies is that the MoE/DoE must have the necessary human resources, with adequate technical expertise. An assessment of training needs should be carried out to ensure that civil servants and officials are able to effectively manage the public policy-making process. Box 4.0 indicates some sections in MoEs with important roles in policy-making; Table 4.2 features a checklist for assessing capacity.

BOX 4.10: SUMMARY OF MOE DEPARTMENTS WITH AN IMPORTANT ROLE IN THE POLICY PROCESS

Planning: Planning units within the MoEs are usually responsible for coordinating all education policies. They should be positioned to effectively manage and coordinate the process with other departments and external experts, such as academics or legal experts. They should possess thorough knowledge of the policy process and the skills it requires, including policy modelling, costing and research.

Finance: The finance units within MoEs or social policy units within the ministries of finance are key to effective policy development. They should be able to provide accurate costing of policy options, and have knowledge of budgetary constraints and commitments. Where MoEs have finance units, they should effectively engage and negotiate with teams in the ministry of finance.

Source: Elaboration by the authors

TABLE 4.2: A CHECKLIST FOR ASSESSING CAPACITY

- Is sufficient time officially allocated for policy work?
- Does the ministry have sufficient numbers of staff with adequate knowledge and expertise about policy?
- Do staff have adequate knowledge of policy-making?
- Is training needed to equip staff with relevant policy-making skills and knowledge, including skills in the legislative law-making process?
- Are there robust coordination mechanisms among the different sections in the MoEs and with other ministries?

Source: Elaboration by the authors

4.5. Timeframe and roadmap

As stated earlier in this chapter, the MoE/DoE is a key actor in organizing the teacher policy development process. The Ministry should, at the outset of a teacher development process, clarify the phases and stages of the process, identify the relevant bodies to be involved, the timeframe and the costs.

Developing and implementing policies (Chapter 5) is a costly, time-consuming and complex enterprise, both technically and politically. Providing a suitable timeframe is thus crucial to ensuring support from teachers and other stakeholders. A roadmap can be helpful in outlining how the goals of the policy will be implemented and realised. For instance, South Africa's *Integrated Strategic Framework for Teacher Education* was planned for overall implementation between 2011 and 2025. Each individual objective within this policy has its own specified schedule for implementation including timeframe, resources, and targets.

Clearly identifying priorities within the policy can help determine the timeframes and order in which activities to advance policy objectives will be initiated. Success of some policy objectives may depend on other policy objectives being achieved. Therefore, timeframes of some activities or policy objectives may act as foundations for other activities. The relationships between the different facets of the policy goal should thus be well analysed and understood (Haddad, 1995; WHO, 2001; ILO, 2012).

The checklist in Table 4.3 suggests some key questions to address in developing a timeframe for the policy roadmap.

TABLE 4.3: CHECKLIST FOR DEVELOPING A TEACHER POLICY TIMEFRAME AND ROADMAP

• Is there clarity on what needs to be done first?
• Are all resources needed to implement the policy in place?
• Is the timeframe realistic and feasible?
• Is there a clear roadmap for implementing the policy?
• Are all actors clear about what they need to do and by when?

Source: Elaboration by the authors

We conclude this chapter by providing a detailed case study of the development of South Africa's teacher policy (Box 4.11). South Africa presents an interesting example of the policy development process and progress made to date. It is similar in many ways to the policy cycle and planning framework – including its overlapping and non-sequential aspects – discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5 focuses on plans and organizational capacity for implementing an agreed national teacher policy.

BOX 4.11: COUNTRY EXAMPLE – DEVELOPING TEACHER POLICY IN SOUTH AFRICA

Prior to the significant democratic change in 1994, teacher education and development were fragmented along apartheid lines. In 1995, a teacher education audit was completed, which pointed out the effects of the separate provisions, the challenges which existed to improve them and options to address them. Teacher education was a provincially controlled competence, with 102 colleges of education of varying quality, generally low, in operation. The audit was followed by the adoption of the 1996 Norms and Standards for Teacher Education, which described competences for teacher qualifications and minimum competences for qualification types. In turn, this was followed in 2000 by the Norms and Standards for Educators in Schooling, through which teacher education became a nationally defined competence, incorporating the 120 colleges of education into higher education institutions. The new standards for teacher competences delineate seven roles for teachers and notions of applied and integrated competences. The document also describes the teacher education qualifications framework in line with the National Qualifications Framework. Importantly, these documents focused on competences and qualifications, without reference to the wider context of issues such as supply, demand and ongoing development in the teacher field.

The rationalization and amalgamation of colleges occurred within the context of merging higher education institutions in the country. Although the aim of closing the colleges and moving teacher education to higher education institutions was to improve quality and standards, a number of unintended effects and difficulties occurred. One was the low subsidy allocation to education faculties, which resulted in reduced enrolments. This has led to growing concern, in recent years, regarding the decreased supply of new teachers for a system requiring more and better teachers, especially in scarce skills areas like maths, science, technology, the foundation phase and the new subjects introduced by the new curriculum.

There were also important structural developments: the Education Labour Relations Council was established to negotiate agreements between the teacher unions, which have high membership rates (88%), and the state. The Council has played a significant role in a variety of issues of teacher policy, such as salaries, working conditions and performance appraisal. In the arena of teacher professional development, however, progress has been slow.

The second important structure established is the national South African Council for Educators (SACE), which is responsible for the professional registration of educators and their professional code of ethics. SACE has also worked on instituting portfolios for professional development. It has recently been given the mandate to manage the Continuing Teacher Professional Development System, which will make teachers' participation in professional development compulsory and recognized.

All of these developments were important and necessary, but there was a sense among key decision-makers in the field that a more comprehensive approach was needed to address the scale and pace of issues being faced. As a result, a Ministerial Committee on Teacher Education (MCTE) was set up in 2001. A comprehensive six-volume report was produced, which presented a view of the situation at the time, and laid out 42 wide-ranging recommendations for consideration. The report included extensive discussions and consultations with all key agencies and actors in the field. The MCTE report was adopted by the DoE and turned into a National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development (NPFTED) that was approved in April 2007. The process took twelve years from the time discussions began after 1994.

The NPFTED covers a range of areas in initial professional education of teachers (IPET) and continuing professional teacher development, and includes a section on support systems for teacher education and development. The naming of these two areas seeks to emphasize the intended professionalization of teachers and strong continuity between initial preparation of teachers and their continuing development in practice. The process of developing the NPFTED also used a wide consultation approach, consisting of presentations to different levels of decision-makers in the MoE, national and provincial departments of education, unions and other key stakeholders.

The NPFTED covers a range of key areas that correspond to those generally identified in policy development, both in sub-Saharan Africa and internationally. These are:

- Approval and recognition of teacher education programmes for employment;
- IPET routes to qualification;
- Recruitment campaigns;
- Quality management and assurance; and
- Teacher education support systems.

For more information: Sayed and Mohamed, 2010.

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CHAPTER 5.
Implementation

As this Guide demonstrates, developing a teacher policy is a complex endeavour, which depends on a number of political, social, cultural and economic factors – many of them external to education.

In the first place, implementation is often very country-specific. Teacher policy may not have the desired political 'visibility' during implementation that, for example, a new school or free enrolments for all learners may have. As political figures often need to show immediate outcomes for their constituents, teacher policy development becomes politically complex and costly, as pointed out in other regional policy guides (OREALC, 2013: 9, 90). Factors affecting implementation include overall government policies, capacities and political orientation, as well as the state of the education system and teaching profession at the time of policy development and implementation. Political and social forces at work in the country – for example, the strength of teachers' organizations or other stakeholders – add to the project's complexity.

Bearing in mind all of these potential influences, the ultimate goal of developing a policy is to implement it as far as possible. Therefore, as Chapter 4 proposes, plans for implementation should already be well underway as part of the policy development process, with a timeline and roadmap sketched out by the policy developers that are appropriate to the country and educational context.

Some evidence put forward to guide education policy implementation in OECD countries may help guide future efforts in these and other countries (Box 5.1).

One of the first decisions, depending on the country's political context, will be to determine whether the policy is best applied through a government programme or campaign, executive or administrative decisions/rules, legislation, or a combination thereof. Questions to bear in mind include:

● What will have the most impact, given the country's political, economic and education environment?

● What are the human resource and financial costs associated with the chosen path?

● What are the trade-offs in terms of these costs versus the anticipated impact?

As outlined in Chapter 4, reflection on an implementation plan will have begun during the policy development process. The next step in the process is to develop a clear and manageable implementation vehicle and plan for decision-makers.

BOX 5.1: EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF EDUCATION REFORMS IN OECD COUNTRIES

Research on effective implementation of education reforms centred on school improvement efforts in high-income OECD countries points to several factors, including:

- *Putting students and learning at the centre of reforms:* focusing on learning, instruction and the classroom environment to achieve better learning outcomes;

- *Capacity-building of professional staff:* developing teachers' skills and competencies and those of other staff responsible for reforms at any level by ensuring the necessary time, resources and learning opportunities for professional development;

- *Leadership and coherence:* ensuring good school- and system- level leadership to help guide policy implementation, coherence and alignment with other education system policies over the long-term;

- *Stakeholder engagement:* relying on the appropriate dialogue to involve teachers and teachers' unions especially, but also employers and other stakeholders, from the beginning of the design process to create well-received, legitimate policies;

- *Policy evaluation:* targeting the policy impact on learning results via rigorous, high-quality study standards, notably experimental and quasi-experimental.

For more information: OECD, 2015

5.1. Legislative process and approval

As Chapter 4 outlines (in the section on Phase 3 of the policy process), legislation to implement a teacher policy may or may not be required under a country's political system, but implementing policy through national legislation adds another – potentially decisive – political dimension. In a democratic society, the national law is supreme in relation to the country's constitution. Legislation is almost always accompanied by funding and administrative implementation measures that greatly enhance (but do not guarantee) the chances for a policy to be successfully implemented. As noted in Box 2.6, examples include the 'No Child Left Behind' legislation, adopted in 2001, and the 'Race to the Top' initiative in the United States, introduced as part of the economic stimulus legislation adopted in the wake of the 2008 financial crash. Given the federal nature of the United States, both programmes incorporated substantial financial incentives encouraging individual states and local school districts to follow the policy goals, based on strictly defined criteria and plans. Many states and local school districts developed plans to meet these policies' criteria and secure the necessary federal grants, often focusing on teacher assessment and employment issues, as outlined in the 'Race to the Top' initiative. Recent reports reveal mixed implementation results, noting challenges such as too few resources, lack of communication and stakeholder involvement (see, among others, Baker, Oluwole, and Green, 2013; Boser, 2012; Weiss, 2013). Nevertheless, the political debates around the legislation and the efforts to comply with implementation incentives have given the policies much more visibility and influence than they would otherwise have had.

Planning and providing technical and legal support to a country's legislative body to adopt a law(s) to implement a national teacher policy is not without costs, delays and potential setbacks. Box 4.5 describes the process and timeline for the adoption of India's Right to Free Education Act, 2009. Including legal challenges, this policy was officially approved only in 2012, at the end of a ten-year process. The adoption of the legislation, and its reaffirmation in line with the country's constitution, is a potentially powerful tool for education authorities and stakeholders to advance teacher policy in a country that engages nearly 15% of the world's primary and secondary teachers, and needs an estimated 3 million more teachers by 2030 (UNESCO, 2014; UIS, 2014).

If legislation is the chosen policy implementation path, technical support from policy developers is essential at various stages: drafting legislation to include legal experts' knowledge and input; responding to parliamentary enquiries (commissions/committees or direct responses to lawmakers or their aides); building relationships with political interest groups, including important stakeholders; lobbying legislators and the media; and refining the legislation or its implementation provisions post-adoption.

5.2. Executive or administrative decisions

Policy developers within the MoE or other teacher employer/management agency or department may be mandated or choose to employ executive or administrative paths to policy implementation. Derived from institutional authority given by legislation and accompanying regulations, such avenues are less onerous (including in terms of staff and financial resources). Achieving the desired impact may prove more difficult, because they do not always have the necessary political authority and accompanying financial backing. At the same time, they can be a more cost-effective means of policy implementation, and even an improvement on less authoritative instruments, such as issuing guidelines in decentralized systems. Kenya's teacher recruitment policy is an example (Box 5.2).

5.3. Tools and schedule of work

Policy implementation may utilize a number of tools or instruments, including a plan of action, a logical framework (log frame), guidelines or similar tools. The chosen instruments should include a timeline that takes into consideration the amount of time required to implement a policy, challenges to doing so, and capacities for operationalizing the policy.

5.3.1 Action plans

An action plan serves as a roadmap for authorities on implementing a policy's objectives, strategies and programmes, based on planned resources, defined roles and responsibilities, and the desired timing. Some action plans are formulated more generally, as in the case of the United Kingdom's plan for teacher education (Box 5.3).

The consensus is that a carefully formulated action plan increases the likelihood of successful implementation. Elements to be considered when constructing an action plan include:

- An activity statement tied to the policy and strategic/programme objective the activity is supporting;

- Implementation outputs, targets, benchmarks (milestones) and indicators;

- Timeline for implementation;

- Information sources, such as EMIS, TMIS or an equivalent information system;

- Activity costs, which may include defined unit costs and an indication of the percentage of costs in relation to the overall action plan budget;

- Funding sources: public and private national (including regional and local) sources, and, where likely, funding from external development partners; and

- Implementation structures, roles and responsibilities for policy implementation.

Developing an action plan that has a reasonable chance of successfully implementing a teacher policy requires dialogue among various actors with different tasks and roles, as outlined in Chapter 4 and Box 5.1. Since it is a very political process, effective dialogue should take place at different decision-making levels and with the widest possible range of political actors, including:

● Between the various departments/offices/agencies of the MoE or respective education authority;

● Between the MoE and other relevant government units: for example, the ministry of finance or budget; the public service or teacher service commission or equivalent entity responsible for recruiting and employing teachers; the ministry of labour, which is responsible for workplace regulation and labour relations; and any other government body whose mandate covers subjects related to a policy and plan (ministry of health for HIV and AIDS; education-level ministries such as ECE, primary/basic education or secondary education, where they exist separately from an education ministry);

● Between the national or central government and regional or local levels: for example, regional (state/province) or local (district/municipal) education authorities or committees;

● Between the government and other stakeholders: for example, teachers and teachers' unions/organizations (which are especially important given their central place in the process); private education providers, especially where the private sector is a major source of education provision; employers and businesses who can support implementation as part of their desire to see greater coherence; autonomous teacher education institutions or providers; professional bodies, such as teachers' councils; parent/teacher associations; community/village representatives; and non-governmental organizations. It is crucial to use the most appropriate forms of social dialogue with teachers and teachers' organizations to plan implementation of a policy in whose development these principal stakeholders should have already been engaged (see Section 4.4.3); and

● Between the government or education authority and development partners: for example, multilateral agencies and bilateral donors.

Given its political nature, the dialogue over the plan's implementation, like the process of developing the policy itself (Chapter 4), inevitably involves compromises in prioritizing the nature and performance of the required activities. Revisions, postponement or cancellation of lower-priority activities should be expected so that the maximum number of stakeholders/actors can commit to and own the success of the policy and plan. Rather than weaken the plan, a process based on compromise and trade-off will usually enhance the likelihood of successful implementation, if it brings together the maximum partners in the process.

Once decided, the action plan will need to be fully costed and (inasmuch as possible) funded from within existing resources according to the above parameters. Implementation funding may be distinct from policy development funding (Section 4.3), even if it is part of a unified budget that provides for both from the very beginning. Where necessary and possible, resources may be sought from national stakeholders and/or international partners on a general or project-specific basis (as is the case for general education funding). This highlights the importance of broad-based stakeholder support for the policy and plan to increase the resources dedicated to implementation: the need is often as much a need for human resources as for financial resources. If a funding gap exists, it may be necessary to rethink the plan's objectives and ambitions or to include alternative means of overcoming constraints in the plan. Funding for implementation through the plan should always be considered over time – not just in the short-term or as associated with a first plan – and should be timed to coincide with government and education authority budgeting cycles (ADEA, 2009: 3; GPE, 2014: 350; IIEP and GPE, 2012: 15–16; ILO, 2014: 4, 33; Yelland and Pont, 2014: 31-32).

5.3.2   Log frames and work plans

If properly adapted, a logical framework (log frame), developed as a project design and management methodology and used by numerous bilateral and multilateral development agencies in high-income countries (World Bank, n.d.), may help those responsible for implementation to follow progress. A log frame matrix links objectives, goals, purposes and expected outputs through planned activities to 'objectively verifiable' or measurable indicators. The aim is to measure progress, while also specifying a means of verifying the indicators (information) and assumptions. An example at the international level is the log frame developed by UNESCO for the implementation of its Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2007 – http:// unesdoc. unesco.org/images/0015/001539/153940e. pdf).

A work plan to put strategies or programmes into operation constitutes an alternative approach. Ghana's work plan in support of its education sector plan (Box 2.1) contains several components, grouped under objectives dedicated to teachers or teaching: improving teaching and learning quality; improving management

of education service delivery; and teacher supply and deployment. The work plan's matrix links these objectives to targets (outcomes and outputs); it provides an outline of the strategy, activities, time frames and responsible units/agencies (Government of Ghana, 2012).

Developing either a log frame or a work plan as part of policy implementation can provide clarity of purpose and direction, and help develop collaboration across units, departments and agencies. The limits of either tool should nevertheless be acknowledged: a tendency towards rigidity as defined by the matrix, and hence a lack of flexibility in adapting implementation to changing circumstances and constraints – political, economic/financial and above all human – as well as a difficulty in obtaining meaningful stakeholder inputs

to the matrix, whether at the stage of conception, implementation or monitoring/evaluation. Log frames

and work plans remain tools for internal use, helpful for those involved in policy/plan design and implementation, provided they have the knowledge and training to use the tools effectively.

5.3.3 Guidelines and other instruments

Implementation may often benefit from detailed, practical guidelines for implementing a policy. Guidelines – which may also include or be accompanied by checklists – can be especially beneficial for those actors and stakeholders that were not directly involved in policy development, for instance: decentralized administration; institutions such as teacher education providers; and specialized professional bodies, such as qualifications authorities, standards boards or labour relations forums. Kenya's policy on teacher recruitment (Box 5.2) contains implementation guidelines and other useful tools.

5.4. Monitoring and evaluation

A monitoring and evaluation plan, featuring the appropriate instruments, should form an integral part of any implementation plan to ensure that the planned activities are carried out and the targets achieved. Resources permitting, one department or unit (for example a dedicated monitoring and evaluation unit, the unit responsible for the EMIS or TMIS, or a cross-departmental team) should be entrusted with periodic monitoring to ensure faithful execution of the plan. Where the education authorities' human or financial resources are limited (for example, in resource-poor countries, small states or decentralized authorities), at least one member of the plan's design unit should have such responsibilities.

Monitoring activities may be broken down into:

● *Periodic monitoring* through desk or field reviews, analysis of implementation records and activity logs, ongoing data gathering and structured meetings within and between implementing departments/agencies. This type of monitoring is necessary to assess progress towards the targets and benchmarks (milestones) listed in the implementation plan, identify constraints and generate solutions to problems as they emerge. Annual work plans and periodic reports may be used to help structure these exercises (Kusek and Rist, 2004: 97–98). Trinidad and Tobago's strategic plan for education bases its monitoring on monthly reports

by each officer and all divisions/units involved in the plan (MoE/Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, 2012: 30–31). Analysis of timely information generated through EMIS/TMIS or statistical units may also be used. Papua New Guinea's strategic plan for gender equity in education relies on monitoring based on gender-disaggregated data for students, teachers, head teachers and education officers, generated annually (DoE, Papua New Guinea, 2009: 13–25). Periodic monitoring should include decentralized bodies responsible for plan activities.

● *Periodic monitoring reports generated by monitoring and evaluation specialists,* based on regular reviews by the monitoring team or unit and using agreed upon guidelines and tools (for example, a questionnaire assessing achievement results or a checklist aligned with the implementation activities), are important. The reports should reach key decision-makers at the appropriate levels, to inform them in real time about constraints and recommended corrective action so as to make the necessary adjustments to the implementation plan.

● *An annual review with stakeholders should be planned and held by those responsible for monitoring, to review implementation of the plan with key stakeholders –* representatives of teachers, students, parents, non-

governmental organizations or civil society. In addition to using the results of periodic monitoring and reports, the monitoring team conducting the annual review should have an open consultative process allowing stakeholders to share concerns as well as successes in the plan's implementation and, critically, to indicate where activities need to be changed. This feedback is crucial to assessing implementation of the policy. The report back from the review should be honest, identifying difficulties and even failures, and not driven by the desire to please higher-level policy- and decision-makers.

● *A consolidated annual performance report incorporating the relevant elements from the other monitoring exercises.* This report will serve as the basic document for high-level review of achievements, shortcomings and possible improvements. The review should, in turn, serve as a pillar for a revised action plan. To be meaningful, it will need to be aligned with the action plan targets, in terms of the key human and financial resource dimensions.

Monitoring can reveal changes in terms of specific indicators, as measurements of progress or lack thereof, but it cannot necessarily indicate what is responsible for the changes – hence the need for evaluation, which can reveal what happened, why it happened and what difference it makes (Russon, 2010: 108). A mid-term or end-of-term evaluation (or both), preferably carried out by independent personnel to guarantee objectivity, is important in assessing policy implementation and to provide guidance for future implementation. A final review can evaluate impact and outcomes, relevance, cost-effectiveness and sustainability, as well as outline reasons for plan achievement or failure, in particular drawing lessons to guide policy revision and future plans (see the example of Namibia in Box 5.4).

BOX 5.4: TEACHERS' ROLES IN NAMIBIA POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION – CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In the early part of the century, major Ministry of Education policies in Namibia required teachers to use learner-centred teaching strategies and to monitor learner performance through a methodology of continuous assessment. To support reform efforts, teacher professional development was initially based on centralized policy formulation, provision of written materials on policies and their implementation, and cascade training, moving from the central Ministry to education regions to smaller groups of schools and, finally, to teachers in schools.

An evolving Ministry of Education strategy, based on decentralized, bottom-up teacher development, in which teachers were expected to act as the conduits for new policy and reform implementation rather than being the subject of guidelines and training programmes, led the MoE to develop a school self-assessment system. Aspects of teacher classroom instruction became one of the system components to support more effective implementation of instructional strategy reforms and track school performance. An observation protocol with specific indicators was used as the basis for teachers, parents, community members and the principal to discuss responses and collaboratively develop a school summary, later used in developing school plans for improvement activities. The results pointed to a need for greater collaboration between teachers and additionally to the need for increased support and a feedback mechanism to give teachers more of a voice in their own professional development and, by extension, better policy implementation.

For more information: LeCzel and Gillies, 2006

Effective monitoring and evaluation requires clear and measurable indicators linked to the set targets. Key indicators should be:

● Limited in number and focused on the major priorities;

● Presented in a results-based or outcome-oriented framework, to meaningfully measure results;

● Formulated to enable an analysis of disparities or disequilibria (by gender, urban/rural, disadvantaged populations, etc.) in policy implementation; and

● Consistent and stable throughout the implementation cycle and, most importantly, easily understandable by all users, from top-level decision-makers to the most directly affected users, i.e. teachers and learners.

In this regard, indicators need to be agreed with and accepted by stakeholders and – if relevant to the policy's implementation – by development partners (IIEP and GPE,

2012: 15–18; ILO, 2012: 64, 102, 133–134). Through the appropriate social dialogue mechanisms (see Chapter 4), teachers at the school level and teachers' organizations at other levels can provide valuable input into priority indicators for learning outcomes that are measurable, meaningful and equitable in relation to classroom realities and respect the requirement for consistency over time.

While the designers of an implementation plan will invariably have quantitative indicators to guide implementation, greater reliance on qualitative information from stakeholders or independent researchers can be a valuable supplement for gauging success or failure, thereby influencing policy and strategic planning for greater impact. The approach is crucial in assessing the attitudes and behaviours of perhaps the most important actors in policy implementation – teachers – who, for many reasons related to their personal and professional backgrounds, experiences, and perceptions of their status, often become reluctant implementers of a policy into which they had little or no input during the development process (Smit, 2005; Hargreaves, 1994; Hargreaves, 1998).

In addition to the perceptions and feedback of teachers and school leaders on the plan's implementation and overall policy objectives, monitoring and evaluation may be an opportunity to use an institutional mechanism – social dialogue – to ensure greater teacher voice in the process at the school level, if that voice is not already present at other policy stages (see Chapters 2–4) (ILO, 2012: 216-217).

 Increasingly, a more bottom-up (as opposed to top- down) approach to monitoring and evaluating policy design and implementation is favoured:

- Research from China has shown a divide between teachers and authorities' appraisal of the success of the urban-to-rural teacher mobility policy. Weaknesses were identified in the incentive system, evaluation mechanisms and the system of local government support, all of which required additional work for the policy to be successful. One of the recommendations for changes resulting from the policy analysis was to provide greater opportunity for teachers to be consulted, provide feedback and participate in policy-making (Liu, Li and Du, 2014: 78–80).

- Similarly, an assessment of Pakistan's national education plans from 1992 to 2010 in the large province of Punjab identified a number of reasons for failures and weak implementation linked to administration. One of the recommendations for strengthening the implementation of the education plans was to make the implementation mechanism more active, responsible and accountable, using a bottom-up approach structured around greater involvement of PTAs, teachers and other stakeholders (Siddiq, Salfi and Hussain, 2011: 294).

- Finally, an analysis of teachers' experiences with the implementation of the inclusive education policy in two districts in Ghana found that teachers had limited and often distorted understandings of the policy and the innovations required in their practice. To be successful, the policy initiation process needed to become clearer and more inclusive, to enable stakeholders to understand the purpose of and accept the policy agenda (Alhassan, 2014: 127).

5.5. Organizational arrangements for implementation

Whether in a centralized, federal or highly decentralized education system, identifying who is responsible for which parts of policy implementation at what level (see also Chapter 4) provides clarity on responsibilities, tasks and lines of communication (IIEP and GPE, 2012: 13; UNESCO, 2012a: 42–45). Defining responsibilities ranging from the highest national executive level to the school level is especially important for those most directly engaged with teachers – for example principals/school heads, inspectors, teacher educators, standard setters (professional qualification bodies) and employing authorities (teacher

or public service commissions, private school managers/employers). The multi-layered world of ECE planning and governance, often split between many government ministries or agencies, provides a good example of the importance of inter-agency/ministerial coordination for success in education policy (ILO, 2014: 33).

This is why the process requires an assessment of key success factors and roadblocks, as well as accompanying decisions on who does what, when, where and how. Such decisions should define leadership and implementation responsibilities, in addition to outlining the human and

financial capacity to implement. Defining the process for implementation must address political and other hurdles that stand in the way of success. If these factors are not included in the action plan, they should be set out in an accompanying assessment, backed up by organizational directives as needed.

5.5.1 Responsibilities: leadership and management

Designating the individuals responsible for leadership and overall implementation of the policy, as well as for specific programmes or activities, and defining how they will be held accountable, are key issues to be addressed in teacher policy, as in overall education sector policy. For instance:

● *Leadership* should be as close to the top of the political decision-making chain as possible: a minister or principal executive (e.g. director-general or superintendent or permanent secretary) to ensure that a policy succeeds;

● *Roles and responsibilities* may be close to or replicate the usual roles and responsibilities of government or education authority units, or be devolved to a dedicated team, provided decisions on responsibilities do not lead to ambiguity or confusion. A clearly designed organizational chart helps show structure and lines of authority/decisions. New structures may include a joint steering committee or task force responsible for overall policy implementation, while a monitoring team or existing units coordinate daily implementation. The United Republic of Tanzania provides an example of the contrasts between clearly established management responsibilities. The Teacher Education Master Plan, published in 2001, contains extensive objectives and costing of the plan, but is silent about organizational arrangements for its implementation. In contrast, the Primary Education Development Plan, put forward by the Government in the same year, details implementation responsibilities, including an organizational chart ranging from the central government level, through to the region, district and village, and down to the school level (BEDC, URT, 2001; MOE, URT, 2001).

5.5.2 Implementation capacity

Adequate capacity to implement a policy effectively is crucial in ensuring success. Among the factors that can be directly influenced by policy- and decision-makers, a capacity analysis of key actors for implementation should at least consider:

● *Public-sector management and institutions:* the quality of public administration and civil service management at all levels involved in implementing a teacher policy; transparency, accountability and capacity to establish a dialogue with stakeholders; the quality of budgetary and financial management; and the level and efficiency of revenue mobilization;

● *Educational administration and teacher management and support:* the effectiveness of individual roles and responsibilities at various levels; structures; lines of authority; communication and coordination; and monitoring and evaluation;

● *The competencies of individual officials or agents:* the qualifications, competences, skills, training and incentives of officials involved in implementing the policy;

● *Private-sector education providers and non-state actors:* the responsibilities, and human and financial capacity to supplement public sector responsibilities.

Successful implementation crucially requires developing and enhancing capacity to take into account these factors. Where gaps are identified, training in planning, management, communication and other skills should be considered in advance of or parallel to implementation. Any external technical support (e.g. individuals, institutions/ agencies or governments) should be targeted to further develop national capacity, whether at the central, regional or local level (IIEP and GPE, 2012: 8, 13, 24). Trinidad and Tobago's strategic education plan's goal of transforming the Ministry of Education into a high-performing organization outlines the strategy/priority on institutional capability and capacity, with a focus on seventeen activities related to leadership, governance and integrated management; monitoring and evaluation systems; planning; policy development and management; operations and processes; and information systems management (MOE/Government of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago, 2012: 16–18).

5.5.3 Governance: implementation bodies/structures

The country and administrative contexts, as well as decisions about leadership, responsibilities and capacity, will largely determine the most appropriate implementation structures or bodies. The strategy

may rely on existing structures of public or education administration, including dedicated public or teacher employment bodies (PSCs or TSCs); devolve responsibility to an independent or autonomous entity, such as a teacher professional or qualifications council; or create a new implementation structure – perhaps outside government authority – such as a national professional foundation or other body. Whatever the path chosen, it should respond to some key questions:

● What is likely to be the most equitable, efficient and democratically accountable structure?

● Does the implementation structure have the authority to take key decisions, including on key policy dimensions (Chapter 3), especially teacher education, professional development, employment and funding mobilization or transfer?

● Does the chosen body or structure have the management and financial capacity to oversee implementation, given the risks and constraints identified in the action plan?

● Is the structure able to effectively communicate with and mobilize all important political actors and stakeholders to understand, commit to and act on policy objectives and plans?

5.6. Costing implementation

All aspects of implementation (at least the major ones highlighted above) need to be budgeted, including:

● Implementation vehicle and process – executive/administrative or legislative;

● Plan of action and related instruments;

● Monitoring and evaluation; and

● Organizational arrangements – leadership, management, capacity development, and structures.

As with policy development (Chapter 4) and the development of the action plan set out earlier in this chapter, funding may come from national or sub- national sources (public budget or a mix of public and private sources), as well as development partners. Implementing a teacher policy may be a lesser priority for development partners, but not excluded. External support where necessary can be sought from many of the partners cited in Chapter 2 (Section 2.3), for example through the country support function of the International Task Force on Teachers for Education 2030, or the development and implementation grant-funding mechanisms of the GPE. The conditions for such funding, whether channelled through general or education sector budget support or through earmarked funding for selected activities, need to be clear, and country ownership maintained. A feasible policy action plan, or one perceived as such, can itself help mobilize resources to implement policies.

If funding gaps exist, strategies and plans may have to be revised – for example, by devising more cost-effective implementation means, including greater synergies in structures/management or activities, or delegating responsibility for activities from central to decentralized bodies or to other stakeholders. The overall objectives and major priorities should always be kept in mind during the revision process (IIEP and GPE, 2012: 14).

As discussed in this Guide, policy development and implementation is a complex process and subject to political contestation. Effective teacher policy implementation requires awareness of the context-specific political and cultural dynamics in which policies are created and take root. This requires an implementation approach that focuses explicitly on the contextual constraints and the expectations of local agents and constituencies beyond the state, and factors in existing power relations to ensure that a teacher policy will result in the desired changes.

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Glossary

Absenteeism

Frequent or habitual absence from work, without a good reason; absenteeism does not include occasional absence due to reasons beyond one's control, such as sickness.

Appraisal (or performance appraisal or review)

A method by which a teacher's job performance is evaluated, as part of assessing teaching effectiveness and guiding and managing career progression and professional development.

Attrition

The reduction of the workforce due to voluntary and involuntary terminations of employment, deaths and employee retirements.

Benefit

Financial or non-financial compensation related to employment in addition to base salary, such as allowances for housing, transport, health care, insurance, retirement, day care, sick leave or other forms of social protection, funding of CPD, etc.

Blended learning

A formal education program in which a part of the content and instruction is delivered through face-to-face training methods and a part through computer-mediated activities and online media.

CEART

Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the 1966 Recommendations concerning the Status of Teachers and the 1997 Recommendation Concerning the Status of Higher-Education Teaching Personnel, charged with monitoring and promoting the implementation of the recommendations.

Certification (teacher certification or licensing)

The process of earning qualifications or credentials and the recognition by the relevant education authority of such achievements that allows a teacher to teach in certain subject areas at a specific educational level.

Cluster

See School cluster

Collective agreement

A written agreement regarding working conditions and terms of employment concluded between one or more employers or employers' organizations, on the one hand, and one or more representative organizations of teachers or other education workers or their duly elected representatives, on the other.

Collective bargaining

All negotiations which take place between one or more employers or employers' organizations, on the one hand, and one or more organizations of teachers or other education workers or their duly elected representatives, on the other, for determining working conditions and terms of employment or for regulating relations between employers and teachers or other education workers.

Contract teachers (also known as "para" or paraprofessional, auxiliary, contractual or community teachers)

Teachers recruited on a temporary, contractual basis, often as a response to difficulties in recruiting sufficient numbers of qualified teachers, or to meet budgetary restraints. They are almost always less well-trained and paid, and have less job security, than permanent or civil service teachers.

CPD: Continuing/continual professional development

The ongoing professional learning process, by which teachers reflect upon, maintain and develop their professional knowledge, skills and practices. CPD is both a right and an obligation of all professions, including teaching, and may include formal, structured and informal, self-directed learning.

Deployment

The placement or allocation of teachers to positions within an education system and across a region or nation.

De-skilling

The process by which highly skilled, well-trained teachers are replaced by less- or un-skilled teachers with less, minimal or no professional training, resulting in the lowering of educational standards and the status of the profession.

Direct discrimination

Less favourable treatment explicitly or implicitly based on one or more prohibited grounds, including ethnicity, race, religion, political opinion, sex, disability, age, sexual orientation, national extraction, social origin (including caste), circumstances of birth or on the grounds of membership in a group or organization.

Early Childhood Education (ECE)

Education prior to compulsory education, regarded as an education in its own right and an essential part of lifelong learning, not as merely preparation for primary school. Early childhood education is referred to as level 0 on the International Standard Classification of Education.

Education for All (EFA)

The Education for All movement is a global commitment to provide quality basic education for all children, youth and adults. Governments, development agencies, civil society and the private sector are working together to reach six EFA goals by 2015.

Education for Sustainable Development (ESD)

An approach to education based on the principle that education is a key to promoting the values, behaviour and lifestyles necessary for a sustainable future.

Education Management Information System (EMIS)

A system designed to collect, manage, process and report data about an education system, including information relating to schools, learners, teachers and staff; this information is as important basis for the formulation, management and evaluation of education policies.

E-learning

The use of electronic educational technology or information communication technologies in learning and teaching.

Evidence-informed practice (EIP)

A approach to policy development which aims to use research, information and knowledge about practices to guide policy design and implementation, with the objective of achieving better outcomes for people and communities.

Fast Track Initiative (FTI)

See Global Partnership for Education.

Financial incentives

Additional financial compensation to base salary intended to encourage acceptance of work assignments in certain geographic areas or subjects, or to motivate and reward teachers or other staff for their performance.

Flexible working hours

Schedules that allow education employees to structure their work hours around their professional development or personal responsibilities, often through part-time work, job sharing or a compressed workweek.

Freedom of association

The right of workers and employers to freely establish and join organizations of their own choosing, including trade unions, without any distinction, previous authorization or interference, and subject only to the rules of the organization concerned.

General Education System Quality Analysis/Diagnosis Framework (GEQAF)

Framework to strengthen national capacity in assessing education systems, based on local knowledge and expertise, developed by UNESCO in collaboration with its Member States. The GEQAF, which contains 15 analytical tools covering key interconnected aspects of an education system, is designed to guide diagnostics/analysis, in order to strengthen the knowledge base required to design and implement improvement interventions.

Global Partnership for Education (GPE)

A multilateral partnership, established in 2002 as the Education for All Fast Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) and comprising around 60 developing countries, donor governments, international organizations, the private sector, teachers, and civil society/NGO groups, which is devoted togetting all children in school for a good quality education .

Gross domestic product (GDP)

The primary indicator of a nation's economic activity, and therefore wealth, GDP is the market value of all final goods and services from a nation in a given year. It is calculated as the population times market value of the goods and services produced per person in the country.

Hardship allowances

Allowances paid to teachers who work in remote, inaccessible or difficult-to-staff schools, in areas of extreme poverty or in difficult or dangerous conditions, such as conflict, post-conflict or post-disaster zones.

ICT (information and communication technologies)

Information and communication technologies, services, systems and networks which create, access, store, organise, protect, communicate and transmit information in a variety of electronic or digital forms. In education, ICT offers many tools and methods to support teaching and learning.

Incentives

Financial or non-financial rewards designed to motivate individuals to accept a particular job or responsibility or to achieve certain objectives.

Indirect discrimination

Less favourable treatment which occurs when the same condition or criterion is applied to everyone, but results in a disproportionately harsh impact on some persons on the basis of characteristics such as race, language, ethnicity, colour, sex or religion.

Induction

The process of supporting a teacher to reflect on and develop their professional skills during the first few years of teaching or the first year in a particular school, through a combination of mentoring, informal support and ongoing formal training.

Initial teacher education/ training (pre-service training)

Teacher education before entering a classroom or other educational site as a fully responsible teacher.

In-service education and training (INSET, see also CPD)

The process by which teachers engage in further education or training to refresh or upgrade their professional knowledge, skills and practices in the course of their employment.

International Task Force on Teachers for Education 2030

A dedicated international alliance of stakeholders, including national governments, intergovernmental organizations, NGOs, CSOs, international development agencies and private sector organizations working together to address the teacher gap to achieve Sustainable Development Goal 4 on education (SDG 4)

Job-sharing

A type of flexible work where two people share the same employment position.

Labour unions

See Teacher unions.

Licensing

See Certification.

M-learning (mobile-learning)

A form of e-learning through social and content interactions using personal electronic or 'mobile' devices (handheld computing devices), such as smart phones, tablet computers or personal digital assistants (PDAs).

Mentoring

A one-to-one process between an experienced and a newly qualified teacher, whereby the former provides support, advice and informal training to the latter.

Medium term expenditure framework (MTEF)

A strategic policy and expenditure framework which balances what is affordable against policy priorities of the government, in the context of annual budget processes.

Monitoring and Evaluation

The processes of continuous, methodical collection of information to track the progress of an intervention (monitoring) and measuring, assessing and analysing change (evaluation) to assess implementation and fine-tune implementation processes, look for results and evidence of impact and demonstrate accountability.

Multi-grade teaching

A system where a single teacher is responsible for learners in two or more curriculum grades (sometimes for a whole school) at the same time.

Multi-shift teaching

Where the supply of schools (and/or teachers) is inadequate to provide single shift schooling for all learners, teachers teach learners in two or more shifts; this often has a negative impact on education quality, the morale of teachers and the status of teaching in general.

OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)

A survey about the working conditions and learning environments of a representative sample of teachers and schools in each country, with the objective of providing information to help countries review and define policies for developing a high-quality teaching profession.

Negotiation

A process in which two or more parties with common and conflicting interests come together and talk with a view to reaching an agreement.

Non-financial incentives

Incentives in the form of benefits. See incentives.

Paraprofessional or 'para' teachers

See contract teachers.

Performance review or appraisal

See appraisal.

Practicum

Classroom teaching practice during initial teacher education to allow student teachers to acquire beginning teaching competencies, apply theory to practice and prepare them for the realities of teaching.

Pre-service training

See initial teacher education/training.

Probation

A fixed-duration trial period to evaluate the progress and skills of a new employee before they enter full-time permanent employment.

Professional licensing

See certification.

Pupil-teacher ratio (PTR)

The number of pupils enrolled in school divided by the number of school teachers; the number of pupils per teacher (or average class size). PTRs are calculated by level of education (PTR primary or PTR secondary).

Qualified Teacher Status (QTS)

Status awarded by the teacher certifying body of a given country, authorising the holder to teach in state schools. Similar statuses exist in certain countries under other names.

Retention

The ability of an education system or organization to retain its teachers or other education staff. The term may refer to the strategies employers adopt to retain employees in their workforce, as well as the outcome.

Returning teachers

Experienced teachers who come back to teaching after a break in their career (often to undertake family responsibilities such as bringing up children).

School clusters

Groups of schools, usually in isolated areas, which work together to share resources and to allow teachers to share experiences and professional practices, with the aim of improving their teaching materials and skills. Clusters are often served by shared teacher resource centres.

Social dialogue

All forms of information sharing, consultation and negotiation between educational authorities, public and private, and teachers and their unions/associations.

Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ)

An international non-profit developmental organization of 15 Ministries of Education in Southern and Eastern Africa, who apply scientific methods to monitor and evaluate the conditions of schooling and the quality of education.

Stakeholder

A person, group or organization that has an interest or concern in, or can be affected by the results of, a particular action, objective, system or policy. It is good practice to consult and involve all stakeholders in decisions which affect them.

Standards

Expectations about teachers' knowledge, competences, attributes and performance, which describe what good teaching is in a given context and what teachers need to know and be able to do in order to implement good teaching.

Systems Approach for Better Results in Education (SABER)

World Bank's initiative to produce comparative data and knowledge on education policies and institutions, with the aim of helping countries systematically strengthen their education systems. Teacher is one of the policy domains focused by SABER. SABER-Teachers documents and analyses the teacher policies that govern public schools in education systems around the world, in both developing and developed countries.

Teacher certification

See certification.

Teacher gap

The difference between the number of teachers currently employed and the number needed to ensure education for all learners within defined learner/teacher ratios and other variables.

Teacher Management Information System (TMIS)

As part of an EMIS, or as a stand-alone database, a system designed to collect, manage, process and report individual teacher-level data about a teaching force.

Teacher unions

Organizations of teachers established for protecting or improving, through collective action, the economic and social status of their members. In some countries, teachers are members of associations, which act as unions, or are members of education worker unions, which collectively represent different categories of education personnel.

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET)

The acquisition of knowledge and skills for the world of work, often delivered through private pubic partnerships between industry and education providers.

Turnover rates

The proportion of employees who leave an organisation expressed as a percentage of total workforce over a set period (often annually).

Under-performance

Failure to perform the duties of a role to agreed or required standards. Under-performance may have many causes, including lack of clarity about standards and expectations, insufficient training, excessive workload, ineffective communication, the "wrong person for the job" or outside personal factors. Under-performance should not be confused with misconduct or poor conduct.

Unions

See Teacher unions.

Work–life balance

Having a measure of control over when, where and how an individual works, leading to their being able to enjoy an optimal quality of life inside and outside paid work.

**Education
Sector**

Countries will need to have a broad perspective on teacher issues in order to meet Sustainable Development Goal 4 and address the provisions on Teachers in the Incheon Declaration with the Framework for Action of Education 2030. A system to orient the elaboration and/or review of national teacher policies will be a useful tool. The International Teacher Task Force builds on its comparative advantage as a global multiple-stakeholder alliance joining hands to address the global teacher challenges, to offer the present *Teacher Policy Development Guide*. Users will find relevant definitions of concepts, description of the different dimensions of teacher issues and how they correlate, and suggestions of phases in the process of developing a national teacher policy. Of utmost importance is the involvement of all stakeholders, especially the teachers, in the process.

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