

Teaching policies and learning outcomes in Sub-Saharan Africa

Issues and Options



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Capacity Building
in Africa

Teaching policies and learning outcomes in Sub-Saharan Africa

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About IICBA

Established in 1999, the UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) is one of six UNESCO Category 1 Institutes and centers under the administrative direction of UNESCO Headquarters. As the only UNESCO Institute in Africa, it is mandated to:

- Address the educational, technical and professional needs of Africa in teacher development, school leadership and management;
- Bring to African institutions the latest research and development in education globally;
- Enhance the capacity of Africa's teacher education institutions;
- Further the use of technological improvements in teacher development, such as the use of the electronic media in teacher education;
- Mainstream gender equality in teacher development; and
- Enable African education to benefit from work done by our partners by providing a forum for sharing experiences in the above areas.

These targets are sought through a range of initiatives including: establishing networks of partner institutions to foster the sharing of experiences; undertaking research and development on teacher education institutions in Africa; utilizing information and communication technologies and distance education for improving the capacities of teacher education institutions; and promoting international cooperation for the development of education through the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

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The idea for the publication was first raised during the launch of the Global Monitoring Report (GMR) on Teaching and Learning in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in 2014. Reflections around the need for such a document, and its potential contents, were then led by UNESCO-IICBA which would like to thank all of the UNESCO Regional Bureaux in Africa (Abuja, Dakar, Harare, Nairobi and Yaoundé) as well as Dr. John Oliphant (Lesotho) for his valuable contributions to the document's quality.

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Foreword

African education systems have seen massive transformations and expansion over the past two decades, with more children in the primary cycle than ever before, gender parity and near universal levels of primary education in many countries. However in spite of expanded access to education, the region has not been rewarded with a commensurate increase in the quality of schooling and, more critically, higher learning outcomes.

National monitoring reports, regional and international assessments confirm significant gaps in learning achievements within and across countries- with large numbers of learners in the early primary grades lacking in foundational reading and mathematics skills, primary level drop-out rates still high across Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), and many children reaching adolescence without basic numeracy skills.

Looking to the future, the African Union recently launched the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 2016-2025)¹ which envisages a new generation of African citizens who are effective change agents for the continent's sustainable development. Teachers are situated at the heart of this strategy as part of *"qualitative systems of education and training [that] provide the African continent with efficient human resources adapted to African core values."*

Yet in spite of significant investments in teacher recruitment and initial training programs across the region since 2000, countries are still experiencing critical teacher shortages, with Ministries of Education struggling to recruit enough qualified teachers to match the expansion in primary enrolments and to deploy them where they are needed most in rural and remote communities. As a result, young learners continue to be marginalized from a quality teaching in the most impoverished areas, and a wide gap between the supply and demand for teachers has opened up across the continent.

It is now clear that 'input' remedies to teacher's recruitment, training, deployment, career development and welfare have been insufficient conditions for improving the status and attractiveness of the teaching profession in Sub-Saharan Africa, or as an impetus to real improvements in teaching and learning. An alternative, holistic and more integrated vision of teacher policy is therefore needed.

In a context of education crisis, it is crucial for national teaching policies to be more tightly connected with the broader education improvement agenda, as well as systemic and school-based efforts to monitor improvements in the quality of learning. At systems level, teachers and their representative organizations must be drawn more meaningfully into efforts to increase the responsiveness of instructional practice, curriculum and assessment policy to local poverty contexts and in addressing systemic challenges as they affect teaching practice.

At the front line of educational provision, the vital role of teachers in driving and monitoring real-time improvements in learning outcomes also requires greater attention. Indeed, there is increasing country evidence around the world on the impact of rights-based pedagogic approaches and classroom-based learning assessments in achieving more equitable outcomes for the most vulnerable learners, and in improving the quality of schooling from the bottom-up. Until now, little attention has been paid to feeding such experiences in to the broader policy picture in the African context.

1 Adopted by the African Union Heads of State and Government during their Twenty-Sixth Ordinary Session on 31 January 2016 in Addis Ababa

Finally, and with frequent reports that teacher motivation and morale are low across Sub-Saharan Africa leading to high levels of attrition, the policy discourse needs to extend beyond the narrow focus on recruitment drives and the quality of teacher training to include all other dimensions impacting on teacher's motivation and well-being and for all categories of teachers – both vertically from early childhood care and education (ECCE) to higher education, and horizontally from recruitment to retirement.

Much of the attrition problem is due, in large part due, to the daily challenges and pressures under which teacher's work, their remuneration and conditions of service and their lack of voice in shaping qualitative improvements. Country research demonstrates the need for greater institutional investments in school-based teacher support and motivation frameworks, effective supervision and appraisal mechanisms and longer-term incentive structures and professionalization policies.

Teaching policy presents a complex of issues for policy makers which are not always captured by current indicators. Holistic, comprehensive teacher policies would consider all of the above issues and while there is still an obvious urgency in recruiting more qualified teachers to close the achievement gap in Africa's school systems, what is perhaps needed above all is more iterative, joined up thinking and policy making.

For too long, Africa's teachers have been divorced from constructive involvement in the dialogue around educational improvement. The empowerment of Africa's teachers and school leadership to participate in the dialogue and to take up the new roles expected of them will indeed be critical to achieving SDG 4 and the goals of the Continental Education Strategy for Africa.

Dr. Yumiko Yokozeki
Director of UNESCO IICBA

Contents and aims of this publication

This publication was elaborated as an annex to the 2015 Teacher Policy Development Guidelines developed by the UNESCO Teachers Task Force. It sets out to connect teacher policy more closely to the broader education improvement agenda in SSA, as well as global, national and school-based efforts to monitor and drive improvements in learning outcomes. In doing so, it is hoped that the publication can provide inspiration for more responsive, demand-led teacher policies in the African context.

The document draws mainly on secondary sources and research already carried out by UNESCO Headquarters, the World Bank and the African research community on the relationships between the teaching profession and the achievement of education quality and equity targets, education improvement and efficiency, national assessment policies and the monitoring of SDG 4.

Following the introduction, Part II provides a brief overview of some of the main contextual, structural, systemic and school-based challenges facing the teaching profession across SSA and which could be considered as key elements of the education improvement agenda. In highlighting these challenges, some of which are taken up in more depth in Part IV, the paper offers a baseline for teacher policies moving forward and makes substantive arguments for more holistic, demand led teacher policies.

Part III looks at the extent to which different teacher's issues need to be considered in the monitoring of SDG education targets at global, national and school levels and suggests how teachers could make valuable contributions to the monitoring efforts.

Part IV examines issues and options for addressing a variety of challenges related to the effective recruitment, deployment, training, career development, welfare and retaining of teachers in the African context. The Chapter takes the nine dimensions of UNESCO's Teacher Policy Development Guidelines² as its framework and draws on the findings of a 2010 World Bank Study³ that looked at a broad spectrum of teacher issues in 8 countries in Anglophone Africa. Promising practices are highlighted that may offer solutions for countries facing similar challenges.

Parts V and VI offer working tools and discussion documents for the process of developing a national teacher policy, addressing specific issues related to the planning, professional development and ethical elements of the policy framework.

2 UNESCO 2015: Teacher Policy Development Guideline. Please see: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002352/235272e.pdf>

3 World Bank, 2010: Teachers in Anglophone Africa. Issues in Teacher Supply, Training and Management. Development Practice in Education.

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

CapEFA	Capacity Development for Education For All
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
EAC	East African Community
ECCAS	Economic Community of Central African States
ECCE	Early Childhood and Care Education
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EFA	Education For All
EI	Education International
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GMR	Global Monitoring Report
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
LCE	Lesotho College of Education
LMTF	Learning Metrics Task Force
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MINEDUB	Ministère de l'Éducation de Base, Cameroon (Ministry of Basic Education)
MINESEC	Ministère des Enseignements Secondaires, Cameroon (Ministry of Secondary School)
MINPROFF	Ministère de la Promotion de la Femme et de la Famille, Cameroon (Ministry of Women and Family Empowerment)
MoE	Ministry of Education
NPTET	National Program on Technology Enhanced Learning
NSC	National Steering Committee
NUL	National University of Lesotho
ODeL	Open Distance e-Learning
PASEC	Le programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs (Program for the Analysis of Education Systems)
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PTA	Parents – Teachers Association
SACMEQ	Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SWOT analysis	Strengths – Weaknesses – Opportunities – Threats
TC	Technical Committee
TEI/TTI/TTC	Teacher Education Institution / Teacher Training Institution / Teacher Training College
TIMMS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TTISSA	Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa
TORs	Terms of Reference
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNESCO-CFIT Project	UNESCO – China-Funds-in-Trust Project
UNESCO-IICBA	UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa
UPE	Universal Primary Education

I. Introduction

I.1 Africa's triumph: Expanded access to basic education after Dakar

Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have seen a massive expansion in their education systems over the past two decades as a result of the global drive to meet the Education for All (EFA) and the education-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Having endorsed the resolutions of the World Forum on Education for All in Dakar in 2000, governments across the region called for education to become 'national priority number one,' with Ministries of Education initiating national education action plans, strengthening public sector investments and mobilizing stakeholders across the public and private sectors and civil society.

Pro-poor expenditure policies led to more equitable spending across geographic areas to redress inequalities in access - with a targeting of spending on the most remote, disadvantaged and poverty stricken regions. Governments also embarked on ambitious programs of building new schools and rehabilitating existing schools and classrooms, especially in countries which had experienced internal conflicts or crises such as Angola, Cote d'Ivoire and South Sudan.

Knowing that poverty is a massive disincentive to spending on education, registration fees were abolished in many countries with the neediest families receiving free uniforms, exercise books and textbooks. Social mobilization was intensified to encourage all parents to enroll their children and complete at least one cycle of primary education, particularly encouraging girls to sign up for and stay in school, while the focus on child protection and child rights saw a proliferation of school feeding programs in the poorest areas.

In an attempt to match the supply of teachers with the increased demand for primary education, many African countries also invested heavily in teacher recruitment drives, along with reviews of teacher pay structures and incentive packages. Mozambique, for example, has sought to increase the rate of teacher recruitment by an average of 6% since 2007 (UIS 2016).

Last but not least, and with a view to more responsive policy making, education functions and powers have been devolved to regional and provincial education departments, including reviews of school governance systems to include forms of school-based and community management. Parent/teacher committees were particularly encouraged to play a greater role in their children's learning and in improving accountability at community level.

The fruits of all these efforts are reflected in unprecedented levels of access to primary and secondary education across Sub-Saharan Africa, with near universal enrolment at primary level in certain countries and enrolment in basic education continuing to rise year on year. There are more girls than boys than ever before in many of the lower primary classes, with increasing numbers of learners going on to secondary and higher education.

For many countries, such has been the level of progress that the challenges of education systems have evolved from education expansion to consolidating gains -building on the demand created by primary completion to expand secondary education capacity, and working on improvements in the quality of learning outcomes at all levels.

1.2 Measuring up learning outcomes

In spite of huge transformations in SSA, a number of sub-regional learning assessments over the past five years suggest that educational progress has not been met with meaningful improvements in the quality of schooling and learning, with gaps in learning achievement remaining problematic across the continent.

Many primary and secondary students are failing to acquire even the most basic levels of literacy, with inadequate standard scores for reading and mathematics. The results from the 2013 Uwezo annual education surveys⁴ in East Africa, for example, show that children in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda are under performing on Standard 2 level tests for English, Kiswahili and numeracy compared to established learning standards.

The summary report, [Are our children learning? Literacy and numeracy across East Africa](#), states that only two out of ten pupils (20%) in the third year of primary school can read and do basic mathematics at Standard 2 level. By the time they reach the last year of primary school, one out of four East African children (24%) have still not acquired these skills. Even in Kenya, which was the best performing country, only 64 per cent of assessed learners (aged 10 to 16) have mastered P2 literacy and numeracy skills. In Tanzania, the figure was 48 per cent and 36 per cent in Uganda.

A similar picture is repeated in francophone West Africa. In 2014, 2nd and 5th graders were tested across 10 francophone⁵ countries as part of a ground breaking regional learning assessment conducted through the Program for the Analysis of Education Systems (PASEC).⁶

The sample included close to 40,000 pupils surveyed in over 1,800 schools. The results published in December 2015 make for sober reading. The data showed that 71% of children in second grade do not achieve a sufficient competency level in French language skills and are unable to understand explicit information orally, or understand the meaning of many printed words (World Bank 2016). In addition, 59% of children in fifth grade do not achieve sufficient competency in mathematics, meaning that they are unable to perform arithmetic involving decimals or identify a basic mathematical formula needed to solve a problem.

Across Sub-Saharan Africa, one in two children will reach adolescence without basic skills in reading and mathematics (Brookings Institution, 2012). And with so many children leaving primary and secondary school to look for work, or not seeing a value in furthering their education, it is clear that the lack of access to quality schooling deepens the marginalization of Africa's young people by excluding them from opportunities for upward social mobility through secondary and higher education. The impact is evidenced in labour market outcomes (Van der Berg and Burger, 2011) and through chronic levels of social and income inequality (Hanushek and Woessmann, 2007).

More than ever, education strategies, support and monitoring mechanisms are needed to improve the quality of the educational experience for the millions of children who currently are in school, but not necessarily receiving an education of good quality.⁷

4 UWEZO is a learning assessment conducted annually in Tanzania, Uganda and Kenya which measures student outcomes using simple test instruments (designed in accordance with each country's national curricula). The tests are administered to 6-16 year olds by volunteer enumerators at the household level. The annual assessment also contains a component that measures school conditions and household characteristics. Data was collected from 366 districts across East Africa, covering a random sample of nearly 150,000 households and 326,610 children (aged 6-16 in Kenya and Uganda, and 7-16 in Tanzania). In addition data were collected from over 10,000 public primary schools.

5 Participating countries include Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Republic of Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Niger, Senegal, Chad and Togo

6 PASEC is an initiative of the Conference of Ministers of Education of French-speaking Countries (Conférence des ministres de l'Éducation des États et gouvernements de la Francophonie or CONFEMEN)

7 UNESCO Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education. Please see: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0017/001778/177849e.pdf>

1.3 The SDGs and the Continental Education Strategy for Africa

The new global education agenda has re-focused international attention on the quality of education and learning and the necessity to ensure equitable learning outcomes for all learners.

The 2014 Muscat Agreement enshrined the idea that the post-2015 global education agenda should *"expand the vision of access to reflect relevant learning outcomes through the provision of quality education at all levels. It should take a holistic and lifelong learning approach, and ensure that no one is left behind."*⁸

Signatories to the Incheon Declaration and Education 2030 Framework for Action, adopted at the end of the World Education Forum (WEF) in May 2015 and subsequently endorsed as Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4), further agreed on a comprehensive vision for education which aims to *"Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all."*

Building on these global commitments, and in a bid to "create" a new African citizen who will be an effective change agent for the continent's sustainable development, the African Union Commission recently launched the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 2016-2025)⁹ as the framework for transformative education and training systems in Africa.

The national authorities responsible for the implementation of CESA will be charged with implementing strategies to *"reorient Africa's education and training systems to meet the knowledge, competencies, skills, innovation and creativity required to nurture African core values and promote sustainable development at the national, sub-regional and continental levels."*

With teachers recognized as the key providers of schooling at its point of delivery, or what Elmore (2000) refers to as the 'instructional core,' both the SDG and the CESA frameworks underscore the importance of highly qualified, well-trained and motivated teachers to meet Africa's growing demand for education and shifting skills requirements.

Their training, recruitment, retention, status and working conditions are indeed among UNESCO's top priorities.¹⁰ Moreover, it is in this context that UNESCO-IICBA, UNESCO's International Task Force on Teachers and Education International have championed the importance of competent, motivated teachers to the achievement of the SDG education targets.¹¹

1.4 Looking beyond the teacher shortage

The policy discourse connecting teachers to the education crises in Sub-Saharan Africa is currently dominated by calls for countries to recruit more qualified teachers, to improve the quality of initial teacher training, to increase the efficiency of deployment strategies and to invest in career development and teacher welfare policies.

It should be remembered, however, that low quality education and poor learning outcomes are not simply caused by a lack of teachers, poor training or poor instructional practice – but reflect historic investments made in the education sector, the quality of policy making and the cumulative impact of many different decisions taken, and trade-offs made, across national education systems.

8 Joint Proposal of the Education for All (EFA) Steering Committee on Education beyond 2015. Presented and discussed at the Global EFA Meeting (GEM) in Oman (12-14 May 2014). Please see: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002276/227658E.pdf>

9 Adopted by the African Union Heads of State and Government during their Twenty-Sixth Ordinary Session on 31 January 2016 in Addis Ababa

10 Please see: <http://en.unesco.org/themes/teachers>

11 Please see: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001466/146693e.pdf>

Few countries have sought to ensure that teaching policy is fully situated, and the work of teachers appraised, within a broader education improvement agenda and realistic quality assurance frameworks. Indeed the lack of coherency between teaching policy and the broader components of education systems (including infrastructure and facilities; the Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment nexus; the availability of teaching and learning resources; School Inspection and Supervision, and; National Learning Assessments and Monitoring mechanisms etc.) continue to be one of the greatest weaknesses affecting all African education systems.

Learning outcomes also reflect the successes or failures of education systems to redress inequalities experienced by learners, their poverty constraints and other barriers to education. Indeed, for too long, teacher policies have been out-of-tune with the daily struggles and realities of teaching and learning in the most disadvantaged communities and the difficult conditions under which teachers work. The lack of responsiveness of instructional practice, curriculum and assessment policy to local poverty contexts is another critical point of weakness.

The UNESCO Teacher Policy Development Guideline notes that 'the provision of a [quality] teaching force cannot be done without context-responsive, evidence-based teacher policies and regulations that are elaborated with the full participation of all relevant stakeholders' (2015:3).

Ensuring that African teacher's concerns and reliable evidence of good teaching practice feed into holistic, comprehensive policy making should now be a top priority. But teaching policy in itself needs to be situated within its broader development context. Unfortunately, there is no simple relationship between teacher supply and education quality.

The relationship between teachers, education quality and learning outcomes

Large scale learning assessments shown that many factors have a traceable impact on learning outcomes. Qualitative information and data gathered through the sub-regional and regional assessments such as Uwezo, SACMEQ and PASEC suggest that learning outcomes are not just the result of education or teaching quality, but are strongly affected by learner's social context and wealth, parent's literacy levels and the mother's education (for mothers with secondary education and higher).

The data collected through the PASEC Regional Assessment, for example, revealed persistent and stark differences between the poorest and wealthiest children within the participating countries. The difference in language achievement between primary learners with literate parents and illiterate parents is nearly a full standard deviation in Benin, Cameroon and Togo.

It is also now generally understood that learning is connected to the differential enjoyment of rights. Thousands of children in rural and low income communities have to overcome massive challenges to benefit from their right to universal primary education, walking to school for many kilometers, sometimes over unsafe terrain. Due to poverty contexts, they often arrive at school on an empty stomach, while their parents are unable to afford basic supports to learning such as exercise books, pencils and textbooks.

The schools they find upon their arrival are over-crowded and under-resourced, lacking in basic classroom resources such as desks, chairs, textbooks and pencils and basic instructional materials.

I.5 UNESCO-IICBA's work related to the Teaching Corps in Africa

Over the past fifteen years, the International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa has consulted African countries on the various challenges faced by their teaching corps in the pursuit of the EFA and MDG goals and the elements that should be considered.

The launch of the UNESCO's Teacher Training Initiative for Sub-Saharan Africa (TTISSA) initiative in 2006 was a first step in the development of guidelines to analyze teacher issues in a holistic and more methodological manner, and in building the capacity of national teacher training institutions (TTIs) to train qualified teachers in sufficient numbers.

Since 2006, at least ten African countries (Benin, Burundi, Congo, Guinea, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, and Uganda) have used the Guidelines to undertake diagnostic studies and thorough analysis of the teacher situation in their respective contexts.

Accompanying UNESCO's Member States, IICBA has organized numerous sub-regional consultative and training workshops for national experts from ECOWAS, EAC/IGAD, SADC and ECCAS countries.

A key message coming out of these meetings is that African teachers and their representatives, researchers and education experts are convinced of the need to develop holistic teacher policies. IICBA has heard these messages and is working to mobilize the various UNESCO instruments and implementation mechanisms in support of the teaching community.

Recent teacher-focused UNESCO Initiatives

UNESCO Teachers Strategy (2012-2015):¹² Towards streamlining its contribution to teacher issues globally, and in Sub-Saharan Africa in particular, UNESCO's Teacher Strategy identifies three priority areas for action; namely teacher shortage, teacher quality and research knowledge production and communications.

With special emphasis on Sub-Saharan Africa, UNESCO has mobilized funding from the Government of the People's Republic of China to support teacher education institutions in ten African countries, namely Ethiopia, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Liberia, Republic of Congo, Namibia, Uganda, Tanzania, Togo and Zambia through the UNESCO-China-Funds-in-Trust (UNESCO-CFIT) Project. The support particularly targets ICT integration in teaching and learning, helping to build the next generation of teachers that are ICT skilled in methodologies.

Teacher Policy Development Guide (2015): In December 2014, the Section for Teacher Policy and Higher Education at UNESCO HQ, UNESCO IICBA, IIEP and the International Task Force on Teachers for Education for All worked together to validate guidelines for teacher policy development at the global level.

UNESCO flagship Capacity Development for Education (CapED) program: This program has supported teacher development and policy in several African countries: Angola, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Guinea, Mali, Lesotho, Niger and Uganda through UNESCO offices.

Secretariat of the International Task Force for Teachers Education 2030: The Secretariat was mandated through the Eighth Meeting of the High Level Group on Education for All (EFA) held in Oslo, Norway, in December, 2008. The International Task Force is "[...] a voluntary global alliance and the only international platform of EFA partners working together to address the 'teacher gap', that is the acute shortage of qualified teachers required to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2015, as well as quality education for all."¹³

12 Please see: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002177/217775E.pdf>

13 Please see: <http://www.teachersforefa.unesco.org/v2/index.php/en/about-us>

II. Holistic teaching policies and the education improvement agenda

This chapter takes a brief look at some of the inter-connected policy, structural and pedagogic issues which continue to weaken the strength of national teaching policies and teacher morale in the African context, including:

the quality of policy making; countries success in addressing structural and systemic challenges to teaching practice; the integration (or lack of) of teaching policy with Curriculum, Instruction and Assessment Policy; the strength of School Inspection and Supervision frameworks, and; the attention given to key efficiency and pedagogic issues at school and classroom level.

II.1 The quality of policy making

II.1.1 Teacher policy as an inter-connected system

Current guidance often presents country teacher policies as discrete interventions with particular goals of their own. But it may now be unhelpful to think of teacher policies in this way.

Improvements in teaching policy are usually the cumulative impact of many policy initiatives across education systems, and success in managing critical trade-offs across a series of mutually reinforcing dimensions related to teacher supply and recruitment, pre-service and continuous training, teacher remuneration and welfare etc.

Policy options have to be weighed up in terms of deliberation around potential cost, probable effectiveness, the resources required for implementation, and the repercussions that any policy intervention might have for one, or more, of the other areas.

The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) highlights, for example, that the hiring of new teachers with lower qualifications levels is jeopardizing the quality of instruction. However this is a risk that governments take in response to the teacher shortage and Teacher Training College's inability to fill places with more qualified candidates.

In all cases, no single policy intervention can be considered in isolation from the overall system and challenges need to be looked at holistically, drawing on reliable information to see the bigger picture and fully weighing up the different trade-offs.

Unfortunately, such information is often lacking in many African countries with poor education management information systems (EMIS) and resource constraints. Moreover, the careful balancing act of formulating teacher policy has all too often addressed challenges to teaching through a narrow, inputs-based or supply side planning perspective. When the connections are missing to the broader education improvement agenda, this has led to unrealistic teacher reforms and policy announcements.

II.1.2 Distance between the theory and daily reality of teaching

The difficulties in teaching in impoverished rural, remote and peri-urban areas in Sub-Saharan Africa are well-evidenced in national education monitoring reports and numerous qualitative research studies over the years. However policy and decision makers at the highest levels of Ministries often view local school contexts as needing to be 'understood' or 'managed,' but essentially external to the policy process.

As decision makers generally have little-to-no experience of teaching in local poverty contexts, they are subsequently unable to relate to the daily pressures and challenges experienced by teachers. This lack of connection between the real conditions of schooling and policy making remains one of the most fundamental weaknesses in teacher policy formulation in SSA today.

Bringing real world contexts closer to the policy process would involve listening to teachers and their experiences. However the majority of teachers in SSA effectively lack a voice and well-established systems for feeding their experiences through to policy making. Mechanisms for channeling messages from the classroom through functioning School Leadership and Management systems, School Inspection and Supervision visits, or opportunities for participatory dialogue, are generally weak across the continent and not considered reliable vehicles for prodding decision makers towards qualitative improvements.

Unlike in high achievement countries where education ministers and regional education directorates often engage in open, iterative discussions with teachers unions, councils and representative groups (and other concerned stakeholders) around education reform processes, the vast majority of African teachers will never have been involved in debates around emerging education priorities.

Individual teacher's interactions with School Inspectors, District Education Offices (DEOs) and Ministry of Education officials are seldom, especially in rural and isolated areas (World Bank 2009). Decisions on education reforms are communicated, or trickle down, to teachers as immutable decisions, often divorced from their daily situation (World Bank 2009).

There is little policy dissemination to build engagement, or to seek teacher's contributions towards policy adjustment. Finally, there is often little consultation between school leaders and teaching staff on school management, professional teaching or pedagogic matters.

As a result of all these factors, teachers unsurprisingly feel a strong sense of distance from regional and national level policymaking, and their sense of ownership of national education policies and reforms is low.

This lack of participation has led to low morale, with bubbling frustration and anger at reforms and decisions taken by central ministries without regard to teacher's needs or perspectives. The impact is felt in terms of lost hours of schooling and differential student performance across and within countries, especially in the Sahel francophone countries.

II.1.3 The policy cycle approach and the importance of policy design

The policy cycle approach, which mainly presents policy formulation as a logical flow between discrete phases, has lost much of its realism in relation to teaching policy in Sub-Saharan Africa. Across the region, experience has shown that teacher policies do not unfold in an orderly way. Policy challenges and solutions often emerge together, rather than one after another.

Strategies are also formulated in the different dimensions of teacher policy at the same time, and sometimes before a challenge even becomes apparent, but with little strategic coherency between teacher policy and the broader education system. This has frequently led to poorly conceived policies whose expected impact on specific education targets is unclear.

Meanwhile, the policy cycle approach often under-estimates structural and systemic barriers to teacher policy success – especially in countries where there are many competing education expenditure priorities, limited financial resources, weak institutional capacities and strong institutional pressures to maintain the status quo.

In the context of deep-rooted education crisis, and given the complexity of teaching policy in SSA, there is growing argument for applying more experimental forms of policy design.

In middle to high achievement countries, prototyping, trialing and experimentation have helped to ensure that planned actions represent a realistic, viable means of achieving education policy goals by passing first through a 'quality control phase,' before scaling up to the national level.

To this extent, trialing puts the emphasis on teacher's voice and inputs and helps to identify glitches and make operational adjustments before the policy 'goes to market.' Most importantly, trialing may be the key to achieving the engagement and mobilization of teachers from the very early stages, generating consensus, validation and legitimacy through the process and feeding lessons back into policy design.

II.2 Education infrastructure

In a large number of African countries, schools and education facilities have not been created at a fast enough speed to match enrolment and expansion. National Education Management Information Systems in SSA indicate that large numbers of schools in both urban and rural areas suffer from infrastructure backlog, with schools at primary level often lacking desks, running water, functioning latrines and electricity.

One of the biggest problems is overcrowding. Schools that were built for the old intake are now far too small and the rate of expansion has led to overcrowded classrooms, especially in the early primary grades. In 2012, the pupil to teacher ratio was already 42:1 on average in SSA (UNESCO 2015),¹⁴ well above recommended levels. In Nigeria, the pupil to trained teacher ratio is at least 150:1 in the 25% most disadvantaged schools.¹⁵

In countries such as Angola, South Sudan and Cote d'Ivoire, internal conflicts and crises left the countries education systems with damaged and unsafe buildings or compounds. In South Sudan, for example, it has been reported that many schools do not have boundary walls and are unfenced, allowing vehicles to drive through them.¹⁶

How do school and classroom resources impact on learning outcomes?

The data from the Uwezo annual assessments suggests that classroom resources are strongly associated with student learning achievement, even when controlled for student background and accounting for the unmeasured effects of learner's environments.¹⁷

For example in Kenya, the odds of a student having the ability to read a simple short story were reduced by almost 40% if that pupil attended a school that lacked basic classroom resources such as desks, chairs, textbooks and pencils, and basic instructional materials.

Students that had to sit squeezed at their desks or sit on the floor during class were 18% less likely to pass the UWEZO basic literacy and numeracy tests than their peers in better resourced schools.¹⁸

Similarly a one student increase in the pupil-teacher ratio was associated with a 1% reduction in odds of a student meeting the UWEZO performance benchmarks. Considering the range of pupil-teacher ratios, with the highest classrooms of 150 students per teacher across the three countries, the effect of overcrowded classrooms becomes quite visible.

These results indicate that students in better resourced schools are more likely to meet the basic learning standards in primary school, holding constant their background and any socioeconomic or cultural characteristics of their neighborhoods.¹⁹

14 UNESCO. (2015). EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015 – Education for All 2000 – 2015: Achievements and Challenges

15 UNESCO. (2015). A growing number of children and adolescents are out of school as aid fails to meet the mark.

16 Global development voices: Africa's teachers. Please see: <https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/poverty-matters/2011/oct/31/voices-of-african-teachers-mdg2>

17 EPDC, forthcoming. A set of multilevel logit models was fit on Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda datasets separately, with the binary outcome of "meeting UWEZO learning standards". The dataset was restricted to children ages 9-11, attending public schools reached by the UWEZO sample.

18 The highest level of achievement on an UWEZO test is being able to read a simple short story in English or Kiswahili AND complete simple multiplication and division problems in math. The dataset is restricted to children ages 9-11.

19 EPDC, forthcoming.

II.3 Teacher recruitment and deployment

Since 2000, young people simply aren't joining the teaching corps at a fast enough rate in Sub-Saharan Africa due to poor career prospects, poor remuneration, the low level of social status accorded to the profession and the harsh working conditions.

University graduates are looking to other sectors for better comparable wages and more stable employment. Education systems have also struggled to retain teachers, particularly the more highly qualified ones. Teacher's salaries have not kept up with the rise in the cost of living over the past two decades, making life very difficult and exacerbating day-to-day worries of housing, transport, daily expenses and medical bills.

UIS notes that nearly 7 in 10 African countries are faced with an acute shortage of teachers as governments struggle to cope with the rising demand from growing school-age populations. Indeed, the region will need to create 2.2 million new teaching positions by 2030, while filling about 3.9 million vacant positions due to attrition (UIS 2015).

Where primary education systems have expanded rapidly and Governments have only been able to draw on a limited pool of entrants to Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs), countries pragmatic responses to the teacher shortage have been to:

- i) allow TTCs to lower entry standards to TTCs;
- ii) reduce the length of college-based training; and
- iii) recruit unqualified teachers to resolve supply and deployment issues in rural and under-served communities.

Lowering TTC entry standards has paid off in recruitment drives in a number of countries. UIS notes that Burkina Faso and Chad have managed to recruit 8% to 9% more primary teachers annually over the past decade as new recruits only needed to have a lower secondary education. In contrast, primary school teachers in Zambia are required to complete at least a short cycle of tertiary education, so the country has only managed to hire 4% more teachers each year. But there are also legitimate concerns about the quality of teacher recruitment.

Local recruitment of unqualified teachers has also provided a pragmatic solution to heavy teacher shortages in unpopular postings in rural areas and difficult-to-access areas. Where such recruitment takes place, recruits generally under-go a period of in-service training and are willing to work with low or minimal pay.

The pattern of recruiting unqualified primary teachers locally, and then providing opportunities for upgrading to qualified status through in-service training, has become a second path into the profession in much of Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank 2009). Again, according to UIS, less than one-half of the teachers in classrooms are trained in Angola, Benin, Equatorial Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Madagascar, Niger, Senegal and South Sudan (UIS 2015).

However the demand for in-service training far outstrips government's resources and capacities in many countries and again, there are legitimate concerns about the detrimental impact of such practices on the quality of classroom teaching standards, especially in subject areas such as mathematics and science and at least for the period before unqualified teachers complete their in-service training (World Bank 2009).

Given the large numbers of people currently employed as volunteer or 'contract' teachers, longer-term improvements would mean much greater investments in systems for In-service Training. But what countries are also still very much missing are expanded systems for quality control of

classroom teaching practice and regular monitoring to ensure that unqualified teachers meet minimum levels for to effectively teach in the classroom. At present, teachers receive very little pedagogic support through school leadership and management, Inspection or Supervision systems (See Section II.4 of this Chapter).

II.4 Initial and continuous training

National teacher education programs across SSA differ widely in terms of their entry requirements, contents, duration and qualification levels. Nevertheless, some common elements can be identified.

Initial training: The quality of pre-service training and its heavy reliance on education theory is frequently cited as an issue in SSA. In too many countries, the contents of pre-service training are not aligned with the national curriculum and assessment policy leading to the poor preparation for classroom practice.

Where new curriculum contents are introduced in support of skills/outcomes based education, HIV/AIDs awareness or citizenship skills etc., teacher training does not often keep up with the changes. Nor are teachers typically trained to handle multi-grade classes, or classrooms with high pupil/teacher ratios.

TTCs prepare student teachers to work in classes with a maximum 30 pupils. As a result, they are generally ill-equipped to address classroom organization issues, or develop knowledge of alternative teaching methods for effective learning in large classes.

Continuous professional development and support: Across the continent, there is little investment in continuous professional development for teachers to enable them to support policy reforms or innovations and adapt to changes in curriculum and assessment policy. Indeed, the continuing professional development of teachers is one of the most under-resourced areas of teaching policy in Africa. In most countries it is left to the partners without any coordination and management of the contents and the way the trainees are chosen by the authorities and the Ministry.

A 2013 study in Tanzania²⁰ found that teachers wanted to improve their qualifications but were largely constrained by resource limitations. Only a few countries, such as Ghana, implement policies to upgrade teacher's knowledge of new subject contents and assessment practices through in-service courses or refresher programs.

II.5 The Curriculum – Instruction - Assessment nexus

Both the World Bank SABER Student Assessments and the UNESCO International Bureau for Education have underlined the importance of alignment between national learning goals, curriculum standards, instructional pedagogies and assessment instruments.²¹

It is this alignment that not only lifts up the quality of education – but is central to ensuring that inclusion and equity are not marginal issues through their integration into instructional practice and assessment policy.

However much of the teaching at classroom level in many African countries has little to do with this alignment and much to do with the resilience of teachers and how well they can teach in spite of the resources and support available to them.

20 <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0738059312000041>

21 OECD. Evaluation and assessment frameworks for improving school outcomes. Common policy challenges. Please see. <http://www.oecd.org/education/school/46927511.pdf>

Curriculum: What teachers are being asked to teach in African schools is often out of step with local economies and poverty contexts.²² The curriculum tends to encourage dependency on rote learning and memorization, instead of nurturing children's practical life skills, resilience, creativity, talents and other non-cognitive and social skills. Even where curriculum contents have been modernized or brought up to date, there are too few teaching and learning resources that enable teachers to interpret the curriculum correctly.

Children in rural and remote areas are particularly affected by the scarcity of resources, with internet connectivity and the digital divide exposing even further the marginalization of Africa's learners. For example the use of mobile phones and ODeL (Open and Distance e-Learning) platforms have expanded opportunities to access quality educational contents online and for learners to link up with other learning groups. But too few African schools are connected and even fewer teachers trained, or have the ICTs competencies, to fully reap the benefits.

Most secondary students in rural and remote areas will have never seen a computer in the classroom as a learning resource, even if they are meant to study ICTs on the curriculum.²³ Laboratories and school libraries are under-equipped, even though science is viewed as one of the most important subjects.

Instruction: Teachers receive their pedagogical training in Teacher Training Colleges based on theoretical approaches to child development, pedagogy and learning and mainly without attention to the learner's social context or circumstances.

It is unsurprising then that instructional practice tends to lack sensitivity to the particular learning needs of children living in poverty, nor does it systematically encourage gender, rights-based or inclusive teaching pedagogy (GRP), including lesson planning, classroom setup, ICT use and language use etc.

Teachers also receive little training in behavior management skills which would help them to better cope with large class sizes, or in practices that could promote peer learning within large groups. The educational challenge of teaching is made even more difficult where instruction is not in the children's maternal language. In Ghana, for example, the curriculum, exams and assessments are in English, even though most students rarely speak English anywhere else but the classroom.

22 Global development voices: Africa's teachers. Please see: <https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/poverty-matters/2011/oct/31/voices-of-african-teachers-mdg2>

23 Global development voices: Africa's teachers. Please see: <https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/poverty-matters/2011/oct/31/voices-of-african-teachers-mdg2>

Instruction, equity and inclusion

As underscored by UNESCO's 'Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education', the concepts of inclusion and equity go way beyond the idea of reaching those population groups who have so far fallen through the gaps of national education systems.

Inclusion and equity refer to the transformation of schools into centers of learning that cater for all children – including girls, students and refugees from ethnic and linguistic minorities, rural populations, those affected by HIV and AIDS, and those with disabilities and learning difficulties.

In these centers, teachers in the classroom hold a key position at the educational core in eliminating the conditions that generate exclusion and inequity - including negative attitudes and teaching practices that generate bias or discrimination in relation to social class, ethnicity, language, religion, gender, sexual orientation and disability.

As critical to the inclusion and equity agenda, education systems need to offer a fairer chance to all learners to demonstrate their levels of learning, to have their skills validated and to demonstrate different types of growth.

This is important for students with diverse learning styles who tend to fare less well on rote learning and standardized tests, as well as for children with pronounced learning difficulties or special learning needs. But it is especially important for learners living in situations of poverty and disadvantage for who one-size-fits all instruction and assessment practices are generally ill-suited.

Assessment policy: In SSA, teachers do not systematically record evidence of learning and report on children's learning to parents at primary level. Nor are teachers typically trained to use feedback from learners, or data from classroom-based assessments, to adjust their teaching methods where learning difficulties have been identified.

Two exceptions can be found in countries implementing the Early Grades Reading Assessment (EGRA) or Early Grades Mathematics Assessment (EGMA).²⁴ Of the five possible approaches and uses of the instrument, two are classroom based, namely mastery checks and progress monitoring. Such assessments have been employed in Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa and Zambia.

National assessment systems at secondary level in SSA generally have a reliance on high stakes, summative annual examinations and assessments. Testing is still mainly exam-oriented, rather than formative and designed to enhance instruction and the quality of learning.

A substantial body of academic research and country practice nonetheless suggests of a positive relationship between instructional techniques used in classroom-based assessments, the quality and responsiveness of instruction and heightened levels of student achievement, especially in closing gaps in learning achievements for students with diverse learning styles and life experiences.

24 This is a system of continuous assessment that draws on both informal and formal methods to measure students' proficiency and provides teachers with data to inform instruction

II.6 Inspection and supervision

Across SSA, school supervision, inspection and quality control mechanisms tend to be generally weak. Visits to schools in some areas can be as little as once or twice per year and reports from inspection services tend to focus on the number of schools visited and administrative matters, as well as student attendance, school finance, the condition of the buildings and the presence of textbooks.

The use of inspectors as the agents for data collection encourages them to focus on this non-pedagogical work. Yet, while these are important functions, they take away from the capacity of inspectors to monitor teaching and learning (World Bank 2009).

Meanwhile, very few countries provide a routine summary of inspection findings to policy makers and teacher training institutions. In any case, the infrequency of external inspection and supervision reduces the effectiveness of these visits as a quality assurance framework.

II.7 School leadership, efficiency and accountability.

School leaders have an enormous responsibility in establishing a collaborative culture for teaching and learning at school level, managing and supporting teaching staff and in leading practices that generally enhance school efficiency.

School leaders also have an impact on learner's enjoyment of rights within the school culture, especially through the (non) tolerance of behaviors and attitudes that might lead to violence and harassment based on gender or ethnic grouping.

Last, but not least, teachers play key role in monitoring and managing levels of teacher absenteeism and in supporting their staff in transforming existing resources into more effective aids to teaching and content knowledge (Gustafsson, 2005; Taylor et al., 2012; Tavares, 2015).

In practice, however, the majority of school leaders devote much of their time to administrative issues and travelling to collect salaries outside of the school. And, in spite of the acknowledged importance of school leaders as key actors in the school efficiency agenda, there is often little training or preparation enabling head teachers to play these crucial roles. Nor is there regular evaluation/appraisal of school leader's performance.

III. The vital role of teachers in monitoring SDG 4

Support to the PASEC 2014 and the Uwezo annual assessment illustrate the growing demand for accountability of learning results - both from the international community and from the bottom-up through citizen-based movements.

The success of Uwezo in particular, with its local credentials and champions, lies in its 'outing' of the poor quality of primary education to parents (Barret, AM 2013) and the generation of public pressure on local schools and governments to improve the quality of schooling.

Beyond the accountability agenda of large scale assessments, data from credible measures of learning can also be used by countries to generate clear and measurable education targets, to benchmark progress, to inform systemic improvements across education systems and to focus attention, investments and interventions in specific regions or on specific schools.²⁵

These broader benefits are behind the increase in international support to regional large scale assessments across Sub-Saharan Africa and efforts to strengthen country capacities to collect reliable information on learning outcomes.

But for learning assessments to have deeper impacts, they must not stay at policy or governance levels and be properly connected to teaching policy and well-grounded in classroom teaching practice. Close working relationships are needed between assessment units, didactic teams and teachers to ensure that data can be transformed into useful tools with pedagogic value for frontline teachers, responding to the real conditions of teaching at school level and supporting teachers in improving learning in the classroom.

This chapter looks at examples from Sub-Saharan Africa, and countries further afield, on how teachers are concretely contributing to monitoring efforts at different levels and, in doing so, making this happen.

III.1 Global monitoring efforts

A more active, high level role in education monitoring is emerging for Africa's Teacher's Unions, teachers' councils and representative bodies. Across the region, the past 16 years have seen a changing role for these organizations - from mainly pay-bargaining or advocacy bodies to professional organizations involved in national policy dialogue and analysis, education monitoring and participation in the Global Campaign for Education (GCE).

In Zambia, the main teachers' union has a full-time economist to monitor education spending and policy. Unions in Uganda (UNATU) and Liberia (NTAL) were the chairs of their national coalitions of the Global Campaign for Education. Unions in Lesotho (LAT) and Malawi (TUM) have also been active in their national GCE coalitions, undertaking research and analysis on educational quality issues and monitoring government support to education.

Teacher Training Colleges have also shown that they can facilitate local teacher participation in the global dialogue through focus group discussions. Inspiration can be taken from the conduct of the Learning Metrics Task Force (LMTF) consultations in rural Tanzania for example.

In that country, a volunteer translated the consultation questions into Kiswahili and met with a small group of teachers at the teacher training college to discuss their reactions to the "prototype" framework of learning domains proposed for global indicator development. Along with their feedback on what they thought was important, the teachers provided mobile numbers to receive updates on the LMTF's progress.²⁶

25 UIS website, 2015. Please see: <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/learning-metrics-task-force.aspx>

26 Please see: <http://www.brookings.edu/blogs/education-plus-development/posts/2016/05/16-sustainable-development-goals-learning-metrics-task-force-anderson-montoya>

More exploratory work still needs to be carried out to see how teachers could participate in the global monitoring effort directly from within their local the classroom through social media, mobile phone and Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs).

III.2 National learning assessments

In following up to PASEC 2014, the World Bank, CONFEMEN and the PASEC team are now working with country partners to integrate assessment data into national policy making and towards results-based governance. The World Bank is supporting the development of country diagnostic reports and a regional cross-comparison of the performance dimensions in education. For these efforts to have any long term impact however, they must not stay at policy or governance levels.

Three ways to involve teachers in national large scale assessments

1. Involve teachers in the conception, design and trialing of test items: In Finland, for the compulsory school years the Finnish National Board of Education (FNBE) carries out national monitoring of achievement through National School Achievement Tests (NSAT) in a representative sample of schools each year, with all students in a selected year group participating in a specified aspect of the curriculum.²⁷

For example, the Board assessed learning outcomes in mathematics at the end of compulsory basic education (year 9, age 16) on four occasions between 1998-2004, to examine the extent to which objectives set in the National Core Curriculum for Basic Education had been achieved and to investigate the extent of educational equality in Finland.

A project-based approach to extending the NSAT combined project leadership from the national evaluation unit with expertise from the education community, including teacher's representative groups, assessment and monitoring experts, school inspectorates and supervisors.

The project began with policy dialogue and dissemination, enabling teachers and school leaders to understand why governments were seeking to strengthen the NSAT, as well as what was being assessed. Specially created subject teams, including teachers, were then held responsible for all aspects of the development process, including test item development, sampling, pre-testing, refining the information collection process, data analysis and reporting. Teachers also received training in the purposes of the monitoring exercise and were expected to trial assessments in their own classrooms and engage in peer review. They were also involved in the marking of student responses.

This approach helped to ensure that teachers took ownership of this large scale assessment from the outset and increased the likelihood that they would use the test information in a formative way to plan teaching at classroom level.

2. Work with pedagogic experts and teachers to transform the results from large scale assessments into useful pedagogical analysis and teaching tools: In Uruguay, the Unidad de Medición de Resultados Educativos (UMRE), or Unit for Assessment of Educational Outcomes, has always had a great preoccupation and sensibility as to how the results of national assessments maybe useful for teachers in the classroom. To this end, in the planning of large scale assessments, much emphasis is placed on participation, consensus building and face to face discussions with teachers, principals and supervisors (inspectors).

The UMRE also works alongside pedagogic and didactics specialists to analyze both the results of national learning assessments (which are criterion-referenced) and learner's background information to provide socially contextualized, simplified data summaries and narratives that help teachers to make sense of what is working well in teaching and learning in specific schools and why, as well as what is not working so well.

27 Hutchinson, C. <https://www.google.fr/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=3&ved=0ahUKEwiztZ2Z4dvNAhUJVhoKHQMUA0MQFggguMAI&url=http%3A%2F%2Fassessment.tki.org.nz%2Fcontent%2Fdownload%2F1344%2F11481%2Ffile%2FAssessment%2Bin%2Bsmall%2BCountries%2Band%2Bstates%2BOctober%2B08.pdf&usq=AFQjCNFWhmlXzfu8c34SwpxZOqfbP7nmHg&sig2=NlgYQma62zibomnYhL4WQg&bvm=bv.126130881,d.d2s&cad=rja>

The results, which are widely disseminated, are also used to inform the creation of specific pre and in-service teacher training programs, with components that (a) focus on content knowledge; (b) opportunities for active learning; and (c) coherence with other learning activities.

The teacher training programs focused on disadvantaged schools, creating a space and a time for teachers to meet, study, discuss and reflect about their teaching, as well as to think of new ways of teaching on the basis of the assessments' results.

3. Empower teachers and school leaders to integrate the data from large scale assessments directly into classroom teaching practice: In 2014, the Annual National Assessment (ANA) of numeracy and literacy competence in South Africa indicated poor learner performance in most South African schools, compared to learners in neighboring countries and worldwide.

In an exploratory study carried out in 2014,²⁸ assessment data from the ANA benchmark tests was used to engage teacher focus groups (for mathematics and languages), school leaders and school management teams in an exploration of questions as to how the ANA data could be leveraged to enhance school efficiency and promote more effective teaching practice.

The data obtained from school management teams and teacher focus groups in four case studies revealed 2 early findings: i) there was more likely to be an effective culture of teaching and learning at school level where school leaders were using the ANA data for daily decision making; ii) learner performance seemed to improve where classroom teachers were encouraged by school leaders to use the ANA data to adjust their teaching practice - more so than where this was not the case (See Section III.2.4 below for further discussion).

III.3 Classroom monitoring and assessments

Quantitative and qualitative evidence gathered in hundreds of research studies over the past four decades have demonstrated the impact of classroom-based, formative assessment practice (or assessment for learning) in improving pedagogy, the quality of instruction, student learning processes and ultimately raising levels of student achievement (Popham, 2001).

Embedded into the daily practice of teaching and learning, classroom-based assessments such as diagnostic tests, quizzes, portfolio work, self and peer assessment can help to connect teachers more closely to their students and open up valuable information about what worked, what didn't and what to do next in the teaching process (Black & Wiliam, 1998).

Teachers are then able to identify and work more closely with individual students who may be experiencing particular difficulties and scaffold learning goals until the learner has reached the level of understanding expected.²⁹

In the African context, large class sizes and the constraints of numbers and time make the application of learner-centered, differentiated and corrective learning pedagogies a practical impossibility. Individual feedback sessions with learners experiencing difficulties are extremely rare. Nonetheless, opportunities should be opened up for teachers to reflect together on how they can generate their own simple, measurable and relevant queries for monitoring student learning and growth.

One teacher training project in Malawi, for example, included a component on a 'Teaching and Learning Using Locally Available Resources' approach (Miske, 2003). A portion of the training prepared teachers in implementing continuous assessment using objects found in nature and other readily available materials (Du Plessis, 2003).

²⁸ <http://wiredspace.wits.ac.za/handle/10539/18212>

²⁹ OECD 2005. Formative Assessment: Improving Learning in Secondary Classrooms. A Policy Brief. Please see: <http://www.oecd.org/edu/cei/35661078.pdf>

Teachers should also be encouraged to reflect together on what the feedback from classroom assessments reveal, how to build on those revelations and how pedagogies be adjusted in the local context to improve the quality of schooling.³⁰ Indeed in learning-rich conversations, there must be “*a bridging back and forth between the particularities of what happened on [a given] day and more general principles and practices and ways of seeing*” (Crow, 2008, p. 55).

Teachers could then be supported in communicating this information to the local community and back up the chain to policy makers. Such discussions and reflections around contextualized teaching strategies may eventually contribute to the conception of continuous professional development programs and to thriving professional learning communities (Wiliam, 2007/2008). They should be considered an essential element of teacher motivation frameworks.

Evidence in Africa on the effect of assessment training on instructional practice³¹

A number of studies on teacher training have demonstrated the potential of formative assessment training to influence teachers’ instructional practices.

Two studies in South Africa and Zambia looked at the impact of teacher training in specific assessment techniques. A project in Malawi trained teachers in general formative assessment techniques and looked at whether teachers altered their practice as a result.

South Africa and Zambia: Kanjee (2009) and Kapambwe (2010) both investigated the effects of training teachers in the use of specific formative assessment tools and noted positive instructional changes within the classroom.

Kanjee looked at teacher’s use of literacy and numeracy assessment resource banks (ARBs) and student task booklets as a means of gauging student understanding. During a pilot phase, primary school teachers attended three workshops throughout the school year on how to use the ARBs, monitor student progress and develop interventions for students (Braun & Kanjee, 2006).

In Kapambwe’s study, Zambian educators received intensive training on the use of continuous assessment materials, including teacher guides and student tasks aligned with Zambia’s content standards.

In both studies, teachers were observed after participating in the training courses. Kanjee found that more experienced teachers were using the ARBs in innovative ways to monitor student learning and they were generally utilized in 80% of the observations, and 65% of teachers could collect information about students’ understanding of a topic using the ARBs.

Malawi: A feasibility study carried out by Miske in 2003, focusing on teachers’ use of continuous assessment strategies found that teachers developed new knowledge and skills and improved their teaching practices. Primary school teachers from 21 schools received four weeks of intensive professional development throughout the school year on how to assess students in the classroom, provide remediation based on students’ needs and how to give feedback to students on their work. Teachers also received classroom visits, feedback and support from project staff.

Teachers received 4 weeks of intensive training throughout school year on assessing students, providing remediation, and giving feedback. Teachers also received classroom visits, feedback, and support from coaches. Teachers were able to effectively assess student learning and use the data to modify their teaching. Quantitative data suggests that the training impacted students’ math and English performance.

Results from observations, teacher essays on continuous assessment, and interviews indicate that teachers were able to effectively assess student learning and use the collected information to modify their teaching. Quantitative data on student performance also suggests that the training positively impacted students’ math and English performance.

30 Akom, 2010; Brookhart et al., 2010; Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Fuchs, Fuchs, Karns, Hamlett, & Katzaroff, 1999; Garet et al., 2001; Guskey, 1994; Miske, 2003; Wiliam et al., 2004; Wilson & Berne, 1999.

31 Summarized from Perry, L. 2013. Formative Assessment Use and Training in Africa.

IV. Issues and options for strengthening teacher policy

This Chapter follows the 9 dimensions of the UNESCO 2015 Teacher Policy Guideline drawing on insights, examples and findings from a 2010 World Bank Study³² that looked at a broad spectrum of teacher issues in 8 Anglophone countries in relation to teacher recruitment and retention, teacher training, deployment, governance and finance issues. Insights from UNESCO’s own research programs and projects in support of teacher policy in SSA have also been underlined.

IV.1 Teacher recruitment and retention

Rapidly expanding education systems often experience teacher shortages, as well as difficulties in keeping up with educational demand at different levels – with teacher supply lagging behind during the expansion period and countries experiencing oversupply when demand stabilizes (World Bank 2009).

In Africa, systems for the projection, planning, management and monitoring of teacher supply and deployment are typically weak and poorly linked with the recruitment policies of Teacher Training Colleges (or university teacher education programs). Intake to teacher colleges is often unadjusted in response to the subject needs at primary and secondary levels.

The lack of adequate projections and deployment planning either produces an inappropriate number of teachers, or an inappropriate balance of teachers at different levels and subject specializations. In countries such as Uganda and Zambia for example, excess numbers of primary teachers have been reported in parallel with shortages of qualified secondary teachers in specific locations and specializations (World Bank 2009).

At the same time, countries experience particular shortages of mathematics and science teachers at primary and secondary levels, especially in rural and difficult-to-reach schools as these are often unpopular postings and teachers simply fail to show up for their post. The implications are considerable for the performance of rural students in these subject areas, jeopardizing their chances of later enjoying higher education opportunities in fields such as engineering, medicine and so on. This has been the case in the past for Lesotho and The Gambia.

Countries have attempted to remedy these challenges by recruiting volunteer teachers directly from the locality where they will eventually teach. Other strategies have focused on differential remuneration, placement and hardship allowances and other forms of incentives to attract teachers to rural areas. In response to high pupil/teacher ratios, multi-grade teaching is now widely used and has become increasingly important as primary education expanded.

In the current situation of teacher shortage, the financial cost of “bricks and mortar” teacher training is too high or impractical for qualified candidates who would have to travel to attend courses. It has also been found to be ineffective in producing the number of teachers required. It may therefore be necessary to seek lower-cost, alternative ways of training teachers in order to meet the supply requirements in relation to teachers. Training through open and distance education methodologies, which potentially have the ability to reach much a bigger number of trainee teachers than the face to face, are an increasingly attractive alternative to the residential route.

Challenges/Issues	Policy options
<p>Effective planning requires the constant collection and monitoring of data from a variety of sources (including actual student enrollments and projections, teacher qualifications and the rates of attrition and wastage) and disaggregated by different types of teacher.</p> <p>Teacher attrition and wastage rates, in particular, require annual monitoring as they are likely to respond to prevailing labor market conditions and may fluctuate rapidly.</p>	<p>Many of the difficulties in teacher recruitment could be ameliorated through better planning of teacher supply, including projected teacher requirements at different education levels (already available in sector plans), target setting and identifying immediate and longer-term priority areas for intervention.</p> <p>Research has identified three main components for better recruitment planning including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) inclusion of forecasts for newly trained teachers at different levels and subject specialization in education sector plans; ii) monitoring of teacher attrition on an annual basis, for each level and subject specialization; iii) adjustment of entry to teacher training on an annual basis in response to analysis of requirements and attrition.

32 World Bank, 2010: Teachers in Anglophone Africa. Issues in Teacher Supply, Training and Management. Development Practice in Education. 52278. Aidan Mulkeen

Recruitment: attracting qualified candidates

The **expansion of the capacity of higher education systems across SSA has exacerbated the problem of attracting suitably qualified candidates** to teacher training.

Typically, the majority of secondary level graduates desire to go on to university courses.

For example in Eritrea, it has been reported that the best students admitted to the Eritrea Institute of Technology tended not to select teacher education courses, so the education courses are filled with students with relatively low scores for whom teacher education was not their first preference.

In such cases, the **available places in teacher colleges could not be filled without a reduction of entry standards** to attract lesser qualified candidates and adjustment of entry requirements until sufficient student teachers could be recruited.

Even then, **selection based on lower academic qualifications, rather than interest in teaching or willingness to teach in a specific location, further exacerbates the deployment problem.** These candidates are less likely to see teaching as their long-term career goal, or be willing to accept a post in a remote rural school.

Although teacher certification, remuneration and conditions of employment could be improved to increase the attractiveness of entering the teaching profession, this will also **increase the cost per teacher and is unlikely to be affordable in many countries.**

In Lesotho, it should also be borne in mind that the large-scale upgrading of teachers from certificate to diploma qualifications had significant fiscal implications, as the starting salary for a teacher with a diploma was 83 percent higher than that of a teacher with a certificate.

In Malawi, teacher training colleges have often been unable to reach their targets for female recruitment because **there was no reduction in the entry requirements**, and there were insufficient applicants with the required credits in mathematics and the sciences.

In practice Lesotho's system for geographical balance had little impact, as colleges still find it difficult to fill the available spaces and accept all qualified applicants.

The teaching profession tends to be perceived as less attractive financially than other public service jobs with similar entry qualifications.

Entry to teacher training can also be stimulated by **broader criteria for selection into teacher training which goes beyond academic performance.** In some cases this biases the selection toward students from more urban and better-off back-grounds, who are more likely to have better academic results.

Academic performance, interview and broader criteria offer an opportunity to draw into teaching more candidates who desire teaching as their career, more of those who are willing to work in rural areas, as well as candidates from linguistic and ethnic minorities who are deterred by strict selection criteria and under-represented in teaching.

In an attempt to attract motivated, educated students towards teacher training, some countries such as Lesotho have **upgraded primary teacher qualifications from certificate to diploma level** and increased the teacher remuneration that goes with it. The starting salary for a teacher with a diploma is 83 percent higher than that for a teacher with a certificate.

Systems of affirmative action can also help to increase equity of access and the proportion of particular population groups in teacher training. From a rights-based and equity perspective, TTC selection policies need to consider the need for gender balance in trainees, as female teachers play a significant role in encouraging parents to send their daughters to school and for girls to subsequently stay in school.

Both Malawi and Zambia reserve places for female student teachers (40 percent of places in Malawi and 50 percent in Zambia). Eritrea has also used quota systems in some years, to admit more students from the minority language groups. Lesotho has used a quota system to ensure geographical balance, with a fixed proportion of students drawn from each district.

Addressing the shortage of mathematics and science teachers at primary and secondary levels

In countries where primary teachers are not expected to specialize, **primary level teachers generally have poor mathematical skills**. In Lesotho, School Inspectors have reported cases of primary teachers skipping mathematics altogether as they feel unable to teach it (World Bank 2009).

In order to address the shortage of mathematics and science teachers, a few countries have offered additional incentive payments to teachers of these subject areas.

Countries such as Zanzibar, Lesotho, and Uganda have resorted to lowering the entry level. Where entry standards to TTCs have been lowered, one promising option is the provision of **booster courses to student teachers to improve their knowledge of English, mathematics and science**.

Such booster courses are provided in Lesotho and The Gambia. In the latter country, additional courses in English and mathematics have been introduced into The Gambia College Primary Teachers Certificate to compensate for falling entry requirements.

In Lesotho, the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) has introduced a booster course in mathematics and science that school leavers with poor mathematics and science scores would take before entry to teacher training. In Zanzibar, for example, science camps have been introduced for secondary students, to help raise the quality of mathematics and the sciences at the secondary level.

Retention: Managing attrition

Planning departments tend to project total teacher requirements, but **do not systematically or accurately project attrition of existing teachers at different education levels**.

Attrition rates usually fluctuate with labour market opportunities. The most frequent cause of teacher attrition is voluntary resignation, usually to take another job.

Attrition also results from death, illness or retirement. Recent studies³³ have given an attrition rate of 1 to 3 percent, depending on countries, due to diseases including HIV/AIDS pandemic.

In Africa, the attrition rate is not even across all types of teacher. Primary teacher attrition rates vary widely, from around 2 percent in Eritrea to 9 percent in Zambia. The attrition rate of secondary teachers is higher than that of primary teachers. In Lesotho, for example, the attrition rate was 3 percent for primary teachers in 2010, and 10 percent for secondary teachers.

Adequate planning for teacher supply requires monitoring of teacher attrition - forecast with information sourced through either Ministry human resource data or Education Management Information Systems (EMIS).

Reducing levels of attrition due to teachers leaving for more attractive employment opportunities may require **financial incentives or requirements for minimum periods of service**. Teacher remuneration levels present difficult choices, however, and there is a need to balance the desire to increase teacher compensation with considerations of affordability and expansion of access.

33 The impact of the AIDS epidemic on teacher mortality in Sub-Saharan Africa - <http://www.eldis.org/fulltext/teachermortality.pdf>

IV.2 Teacher Education: Initial and Continuing

Teacher training in SSA can be divided into two broad categories: initial or pre-service training and continuous professional development. Trainees generally attend courses in general and specific subject area contents, methods of teaching, developmental psychology, testing and assessment and educational management, etc.

Initial training: Initial, pre-service training is provided to trainees enrolled in teacher education institutions before they begin to teach. In most cases, pre-service training is provided on a daily basis or in a residential facility. The duration of pre-service training varies across SSA.

In relation to specific recruitment policies into TTCs, non-academic criteria are assuming greater significance as a person's psycho-social maturity, motivation and appreciation of the demands of the job are strong indicators of whether they will commit to the profession.

- **Primary level:** Training ranges from 12 weeks to three years. Courses vary in structure and contents, with many including a period of practice based in schools. In most cases, the practical component of pre-service training is a one-semester teaching practice session or practicum, where trainees are attached to co-operating teachers in a school belonging to the same level they are being trained for. Almost all pre-service training programs end up with certification of candidates.
- **Secondary level:** For secondary teachers, most countries offer a diploma level course over two or three years or degree courses of three or four years. In some countries, certificate courses to teach at secondary level have been replaced by diploma courses. Teaching practice is generally more limited, ranging up to a term in duration. In Malawi, Eritrea, and Uganda, there is no formal teaching placement for students in degree-level courses.

University based programs mostly take two forms; the first is an integrated program where teacher education courses are given together with a major subject study area; the second is follow-up one-year teacher education program following the degree program.

The practicum stage is usually quite short and mentoring/support systems for trainee teachers in schools are relatively weak – as teachers in service at the school are not trained themselves or provided orientation to play such a role. Support services mainly consist of individual support workers based at local centers who may visit schools to observe and support individual teachers and provide school-level training. The impact of in-school teaching practice could be improved by ensuring that practice is monitored and supported at the school level, and that the messages conveyed during teaching practice are consistent with those conveyed during the period of training.

Continuing professional development (CPD): CPD is offered to teachers while they are in practice, providing an opportunity for serving teachers to upgrade their qualifications and/or knowledge of subject contents and instructional practice. CPD can be divided into three main categories: (i) short training courses, (ii) support systems, and (iii) peer networks.

Systems for continuing professional development of qualified teachers are relatively under-resourced in Africa, usually ad hoc and dependent on funding from external sources. Government provision of short training courses is usually through cascade training, with courses developed centrally and delivered locally through a network of trainers.

CPD is likely to improve the quality and motivation of teachers, but is poorly developed in SSA. While most countries have some provision, **it is often weak in terms of geographical coverage, consistency, and integration with accreditation systems.** A great deal of the current provision of CPD is by non-state providers, or linked with donor-financed projects of limited duration.

Challenges/Issues	Policy options
Contents of initial/pre-serviceteacher training	
<p>One of the perennial complaints about initial teacher training in SSA is the over-reliance on theoretical contents and under-appreciation of strengthening teacher competencies.³⁴</p>	<p>To ensure that teachers are familiar with curriculum contents and have a deep understanding of the content they are supposed to teach by the time they join active service, school textbooks should be provided to Teacher Training Colleges.</p>
<p>The teaching of the content knowledge is not generally aligned to the contents of the school curriculum. This is because many TTC and university-based teacher education programs are not provided with (or seek out) the school curriculum and textbooks that their graduates will eventually use.</p>	<p>In line with the education levels of teacher trainees, content knowledge should then be designed with the assumption of gradual familiarization and encouraging real understanding of the material, rather than rote memorization. Assessment of student teachers should subsequently be adjusted to include a stronger focus on testing for mastery of subject contents.</p>
<p>Courses are also generally disconnected with the realities of teaching practice in the classroom, including the skills needed to work with learning groups such marginalized ethnic or language groups and children with special learning needs.</p>	<p>There is an additional need to review instructional approaches to align them more closely with national learning goals (life skills, citizenship skills), curriculum reforms and changes to assessment policy.</p>
<p>Despite large class sizes and the widespread use of multi-grade teaching, initial teacher training does not prepare teachers to teach in multi-grade situations or foster the skills of working with children with diverse learning abilities and styles in the same classroom (Little 2006).</p>	<p>A stronger focus is needed on practical, rights-based and context-relevant classroom skills in poverty contexts. Teacher training should model the desired teaching practice in the classroom during the period of training to provide practical examples for student teachers.</p>
	<p>In Ethiopia, for example, a teacher training program on 'Gender Responsive Pedagogy, Gender Sensitive School Management and Leadership and School Environment' (GRP)³⁵ was one of the main capacity building components of the project of the UNESCO-IICBA implemented the project, "<i>Retaining Girls in Lower Secondary Schools and increasing their Learning Outcomes.</i>"</p>
	<p>The project has sought to institutionalize gender responsive pedagogy into teacher education programs by building the capacities of TTCs, teacher educators, school administrators and education personnel in the following major topics:</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> gender responsive pedagogy (GRP) gender responsive lesson planning gender responsive classroom setup gender responsive language use gender responsive school management gender based violence and harassment management of adolescent students in class rooms
	<p>Training has been provided for pre- and in-service teacher training module writers from different higher education institutions around Ethiopia in coordination with the Forum for African Women (FAWE) and the Gender Directorate of the MoE in Ethiopia.</p>

³⁴ See Section VII.7 Teachers' competencies

³⁵ The project was funded by the Italian Government (Italian Fund in Trust), from 28 March 2012 to 31 December 2015. The project was implemented in Afar and BenishangulGumuz regional states of Ethiopia in selected schools.

Teachers usually receive little to no training in the use of ICTs as a pedagogic support.

There is little guidance from TTCs for teachers who will take up service in schools which are 'computerizing' their teaching methods to ensure that teachers know how to use ICTs productively.

Teachers also need **pre-service training in the effective use of ICTs for teaching and learning in the classroom**. UNESCO-IICBA has previously developed a model for the integration of technological knowledge in teacher education institutions (Engida, 2012) and for ICT enhanced Teacher Standards.³⁶

In Uganda, UNESCO-IICBA has also worked in close cooperation with the Ministry of Education to develop a contextualized ICT Competency Framework for Teachers³⁷ (ICT-CFT) under the auspices of the UNESCO-China-Funds-in-Trust (CFIT) Project "*Harnessing Technology for Quality Teacher Training in Africa.*"

The CFIT program works, among other things, to enhance the capacity of teacher training institutions to develop training programs on ICT for pre-service teachers and improved teacher trainers' capability of implementing ICT training.

The ICT Competency Framework in Uganda foresees capacity building for trainee and in-service teachers in ICT integration in 6 main areas: Understanding ICT in Education, Curriculum and assessment, Pedagogy, ICT, Organization and administration, Teacher professional learning. Each area has 3 levels: Technology literacy, Knowledge deepening, Knowledge creation.

The framework further details the levels of teacher preparation needed for achieving ICT readiness. This framework can be linked to both the teacher education curriculum and continuous professional development policies.

In Ethiopia, UNESCO-IICBA also signed a 5-year Memorandum of Understanding with Camara Education and the Ministry of Education in 2011 to ensure that all teachers leaving Higher Education Institutions are highly trained in using ICT in all aspects of education.

UNESCO-IICBA was charged with producing tool-kits identifying the level of teacher competence and in developing a roadmap of teacher-training courses and materials that will ultimately enable all teachers to maximize the use of ICT in their classrooms to improve the quality of education delivery.

Camara Education, for its part, has been supplying ICT equipment, educational content, technical support and teacher training to schools and teacher training institutions using IICBA's ICTeTD model across 7 African countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia, Lesotho, and South Africa); including an estimated 17,500 computers to nearly 1,000 institutions.

Competencies of teacher trainers

Teacher educators or trainers are not always well equipped to deliver training in a practical and relevant manner. Some, particularly in primary teacher training, have little experience teaching at the appropriate level.

Selection of teacher educators on the basis of purely academic criteria does not always guarantee the most appropriate selection.

In some cases teacher educators in teacher training colleges preparing trainees for the primary level have little or no primary teaching experience.

Developing the capacity of teacher educators is an obvious step in improving the quality and relevance of initial teacher education. In Ethiopia, **ICTs are being used to improve the training of teacher educators**.

The UNESCO CFIT project mainly works in two TTIs, and could bring impact to 200 teacher educators, 15,000 pre-service teacher trainees, 2,000 school teachers, and concerned policymakers. The major activities carried out so far include: five workshops (271 participants), 1 training (on online platform) (25 participants), and producing eleven training modules (on continuous professional development, ICT, English language, mother tongue, research skills) which will continued to be used in the TTIs.

Teacher training could also be better aligned to the needs of teachers by matching the language of instruction. Where teachers are expected to teach in the mother tongue, it may be appropriate to have all or part of their teacher training delivered in the mother tongue. This involves logistical and curricular difficulties, but is likely to increase the relevance and impact of teacher training.

36 Pleassee: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002161/216105e.pdf>

37 Pleassee: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002134/213475e.pdf>

Continuous professional development opportunities for teachers

Despite international recognition of the importance of ongoing professional development opportunities (Villegas-Reimers 2003; Giordano 2008), **most teachers, once qualified, have little access to CPD, especially in relation to methodological or content difficulties.**

The career and continuous professional development prospects of female teachers should be especially highlighted in discussions around expanding CPD. **Not enough female (and male) teachers benefit from CPD to assume leadership roles in schools** and other structures of the education sector.

At the same time, the **trade-offs and implications of teacher upgrading through CPD need to be considered in terms of attrition** and planning for teacher supply and finance. Upgraded qualifications normally result in an automatic increase in salary and in some cases involve migration to a different type of school (from primary to secondary, for example).

In The Gambia, the expansion of the HTC, which allowed teachers to move from lower basic to upper basic schools, resulted in a loss of teachers from lower basic schools equivalent to 40 percent of the annual output of newly trained lower basic education teachers.

One promising model for CPD is found in Lesotho where **District Resource Teachers** (DRTs) have received support from USAID since the 1980s.³⁸

Teams of district resource teachers regularly visit teachers in remote schools to:

- disseminate new curricula produced by the National Curriculum Development Center,
- bring instructional materials and develop learning and other materials,
- help teachers improve their classroom and instructional skills, and
- provide supportive contact and training.

DRTs sit down with teachers, discuss their perceived difficulties, offer suggestions and give demonstration lessons. DRTs usually visit four times a year for two to three days at a time.

About 700 of Lesotho's 1,200 schools were covered by DRT visits by the year 1996, accounting for 2,000 of the country's 6,000 teachers. Examination results of students in the case schools from school year 1988–1989 improved by 17 percent, compared with 6 percent in other schools throughout the country.

Another promising model is to look at **the role of Teacher's Unions in providing CPD**. The World Bank study suggested some evidence that when teachers' unions embrace a professional concern for improving the quality of continuous training and improving school management and leadership, the results are seen at school level.

Most unions have district or zonal branches, allowing teachers unions to provide grassroots services and decentralized training to their members, including content-based courses in English, mathematics and science; training for female teachers; and training in professional ethics and school representation.

The Lesotho Association of Teachers published a book on life-skills education in partnership with the Ministry of Education and Training and implements projects addressing HIV/AIDS awareness, prevention and voluntary testing, as well as gaining legal protection from victimization for its members. HIV/AIDS awareness training has also been provided teacher unions in Eritrea, Liberia, Uganda, and Zambia.

38 Source: "Lesotho: Teacher Support Networks—District Resource Teachers' Program," in World Bank 2000.

IV.3 Deployment

Most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa use planned deployment systems, with a centralized agency responsible for the deployment of individual teachers to specific schools. However centralized planning, followed by planned deployment, has consistently caused difficulties in Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank 2009).

A recurring problem across SSA is that teachers are unwilling to work in specific schools, typically citing availability of housing or accessibility of public transportation. These two key areas, housing and transport, are particularly problematic factors in attracting teachers to rural communities where there are few transport connections, social amenities, suitable housing or electricity. Instability, conflicts, health pandemics and environmental disasters further complicate the task of planning for teacher supply in some geographical areas.

In seeking to address the problems of teacher deployment, three main types of strategies have been noted in different African countries:

- i) incentives to attract teachers to difficult locations, using either direct financial incentives or incentives such as housing or the promise of more rapid promotion;
- ii) location-specific recruitment systems, policies or strategies providing teachers with some choice of location;
- iii) attempts to target student teachers who are more likely to accept posts in geographical areas of greatest need.

Challenges/Issues	Policy options
<p>Financial incentives</p> <p>Teacher deployment presents an incredible challenge throughout Africa. The distribution of the better-qualified teachers, of female teachers and of teachers of mathematics and sciences, is highly inequitable with heavy teacher shortages in remote and rural, or crisis affected areas.</p> <p>Teachers with higher educational qualifications are generally more reluctant to locate in rural or remote areas, conscious of their status as graduates and the alternatives available in the labor market. Countries such as Lesotho, The Gambia and Uganda have all reported difficulty in getting teachers to rural schools. Deployment of teachers is further affected by imbalance in the gender mix of teachers.</p>	<p>Financial incentives are widely used to attract and retain teachers in rural and remote schools and can have significant results and increase the willingness of teachers to work in difficult areas if large, well targeted and well managed.</p> <p>Financial incentives seem to have had a very positive impact in The Gambia. There was a system of allowances ranging up to 17.5 per-cent of salary, based on the region to which a teacher was posted.</p> <p>In addition, a special hardship allowance was introduced in 2006, based initially on the distance of a school from a main road. This hardship allowance ranged from 30 percent to 40 percent of salary, depending on the region. As both of these allowances were paid simultaneously, the salary for a teacher in a hardship school in region 6 could be more than 57 percent greater than the salary of the same teacher in region 1.</p> <p>Within two years of the introduction of the incentive, 42 percent of the teachers in rural schools who were not receiving the incentive had requested a transfer to a hardship school. This suggests that financial incentives, if both substantial and well targeted, can attract at least some teachers.</p> <p>In Zambia, the existing rural allowance was paid to teachers in schools more than 15 miles from the administrative center. An additional allowance for remote rural schools was proposed, targeted at the most inaccessible of these rural schools. The criteria for establishing which schools would be considered remote were yet to be determined, but might include a basket of indicators such as distance from a main road, post office, bank, or clinic.</p> <p>In Zambia, teachers in more crowded urban schools can teach two shifts, and receive a double shift allowance of 20 percent of salary, equivalent to the incentive payment for location in a rural school.</p>

Extra contributions from communities can potentially result in distortions of the teacher labor market, as schools in more affluent areas (who can raise more funds through parent contributions) can attract and retain the better teachers, thus contributing to inequity in teacher distribution.

Some communities also contribute to incentives for teachers within Districts, particularly in rural areas through paying or topping-up teachers' salaries. Parents in Malawi and Uganda use their contributions to employ additional teachers in public schools, both qualified and unqualified "volunteer teachers." Eritrean parents often top-up benefits to teachers in the form of accommodation, food, domestic help, and sometimes cash, although the scale of support varies widely.

Offering incentives at district level is likely to seriously weaken the impact of the incentives if incentives are not well-targeted. The incentives are not always targeted. In Uganda, incentives were paid to primary teachers, but not to secondary teachers.

Some countries offer incentives at district level.In Lesotho, for example, a fixed allowance of 275 maloti LSL per month (the equivalent of 20 percent of the starting salary for a qualified teacher) was paid to teachers (and other government employees) in mountain areas, whether qualified or unqualified, and was a greater proportion of salary for the unqualified teachers.

In Lesotho, teachers in schools in small towns in the mountain districts received the allowance, while teachers in remote and difficult locations in lowland districts did not. In any case, the incentive did not outweigh the additional costs of living in a mountain area, and that the entire incentive might be used in paying for one trip to town to buy supplies, plus the additional cost of using paraffin rather than electricity for heating and cooking.

In both cases, additional payments and hardship allowances have not removed the inequity of deployment or been enough for higher-skilled teachers to accept a rural position.

Housing incentives

Absence of suitable housing: Few countries are able to provide housing for all teachers. In countries such as The Gambia, Malawi, and Zambia, teacher housing provision is sufficient for only one-quarter or less of teachers and even this is often "temporary" and in poor condition.

One of the strategies used to address the inequity of teacher deployment is **support to housing costs or provision of accommodation** and this may be particularly important in encouraging female teachers to accept a post at a rural school. In addition to housing, teachers might expect access to facilities such as electricity, a clean water supply, and mobile telephone coverage.

In areas of subsistence farming, teachers might be the only salaried employees in the area and in such a context there is little to support a private market for teacher housing. The absence of housing is a particular obstacle for female teachers, who might be less safe without adequate accommodation.

In Zambia, individual districts are implementing innovative housing schemes to attract and retain teachers. For example, in Gwembe district a loan is given to female teachers in the most rural schools to purchase solar panels for electricity generation.

Qualified teachers posted to schools without available housing often refuse to accept the post. They also have expectations of a certain standard of accommodation and, as a result, may be less willing to accept the basic facilities available in rural areas.

While there may be alternatives where **rural communities provide some accommodation to attract a teacher to the area**, where this is done with community resources, the housing is typically built to local standards and seen as poor quality by teachers from urban areas.

Communities were able to access funds to provide teacher housing, either through social action funds or funds from NGOs. Community provision of housing may have other effects. In The Gambia, it was reported that rural communities would not normally provide accommodation for an unmarried female teacher, believing that she would be a destabilizing influence in the community.

Location-specific recruitment policies

Central deployment or forced distribution of teachers is likely to result in a great deal of loss of talent, and particularly among female teachers, as those who are unwilling to live in a rural area are likely to leave the workforce altogether.

Giving teachers some influence over the location of their posting appears to improve the equity of teacher deployment.

This enables some teachers to work in their home areas or areas where they have some relatives, thus increasing the probability of retention. Similarly, the element of choice enables female teachers to apply for jobs in areas close to their families and may increase the proportion of female teachers in rural schools.

Certain countries have moved to **systems where jobs in specific locations are advertised locally and/or candidates can self-select schools**. More recruited teachers are from the local area, and most posts were filled.

Many candidates will still choose to work in urban schools. However, once those posts are filled, the remaining teachers are likely to choose their home areas or areas where they have relatives or friends, rather than completely unfamiliar areas. This increases the likelihood of retention in the post.

Lesotho, Zambia, and Uganda have all had positive experiences with local recruitment. In Uganda, a system of location-specific recruitment for difficult secondary schools was introduced in response to high wastage. In 2006, an additional 2,000 secondary teachers were recruited, but almost half failed to take up their posts, particularly in the rural areas. In light of this experience, the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) began advertising for vacancies in specific districts, to attract only applicants willing to work in those districts. There remain problems in attracting mathematics and science teachers to rural secondary schools.

In Lesotho, a system of local recruitment, where schools advertise for and recruit their own teachers, has resulted in relatively even teacher distribution. Teachers applied only for posts they were prepared to accept, and school managers tended to prefer candidates who they believed would stay in the area.

The shortage of teachers at primary and secondary levels in different geographical areas results in **the recruitment of unqualified teachers**. Unqualified teachers are most often found in the places where there is most difficulty in deploying teachers such as rural, remote and mountainous areas. In Liberia, Lesotho, The Gambia, and Uganda, more than one-third of primary teachers are unqualified.

The shortage of qualified secondary teachers results in some upward migration of qualified primary teachers to secondary schools, often replaced by unqualified teachers at primary level. In many countries, less than half of the secondary teachers are qualified.

Despite the lower entry requirements for in-service courses, some countries have unqualified teachers whose education levels are so low that they are ineligible for in-service training. In the absence of a strategy to either support or replace these teachers, they often remained in the system and continue to teach classes.

Recruiting unqualified teachers locally, and then providing opportunities for them to upgrade to qualified status through in-service training, has become a second path into the profession. If good-quality in-service training can be provided, this second path can help address the problem of teacher distribution by recruiting teachers already resident in the areas where there are teacher short-ages.

Systems for in-service training vary in duration and structure, but typically involve a mix of text materials, residential training sessions in a teacher training college, and some tutorials provided locally. The scale of demand for in-service training far outweighs capacity. In Lesotho, for example, each cohort of teachers taken into the in-service course was approximately 10 percent of the total of unqualified teachers.

In-service training has been an important mechanism for addressing the teacher gender gap in rural areas. Most of the unqualified teachers who are recruited at primary level are young women, some of whom would not be able to leave the area for family reasons. They typically are educated to the high-school or to at the least middle-school level and are encouraged by the community to work as teachers to make up for the shortages. This avoids the specific difficulties of deploying female teachers to remote areas.

The opportunity to work in local schools is attractive to all young people in rural areas, giving them some status within the community, and in some cases the possibility of a long-term career. Unqualified teachers also earn about three-quarters of the salary of a qualified teacher and account for about 40 percent of primary teachers in countries such as Lesotho.

Many rural schools also have volunteer teachers, typically local school leavers, mostly female, who have passed the school leaving examination (Cambridge Overseas School Certificate), but have not achieved sufficient grades to enter teacher training. They may teach without pay for a number of years in local schools, in the hopes of getting a position as an unqualified teacher once a vacancy appears. In rural areas in Malawi, volunteer teachers are also common.

Some countries have introduced **additional measures for unqualified teachers whose education levels are too low to access in-service training courses**. In both Lesotho and The Gambia, there are programs that allow some unqualified teachers to gain the full teaching qualification while they remain in school. Courses are organized by the teacher training college and are equivalent to the traditional pre-service teacher training. They are delivered using a mix of self-study materials and compressed courses offered outside school hours.

Targeted training and recruitment of female teachers

The situation of women teachers puts them at a disadvantage in relation to deployment. For unmarried teachers, there is often strong family and social pressure to avoid postings in remote areas, which are perceived as unsafe, or in areas that are not easily accessible or where their safety and security could be jeopardized (World Bank 2009).

Gender related issues to consider in writing a holistic teacher policy are:

- The number and gender mix of candidates admitted to teacher education institutions;
- the criteria of deployment into schools after training for male and female teachers;
- the opportunities provided to female teachers for career and continuous professional development;
- the welfare schemes put in place and how women teachers are positioned within those schemes;
- the provisions for retirement and discharge from duty in relation to women teachers.

National education authorities can seek help in the planning elements through the Module for Gender mainstreaming in Teacher Policies produced by UNESCO-IICBA.³⁹

39 http://www.iicba.unesco.org/sites/default/files/Gender_Mainstreaming_in_Teacher_Education_Policy.pdf

Targeted recruitment and training of students for rural and remote areas

Recruitment policies to address the deployment problem in rural areas have **financial implications and may not be practical in all areas.**

The **availability of people willing to enter a teacher college specifically oriented to work in a rural area** and the availability of volunteer teachers in rural areas both demonstrate that there are people for whom teaching in a rural area is an attractive career.

In Malawi an NGO-supported teacher-training college, the Development Aid from People to People College at Chilangoma, operates for the sole purpose of training teachers for rural schools. This college provides the regular state-recognized teacher training, while students engage in community development initiatives as an integral part of the school practice period.

The college reports that most of their graduates return to rural areas on completion of their training. Similar colleges are in operation in Mozambique and Angola.

IV.4 Career Structures/Paths

According to the UNESCO Teacher Policy Development Guideline, career structures allowing for progression and development over a teacher's career, are crucial to attract, motivate and retain teachers. A career path should provide meaningful rewards and financial and non-financial incentives to motivate teachers to progress; be linked to significant CPD options; and be equitable, allowing equal opportunities in career progression. It should reflect the needs of the education system: for example, education systems with excessive teacher attrition can adapt the career structure to respond to this.

A good teacher career structure will be diversified, with multiple but equivalent career options for teachers. 'Horizontal' career paths allow experienced teachers to remain in the classroom while taking on responsibilities such as developing curriculum and materials, supporting and mentoring colleagues, coordinating planning and teaching within a given subject area or grade (as head of department or head of year), or supporting school leadership. These involve several categories with corresponding salary ranges; each category is associated with a clear competency framework, which describes the required performance standards and the evidence used to define them.

'Vertical' career paths usually involve progression to a role outside of teaching and teaching support, usually in management or leadership, such as head teacher or deputy head teacher, school inspector, teacher trainer, or administrative, management, advisory or planning posts in Ministries of Education. Whenever teachers are promoted to such positions, they should be formally appointed, receive appropriate training and be remunerated for these responsibilities.

One of the perennial complaints among teachers in SSA is that education systems lack a clearly spelt-out career development path and remuneration scheme. One of the few opportunities for changing professional status is when teachers become head teachers. However promotion to leadership positions is not based on performance and merit, but service years and other non-academic and non-professional factors.

In terms of reward of career progression through salary, Africa's teachers earn salaries that are lower than salaries paid to other public servants and professionals of comparable qualifications, and far below the level that would enable teachers to have an acceptable standard of living. A nominal salary increment is received at designated time intervals, but very rarely tied to performance. As a result, a good percentage of teachers resort to second jobs or income generating schemes to make ends meet, ultimately depriving them from devoting the attention as required in the job.

One of the main reasons for the limited opportunities for promotion and career progression is the limited resources available. The greatest share of expenditure in most education systems is teacher salary, which in some cases goes to as high as 80-90% of total budget allocation.

IV.5 Teacher employment and working conditions

As part of the employment relationship between teachers and their employers, national teacher policies will normally define employment rights and responsibilities of teachers which are specific to the country and context.

UNESCO's Teacher Policy Development Guideline suggests that, in accordance with international standards, national policies on teacher working conditions should be established in consultation, or in negotiation, with teacher union representatives.

Policies for teacher employment and welfare have a direct and in-direct and considerable impact on teacher morale and motivation, which in turn, affects the attractiveness of the teaching profession, retention and commitment.

The UNESCO Teacher Policy Development Guideline further points to the following elements in particular in relation to teacher employment and working conditions:

- hours of work, workload and work-life balance: hours of work should be based on all dimensions of teachers' work (including instruction time, instructional support, CPD, administrative and extra-curricular activities and parent/guardian interaction), as well as personal and family needs;
- class sizes and PTRs: PTRs should allow teacher effectiveness and the achievement of learning goals through learner-centered approaches, small group instruction and a focus on learners with particular needs as required;
- school infrastructure: teachers should work in safe, adequately built and maintained school buildings, with access to clean water and sanitary facilities for male and female learners and teachers;
- 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 educational outcomes;
- student behavior and discipline: effective school governance and management are necessary to create a classroom environment conducive to teacher health, safety, job satisfaction effectiveness and therefore better learning outcomes;
- school violence: policies should support and protect teachers and promote respect for schools as zones of peace, including outlawing gender-based violence and corporal punishment, and making teachers aware of their professional roles and responsibilities;
- autonomy and control: teacher professionalism is enhanced by a degree of autonomy and control over professional practice of both individual teachers and the teaching profession as a whole.

Many of these conditions impacting on morale in the teaching corps are connected to other education and non-education policies, but their impact has to be considered in the framework of improving teaching conditions and teacher welfare.

IV.6 Reward and remuneration

Within a labour market perspective, education systems which pay attractive salaries relative to comparable professions will be more successful in attracting and retaining good quality teachers. Where teacher salaries do not reflect the levels of education, training and responsibilities required, or allow teachers to live decently without taking on second jobs, the teaching profession loses prestige, adversely impacting on recruitment, motivation and retention. Teacher salary is therefore important to teacher recruitment and retention.

Many countries use a single salary scale, with classes or bands based on academic qualification, and incremental salary progression within these bands based on seniority or years of service. Skill or performance levels, based on standards defined in competency frameworks, are increasingly used as a basis for salary increases. Typically, within such salary scales, regular incremental increases are based on years of experience, whereas larger increases are associated with movement up the skill levels defined by the career structure.

In addition to base pay or basic salary, which may include retirement pension and social security provisions, other financial incentives forming part of teachers' reward packages include allowances for particular responsibilities, family benefits, housing provision or subsidies, transport subsidies and financial contributions towards further training and CPD.

Where government revenues are limited, higher salary levels may require a trade-off with other policy objectives. Policy choices are more difficult for countries that depend on international aid for much of their education funding. As a result of the very low salaries, most teachers are unable to devote themselves entirely to their teaching and have to take jobs on the side or teach in several different schools in order to make ends meet. For their pains, teachers in government schools are often paid late.

Some education systems provide teacher rewards, linking them with performance or with the aim of attracting and retaining high-quality teachers, encouraging motivation and efforts to improve learning outcomes. Teacher rewards may include targeted allowances, bonuses and financial and non-financial incentives, including pensions and other forms of social security, leave entitlement and access to CPD.

If performance-related incentives are used, how they are applied makes a big difference in reaching goals: key factors to consider include methods of teacher appraisal as the basis for rewards, the size of incentives, their financial sustainability over time, close connection between expected behavior and rewards and the level of awards: individual compared to group or school.

IV.7 Teaching standards

In an effort to understand and define what makes a good teacher and promote teacher competency and professionalism, within the overall aim of improving education quality and learner outcomes, an increasing number of countries are developing professional standards for teachers. Here the term refers to expectations about teachers' knowledge, competences and attributes, and desirable level of performance. 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.

Teacher standards:

- develop a shared understanding, common goals and language regarding quality teaching among teachers, other education professionals and the public;
- provide a framework to guide teachers' professional learning and development;
- provide a clear and fair framework for professional accountability;
- provide a framework to improve consistency and coherence of teacher policies; and
- contribute to professionalization and raising teaching professional status.

Some standards frameworks define two to four attainment levels against core competencies and teacher career stages. 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, manage learning environment and the capacity to continue developing.

In addition to standards for teachers, some countries have developed standards for head teachers; these specify the function of head teachers, guide their selection, guide professional development; and define criteria for assessment.

Key conditions for successful implementation of standards

include:

- explicitly linking standards to student learning objectives;
- aligning standards frameworks to a comprehensive strategy to improve teaching;
- teacher ownership of and participation in setting standards;
- regular evaluation and revision;
- avoiding top-down 'managerialism' which constrains
- teaching practice; and
- balancing central guidance and local autonomy.

IV.8 Teacher accountability

According to the UNESCO Teacher Policy Development Guideline, the principle that teachers are accountable for their performance and the quality of their teaching is key to a high-status teaching profession and to enhancing learning. There is a reciprocal principle that education systems should be accountable to teachers, providing effective support and acceptable working conditions.

A mark of how low teacher morale is in many African countries (and sense of responsibility for their performance) is the level of teacher absenteeism. Absenteeism is reported to be as high as 25 percent in certain countries. Some of this can also be explained by absence for salary collection, absence to attend to administrative issues or absence to attend training courses.

Teachers should be regularly appraised to evaluate their performance and inform their professional development. Appraisals and feedback should be closely tied with CPD and should be formative, focusing on improving professional practice, and linked to school-wide evaluation, strategy and goals. Such appraisal is important to a functioning quality assurance framework

Where performance evaluation and appraisal reveal teacher poor performance, a culture of continuous improvement and reflective practice should identify teaching weakness at an early stage and establish support systems for under-performing teachers and measures for improvement. Only when such measures fail should more formal procedures to remove under-performing teachers be taken.

If performance evaluation is linked with incentives, the criteria for administering them must be equitable, transparent and credible. Poorly administered and unfair evaluations of performance, based on subjective criteria, patronage or favoritism are de-motivating. Teachers whose performance does not meet the standard should be given clear, constructive feedback, explaining which aspects need to be improved, and how, and offered support in achieving this.

Meanwhile, most countries have formal procedures for disciplining teachers. In most cases, these involve a series of warnings, followed by a formal process of review, after which disciplinary action can be brought. However, these disciplinary procedures are used in only a small minority of cases and in most cases, the teacher may continue to work while the case proceeds.

Due to the general conditions of work, low-teacher morale, obligations to collect pay or to attend CPD courses, many SSA countries experience considerable levels of teacher absenteeism, but have weak mechanisms for monitoring, tracking and taking disciplinary action against chronic absenteeism. Records of teacher attendance are generally kept at the school level, usually in the form of an attendance book that teachers sign on a daily basis. However, in most cases, there was no compilation, analysis, or reporting.

Head teachers are expected to play a central role in monitoring teacher attendance and reminding teachers of their responsibilities.

However, in some countries **head teachers are absent from the school even more often than teachers**, frequently for official business.

In Uganda, 27 percent of head teachers were absent, compared to 18 percent of regular teachers, with nearly half of the head teacher absences due to official duties (Habyarimana 2007).

Some head teachers do not see supervision of absenteeism as their role. So even when head teachers are present, they are often **reluctant to put pressure on teachers to attend their classes**. Particularly in rural areas where head teachers live close to the other teachers, they may find it difficult to take action against their colleagues or feel that they do not have the necessary authority to enforce regulations.

According to the World Bank study, discretionary teacher absenteeism could be reduced (though not eliminated) through:

i) Clear guidelines on absence. In The Gambia, head teachers are provided with guidelines that restrict the allowable number of absences for any reason each month. In effect, this means that teachers who are absent without cause lose opportunities to attend training or other potentially attractive events.

ii) Cluster monitoring. Following the introduction of cluster monitors in The Gambia, teacher absenteeism decreased and the number of cases of head teachers taking action to address absenteeism increased.

Regional offices in The Gambia reported an increase in cases of head teachers requesting salary stoppage or other actions in response to teacher absenteeism. It may be that head teachers felt an increased need to address teacher attendance in the context of greater external monitoring. It is also possible that the visible external monitoring made it easier for head teachers to address issues of absence with their colleagues.

iii) School-based monitoring of teacher attendance. In The Gambia, head teachers are required to use a quota system to reduce teacher absence and are expected to restrict the absence of individual teachers to a maximum of two days per month. Any teacher who has been absent without permission is denied permission to attend CPD training. In Zanzibar, some schools record monthly teacher attendance figures and display them in the head teacher's office.

Private schools in Uganda and Zambia often have higher teacher attendance than government schools, as attendance is monitored actively by school managers whose income depends on public perception of their schools. In The Gambia, church-run schools are reported to have higher teacher attendance, although teachers have the same qualifications and earn the same salaries. These church schools may have more proactive managers driven by a sense of mission, and they also routinely withhold a portion of salary from teachers who are absent.

iv) Monitoring by PTAs, SMCs and parents: There are few examples of specific measures to encourage parents' participation in reducing teacher absenteeism, such as asking parent committees to endorse attendance records, or requiring inspectors to meet parents and specifically discuss attendance. Nonetheless, there is some evidence of parents monitoring teacher attendance or taking action in cases where absenteeism was unacceptably high.

In Uganda, schools with strong parental involvement, as indicated by parental contributions and frequency of parent meetings, had lower teacher absence (Habyarimana 2007). In Malawi, some school management committees were very active, in part because of training through NGOs.

This suggests that training of parent groups, combined with appropriate external supports, can enhance the ability of communities to monitor their schools.

In this context, official systems that collect information from parents, as well as training and support for parent groups, may help parents to play a role in addressing absenteeism.

Late or inconsistent pay continues is a major cause of absenteeism in many countries, regardless of whether teachers are paid at the school or an urban location.

Equally detrimental to teachers' morale and dedication are **regular delays in receipt of additional allowances**, including hardship allowances and the double-shift pay.

Unreliable pay causes low morale and may force teachers to take up other income-generating activities, such as second jobs or informal fees. The need for more reliable pay distribution systems goes beyond the issue of absenteeism.

Lesotho and Liberia both reported delays of up to six months in teacher payments which forces teachers to take up other income-generating activities, possibly resulting in neglect of their duties. Once these practices are established, they are likely to continue even after salary payment commences.

Improved responsiveness of the pay system: Increasingly countries (including The Gambia, Lesotho, Uganda, and Zambia) are migrating to the use of electronic transfers into teachers' bank accounts. This improves the efficiency of delivery. The disruption resulting from salary collection can be reduced either by payment directly into teacher bank accounts or delivery of payment directly to schools (discussed later in this chapter).

In The Gambia, unqualified teachers and some qualified teachers are paid in cash at their school. Each teacher must be present in order to receive payment, as the recipient must sign for the pay, and head masters are not allowed to sign for absent teachers. This ensures that teachers must at least be present on payday in order to receive their pay.

However, the best choice between electronic transfer, cash, or check, or between having teachers travel or having pay delivered locally, depends on local circumstances, including the availability of banking services. It is likely that the optimum pay system will call for different strategies in the most remote schools than those that are adequate in urban areas.

Pay systems also need to be responsive to changes, such as the arrival of new teachers, absences of teachers, and deaths or departures. Local control over pay creates more rapid response to these changes, but may allow some local collusion for improper practices. Electronic distribution of pay offers a reliable distribution, but few countries have developed corresponding processes that feed up information about local changes and ensure that the salary payment is adjusted rapidly in response to changed circumstances.

Teacher's requirement to travel to collect pay also has an impact on absenteeism. Rural teachers needing to travel to collect their pay increased teacher absenteeism in many countries, with the most remote locations affected most negatively. This appeared to be the case regardless of whether payment was in cash, check, or electronic transfer to the DEO or a bank.

In Zambia and Liberia, where teachers travel to district offices to collect their cash or checks, there can be monthly closures of a few days or even a week in the most remote schools.

Travel also often comes with additional costs in the most remote rural areas, further increasing the disincentives to accept a rural posting.

In Liberia, some teachers report spending up to a quarter of their salary in travel costs to collect their pay. In other cases, teachers pay a percentage of their salaries to local intermediaries such as traders who cash checks or specialist intermediaries who take a number of checks and travel to the town to cash them.

Different strategies have been tried in several countries to **reduce absences through need to travel to collect pay**. In Liberia some schools use a rota system, where one group of teachers goes to collect their check first, and the second group goes when they return, thereby allowing schools to remain operating during the pay period each month. Although a better alternative to closing the school, this still causes significant disruption to the schools. In Malawi and Zambia, some head teachers travel to collect the pay. This reduces teacher absenteeism, but can result in long absences from school for the head teacher.

Sanction systems against teachers who are absent have unpredictable outcomes and may be damaging to relationships and morale in a school and cause conflicts with the staff or the community.

In Lesotho, most disciplinary cases are believed to go unreported, as principals are reluctant to get involved in a lengthy and complex process that ultimately may not result in any positive action. The majority of cases result in financial penalties or warnings. Consequently, many head teachers avoid using disciplinary procedures, sometimes preferring to facilitate transfers for “difficult” teachers.

In Malawi the teacher is suspended either on half pay or no pay at all, but may remain in the same area, causing discontent. A suspended teacher may even work in a private school, and be as well off as they were before suspension.

Withholding, or suspension of pay, in response to cases of continued teacher absenteeism have proven to be effective measures in improving attendance.

In Liberia, if a teacher is absent for more than three days in a month, the school issues a warning and the teacher’s salary check is withheld until the teacher pays a fine of 150 LRD (Liberian dollars, U.S. \$2.50) at the local revenue office. This relatively small amount is equivalent to about 4 per-cent of the monthly salary of a primary teacher, or less than one day’s pay. Nevertheless, as all of the pay is withheld until the fine is paid, this penalty is a deterrent.

In The Gambia, where payment is through electronic transfer in some regions, regional authorities have the power to request a salary deduction as a response to a period of unauthorized absence, or salary stoppage in cases where teachers have failed to report to their posts at the start of the term.

Other incentives to reduce absenteeism include:

Synchronizing training courses with school holidays and reducing the number of courses that can be provided within school time.

Administrative and management improvements: Ensuring that appointments, transfers, and promotions are implemented efficiently and without any need for petitioning in person at a district office.

Provision of housing: Teacher absence resulting from travel difficulties may be reduced by provision of housing near to schools. A study in Uganda found lowered teacher absence was associated with teacher housing and living in the same parish as the school.

However, it is not clear that this is always a solution. In Lesotho, one rural school visited had empty teacher housing, as the teachers preferred to live in a nearby town and travel by public transportation each day.

The majority of SSA countries, external monitoring and inspection of schools are not generally enforced. Teacher-inspector ratios can be as high as 700:1 in some countries and schools are visited once a year or less.

Two countries have much more frequent external supervision of schools, and in both cases (The Gambia and Eritrea), this was achieved by having **decentralized inspectors serving small clusters of schools, living in their cluster, and using low-cost transportation.**

In The Gambia, cluster monitors live at one of the ten schools in their cluster and are provided with a motorbike for transportation. Both head teachers and teachers find the system helpful, noting the benefits of improved support for teachers and improved communication with district offices (VSO The Gambia 2007). There are indications that teacher absenteeism has been reduced following the introduction of these frequent external visits.

Eritrea reorganized its supervision system in 2005. Supervisors had been based at zoba (regional) offices, but there were acknowledged difficulties in supervision frequency, resulting mainly from transportation difficulties.

In the reform in 2005, supervisors were deployed to clusters of schools, each cluster comprising approximately 80 teachers, in between two and ten schools. These cluster supervisors were expected to live at one of the schools and travel on foot or by bicycle and visit each teacher three or four times per year. In reality, the frequency may be closer to twice per year.

This reform has lowered costs by reducing the transportation requirement for supervision, and increased the frequency of visits. These cluster supervisors are supported and trained by a central quality assurance directorate, which visits a sample of about 100 schools each year.

In contexts where external supervision of schools is limited, community bodies may be the only external agents with regular access to schools and **have an important role to play in the quality, governance, and accountability of schools** (Bray 2001).

However, despite their potential to act as an extra accountability check on schools by discouraging teacher absenteeism and holding head teachers accountable, studies have found limited involvement of PTAs in such functions in Africa, resulting from poor awareness and training, and existing school management practices (Pansiri 2008).

It may also be that poorly educated parents feel unable to challenge the relatively well-educated head teacher of a school. It may also be that parents are unaware of their right to demand better performance.

In most countries, there is some form of **parent involvement in schools, either through parent teacher associations (PTAs) Eritrea, Gambia, Liberia, Uganda, and Zambia), and school management committees (SMCs)** (Lesotho, Malawi, and Zanzibar).

There are isolated reports of parents monitoring teacher attendance or taking action in cases where absenteeism was unacceptably high. In Malawi some school management committees are very active, in part because they have been trained by NGOs. As a result, misbehavior is reported, both to the school and the district education manager. As one official noted, "the office is under pressure from these people."

In Uganda, schools with strong parental involvement, as indicated by parental contributions and frequency of parent meetings, tend to have lower rates of teacher absence (Habyarimana 2007). In Uganda, Eritrea, Lesotho, and Malawi, some training of school management committees is undertaken to familiarize parents with their responsibilities and rights.

In Lesotho, community pressure on teacher recruitment may result in a school employing a local person in preference to a better-qualified outsider.

IV.9 School governance

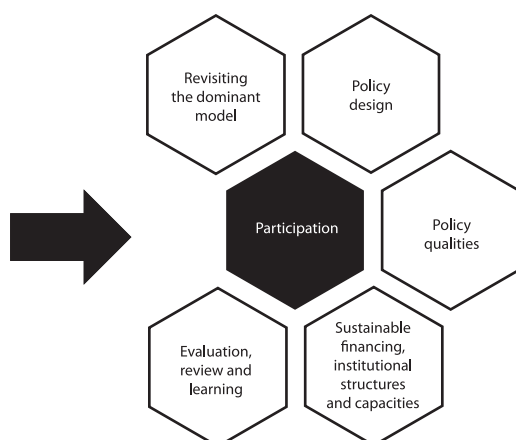
The role of leadership in successful schools and promoting teacher governance is well documented. The school leader is responsible for creating and maintaining a school environment — material and cultural — which is safe, suitable for its purposes and able to promote good quality education.

School governance is also crucial factor in both teacher motivation (and therefore morale, performance and retention) and learner performance and education outcomes. Consequences of poor school governance include teacher absenteeism and poor time keeping, teachers offering uncontrolled private tuition as an alternative to carrying out their basic teaching duties, and gender-based violence and other unprofessional behavior, all of which impact negatively on learners.

Challenge	Policy option
School leadership and management	
<p>School-based systems for supporting teachers and school leaders are generally weak across SSA. The daily supervision of teachers falls to school management but most head teachers are ill-prepared for school leadership roles.</p> <p>Most countries had no automatic training for head teachers. Many countries also lack strategies for the identification and preparation of school leaders, who tend to be promoted from within the teaching staff without training in school management.</p>	<p>The economics of education literature suggests that targeting principals as a route to educational improvement is substantially less costly than targeting teachers in the system. While an individual teacher can influence a few students they instruct, raising the quality of a principal presents an opportunity for educational improvement that has a more far-reaching impact since principals can influence all children in a school (Branch, Hanushek and Rivkin (2012)).</p> <p>The quality of school leadership and management and the performance of head teachers could be enhanced by:</p> <p>i) Formal orientation to the role - clarifying roles and responsibilities, staff supervision functions, practical training around managerial skills and in particular the skills of managing people.</p> <p>ii) Short in-service training for clusters of head teachers may prove less costly and more flexible in addressing the different needs of head teachers (see DeJaeghere, Williams, and Kyeyune) and may help to develop communities of head teachers, thus providing a peer group support mechanism at the local level.</p> <p>iii) Increasing the accountability of head teachers also seems beneficial. The system proposed in Lesotho, where head teachers are appointed on fixed-time contracts, after which they could either revert to their teaching positions or be awarded a new term as head teacher, seem to offer promising ways to enable removal of inefficient or incompetent head teachers.</p> <p>Other groups and stakeholders who have an important role to play in school governance include parents, school governors, parent/teacher associations, community members and leaders, local education officials, teaching staff and non-teaching staff.</p>

V. Revisiting teacher policy formulation

V.1 Revisiting the policy cycle approach



The policy cycle approach, which presents the policy formulation process as a logical flow between discrete phases, has lost much of its realism in the case of teaching policy. Teacher issues are complex, inter-connected and have not unfolded in an orderly way in the African context.

Across the continent, teacher policy challenges and solutions have often emerged together, rather than one after another. Strategies have been formulated in the different dimensions of teacher policy at the same time, or even before a need to act has been identified, sometimes leading to poorly conceived policies whose relationship to a policy problem is unclear.

As countries such as New Zealand and Finland demonstrate, 'directed exploration' and 'trailing', where ministers engage in an open, iterative discussion with teachers about how to achieve goals and resolve problems may be the way forward.

Indeed, current teacher policy processes greatly underestimate the value of policy design and trialing - to ensure that the planned actions represent a realistic and viable means of achieving the policy goals. Trialing would help to ensure that the policy problem has been fully reflected upon and the option fully tested before being scaled up to the national level.

V.2 Renewing policy design principles

Teacher policies need to be designed, not just conceived. As in business, teacher policies should be preceded by information gathering, research and quality control phases, before being trialed and finally going to market.

Research and data: Teacher policy should draw on well-informed research, gathering evidence that supports the use of different policy options, including evidence-based research, evaluation data and results from focus group discussions. In most countries there are extensive research gaps around the influence of teachers and instructional practice on learning outcomes and equity targets. Such research is important not only for improving the knowledge base for teacher policy, but as a way of introducing new ideas to schools and ensuring that teachers engage more actively with new knowledge.

Trialing: the complexity of modern governance means it is unlikely that policies can be designed perfectly, so that nothing will go wrong or need to be revised. Trialing, which helps to identify glitches and make operational adjustments, should be much more extensive and rigorous in the area of teacher policy in SSA.

As with the case of national monitoring frameworks in NZ, Finland and Uruguay, this means that numerous stakeholders should be consulted and mobilized to test the feasibility of a policy, including making full availability of resources, capacities and opportunities to adapt it to local or changing circumstances.

Trialing is also probably the key to achieving consensus and validation of the policy in a legitimate way. It prevents the policy from encountering 'push-back' due to being in conflict with the needs of relevant stakeholders. It also seeks to enhance ownership, coordination, participation and sustainability through capacity development.

Policy dissemination and knowledge management: The fact that few teachers are quickly aware of changes to teacher policy and education policy more generally points to the need to increase resources and capacities for policy dissemination.

Monitoring, review and evaluation: The effects of teacher policies are often indirect and take time to appear. There is also evidence that many of the effects of teacher policy interventions are unintended and sometimes even negative for other dimensions of policy.

Given the complexity of the teacher problems with which government deals, it may be unlikely that a policy will produce effects that are both measurable and attributable. What appears more important for policy improvement is that lessons feed back into policy design and lead to significant organizational learning. Again, trialing may offer a better opportunity for real-time evaluation and inquiry rather than performance management and evaluation.

Sustainable financing, institutional structures and capacities: Financing *must be considered for the* dimensions explored in the teaching policy, including decisions about teacher preparation, recurrent and capital training costs, should be linked to the national, local or school budget projections appropriately. Public budgetary allocation targets have to be developed for specific policy items, supplemented by other resources within an overall target or benchmark of national resources necessary for policy success.

V.3 Enhancing the qualities of policy making

Finally, how can African countries overcome systemic barriers to teacher policy where there may be a lack of capacities, few resources or incentives to innovate, or strong pressures to maintain the status quo? In contexts where significant reforms are very difficult to implement, aspects of innovation such as prototyping and experimentation should be encouraged.

At the same time, the gaps in education provision and teacher development, and growing public concern around education should be reflected in direct or in-direct involvement of organized segments of civil society, NGOs and Community Based Organizations willing to make a difference. Partnerships and focused, non-bureaucratic responses to teacher support will require new types of management skills and training, social mobilization and effective political leadership.

BODY/ORGANIZATION	ROLES
TEACHERS AND THEIR REPRESENTATIVES (e.g. Teacher Unions)	Provide practical experiences of teachers Represent teachers' concerns/needs Participate in drafting and validating a policy
TEACHER/TEACHING REGULATORY BODIES (e.g. Teacher Councils)	Provide forum for profession-led policy development/input
GOVERNMENT – including Ministry of Education 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
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
SCHOOL LEADERS (head teachers and deputy head teachers)	Provide experiences and understanding of those involved in managing schools
PARENTS AND THEIR REPRESENTATIVES (e.g. Parent-Teacher Associations)	Represent the needs/concerns of parents/local communities Act as a link to school communities
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
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
INTERNATIONAL AGENCIES	May fund the process Provide accountability checks and balances Support drafting of the policy Technical assistance Capacity building

VI. Working tool: Advancing through the policy process

The guide envisages a systematic process for arriving at a holistic and coherent national policy framework for the teaching profession. The phases below involve different actors. A major assumption is that the country is ripe for initiating the policy development process, and relevant discussions have been taking place not only at the government, but at the public opinion levels. After achieving a sound policy framework, the following steps should be followed, including adoption, implementation, dissemination, monitoring and evaluation. Stages that are *discussed and designed* in the policy framework but within the domain of executive power are not described herein.

Stage	Actors	Actions
1. Building political will	Senior decision-makers, technical advisors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Distil TTISSA findings plus other indicators; - Clarify the intent: Why do we need a Public Teacher Policy? Make a SWOT analysis of the current situation, identify aspects of teacher process that need decisions extending for the next 10 years.
2. Drafting technical support materials for discussion	Senior decision-makers, Technical committee/ specialists/Teacher Educators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Develop a rationale for the process of writing and implementing a Public Teacher Policy; - Choose the decisions that have to be made regarding: selection of candidates, inception/induction, training, curriculum, in-service, mentorship, facilities, quantity of teachers vs. demand, teachers duties, remuneration, teacher standards, etc.; - Explore international examples to broaden perspectives and identify global trends; - Devise a blueprint of the process (stages); - Define TORs for the participants who will be involved.
3. Discussing policy aspects with the input of relevant stakeholders	Technical committee / stakeholders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Produce a coherent narrative about how policy elements interact to produce a first-class teaching profession; - Agree on a vision for the Teaching Profession; - For each policy element, develop a short synthesis and a small number (3 to 6) of concrete strategies to be pursued; - Receive opinion from stakeholders regarding each of the strategies.
4. Consolidating and balancing the contributions from stakeholders	Technical Committee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reframe strategies considering opposing views and government priorities; - Cross-examine the strategies to see if they overlap or contradict.
5. Establishing the financial and political consequences of policy components	Senior decision-makers / Technical Committee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Explore financial consequences of envisaged strategies; - Check the draft policy with Senior Decision Makers to ensure political and technical sustainability.
6. Preparing a framework for implementing and monitoring the policy	Technical Committee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Establish performance indicators for each policy strategy; - Define a time frame for implementation of each policy strategy; - Assign responsibility to adequate officers.
7. Enacting the policy	Appointed officers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Produce the final version of the Public Teacher Policy white paper; - Submit the final version to Top Management for recommendations for approval.

The stages outlined in the matrix are clarified below. The purpose of this description is to ensure that all actors in the policy development process have a common understanding of the stages proposed above. It should be noted that the stages listed are not necessarily to be linear, but can be iterative with a back and forth movement depending on the circumstances.

VI.1 Building political will

Why? The first requirement in the process of policy formulation is achieving **political readiness** on the part of the competent authority to either launch the process itself or allow any other relevant body to begin the work of developing a new policy.

To achieve the readiness, the first step is the **identification of policy motivators**, meaning to define the vision for education, as well as identifying the main challenges or bottlenecks which should be tackled using the policy instrument to be developed. All the challenges should be taken into account including negative public opinions towards the education sector, as a policy can succeed only if it has public support.

The analysis of the situation must include possible ramifications as educational policies have implications of a wider nature; therefore, a holistic solution should be advised as the core tenet of policy formulation.

A clear, concise and forceful presentation of the problems is useful to obtain political support, awakening the interest of authorities and facilitating the required buy-in from them to deliver and enact a policy.

Problem formulation requires previous **gathering of evidence-based information** to ensure that the policy will address substantive challenges. Information gathering can be done through original research, or from second hand information secured from credible and relevant sources.

Who? Minister, Permanent Secretary (PS), Members of Parliament, Heads of Teacher Unions, Top representatives of School provision (private), Curriculum and Evaluation Agencies.

Meetings: As this is an initial stage, a focus group methodology may help in the selection of key problems and causes. Fishbone diagrams⁴⁰ and SWOT analysis⁴¹ are useful in this stage. Some “Power Questions” could spark intuition and debate, e.g. “What do we need to do to fix or improve the teaching profession in the country? What do statistic data say? What could be the cost of NOT acting, in the medium term?”

Input: An evidence-based presentation should be the starting point for the process, e.g. a compilation of relevant TTISSA findings plus other indicators regarding the teaching profession in the country.

Procedure: The facilitator should present the relevant information and propose the questions. All opinions should be registered, no criticism to personal positions allowed. Causes of problems should be offered and linked by means of the Fishbone Diagram. There is no need to offer solutions at this stage, as the group is still clarifying the problem(s). The facilitator will help then to clarify the goal through raising questions (e.g. “Why do we need a Public Teacher Policy?”). To formulate the opportunities and threats posed by the current situation, a SWOT analysis may help to identify aspects that need decision facing the next years.

After the process, the top management will see to the appointment of a Technical Committee or Task Force to move forward the process of policy design.

Outputs:

- A report of problems and causes;
- An evaluation of risks of not taking action;
- An executive decision to appoint the Technical Committee;
- A process schedule for the next steps;
- A budgetary provision for the process⁴².

40 See e.g. https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newTMC_03.htm

41 See e.g. https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/newTMC_05.htm

42 Resources should be allocated for the consultation process before the writing of the policy, and the validation of it after it has been drafted. Events such as panel discussions, media interviews, promotional print materials, etc., both before and after the development of the policy, require a certain amount of funding. Cooperation agencies may contribute, if presented with a concrete plan including goals and deliverables.

VI.2 Drafting technical support materials for discussion

The second stage implies to design the procedure for building up the policy. The technical committee (TC) will lead the process with frequent reports to high level management (to achieve legitimacy inside the ministry) and will produce a blueprint of the methodology for public dissemination (to achieve legitimacy with the general public).

Why? The need for public communication and validation has to do with earning legitimacy from the early start of the process. A written methodology will show that the available resources will be used wisely, as well as a commitment to deliver in time.

Who? The assignment can be carried out by a drafting team composed of teacher educators and experts from the Ministry of Education in teacher-related matters, under the supervision of the TC. Experts from other ministries such as planning, labour, civil service, etc., can be included in the drafting committee, as teacher issues are multi-sectoral in nature.

The drafting team might involve up to 10 people in charge of coordinating the policy development process, and its members will be required to have good skills for writing, research, processing information and planning ("hard skills") as well as diplomacy, capacity to balance tensions and steer productive dialogue sessions ("soft skills").

The structure of the drafting team can include:

- a coordinator with experience in policy development processes and dialogue with authorities;
- 2 information officers with expertise in quantitative and qualitative analysis;
- a news agent, with solid oral and written communication skills;
- an ICT expert with command of relevant software to organize word processing, presentations, videos and web pages;
- several specialists in different issues linked to teachers. They can be experts in the Teacher Department of the Ministry of Education (MoE), relevant ministries such as Ministry of Labour, Ministry of Planning, Civil Service Commission (or Teacher Service Commission, where it exists), liaison officers with teachers' Unions and Teacher Training institutions;
- 1 administrator;
- 1 economist or sociologist.

All the participants of the drafting team would need training in group work methodology with necessary skills including how to deliver presentations, propose activities for working groups, summarizing contributions, keeping an agenda and avoiding disruptive behaviour in meetings. The capacity building process might be carried out through a series of retreats or workshops.

The work of the drafting team should be guided by terms of reference developed by the competent authority (the Teacher Department of the Ministry of Education, for example, as it is assumed that the MoE is a major stakeholder of a teacher policy). The terms of reference should include not only the major issues that it has to consider, but also the time limit within which it has to accomplish its task. It will ensure the production of a policy document within set time.

Meeting: The drafting team will meet regularly through the full policy development process, estimated in about 1 year. Some of the members may work part-time, but the Coordinator should be a full-time professional.

Input: Guidelines produced by the TC, time frame set.

Outputs: Joint work of the team has to deliver:

- Support materials for the research and consultation stages, e.g. a study of international examples to broaden perspectives and identify global trends, a thorough report about the status of the teaching profession selection of candidates, inception, training, curriculum, in-service, mentorship, facilities, quantity of teachers vs. demand, teachers' duties, remuneration, teacher standards, etc., a study of investment feasibility (e.g. ten-year educational budget expansion provisions);
- a rationale for the process of writing and implementing a Public Teacher Policy;
- a planning schedule and agendas for meetings;
- facilitation of workshops and public auditions;
- TORs for the participation of stakeholders;
- Press releases for newspapers, radio, TV and a dedicated internet site.

VI.3 Consolidating and balancing contributions

Why? A sustainable policy is a document result of concessions and compromises arrived at through a process of finding the common denominator for a wider appeal. However, a policy cannot satisfy everyone; its guidelines are produced taking into consideration the common good, but sometimes the vision of the common good may differ among actors. In the end the government is the responsible actor for implementing the policy, and by representing the society it is entitled to the final say.

The drafting team will produce a white paper and a section with comments regarding the policy options that have received observations and remarks, especially negative ones, from specific stakeholders.

The drafting team has to organize diverse intentions and opinions in a way that ensures that everyone feels represented in the process, even if particular recommendations are diluted or not taken into consideration. The validation process should clarify the reasons of the choices and open a space for negotiation.

Who? Opinion leaders from all stakeholders' groups.

Meetings: A second round of consultation of the white paper with opinion leaders, discussing its implications, and the reasons for the policy choices.

Input: White paper and comments section.

Procedure: Consultation meetings should achieve clear endorsement or objections to each policy guideline.

Output: White paper, list of change proposals, map of objections.

VI.4 Anticipating the financial and political implications of the Policy

Why? While the above steps provide an overview of the process of policy development and the various actors involved in it, one other essential element to consider is availability of sufficient resources to cover the cost of the eventual implementation of policies, and political ability to manage the level of conflict that might ensue. This is very crucial as some of the provisions of the policy may require substantial financial outlay to be implemented, or could face stark resistance from specific sectors.

It might be the case that countries consider strategies to modify teacher salaries or general working conditions, including not only incentives but also accountability measures, establish quotas for entering the training institutions, or establish plans for deployment of graduate teachers to address imbalances. Many of the described possibilities have financial consequences as well as political consequences.

On the other hand, ongoing monitoring of the policy implementation, and periodic evaluation of its relevance and efficacy are tasks that also require allocation of resources.

The decision to provide the required amount of resources could possibly cause tensions with other government areas. Therefore, it needs to be justified clearly, spelling out the benefits of the several policy guidelines.

Who? Budget and planning experts from government sectors, experts in economy of education, international development agencies.

Meetings: At least a meeting in the middle of the process to let financial experts ask the relevant questions and point out the budgetary variables to explore, and a second meeting to estimate the budgetary impact of the policy in the expected time frame for implementation.

Input: Green paper (in the first round of consultation), white paper (in the second round of consultation).

Procedure: Participants engage in simulation scenarios, and provide advice on the relative cost of the different policy guidelines, estimating hidden variables such as the positive impact on the economy of a better education.

Output: Budget for implementation, medium term financial provisions, suggestions of decisions that can be prioritised and others to be postponed because of financial constraints.

VI.5 Preparing a framework for implementation

Why? After the conceptual and financial validation process, the policy document will be finalised by incorporating significant feedback and giving it its final shape. The feedback incorporation will be done by the drafting team as the final step of its work. The last element of the policy to include in the document will be a framework for monitoring and implementation.

The framework will distribute the policy actions in the period of time considered for the implementation, and will define indicators of progress and responsible actors/agencies for carrying out each action.

Who? A joint committee including members of the drafting team and principal decision-makers/educational planners.

Meetings: Working meetings will be held to study each guideline and propose concrete measurable progress indicators.

Input: White paper and budgetary analysis.

Procedure: Technical planning sessions to be carried out, resource persons with expertise in indicator formulation and policy planning needed.

Output: Final policy document for approval.

VI.6 Enacting the policy

At this stage the whole process shifts to political action, as what remains is the declaration of the policy by a competent legal entity such as the Ministry of Education, the Office of the Prime Minister or any other body that has a mandate to promulgate policy declarations. If the issue is given a higher profile, the policy may even be debated and ratified by the Parliament. Once this happens, the policy becomes a legal document, with inherent implications.

The following steps lie outside the policy formulation process which is the subject of this practical guide; for implementation a full set of bylaws, norms, regulations and guidelines shall be produced, and the relevant actors should be trained and supervised. The indicators shall be monitored by the relevant authority and corrective measures put in place in case of deviations.

VII. Discussion documents

VII.1 A glossary of teacher policy terms

Continual Professional Development of teachers (CPD) - activities and programs developed and put in place for the on-going revitalization and development of teachers or on-going opportunities, activities and programs that are meant to develop teachers' skills, knowledge, expertise and other teacher characteristics. It covers the enriching experiences a teacher has as a result of his/her professional engagements with teaching and related activities. Related to CPD is the idea of **lifelong learning** which refers learning that occurs beyond the formal structure of an educational institution throughout one's lifetime. CPD also includes the in-service training (INSET) activities which teachers attend as organized for them.

Early Childhood Development (ECD) Teacher– a professional engaged with parents in the education and the physical, social and emotional development of children, usually from birth to five years in childcare, daycare, nursery and pre-school settings. Countries use different terms to refer to this level of education. These are Early Childhood Education (ECE), Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE), and Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD).

Higher Education Teacher – defined by UNESCO as referring to all persons in institutions or programs of higher education who are engaged in teaching and/or scholarship and/or research and/or provision of educational services to students or to the community.

Higher Education: refers to all types of accredited education (academic, professional, technical, artistic, pedagogical, distance and others) provided by universities and other post-secondary institutions such as the technological and teacher training institutions⁴³.

Mentor: a more experienced teacher who advises or guides a novice one through teaching and related tasks over a period of time. Related terms or concepts are mentor teacher; novice teacher. A **mentor teacher** mentors or advises and guides student teachers during field placements or practical teaching work which takes place as part of training as teachers.

Principal/Head-teacher – the administrative head of a primary or secondary school.

Pupil-teacher ratio – the total student enrollment divided by the number of full-time equivalent teachers.

School Governance – covers school management and leadership systems and operations which include main laws and regulations within which schools operate, including oversight bodies like governing boards. It entails all factors that contribute to teacher motivation, good learner performance and outcomes, and a conducive school environment and effective leadership.

Special needs teacher – a teacher who is trained to teach and support learners with special needs in education

Teacher: a person whose professional activity involves the transmission of knowledge, attitudes, and skills to students enrolled in an educational program. (UNESCO)

Covers all those persons in schools who are responsible for the education of pupils (ILO)

43 Please see: <http://www.unesco.org/education/educprog/wche/diaz-e.htm>

Teacher absenteeism – a phenomenon of teacher absence from duty for legitimate reasons such as illness, official duty, leave or non-legitimate reasons such as being absent without leave of absence, usually repeatedly. Unavailability in school or lessons during school hours. The teacher could be away from the school premises or be present within the premises but not attend his/her classes.

Teacher accountability – teachers' responsibility and answerability to students, parents, peers and communities for their performance and learning outcomes.

Teacher appraisal – a formalized evaluation of a teacher's progress and performance intended to identify strengths and weaknesses in order to ultimately improve performance. This is typically done face-to-face. Meaningful and systematic CPD draws from a well-designed teacher appraisal system and other forms of needs assessment.

Teacher Associations (Unions) – refer to teachers' formations whose main interest is to safeguard teachers' collective bargaining rights and employment conditions.

Teacher attrition – teachers leaving the profession through various factors such as taking up other different jobs, resignations, retirement, dismissal, death etc. Alongside attrition, there is **teacher migration** which refers to teachers leaving one school to take a job in another school.

Teacher Career Structure – pathways for teachers' upward or horizontal movement within the teaching profession over a number of years of service, often based on qualifications and performance.

Teacher deployment- posting/distribution of teachers within and among schools; or assignment of teachers to schools where they are required to teach. It could be spatial, discipline/subject-specific etc. The ultimate aim in all country situations is to ensure equitable teacher deployment.

Teacher Education and Training/Teacher Preparation – professional preparation of teachers or initial and in-service development of teachers through deliberate programs set up for the purpose.

Teacher induction – this involves the introduction and initiation of a novice teacher into the teaching and related processes.

Teacher motivation – internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in teachers to be continually interested and committed to making their best effort to help and support student learning goals (TMWG of the Teachers Task Force for EFA).

Teacher professional standards – expectations about teachers' knowledge, competences and attributes and desirable level of performance.

Teacher professionalism – this is a more complex concept with multiple meanings depending on the context and various orientations of scholars. However, depending on the context, teacher professionalism covers teachers' professional qualification, knowledge and specialized skills which include being good at his/her job, fulfilling the highest standards and valuing excellence and espousing high moral and ethical values and standards of conduct and performance.

Teacher Recruitment – selection and posting of teachers into schools and the teaching profession through enrolment in teacher training and subsequent registration and employment.

Teacher registration and licensing OR teacher licensure and certification – official process of accepting teachers into the teaching service through registration and provision of teaching licenses.

Teacher Retention – strategies for retaining or keeping the teachers available or employed within the teaching profession or teaching service. It also includes ways and means of keeping teachers in schools and reducing or containing attrition.

Teacher Reward and Remuneration – inducements, incentives and pay available to teachers for their special performance or work (monetary and non-monetary).

Teachers Service Commission – a body set up to oversee, manage and determine teachers' conditions of service

Teacher supply and demand – teacher supply refers to the number of qualified teachers who are both able and willing to offer their service while teacher demand refers to the number of teaching positions on offer.

Teacher trainer or educator – a person (an experienced professional) who teaches students to become teachers at a teacher training institute or university.

Trained teacher – a teacher who has received the minimum organized teacher training (pre-service or in-service) required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country.

Teacher wastage – trained teachers never actually entering the teaching profession.

Teacher workload – refers to both the direct teaching time and the work of preparation, marking and associated administration, often described in terms of teaching hours.

VII.2 Teacher Policy Dimensions

What are the dimensions that must be included in the overall teacher policy framework?

Three main sources of these dimensions are indicated in the tables below. Although the dimensions from the UNESCO Teacher Policy Guide are mainly used, wherever necessary, a synthesis of these dimensions forms part of the dimensions incorporated in the template that will be used to collect information on the status of teacher policies in various SADC countries that are stipulated in this assignment's terms of reference. (See Annexes A and B for the Templates)

Teachers' Task Force Teacher Policy Guide	World Bank – SABER REPORT
Teacher Recruitment and retention;	Requirements for entering and remaining in the teaching profession;
Teacher Education (initial and continuing);	Initial teacher preparation;
Deployment;	Recruitment and employment;
Career Structure/Path;	Teacher workloads and autonomy;
Teacher Employment and Working conditions;	Professional development;
Teacher Reward and Remuneration;	Compensation: salary and non-salary benefits;
Teacher Standards;	Retirement rules and benefits;
Teacher Accountability;	Monitoring and evaluation of teacher quality;
School Governance.	Teacher representation and voice;
	School leadership

UNESCO Teacher Policy Guide

Teacher recruitment and retention
Teacher education and training (initial and continuing)
Teacher deployment
Teacher management and support
Teacher career structure/path
Teacher rewards and remuneration
Teacher standards
Teacher accountability
School governance

Selected Teacher Policy Dimensions and their Clarification

The following dimensions have been identified and selected by the consultant on the basis of their recommendation for elaboration and clarification by the Lusaka Workshop in December 2015. They are also recommended by UNESCO as they are part of the Teacher Policy Guide developed in 2015 by UNESCO. These dimensions are also part of the comprehensive study and report of the World Bank –the SABER Report - albeit with some variations in how they are named.

There is an overlap between the glossary of some teacher policy terms and these policy areas or dimensions. The purpose of this latter part is to state policy options within each dimension.

Teacher recruitment: These are policies meant to attract people to the teaching profession, both quantitatively and qualitatively. This is a crucial teacher policy dimension covering various options for the supply of teachers. It depends on the number of students enrolled in teacher education institutions and those that graduate. A choice of policy options for the success of teacher recruitment include availability of alternative routes into teaching, teacher licensing options, provision of scholarships and loans for prospective teachers as well making teaching attractive through better working conditions, better salaries and other incentives.

To deal with teacher shortage, some countries have adopted policies such as use of less qualified teachers, substitute teachers, recalling retired teachers and use of paraprofessionals as well as recruiting teachers from other countries. Use of contract teachers in some African countries is an option that has been adopted to address urgent teacher shortages.

Teacher retention: Teacher retention policies pay attention to how qualified quality teachers are retained and turnover is reduced in the teaching profession. Various factors contribute to teacher retention. These factors form policy options available to countries to adopt. Teacher motivation strategies, paying attention to both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators are important choices countries make. Policies that address teacher attrition and migration are also very important choices available.

Research indicates that good working conditions help in making teachers to stay in teaching. Organizational factors such as good teacher management and support, recognizing the significance of teachers' contributions to school and national education policies are very important. General school environment, including peace, stability and discipline are important in ensuring retention of teachers within schools and in the system.

Teacher induction and mentoring policies significantly contribute to retention of teachers. Such programs particularly, improve retention and help make entry into teaching for novice teachers less stressful and intimidating.

Teacher education and training (initial and continuing): This is a very important policy dimension that addresses teacher supply and demand challenges. It covers policies on what programs – traditional and alternative- to put in place to address the quantitative and qualitative requirements of teachers. Policies on entry requirements into teacher preparation, the nature and quality of the content for teaching, the place and significance of pedagogical training and clinical experience are very important policy options for countries.

Policies on the nature and duration of programs are relevant. Considerations include whether traditional 'concurrent' or 'consecutive' or both programs are important policy options and decisions are quite key in this dimension.

Continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers: is relevant here as a quality teacher policy issue and a retention and motivation issue. Teacher professional development is an ongoing, career long process that is quite important in teacher development, renewal and revitalization. Various options for CPD include the fact that it has to be based on well-developed needs assessment, supportive appraisal and performance assessment for teachers, schools and the system. It often forms a proper basis for teachers' career progression. It can be school-based, school-focused and system-focused and offered by as a distance learning opportunity for teachers. It includes various forms of in-service training for teachers. For teacher professional status and standards, competence and updating of knowledge, CPD policies are a crucial requirement.

Teacher deployment: Trained and recruited teachers have to be posted or placed and distributed in the schooling system. Equitable teacher deployment is a very important teacher policy choice that has to be made. Qualified serving teachers have, from time to time, to be moved around between and within schools.

Teacher deployment policy options that countries use include deployment by teaching subject, location (rural, remote, urban or difficult to reach locations) which are options available to ensure equity in deployment. Gender considerations are also very important to ensure that children benefit from both male and female qualified teachers and head teachers. Teachers' personal circumstances do also matter as much as possible in any posting strategies.

Poor teacher deployment strategies can disadvantage teachers and schools. It can also be a source of teacher wastage; that is, qualified teacher unemployment.

Teacher management and support: This policy option is important and embedded in all other policy dimensions. It is an important policy option that enhances teacher employment and good working conditions and continuing professional development of teachers. Teacher induction and mentoring are important teacher management and support policy choices. Teacher retention policies have to pay attention to how teachers are managed and supported throughout their teaching career. Policies on good school governance strongly enhance good teacher management and support which promotes teacher motivation.

Teachers' working conditions: These include policy options available to make teaching attractive, and to help improve teacher recruitment and retention. They include policies that are aimed at ensuring that school conditions and ethos are maintained and teachers' job satisfaction is enhanced.

Policy options include defining teacher working hours, teaching load, class sizes, school facilities and support systems for teachers and teaching. School stability and safety are important policy components that help attract, motivate and retain qualified, quality teachers. Clearly-defined labour relations as well teachers' rights and responsibilities are part and parcel of policies on teachers' employment and working conditions.

Teacher career structure/path: As already stated in the context of teacher retention, to make teaching attractive and to retain qualified, quality teachers, policies on teacher progression and development are important. Both vertical and horizontal teacher career paths are important policy options available to countries and systems. Horizontal career progression helps to retain quality and experienced teachers in the classroom while also recognizing their worth as good teachers, and deploying them as teacher mentors, curriculum developers and subject advisors and rewarding them accordingly. Vertical career progression of teachers is also an important option that makes available promotion and development prospects for teachers.

Teacher career progression has to be tied to appraisal or performance management systems and systematic continuing professional development (CPD).

Teacher rewards and remuneration: Policies on teacher rewards and remuneration cover a wide range of monetary and non-monetary forms of incentives and compensation. While salaries are important in making teaching attractive, non-salary compensations and incentives such as performance bonuses, awards, housing schemes, provision of communication devices and facilities for teachers in remote, difficult rural locations are options that can be explored. Such provisions can help promote equity in teacher deployment so that difficult locations are not disadvantaged.

Other policy options include making available specific-purpose leaves, study leave and sabbatical opportunities for teachers.

Teacher professional standards: Policies that help to make teaching attractive and professionalized, do pay attention to who enters teaching and who is a good teacher. All professions define and maintain a set of competency, ethical and moral standards that help to identify who belongs and who does not.

Policy choices include who and how people get admitted into teaching as well who gets appointed to head a school, including licensure policies. Professional regulation arrangements are important policy components of this dimension. They include decisions on the nature of acceptable knowledge, including a mix of subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical skills and tacit knowledge about schools, learners or students and the teaching/learning processes.

Teacher accountability: Accountability is a central component of all recognized professions. It is an important element of self-regulation within professions. It is closely linked to teacher professionalism and standards. Policies that help make teachers accountable or answerable for their performance and learning outcomes are very important. They promote teacher empowerment and autonomy while at the same time ensuring that the autonomy is not unfettered, but it is accompanied by accountability. Policies on teacher accountability recognize the importance of teachers and school heads or principals without attributing all problems of the education system to them.

School Governance: Policies on how schools are governed are important. School governance policies cover school management and leadership systems and operations which include main laws and regulations within which schools and teachers operate, including oversight bodies like governing bodies. School governance policies enhance teacher and head teacher accountability. These policies entail all factors that contribute to teacher motivation, good learner performance and outcomes, and a conducive school environment and effective leadership. Policies that promote stakeholder participation in schools through school committees, governing bodies and parent-teacher associations help to improve school-community relations and create a good environment for children's education.

VII.3 Generic Terms of Reference for producing a Teacher Policy Document

Below is a generic example of the TOR for the process and the lead team. It is meant to assist countries to develop their own TOR relevant to their specific contexts.

1. Introduction

The <RELEVANT NATIONAL ORGANISM, e.g. C.E.O. teaching services> function is to advise the Minister of Education on the policy for the teacher sector and to monitor implementation of the same policy. Pursuant to this legal requirement, <NAMED RELEVANT ORGANISM> is in the process of developing a policy on teacher. The terms of reference are outlined below for a consultant to work on these key documents.

2. Background and Context

<DEVELOP HERE A SHORT DESCRIPTION OF THE CURRENT SITUATION, E.G. THE SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS, LAWS RECENTLY APPROVED ABOUT TEACHERS, CREATION OF NEW SCHEMAS OF TEACHER COMPENSATION, ETC.>

3. Objectives of the Assignment

The main purpose of the development of the national policy on teachers is to strengthen the current policy framework to ensure that the teacher workforce is composed of highly skilled, motivated and committed individuals who can deliver excellent education to the school students. This needs to be done in a holistic and coherent way that includes the various aspects that impinge upon the teachers' activity, including the role of sectors other than education (e.g. health and safety).

3.1 Specific Objectives

To achieve this main purpose, the development process will focus on the following specific objectives:

- To undertake a situational analysis of the current policy environment to enhance understanding of the dynamics;
- To consult all key stakeholders on how the teachers sector can be regulated, guided and improved;
- To initiate the development of policy proposals based on identified challenges;
- To formulate a draft with a systemic policy on teachers;
- To validate the draft policy and strategic plan with key stakeholders, and align it with the government policy imperatives.

4. Scope of Work:

To achieve the objectives listed above, the development process will entail forming and leading a team to research and develop policies that, after <REVISION BY CONGRESS, OR THE MINISTRY, OR OTHER MECHANISM>, may be adopted as national policy.

A secondary responsibility of the Team is to prepare submissions to relevant government and parliamentary inquiries and reviews that advocate adoption of the policies.

The team is in charge of producing the following deliverables:

- An inception report for the assignment establishing needs and budget;
- A review of relevant literature (particularly literature related to the teacher sector);
- A comprehensive situational analysis of the teaching profession to inform stakeholder consultations and later policy formulation;
- Guidelines and tools to guide stakeholder discussions during consultations;
- Presentations of draft documents to key stakeholders within the higher education sector through meetings and workshops in the geographical regions of the country;
- A budgetary analysis of the policy changes with the relevant officers;
- A comprehensive report on consultations documenting stakeholders' views and aspirations;
- A national policy on teachers (draft version or green paper, and a revised version or white paper).

5. Roles in the Drafting Team

5.1. Coordination

The Committee will be coordinated by the Policy Development Coordinator ("Coordinator"), who will be appointed by <SUITABLE MECHANISM: selected by government, appointed by congress etc.>. The Ministry of Education <OR RELEVANT BODY> will appoint a Liaison Officer (LO) to review periodically the work done by the drafting team.

The Coordinator will be responsible for managing and overseeing the activities undertaken by the Team, facilitate meetings, keep schedule, and delegate roles. He/she will be assisted by a Secretariat that will coordinate meetings, take minutes, circulate minutes to all members, and collate agenda items for discussion.

5.2. Team Members

Membership will be determined by <SUITABLE MECHANISM>, after ensuring that the requirements for participation are met by candidates.

Team members will be expected to organise themselves internally to chair and manage meetings, form working groups for development of specific policies, and set deadlines for the completion of tasks. According to function, two roles are expected from members:

- Advising Members: will attend meetings, provide items for discussion, provide guidance on policy issues, and provide support in coordinating initiatives;
- Technical Members: will attend meetings, process discussion results, organize proposals in a systematic way, and draft presentations and documents.

6. Key Qualification, Experience and Skills

The team members should have knowledge of policy and strategic plan development, and as a team they must have solid understanding of teacher-related issues in the country, a willingness to consult with outside organizations in order to develop policy recommendations, and the ability to work professionally within a team. In addition, each team member should possess at least five of the following skills and competencies:

- Broad knowledge and understanding of key developmental issues in the African region;
- Minimum of <XXX> years' experience in policy development and strategic planning within the education sector;

- A working knowledge of laws and practices relevant to teacher policies, even if limited to one particular area;
- Sound understanding and application of policy concepts, methodologies and tools;
- Good analytical and report writing skills;
- High level of reading comprehension, succinctness in writing and ability to explain complex issues in layperson's terms,
- Fluent in spoken and written English/French/Portuguese <DEPENDING ON COUNTRY>;
- Good communication and facilitation skills;
- Good interpersonal skills;
- Computer literacy.

7. Powers & Responsibility

7.1 The team:

- May accept or reject any proposals put forward by stakeholders after due consideration and feedback.
- Will research a proposed policy to determine its viability. If a policy is considered unviable, the team may not include the proposal.
- May consult with outside organizations in order to develop policy recommendations.
- Must have regular meetings.
- Will be responsible for updating and maintaining policy FAQ documents.
- Must publish documents explaining all team processes.

1.2 The Coordinator (or a nominated stand in):

- Must chair regular meetings of the Committee.
- Must inform members of policies and submissions under development at regular national meetings.
- Must maintain a wiki page that lists policies and submissions under development, with a brief description of each.
- Must actively inform the member base of the existence of working groups.

8. Budgetary Requirements

It is envisaged that the team will require specific funding, to be allocated and paid by the <RELEVANT AUTHORITY OR COOPERATION AGENCY>. The use of resources will be managed by an Administrative Officer who will produce administrative reports with the due requirements.

9. Tools and Procedures for Communication and Reporting

The Team may determine its own tools and procedures for communication, but there should be accessible means of communication for all involved, including the use of media and ICT.

The Team leader will report to the <RELEVANT AUTHORITY> and interact frequently with the designated Liaison Officer.

10. Timing and Duration

The assignment is estimated to be completed within a period of <XXX> days.

VII.4 Features of a good Policy Document

The guidelines and/or criteria for a good policy is provided below. This can be used as a self-evaluation exemplar for comparison and reflection.

A good policy document is expected to be dynamic, contextual, comprehensive and created through a consultative process:

- A good policy document is a dynamic entity in the sense that the issues addressed are supposed to be amenable to change over time depending on changes in the context in which they occur. Any issue contained in a policy document has to be re-examined in light of changing situations related with it. This will make the policy a live document that is current and relevant for the particular situation it has first been designed for. Failing to do so will make the policy obsolete and therefore impractical, unworkable or even downright irrelevant.
- It is usually the case that what works in one situation may not work in other situations. Learning from each other is acceptable and desirable too, but a good policy document has to rely on what obtains in the particular context it is situated. Otherwise, it will miss out on important salient features of the situation, and in the process miss out on tackling the issues that matter.

The policy document should be clear and concise. The contents might be summarized as follows:

- A section including a foreword by the educational authority, acknowledgements for participants in the process and working definitions of concepts;
- A section including diagnostic information such as research data on the context: the country, its population, the educational needs, the educational system, current initiatives, achieved and failed previous policies, challenges and demands (what is happening and needs to be changed);
- A section with a clear, vivid and inspiring vision for the teaching profession enabling to define broad policy goals (what we want);
- Guidelines and strategies (organized under a professional stage logics or whatever). These constitute the main body of the policy document (what we will do);

A time frame and indicators for monitoring (how we will process).

Model A: Lesotho⁴⁴

- Foreword by the Minister – Acknowledgements – List of Acronyms and Abbreviations – Definitions
- SECTION ONE: The Education System – Population in a School Context – Teachers' Competence – Local and International Initiatives – Areas of Expected Impact
- SECTION TWO: Rationale – The Teaching Profession in the 21st Century – A Holistic Concept of Teacher Education and Training – Vision – Mission – Policy Goals
- SECTION THREE: Policy Guidelines and Strategies about Admission of Candidates – Pre-Service Teacher Education – Induction Programs and Mentoring – Deployment, Monitoring and Evaluation – Continuous Professional Development (CPD)
- SECTION FOUR: Monitoring and Evaluation of the Policy: Implementation Framework

⁴⁴ Personal communication (Work in progress)

Model B: South Africa⁴⁵

- SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE POLICY - PRINCIPLES
- THE CONTEXT OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA – TEACHER DEMAND AND SUPPLY – The complexity of the task, The apartheid legacy, Social inequality, Statistical profile of teachers , The variables , Teacher shortages, Recruitment trends , Recruitment campaign, Policy response to teacher shortage and recruitment,
- IPET QUALIFICATION ROUTES – Higher Education Qualification Framework, Recognised Teaching Qualifications, Policy Response to Qualification Routes
- CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL TEACHER DEVELOPMENT (CPTD) Conceptual and pedagogical needs, A new CPTD system, Rewards and sanctions, Managing the CPTD system, Policy response to challenges of professional development
- THE TEACHER EDUCATION SUPPORT SYSTEM – A collaborative system National Education Evaluation and Development Unit, Policy response to teacher education support system
- A NATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR TEACHER EDUCATION – Initial Professional Education of Teachers (IPET), IPET routes to a qualification, Bursary Scheme for initial teacher education, Teacher Recruitment Program, Quality assurance, National database and information service, Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD), Quality assurance and monitoring of CPTD, Funding of CPTD, Teacher education support system.

Model C: Burkina Faso⁴⁶

This is a general education policy document, but can be interesting as a template:

- POLITICAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMICAL CONTEXT –Political context, Demographic context, Socio-cultural context, Macro-economic and budget context
- DIAGNOSIS OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR –General presentation of the education sector, Analysis of the education sector, Assets, opportunities and development potential of the education sector, Issues and challenges
- VISION AND LEADING PRINCIPLES OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR
- STRATEGIC ORIENTATIONS –Improvement of educational offer, quality of teaching and learning, and access to social services, Development of early childhood, teenagers, youth and adults, Strengthening of leadership and management of the education system
- OBJECTIVES
- PROGRAMS –Developing the access to formal education, Improving the quality of education, Strengthening access to social services for students, Developing non-formal education
- LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION SECTOR
- SECTOR POLICY FINANCE
- IMPLEMENTATION, MONITORING AND EVALUATION TOOLS –Implementation modalities, Monitoring mechanisms, Monitoring and evaluation
- RISKS AND MITIGATION STRATEGIES – Policy funding, External crisis, Poverty, Weak stakeholders' assent, Weak actors' capacity to conduct change

⁴⁵ http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/South%20Africa/South_Africa_teacher_ed_policy.pdf

⁴⁶ http://www.hiproweb.org/fileadmin/cdroms/Inclusive_Education2014/PSEducBurkina20142023.pdf

VII.5 Project planning elements⁴⁷

A project is defined as a planned undertaking of related activities to reach an objective that has a beginning and an end⁴⁸. Writing the policy can be considered a project, and as such, it needs to be managed to achieve the expected results in due time. The following ideas can help the coordinator to develop his/her task.

Management activities

Initiating the Project

1. *Establishing the project initiation team.* Organize team members to assist in carrying out the project initiation activities.
2. *Establishing a relationship with the customer.* The customers include decision-makers and stakeholders.
3. *Establishing the project initiation plan.* Defines the activities required to organize the team while working to define the goals and scope of the project.
4. *Establishing management procedures.* Concerned with developing team communication and reporting procedures, job assignments and roles, project change procedure, and how project funding and billing will be handled.
5. *Establishing the project management environment and workbook.* Focus on the collection and organization of the tools that you will use while managing the project.

Planning the Project

1. *Describing project scope, alternatives, and feasibility.* This is based on the understanding of the content and complexity of the project. Some relevant questions to be answered include:
 - What problem/opportunity does the project address?
 - What results are to be achieved?
 - What are the needs to be done?
 - How will success be measured?
 - How will we know when we are finished?
2. *Divide the project into tasks.* This technique is also known as the work breakdown structure. This step is done to ensure an easy progression between tasks.
3. *Estimating resources and creating a resource plan.* This helps to gather and arrange resources in the most effective manner.
4. *Developing a preliminary schedule.* In this step, you are to assign time estimates to each activity in the work breakdown structure. From here, you will be able to create the target start and end dates for the project.
5. *Developing a communication plan.* The idea here is to outline the communication procedures between management, team members and the customer.

47 Abridged from Maserang S. PROJECT MANAGEMENT: TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES - http://www.umsl.edu/~sauterv/analysis/488_f02_papers/ProjMgmt.html

48 Hoffer, Jeffrey A; George, Joey F; Valacich, Joseph S. "Modern Systems Analysis & Design". (c)2002 by Pearson Education, Inc. Prentice Hall.

6. *Determining project standards and procedures.* This is about the specification of how various deliverables are produced and tested by the project team.
7. *Identifying and assessing risk.* The goal here is to identify potential sources of risk and the consequences of those risks.
8. *Creating a preliminary budget.* The budget should summarize the planned expenses and revenues related to the project.
9. *Developing a statement of work.* This document will list the work to be done and the expected outcome of the project.
10. *Setting a baseline project plan.* This should provide an estimate of the project's tasks and resource requirements.

Executing the Project

1. *Executing the baseline project plan.* The job of the project manager is to initiate the execution of project activities, acquire and assign resources, orient and train new team members, keep the project on schedule, and assure the quality of project deliverables.
2. *Monitoring project progress against the baseline project plan.* Using Gantt and PERT charts, which are discussed in further details in this paper, can assist the project manager in doing this.
3. *Managing changes to the baseline project plan.* The project plan needs to be dynamic in order to integrate changes.
4. *Maintaining the project workbook.* Maintaining complete records of all project events is necessary. The project workbook is the primary source of information for producing all project reports.
5. *Communicating the project status.* This means that the entire project plan should be shared with the entire project team, and any revisions to the plan should be communicated to all interested parties so that everyone understands how the plan is evolving.

Closing down the Project

1. *Closing down the project.* In this stage, it is important to notify all interested parties of the completion of the project. Also, all project documentation and records should be finalized so that the final review of the project can be conducted.
2. *Conducting post project reviews.* This is done to determine the strengths and weaknesses of project deliverables, the processes used to create them, and the project management process.
3. *Closing the customer contract.* The final activity is to ensure that all contractual terms of the project have been met.
4. GUIDELINES FOR PLANNING TEACHER SUPPLY
5. The number of each type of teacher required can be projected relatively easily, given a small number of key pieces of information:
6. The projected student enrolment

7. The policy on pupil-teacher ratio
8. The existing number of teachers, broken into their subject specialties, where applicable
9. The annual teacher attrition rate
10. The annual output of newly trained teachers
11. The wastage rate (the percentage of newly qualified teachers who do not take a teaching job).
12. Ideally, these calculations should include both public and private schools, and public and private teacher training, unless there are particular restrictions in the teacher labour market.
13. Calculation of the number of teachers required for particular subjects (as is the usual case in secondary schools) is a little more complex, because (i) some subjects are optional, (ii) not all subjects have the same expected teaching time, and (iii) some teachers teach more than one subject.
14. For optional subjects, the number of teachers should be reduced in proportion to the number of students who study that subject. This assumes efficient teacher deployment and utilization.
15. For a compulsory subject, the calculation can be based on curriculum load. Consider the example of a country where each secondary school hosts 40 periods

Management Tools

There are many tools available to assist with accomplishing the tasks and executing the responsibilities. Some require a computer with supporting software, while others can be used manually. Project managers should choose a project management tool that best suits their management style. No single tool can address all project management needs. Program Evaluation Review Technique (PERT) and Gantt Charts are two of the most commonly used project management tools and are described below. Both of these project management tools can be produced manually or with commercially available project management software.

PERT is a planning and control tool used for defining and controlling the tasks necessary to complete a project. PERT charts and Critical Path Method (CPM) charts are often used interchangeably; the only difference is how task times are computed. Both charts display the total project with all scheduled tasks shown in sequence. The displayed tasks show the ones are in parallel, which can be performed at the same time.⁴⁹ A graphic representation called a "Project Network" or "CPM Diagram" is used to portray graphically the interrelationships of the elements of a project and to show the order in which the activities must be performed.⁵⁰

PERT planning involves the following steps:⁵¹

1. *Identify the specific activities and milestones.* The activities are the tasks of the project. The milestones are the events that mark the beginning and the end of one or more activities.
2. *Determine the proper sequence of activities.* This step may be combined with #1 above since the activity sequence is evident for some tasks. Other tasks may require some analysis to determine the exact order in which they should be performed.
3. *Construct a network diagram.* Using the activity sequence information, a network diagram can be drawn showing the sequence of the successive and parallel activities. Arrowed lines represent the activities and circles or "bubbles" represent milestones.

49 "What is Project Management?" http://www.esi_intl.com/Public/projectmanagement/whypm.asp

50 The Numbers Group."Project Management".<http://www.snc.edu/socsci/chair/333/numbers.html>.

51 NetMBA. "PERT". <http://www.netmba.com/operations/project/pert>.

4. *Estimate the time required for each activity.* Weeks are a commonly used unit of time for activity completion, but any consistent unit of time can be used.
5. *Determine the critical path.* The critical path is determined by adding the times for the activities in each sequence and determining the longest path in the project. The critical path determines the total calendar time required for the project. The amount of time that a non-critical path activity can be delayed without delaying the project is referred to as slack time.
6. *Update the PERT chart as the project progresses.* As the project unfolds, the estimated times can be replaced with actual times. In cases where there are delays, additional resources may be needed to stay on schedule and the PERT chart may be modified to reflect the new situation. An example of a PERT chart is provided below:

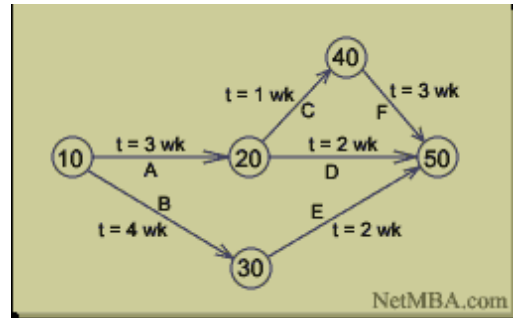


Figure. PERT Chart

Gantt charts are used to show calendar time task assignments in days, weeks or months. The tool uses graphic representations to show start, elapsed and completion times of each task within a project. Gantt charts are ideal for tracking progress. The number of days actually required to complete a task that reaches a milestone can be compared with the planned or estimated number. The actual workdays, from actual start to actual finish, are plotted below the scheduled days. This information helps target potential timeline slippage or failure points. These charts serve as a valuable budgeting tool and can show dollars allocated versus dollars spent.⁵²

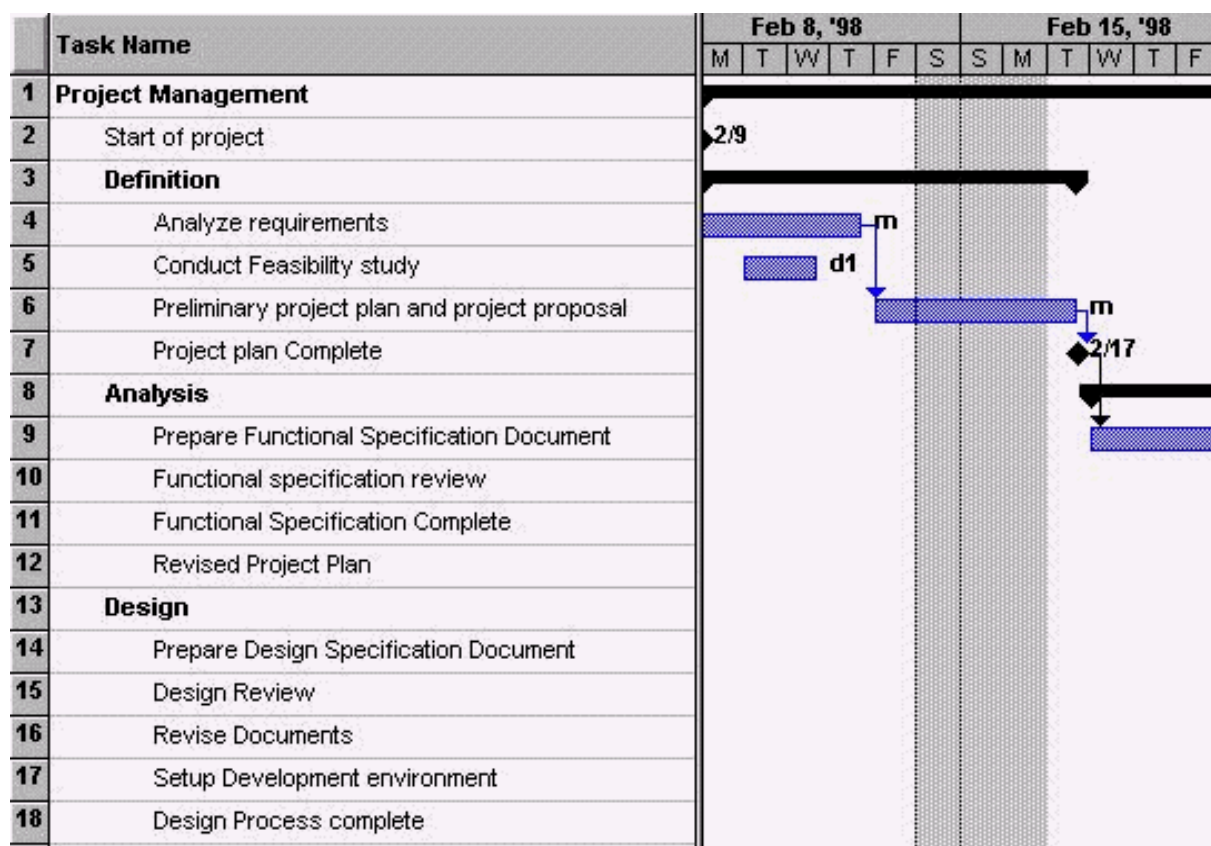
To draw up a Gantt chart, follow these steps:⁵³

1. *List all activities in the plan.* For each task, show the earliest start date, estimated length of time it will take and whether it is parallel or sequential. If tasks are sequential, show which stages they depend on.
2. *Head up graph paper with the days or weeks through completion.*
3. *Plot tasks onto graph paper.* Show each task starting on the earliest possible date. Draw it as a bar, with the length of the bar being the length of the task. Above the task bars, mark the time taken to complete them.
4. *Schedule activities.* Schedule them in such a way that sequential actions are carried out in the required sequence. Ensure that dependent activities do not start until the activities they depend on have been completed. Where possible, schedule parallel tasks so that they do not interfere with sequential actions on the critical path. While scheduling, ensure that you make best use of the resources you have available, and do not over-commit resources. Also, allow some slack time in the schedule for holdups, overruns, failures, etc.
5. *Presenting the analysis.* In the final version of your Gantt chart, combine your draft analysis (#3 above) with your scheduling and analysis of resources (#4 above). This chart will show when you anticipate that jobs should start and finish. An example of a Gantt chart is provided below:

⁵² "Project Management Techniques": "Project Management Techniques":

⁵³ "Introduction to Project Management Skills": http://www.mindtools.com/pages/main/newMN_PPM.htm.

Figure. Gantt chart



Elements for consideration in planning

CURRICULUM & TRAINING	SYSTEM STRUCTURE & GOVERNANCE
<p>Modality of training</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conventional face to face residential training • open and distance learning (ODL) • sandwich programs • on-the-job training • mixed approaches <p>Length, mix and curriculum of training program</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • duration of programs according to modality (years, credit hours); • content balance in terms of theory (general knowledge and discipline knowledge) and practicum components. <p>Requirements for graduation and licensing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Credentials (diploma, certificate, master) • Teacher expected competencies (e.g. exit profiles) • Procedure for initial licensing (e.g. public examination) • Internship programs (content, duration) • Procedure for re-licensing and/or promotion <p>Provision of professional development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local or district-based CPD programs (available, to be created) • amount of in-service professional development opportunities (regulated, free choice) • Modality of professional training sessions (school based, peer learning, lesson study, workshops) 	<p>Desired number, profile and localization of training institutions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • number of training institutions existing in the country (existing & expected); • level of schooling for which they are training teachers; • intake capacity of each of the institutions (existing & expected). <p>Criteria for recruitment into training</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • number of trainees to be admitted (current, trends, by kind of program) • criteria for recruitment (e.g. academic, personality) existing & expected <p>Deployment and benefits</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • conditions under which teachers will be assigned to schools (rural, urban, socioeconomic level) • incentive schemes • gender issues <p>Induction and Mentoring</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • arrangements for induction and mentoring (available, update, create new) • supervision arrangements for new teachers (available, update, create new) <p>Career Structure and Criteria for Promotion/ termination of contract</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • levels of career structure (existing, to be created) • assessment of competency (regular, kind of mechanism) • compensation structure (available, update, create new) • retirement provisions (age limit, retirement package) (available, update, create new) • Code of conduct (available, update, create new) • Disciplinary procedure in case of breach of conduct. (available, update, create new)

Promising changes or initiatives at the ministry level (MINEDUB and MINESEC), Cameroon

- references to improvement of teachers' living and working conditions (including some sex-disaggregated indicators) in GESP education policy strategies;
- collection of some sex-disaggregated data on students, teachers and managers;
- teacher training on competency-based approaches, encouraging attention to individual students' needs;
- selection of gender-sensitive textbooks, in collaboration with UNESCO, and the integration of sexual education and human rights components in primary and secondary school curricula;
- training of regional and national education management personnel on gender issues;
- managers' individual efforts, at the regional level, to encourage women's representation in education management;
- efforts to construct teacher housing in partnership with international donors, though it's unclear if these efforts focus on rural areas;
- involvement of local authorities in responding to teacher challenges, such as integration into rural communities (e.g. MINEDUB campaign on teacher integration and retention)
- "gender focal points" (MINPROFF representatives) within ministries, responsible for implementing a gender approach at the ministry level (see Section 7.2.1);
- advocacy efforts of EFA officials within MINEDUB/MINESEC on the importance of teachers' working and living conditions and gender equality in education;
- Integration of education considerations in MINPROFF policy documents, including the National Gender Policy and the National Strategy for the Elimination of Gender Based Violence.

VII.6 Ethical Issues and Code of Conduct

The job of teaching is a public enterprise. It is liable to censure by students, parents, and communities at large. It is therefore necessary for policy to address ethical issues in teaching as evidenced by teacher behavior. A comprehensive teacher policy document has to therefore highlight the importance of maintaining strict ethical behavior on the part of teachers.

One aspect of ethical behavior relates to teacher absenteeism. This might occur due to circumstances beyond the teachers' control, such as health and/or other social problems, and would not therefore be taken as an ethical issue. However, it is also a widespread phenomenon in situations where teachers try to supplement their income through other parallel engagements while teaching, and that needs to be addressed as an ethical concern.

Other ethical issues in relation to teachers may relate to treatment of students, fair practices of teaching and evaluation of student performance, impartial handling of all students in relation to what goes on in class and within the school, and proper personal conduct with regard to relationships with students. Notable among the latter behavior is the issue of sex and inappropriate contacts between teachers and students. Issues of sexual harassment and sexual violence in schools are assuming ever greater significance as more and more students, especially female ones, have been victims of improper teacher behavior, ranging from unwarranted sexual advances to psychological and/or physical abuse in the form of verbal threats, reward or sanction in grades in return for sexual favors or the denial of them.

Teachers are supposed to be held accountable for their behavior, and a comprehensive teacher policy must have provisions to handle such issues. However, as a teacher policy cannot go into the fine details of each issue, it could promote that ethical concerns be treated through school-based instruments such as teachers' code of conduct, or provide guidelines for sexual harassment and sexual violence prevention, for information of all members in school communities. Needless to say, school management teams need to enforce such guidelines very strictly.

Ethical behavior should work both ways; teachers must also be treated ethically by their students, parents and school administration staff. They should be treated with due respect, and should not be victims of undue administrative pressure and/or abuse of any kind. There have been reports of teachers having been victims of verbal and/or physical abuse by students, their parents and/or school administration staff. Statements to the effect that teachers' safety and protection are important concerns must be clearly included in a teacher policy document.

A National Policy can give a role to Teachers Associations in the process of producing and disseminating a Code of Professional Ethics, as for example the one produced by the South African Council for Educators.

Code of Professional Ethics, South African Council⁵⁴

GENERAL

The educators who are registered or provisionally registered with the South African Council for Educators:

- 2.1 acknowledge the noble calling of their profession to educate and train the learners of our country;
- 2.2 acknowledge that the attitude, dedication, self-discipline, ideals, training and conduct of the teaching profession determine the quality of education in this country;
- 2.3 acknowledge, uphold and promote basic human rights, as embodied in the Constitution of South Africa;
- 2.4 commit themselves therefore to do all within their power, in the exercising of their professional duties, to act in accordance with the ideals of their profession, as expressed in this Code; and
- 2.5 act in a proper and becoming way such that their behavior does not bring the teaching profession into disrepute.

CONDUCT: THE EDUCATOR AND THE LEARNER

An educator:

- 3.1 respects the dignity, beliefs and constitutional rights of learners and in particular children, which includes the right to privacy and confidentiality;
- 3.2 acknowledges the uniqueness, individuality, and specific needs of each learner, guiding and encouraging each to realize his or her potentialities;
- 3.3 strives to enable learners to develop a set of values consistent with the fundamental rights contained in the Constitution of South Africa;
- 3.4 exercises authority with compassion;
- 3.5 avoids any form of humiliation, and refrains from any form of abuse, physical or psychological;
- 3.6 refrains from improper physical contact with learners;
- 3.7 promotes gender equality;
- 3.8 refrains from any form of sexual harassment (physical or otherwise) of learners;
- 3.9 refrains from any form of sexual relationship with learners at any school;
- 3.10 uses appropriate language and behavior in his or her interaction with learners, and acts in such a way as to elicit respect from the learners;
- 3.11 takes reasonable steps to ensure the safety of the learner;
- 3.12 does not abuse the position he or she holds for financial, political or personal gain;
- 3.13 is not negligent or indolent in the performance of his or her professional duties; and
- 3.14 recognizes, where appropriate, learners as partners in education.

CONDUCT: THE EDUCATOR AND THE PARENT

An educator, where appropriate:

- 4.1 recognises the parents as partners in education, and promotes a harmonious relationship with them; and
- 4.2 does what is practically possible to keep parents adequately and timeously informed about the well-being and progress of the learner.

CONDUCT: THE EDUCATOR AND THE COMMUNITY

An educator:

- 5.1 recognizes that an educational institution serves the community, and therefore acknowledges that there will be differing customs, codes and beliefs in the community; and
- 5.2 conducts him/herself in a manner that does not show disrespect to the values, customs and norms of the community.

⁵⁴ Source: South Africa Council for Educators http://www.sace.org.za/Legal_Affairs_and_Ethics/jit_default_21.The_Code_of_Professional_Ethics.html

CONDUCT: THE EDUCATOR AND HIS OR HER COLLEAGUES

An educator:

- 6.1 refrains from undermining the status and authority of his or her colleagues;
- 6.2 respects the various responsibilities assigned to colleagues and the authority that arises therefrom, to ensure the smooth running of the educational institution;
- 6.3 uses proper procedures to address issues of professional incompetence or misbehavior;
- 6.4 promotes gender equality and refrains from sexual harassment (physical or otherwise) of his or her colleagues;
- 6.5 uses appropriate language and behavior in his or her interactions with colleagues;
- 6.6 avoids any form of humiliation, and refrains from any form of abuse (physical or otherwise) towards colleagues.

CONDUCT: THE EDUCATOR AND THE PROFESSION

An educator:

- 7.1 acknowledges that the exercising of his or her professional duties occurs within a context requiring co-operation with and support of colleagues;
- 7.2 behaves in a way that enhances the dignity and status of the teaching profession and that does not bring the profession into disrepute;
- 7.3 keeps abreast of educational trends and developments;
- 7.4 promotes the ongoing development of teaching as a profession;
- 7.5 accepts that he or she has a professional obligation towards the education and induction into the profession of new members of the teaching profession.

CONDUCT: THE EDUCATOR AND HIS OR HER EMPLOYER

An educator:

- 8.1 recognizes the employer as a partner in education;
- 8.2 acknowledges that certain responsibilities and authorities are vested in the employer through legislation, and serves his or her employer to the best of his or her ability;
- 8.3 refrains from discussing confidential and official matters with unauthorized persons.

CONDUCT: THE EDUCATOR AND THE COUNCIL

An educator:

- 9.1 makes every effort to familiarize him/herself and his/her colleagues with the provisions of the Code;
- 9.2 complies with the provisions of this Code;
- 9.3 discloses all relevant information to the Council;
- 9.4 informs Council and/or relevant authorities of alleged or apparent breaches of the Code within his/her knowledge;
- 9.5 co-operates with the Council to the best of his or her ability; and
- 9.6 accepts and complies with the procedures and requirements of the Council, including but not limited to the Registration Procedures, the Disciplinary Procedures of the Council and the payment of compulsory fees.

VII.7 ICT and Teachers Competencies: Basic technology literacy levels

OBJECTIVES: Teachers should be able to:

TL.1.a. Identify key characteristics of classroom practices and specify how these characteristics serve to implement policies.

TL.2.a. Match specific curriculum standards to particular software packages and computer applications and describe how these standards are supported by these applications.

TL.3.a. Describe how didactic teaching and ICT can be used to support students' acquisition of school subject matter knowledge.

TL.3.b. Incorporate appropriate ICT activities into lesson plans so as to support students' acquisition of school subject matter knowledge.

TL.3.c. Use presentation software and digital resources to support instruction.

TL.4.a. Describe and demonstrate the use of common hardware.

TL.4.b. Describe and demonstrate the basic tasks and uses of word processors, such as text entry, editing text, formatting text and printing.

TL.4.c. Describe and demonstrate the purpose and basic features of presentation software and other digital resources.

TL.4.d. Describe the purpose and basic function of graphics software and use a graphics software package to create a simple graphic display.

TL.4.e. Describe the Internet and the World Wide Web, elaborate on their uses, describe how a browser works and use a URL to access a website.

TL.4.f. Use a search engine.

TL.4.g. Create an email account and use it for a sustained series of email correspondence.

TL.4.h. Describe the function and purpose of tutorial and drill and practice software and how it supports students' acquisition of knowledge of school subjects.

TL.4.i. Locate off-the-shelf educational software packages and web resources, evaluate them for their accuracy and alignment with curriculum standards, and match them to the needs of specific students.

TL.4.j. Use networked record keeping software to take attendance, submit grades, and maintain student records.

TL.4.k. Use common communication and collaboration technologies, such as text messaging, video conferencing, and web-based collaboration and social environments.

TL.5.a. Integrate the use of a computer laboratory into ongoing teaching activities.

TL.5.b. Manage the use of supplemental ICT resources with individuals and small groups of students in the regular classroom so as not to disrupt other instructional activities in the class.

TL.5.c. Identify the appropriate and inappropriate social arrangements for using various technologies.

TL.6.a. Use ICT resources to enhance their productivity.

TL.6.b. Use ICT resources to support their own acquisition of subject matter and pedagogical knowledge.

TL.6.c. Identify and manage Internet safety issues.

Source: UNESCO ICT competency framework for teachers

VII.8 Teachers' competencies⁵⁵

The following aspects of teacher competences can be useful references for a shared discourse between stakeholders and experts, as well as a starting point for further developments in international arenas of educational policy and practice.

The breaking down of teacher competences – which are essentially dynamic and holistic – into separate areas and components only serves the analytical purpose of understanding the implications and assumptions that underlies them. Indeed, cross-cultural views of teaching and learning seem to highlight the need for a systemic, context-bound perspective of teachers' competence development and expertise (Schratz&Wieser, 2002).

55 Source: South Africa Council for Educators http://www.sace.org.za/Legal_Affairs_and_Ethics/jit_default_21.The_Code_of_Professional_Ethics.html

Knowledge and understanding	Subject matter knowledge
	<i>Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), implying deep knowledge about content and structure of subject matter:</i>
	- knowledge of tasks, learning contexts and objectives;
	- knowledge of students' prior knowledge and recurrent, subject-specific learning difficulties;
	- strategic knowledge of instructional methods and curricular materials.
	Pedagogical knowledge (knowledge of teaching and learning processes)
	Curricular knowledge (knowledge of subject curricula – e.g. the planned and guided learning of subject-specific contents)
	Educational sciences foundations (intercultural, historical, philosophical, psychological, sociological knowledge)
	Contextual, institutional, organizational aspects of educational policies
	Issues of inclusion and diversity
	Effective use of technologies in learning
	Developmental psychology
	Group processes and dynamics, learning theories, motivational issues
Evaluation and assessment processes and methods	
Skills	Planning, managing and coordinating teaching
	Using teaching materials and technologies
	Managing students and groups
	Monitoring, adapting and assessing teaching/learning objectives and processes
	Collecting, analysing, interpreting evidence and data (school learning outcomes, external assessments results) for professional decisions and teaching/learning improvement
	Using, developing and creating research knowledge to inform practices
	Collaborating with colleagues, parents and social services
	Negotiation skills (social and political interactions with multiple educational stakeholders, actors and contexts)
	Reflective, metacognitive, interpersonal skills for learning individually and in professional communities
	Adapting to educational contexts characterized by multi-level dynamics with cross-influences (from the macro level of government policies to the meso level of school contexts, and the micro level of classroom and student dynamics)
	Dispositions: beliefs, attitudes, values, commitment
Teaching skills through content	
Transferable skills	
Dispositions to change, flexibility, ongoing learning and professional improvement, including study and research	
Commitment to promoting the learning of all students	
Dispositions to promote students' democratic attitudes and practices, as European citizens (including appreciation of diversity and multiculturalism)	
Critical attitudes to one's own teaching (examining, discussing, questioning practices)	
Dispositions to team-working, collaboration and networking	
Sense of self-efficacy	

Source: *The competences of teachers: perspectives from research and policy* (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001, 2008; Geijsel et al. 2009; González & Wagenaar, 2005; Hagger & McIntyre, 2006; Hatano & Oura, 2003; Kelly & Grenfell, 2004; Krauss et al., 2008; Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Williamson Mc Diarmid & Clevenger-Bright, 2008)

Policy examples: Belgium (Flanders)

In Flanders there are two sets of competence frameworks:

- a career profile: a competence framework for experienced teachers, who should strive towards these competences throughout their career;
- basic competences: a competence framework which describes what a beginning teacher should be able to know and to do. These competences must be attained at the end of initial teacher education.

Both were introduced by law in 1996, and reviewed in 2007, as a result of the new decree on teacher education of 2006. The educational council is currently reviewing the frameworks again (2013), taking into consideration future developments in Flemish education (e.g. reform of secondary education, reform of the teaching profession, etc.).

Both the career profile and the basic competences are structured by the same set of *10 job components/specifications*:

1. the teacher as guide in learning and development processes;
2. the teacher as educator;
3. the teacher as subject matter specialist;
4. the teacher as organiser;
5. the teacher as innovator and researcher;
6. the teacher as partner of parents;
7. the teacher as member of a school team;
8. the teacher as partner of external parties;
9. the teacher as member of the educational community;
10. the teacher as culture participant.

The main *purpose* of these competence frameworks is to provide a guideline for professional development, to enhance quality, to create a common language, as well as to stimulate teachers' responsibility and awareness of their own professional development.

VII.9 Lesotho case study⁵⁶

Lesotho recognized the need for improving the teacher situation through an integrated policy, as there existed disjoint approaches to teacher issues, some of them under the control of the MoET, and some in the hands of the teacher training institutions. The MoET had produced some policy recommendations with the aim to orient the teacher training institutions, but the document had been stopped at a draft stage, and it was not based in updated information. However, it recognized the need for an integral approach to policy and some of the challenges:

⁵⁶ Personal communication – The process of policy development is still underway.

From the Draft National Policy on Teacher Education and Training (NPTET)

Evidence from teacher education studies in the review of education sector analysis studies in Lesotho (Sebatane, Ambrose, Molise, Mothibeli, Motlomelo, Nenty, Nthunya and Ntoi 2000, Ministry of Education 1982) point, among other things, to general inadequacies in governance, quality of programs, cost-effectiveness and working conditions of staff. Reviewed studies on ECCD, Primary School Education, Secondary School Education, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), and Special and Higher Education have also pointed to centrality of teacher education and its implications in areas of curriculum development, in-service and pre-service, content-subject pedagogy, school and community relations, parental involvement and school management. The strength and quality of teacher education programs in any educational contexts, therefore, depend in turn not only on the existence but also the quality of teacher education policy therein. Quality of policy here refers to the extent to which it is: a commonly understood, research-supported, and national and transparently dialogued and advocated process in which all stakeholders' views are represented (Sebatane, 1999; Matsoso, 2001a).

Lesotho develops her teacher education and training policy at the time when the global trend is to democratize teacher education and training such that programs, curricular and admission criteria are aimed at closing the divide between local and the modern practices. Therefore, the need for the teacher education and training policy in Lesotho to become the fulcrum for change cannot be over-emphasized, for embedded in it is a need for dynamism and a decided effort to shift from a fixed and one way transmission view of knowledge (Stuart, Kunje, and Lefoka, 2000) to a diverse one.

Around 2011, the country joined the TTISSA initiatives, forming a task team to investigate teacher issues in Lesotho under the auspices of UNESCO.

The TTISSA report, concluded in 2012, stated recommendations on several policy aspects related to teachers education and management, for example:

- *1(a) The Ministry of Education and Training should strengthen existing structures to promote regular policy dialogue between the Government of Lesotho, education stakeholders and development partners, with a view to mobilizing additional funds for targeted improvements in specific education sub-sectors.*
- *3a) The draft National Teacher Education and Training Policy should be revised to incorporate key findings of this diagnostic analysis in order to produce a standardized framework for the future development of the sub-sector.*
- *4(d) The Teaching Service Commission should exercise authority to redeploy teachers, within predefined guidelines, in order to ensure the equitable distribution of staff across all districts and categories of schools.*
- *5 a) Put in place a transparent system of performance appraisal for teachers and school management staff to facilitate vertical mobility through professional statuses based on merit.*
- *6(c) The Ministry of Education and Training should put in place forums that encourage improved dialogue among education sector partners to ensure enhanced participation and transparency in the elaboration of policy, strategic planning and program implementation.*

The underlined recommendations, among many others, suggested the need for starting a participatory process to revise the whole teacher policy.

The next step included an agreement by the Government for the implementation of a policy initiative backed by UNESCO Cluster Office in Windhoek involving CapEFA funding. The main teacher education institutions, LCE and NUL took the lead with reporting to CEO teaching services.

An international consultant was hired for facilitation and animation of key events, and providing training, induction and technical support to the group.

A local coordinator was named, and was charged with the process of forming a National Steering Committee

Terms of reference for the NSC:

The NSC shall be the national coordinating team, among many shall be the liaising the coordinating institution with senior Government officials, tracking progress and adopting the white paper for teacher training policy and curriculum framework, and in performing these roles, the NSC shall convene four times during the period of the implementation of this project, and that shall, among many activities in ensuring effective running of this project:

- 1) Approve Project budget and work plan.
- 2) Nominate/ approve the five member Teacher Training Policy drafting team.
- 3) Adopt the methodology for development of the teacher training curriculum framework.
- 4) Review Progress on the implementation of the Project.
- 5) Adopt the draft teacher training policy and curriculum framework.
- 6) Receive the coordinating institution narrative and financial report upon completion of this project.
- 7) Present the two drafts (Policy and curriculum Framework) to MOET.

A group of stakeholders from relevant organizations was selected, and a series of 3 workshops (1.5 day each) were held for social dialogue, receiving their opinions after the presentation of specific aspects of TTISSA findings. Given the size of the country, it was found better to make the meetings in the capital city, with arrangements for the mobility of the participants coming from other regions in the country.\

Social Dialogue Participants

Designation/Institution	Number
MOET	
PS- MOET	1
Senior Education officers	2
CEO – Teaching Services	1
CEO-Tertiary	1
CEO Curriculum and Assessment	1
Secretariat (LCE)	
LCE-management	2
LCE Academic staff	3
Drafting Team members	5
Higher Learning Institutions	
Dean Faculty of Education-NUL	1
Faculty of Education Academic staff	3
Lesotho Agricultural College	1
National Health Training College	1
Development Partners	
UNESCO	1
UNICEF	1
UNESCO –Windhoek	3
Secretary General-UNESCOM	1
US –Embassy (Maseru)	1
Stakeholders	
Church Schools Secretariats	3
Teacher Formations	3
Total	35

A smaller group selected from among the stakeholders' delegates were trained to form the drafting team. Retreats were held for writing the document by analysing relevant examples from other countries, and working on templates (3 retreats, 3.5 day) plus individual and distance-shared work by drafting team members, covering a period of about 6 months.

Structure of Drafting Team

Institution	Number
MOET-CEOTS	1
MOET CEO Curriculum and Assessment	1
National University of Lesotho	
Faculty of Education	3
LCE	
Faculty of Education	1
Faculty of Sciences	1
Faculty of Social Sciences	1
Teacher Formations	
PALT	1
LAT	1
LTTU	1
Church Education Secretariat	
LECSA	1
ACL	1
AME	1
RCC	1
Total	15

A series of successive drafts (about 6) were made, circulated and revised, and a final draft is currently under consideration of the MoE for approval and implementation.