Teacher Management

Module 3

Recruitment and teacher training: issues and options

Teacher's College, Zambia. Credit: GPE/Alexandra Humme

Cover photo: Teachers in class at the Teacher's College, Zambia, by photographer Alexandra Humme/GPE.

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List of abbreviations

BEPC	Brevet d'études du premier cycle du second degré / *Lower secondary leaving certificat (France)*
CAFOP	Centres d'animation et de formation pédagogique / *Facilitation and pedagogical training centres (Côte d'Ivoire)*
CAP	Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle / *Teaching ability certificate*
CEAP	Certificat élémentaire d'aptitude pédagogique / *Basic teaching ability certificate*
CISCO	Circonscription scolaire /*School disctrict* (Madagascar)
CONFEMEN	Conference of ministries of education in countries and governments sharing the French language
CRE	Cellules de rénovation éducative / *Educational renovation units* (Guinea)
DELC	Direction des écoles, lycées et collèges / *Department for primary schools and lower and upper secondary schools (Côte d'Ivoire)*
DPFC	Direction de la pédagogie et de la formation continue / *Department of pedagogy and continuing education* (Côte d'Ivoire)
SF	Supervisor/facilitator (Guinea)
ENI	Ecole normale d'instituteurs /*Primary school teacher training colleges*
ENA	Ecole nationale d'administration /*National School of Administration* (France)
EFA	Education for all
ESEN	Ecole supérieure de l'éducation nationale / *Higher institute of national education* (France)
FIA	Formation initiale accélérée / *accelerated initial training* (Haïti)
IFADEM	Initiative francophone pour la formation à distance des maîtres / *Francophone initiative for distance training of primary teachers*
IFRAP (foundation)	Institut français pour la recherche sur les administrations et les politiques publiques / *French think tank for the analysis of public policies*
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
OECD	Organisation for economic cooperation and development
PASEC	Programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs de la CONFEMEN / *CONFEMEN Programme for the analysis of education systems*
PISA	Program for international student assessment
PPSE	Programme de petites subventions d'école / *Small grants programme for schools* (Guinea)
PRE	Projet de rénovation éducative / *Educational renovation project* (Guinea)
SACMEQ	The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SARD	Séminaire atelier de diffusion / *Dissemination workshop seminar* (Guinea)
SNES	Syndicat national des enseignants de second degré / *Secondary teachers' national trade union* (France)
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies

TIMSS   Trends in international mathematics and science studies

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Module 3: Recruitment and teacher training: issues and options

Although not usually handled together, recruitment and teacher training are closely related. The coordinated recruitment and training of teachers is an essential condition for the provision of quality education. Teacher training is cause for much debate, and for it to be effective, it is also important to recruit individuals with the correct profile. Recruitment criteria and modalities vary tremendously depending on the contexts and needs. What are the current trends and debates on these issues?

This module will cover the major challenges currently faced in terms of teacher recruitment and training and possible options to address them.

Part 1 describes the issue of the two key elements of the education system's human resource management: recruitment and teacher training, and what is at stake.

Part 2 defines the concepts related to teacher training and recruitment and explains the main steps and dimensions to be taken into account to address them in the framework of teacher management. It highlights the fact that these two areas of HRM are closely connected.

Part 3 discusses different possible choices to be considered when drawing up or reviewing teacher training and recruitment policies.

Part 4 presents a process for an integrated approach to policy choices in the two areas, considering their respective consequences and interactions on the one hand and contextualising them on the other. It will also provide an overview of a number of key conditions for the implementation of a coherent and coordinated recruitment and teacher training policy.

Objective of the module:

The central aim of Module 3 is to help you better understand and address the major issues related to teacher recruitment and training. It should also enable you to contextualise the issues of the professional training and recruitment of teachers, and the search for appropriate responses.

Content of the module:

The module covers the following points:

- Issues and challenges related to the recruitment and training of teachers;
- Major steps in the recruitment process and key components of a teacher training policy;
- Main options in terms of teacher recruitment and training;
- A methodological approach to identify a contextualised and coordinated teacher recruitment and training policy;

- Conditions (organisational, political and other) of the effective implementation of such a policy.

Expected learning outcomes:

- Analyse current trends and debates concerning teacher recruitment and training, particularly in the context of developing countries;

- Identify and describe the main steps/dimensions of the recruitment and training of teaching staff;

- Explain the advantages and disadvantages of different recruitment and training policy options taking into account the national context and political and economic orientations;

- Identify and synthetically describe some measures to improve the management of teacher recruitment and training in the context of the respective countries.

Questions for consideration:

In this module, you will be invited to answer some questions for consideration related to the content of parts 3 and 4. These questions will enable you to reflect on the content of each part to ensure a better comprehension. They will provide you with a more active and beneficial learning experience.

Additional reading:

In addition to this document for Module 3, we strongly recommend that you consult the following documents:

Dembélé, M.; Schwille, J. 2007. *Global perspectives on teacher learning: improving policy and practice*. Paris: IIEP-UNESCO.

Dembélé, M. et al. 2004. *Quality of teaching and quality of education: A review of research findings.* EFA Global Monitoring Report. Paris: UNESCO.

Gannicott, K. 2009. *Teacher numbers, teacher quality: Lessons from secondary education in Asia*. Section 5. Bangkok: UNESCO.

OECD. 2005. *Teachers matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Chapters 4 and 5. Paris: OECD, Directorate for education and skills.

Pôle de Dakar. 2009. *Universal Primary Education in Africa: The Teacher Challenge.* Chapter 4. Dakar: UNESCO BREDA.

Part 1. The issue and what is at stake

1.1 Teachers and the quality of education

1.1.1 Effectiveness and teacher training – a complex relationship

While it is widely acknowledged that the quality of education very much depends on the quality of teachers, there has been much debate since the end of the past century around the extent to which the 'quality' of teachers is determined by their professional training.

In fact, the impact of the variable represented by the teacher has been measured and the "teacher effect" (global effect of the teacher on school achievements) proven to explain between 10 and 15 per cent of the variations in pupils' levels of achievement in developed countries and 27 per cent on average in sub-Saharan Francophone Africa (Bernard *et al*., 2004, p.24). However, *no strong, unequivocal relationship has been demonstrated to date between the level of teachers' initial vocational training and the level of pupils' results.* It is true that the actual presence, attitude and investment of the teacher (which depend in turn on a number of variables, such as their living and working conditions, their motivation, etc.) are also factors that influence teacher 'quality'. The number of parameters to be taken into account, their respective weight and interactions result in a complexity that makes it complicated to establish a clear link between teacher training and the measured 'effectiveness' (also questionable in itself) of teachers in terms of their pupils' results.

Even so, it seems crucial to highlight that there is clearly *a relationship, albeit complex, between teacher effectiveness and the level and quality of teacher training.*

This conclusion is in any case highly plausible and widely acknowledged by the results of studies revealing particularly mediocre levels of performance among pupils whose teachers are characterised by an education of mediocre quality and an absence of mastery of their subject matter (Dembélé, M. et al. 2004).

In other words: the effectiveness of education depends for a significant share on what "teachers contribute". It seems logical that a decent level of education and of mastery of subjects taught, and skills enabling teachers to apply their knowledge in the classroom are essential, even if the ways of ensuring that teachers possess these requirements may be the subject of debate.

From a chronological angle, several stages are involved in the 'production' of teachers with the minimum requirements:

- the selection of teaching candidates with a decent/defined level of general education;
- a process ensuring their mastery of the subject matters/content to be taught, either through initial training or through a selection of candidates already trained in the subjects/content;
- training in the practical application of this knowledge to teaching.

1.1.2 The delicate issue of the level of teacher recruitment

Recruitment, which is the stage covering the selection of individuals entering the teaching profession, places deciders and managers before a multidimensional challenge.

Thus, the political decision to increase enrolments in formal education leads to the need to recruit a considerable number of teachers with the *desired profile.* This raises crucial questions at several levels:

1. Are there *enough* people (mainly young school leavers) applying to become teachers?

2. Do the interested candidates have the *desired profile*? The most frequent selection criterion is a suitable school/academic level, which, in most countries in Europe, North America, Asia and the Pacific, means a minimum of Baccalaureate + 2 years further education (and often Baccalaureate + 4 or + 5);

3. Is existing *training institution capacity* sufficient to accommodate all the candidates and to pass on the knowledge and skills considered necessary to practise effectively as teachers?

4. Can the education budget bear the extra costs generated by the recruitment of a large number of additional teachers, which will be all the higher the higher the level of the teachers' qualifications?

Countries characterised by a proactive policy and a rapid expansion of the school system, as is the case of many sub-Saharan African countries, have met with acute problems on the following levels:

- the number of secondary school leavers liable to constitute the pool of candidates for the teaching profession is or was limited;

- the group of school leavers with suitable Baccalaureate results was even more limited and, in any case, not sufficient to address the need for so-called quality teachers;

- existing training institutions did not have the capacity to provide 'statutory' vocational training (generally lasting several years) to train the required number of candidates;

- the profession's lack of appeal did not make it possible to attract sufficient numbers of potential candidates.

In such cases, the ministries of education have sometimes been obliged to recruit, at least for primary school education, individuals who, for the most part, do not have the required academic level or who have performed poorly in the Baccalaureate.

In all levels of education, the number of non-civil servant staff has increased and their initial vocational training has generally been reduced or done away with altogether. This policy was adopted not only to make available a required number of new teachers but also to curb government salary expenditure.

As a result, in these contexts, there are generally three categories of teachers with a wide variety of forms of recruitment, levels, and remuneration and training arrangements. Table 1.1 below gives a schematic overview of these teacher categories with some of the recruitment, remuneration and training characteristics.

Table 1.1: Teacher categories, modalities of recruitment and remuneration, and level of training

Category	Modalities of recruitment and remuneration and level of training
Community or supply teachers	Recruited locally and usually paid (at least in part) by parents' associations, belonging to the community and with a low level of vocational training
Contract civil service teachers	Recruited on the basis of a diploma with shortened initial training and paid by the government or by the decentralised level
Permanent civil service teachers	Recruited and trained in official initial training institutions attested by a diploma. They are paid by the government.

Many Francophone countries in Africa found themselves with a high proportion of contract or community teachers during the first decade of the 21st century. The graph below indicates the

current proportions of the different categories of teachers for some sub-Saharan African countries. Thus, in countries such as Niger or Mali, civil service teachers represent less than one quarter of all teachers.

Graph 1.1 Teacher workforce by type of contract in some countries in sub-Saharan Africa (latest available figures)
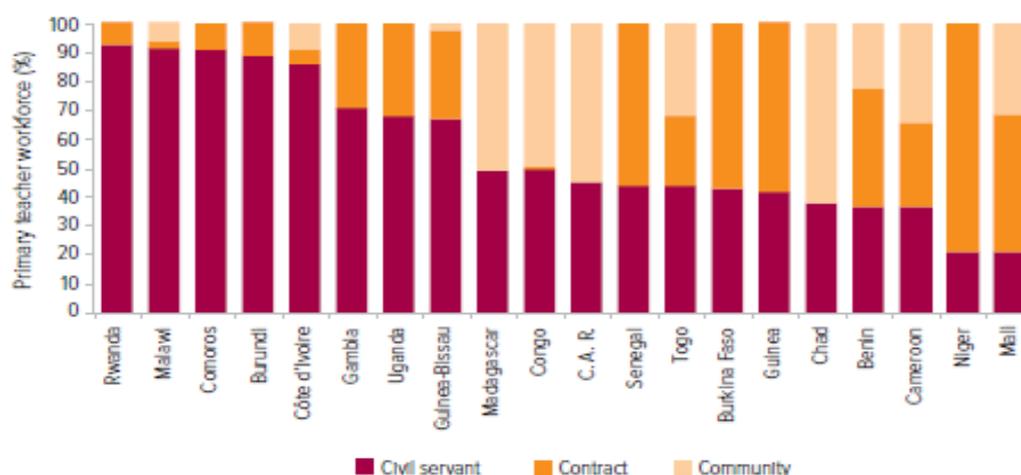
Note: Community teachers are recruited by communities. They differ from other contract teachers, who are recruited directly by the government but get paid less than civil servant teachers.

Source: EFA global monitoring report, 2013/2014, p. 257, UNESCO, Paris.

The high proportion of untrained teachers in some African countries can be explained more particularly by the diversification of teacher status. Indeed, as shown by the data in Table 1.2, contract and community teachers usually undergo shorter training than civil servants. In some cases, community and contract teachers are not trained at all, which is less common for civil servant teachers.

Table 1.2: Duration of teachers' initial training according to status in some PASEC countries

Country	Duration of initial training	Civil servants (%)	Contract and community teachers (%)	Total (%)
Guinea (2004)	No training	0.8	0.0	0.3
	1 year or more	98.5	99.4	99
	Other	0.8	0.6	0.7
Mali (2002)	No training	0.0	6.3	3.3
	< 1 month	0.0	7.7	4.1
	1-3 months	0,0	72.5	38.0
	1 year or more	100,0	13.4	54.6
Mauritania (2004)	No training	4.3	55.6	7.5
	< 1 month	1.4	11.1	2.0
	1-3 months	15.7	7.4	15.2
	3-6 months	3.4	3.7	3.4

	6-9 months	44.2	7.4	42.0
	1 year or more	30.9	14.8	29.9
Niger (2002)	No training	3.8	19.8	9.8
	< 1 month	0.0	17.7	6.7
	1-3 months	0.0	19.8	7.5
	1 year or more	96.2	42.7	76.0
Chad (2004)	No training	0.0	74.0	42.1
	< 1 month	0.0	4.9	2.8
	1-3 months	1.1	9.8	6.0
	3-6 months	0.0	1.6	0.9
	1 year or more	98.9	9.8	48.1
Togo (2001)	No training	31.1	82.4	50.9
	1-3 months	51.1	4.7	33.2
	1 year or more	17.8	12.9	15.9

Source: Bonnet (2007), cited in Methodological guide for the analysis of teacher issues, *p.86, UNESCO, January 2010.*

The challenge of teacher recruitment was less taxing in other parts of the developing world (most countries in South East Asia and many countries in Latin America) where the expansion of enrolments was significantly slower and more gradual and the quantitative needs for additional teachers considerably less. In this case, the main problem was to attract the 'right candidates' to the teaching profession.

In Korea for example, teachers typically have a profile of graduate or postgraduate studies.

Table 1.3: Distribution of secondary teachers by academic diploma, Korea (2005)

Academic diplomas		
Less than 4 years at university	Degree (4 years)	Master (5 years) or more
0.8%	70%	29%

Source: [Kim et al. 2008] in Gannicott, 2009, p.50

1.2 What is the teaching profession?

Before looking into the recruitment and professional training of teachers, it seems relevant to know what we expect from the profession. Indeed, setting the recruitment and training criteria for a professional workforce in principle requires professional reference standards (or a skills framework), organised by job profile, which indicates the skills that all professional teachers must possess or acquire during their training. It is with this reference framework that teachers are usually recruited, and assessed as to whether they are potentially competent or not by demonstrating their capacities in the classroom with real pupils.

Box 1 1: Definition of the teaching profession

> Teaching is a human profession, organised around disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical and relationship skills, based on values. <u>It is a complex profession of knowledge and human relations.</u>

A teacher is not only a transmitter of knowledge, but also an intermediary between knowledge and the pupil, playing a role in:

- facilitating the construction of knowledge (didactical guidance);

- managing pupil learning (cognitive guidance);

- organising learning conditions (pedagogical guidance);

- organising life and work in groups (a condition for learning).

The professional reference framework represents the expected profile of all teachers in the exercise of their profession. However, it is obvious that initial training alone cannot produce such a profile: it will provide the rudiments of this reference frame whilst the 'entry profile' and in-service training will complete the 'prescribed' profile.

While professional training is very important, the actual profile of the person recruited is therefore also to be taken into account: *training will be all the easier, the closer the criteria applied to recruitment are to the characteristics required to exercise the profession.*

Highlights

- Although the quality of teaching depends on a number of variables with complex interactions (level of professional education, teacher's actual attitude and personal investment, etc.), there is clearly a relationship between teacher effectiveness and the level and quality of teacher training.

- Several stages are involved in producing teachers with the minimum requirements i) the selection of teaching candidates; ii) a process to ensure their mastery of the subjects/content to be taught; iii) training in the practical application of this knowledge to teaching.

- Recruitment is an important step in the selection of teachers with the desired profile according to a professional reference framework. This framework should be defined beforehand and indicate the skills that all professional teachers should possess or acquire during their training.

- In contexts of rapid expansion of the education system, it is also crucial to measure the capacity of training institutions and the additional cost generated by recruitment.

- Finally, initial training and in-service training will combine to produce the teacher profile.

Part 2. The concepts: key definitions and dimensions of recruitment and training

2.1 Recruitment

2.1.1 Definition

Recruitment is a process of adapting supply to needs. It is a process by which potential candidates are attracted and selected for a position within a company or an organisation. Allocating an individual to a post theoretically implies a match between the job profile and the competences of the person to fill it. Concerning human resource management in the education sector, recruitment has a key role to play: in planning upstream, for the assignment at the start of every school year, of an adequate number of qualified teachers for all primary and secondary schools in line with their needs to enable them fulfil their mission effectively.

2.1.2 Stages

To simplify, four major stages can be considered: identification of needs, determination of profiles, selection and recruitment. Different parameters should be taken into account at each stage of the recruitment process. The four stages are detailed below.

Figure 2.1: Four stages of recruitment

The first stage consists of course of **identifying the needs**. This means determining if there is a lack of personnel to accomplish the organisation's (old and new) tasks and the type of jobs to be filled.

For teaching staff, as seen in Module 2, this concerns forward planning in the short and medium term. Education system managers must be in a position to estimate teacher needs and plan recruitment on an annual basis. It is not just a question of identifying a global need, but more precisely of planning the number of teachers to be recruited each year, which implies, *inter alia,* scheduling their arrival in the training schools and taking them into account in the budget allocated to the Ministry of Education.

This phase is very delicate because it requires the collection of reliable data (population data, in-post personnel, outflow due to retirement, change of profession, death, etc.) in order to establish a diagnosis. This is therefore a comprehensive and demanding planning exercise to be carried out annually in the Ministries of Education[1].

This is where the organisation's policy comes in, by increasing employees' hours of presence rather than taking on new recruits for example; or by offering employees overtime or even

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[1] It is very difficult to give a precise estimation of teacher needs. For example, in France, even though the workforce for secondary education is determined precisely (in December for the beginning of the next school year), frequent changes to curricula and unexpected departures of personnel call back into question the requirements in teaching hours for each subject, hence the need to recruit contract teachers for subjects with shortages at the beginning of each school year.

bonuses. In other words, recruitment is one of the organisation's management levers. In a period of recession, organisations consider redeploying their resources rather than recruiting. The different strategies are explored in further detail in Part 3 of this module.

Once the needs have been identified, the managers must then **decide on profiles**. This involves identifying the skills, experience, learning and knowledge required for vacant positions. This is decisive because, for example, an error made by a public organisation results in the presence of under-performing individuals virtually until their retirement. Besides qualifications and a diploma, other criteria may need to be considered, such as the command of the language of instruction, etc.

Concerning the profiles of future teachers, their academic level is the subject of much attention. If there is a consensus on the need for a minimum level to become a teacher, opinions diverge as to what that level should be. While it is recognised that a university degree is required to teach in secondary school, the matter has not been settled for primary education. The studies conducted in Africa speak in favour of a minimum benchmark corresponding to 10 years of validated schooling for a primary school teacher (Pôle de Dakar, 2009). Nevertheless, this criterion is clearly not enough in itself. Individuals with the same qualifications can possess different levels of knowledge and, in some cases, these may not be adequate for the teaching profession.

Thus, at **selection** level, which constitutes the third stage, the most practical solution when faced with massive recruitment is a competitive examination on subject content to ascertain the candidates' level of knowledge. However, this only really takes into account the knowledge aspect of the future teacher and neglects important aspects of exercising the profession such as quality of social relations, behaviour and attitude, which are all necessary for developing quality teaching. As seen earlier, teaching is a complex profession. An individual's intrinsic motivation and pedagogic and didactic abilities are just as important as the rest.

Although more delicate, these aspects must be taken into account. Interviews, widely practised in other sectors, help to evaluate individual motivation. They are becoming more and more common in education systems in developed countries and are institutionalised in some countries in Asia. Level testing is a relatively common practice in African countries, but an interview to check motivation is much more unusual, not to say virtually nonexistent. If individual interviews prove impractical (e.g. lack of pedagogical advisors or inspectors), other techniques can be envisaged, such as a written test allowing candidates to explain their choice.

After these three stages, **recruitment** can take place. Depending on the context, recruitment can be effective upon the applicant's admission to a training institution, at the end of training or after a probationary period of variable duration.

2.1.3 Levels

Depending on the teacher's status and the degree of the country's decentralisation, recruitment may take place at national, regional or school level.

Civil service teachers can be recruited at different levels entailing the mobilisation of different actors in the process. The administrative level of competition-based recruitment of civil service teachers usually takes place at national level but it can be decentralised in some countries.

As a general rule, recruitment takes place on one of three levels:

- At **national level** where, due to the high number of candidates, selection is carried out through successive filters, the first of which is the competitive examination. Candidates must meet certain criteria such as age, nationality (for the civil service), diplomas, etc. The number of successful candidates depends on the number of vacant posts in the country. This kind of recruitment results in assignments countrywide.

- At **regional level** or *académie* level. In this case, recruitment criteria will be connected to the characteristics of the regions and recruitments take into account specific aspects

of each region (e.g. language characteristics). Transfers will no doubt be problematic since teachers wanting to move to another region should have the profile corresponding to that region.

- At **school level**, directly by the head teacher or the school's management board.

The recruitment of non-civil servant teachers is a more open process. It can be carried out:

- By a **community of individuals** (often pupils' parents) or by an association. Eligibility criteria differ according to the local collective. A shortlist is drawn up given that this is local recruitment, virtually by word of mouth[2].

- At regional level in which case the **regional government representative** launches the recruitment campaign with information on the required profile, e.g. a region that needs maths teachers in lower secondary education. The recruiter is the regional director or his/her delegated services.

- At national level, which is in contact with immediate needs due to the evolution of the education system (a reform or the introduction of a new subject). The **Ministry's recruitment services** draw up a so-called "complementary list" representing the pool of candidates not selected after taking the competitive examination but whose marks are acceptable and who could fulfil the teaching mission temporarily. This may represent a high number of candidates, depending on the threshold of acceptability in the examination.

2.1.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the centralisation or decentralisation of teacher recruitment

Centralising recruitment has advantages for the allocation and balanced distribution of teachers throughout the country. Centralised recruitment and allocation should indeed guarantee a measure of equality related to the quality of education countrywide. Nevertheless, regional or district recruitment enables a better adjustment of supply and demand in human resources and better management of vacant positions[3].

Indeed, decentralised or devolved recruitment can have positive effects. The reasoning behind this strategy is that the nearer the decision-making bodies to the school, the better they will be able to address the school's needs. However, this argument can be challenged. In some contexts, it is probable that disadvantaged areas do not manage to attract and recruit good candidates. This can contribute to exacerbating disparities that already exist.

Similarly, the question should be raised as to the most appropriate level for the delegation of these functions. This will depend to a large extent on the capacity of the different levels of the system (resources and competent personnel) to fulfil these functions. In contexts of political decentralisation or devolvement, there is some debate concerning the nature and competence of the actors in charge of recruiting teachers. In Uganda, for example, the elected local authorities are responsible for teacher recruitment. However, decentralised education office staff consider that they are better able to take the decisions, due to their professional expertise, than the non-technical actors from the elected local governments. Moreover, the latter could

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[2] In many countries, contract and supply teachers can be recruited by the local communities. The different teacher categories overlap with different levels of qualification and remuneration, generating claims from personnel with precarious contracts wishing to have civil servant status. The diversification of teacher status represents a real challenge, especially when the proportion of contract staff reaches a significant threshold and there are substantial salary differences.

[3] This is why for non-civil service staff in France, the Ministry of Education usually determines the possibilities as far as numbers to be recruited are concerned and the regions do the actual recruiting. Such recruitments are validated by national and regional ad hoc commissions.

more easily be influenced by local politicians, presenting as such a risk of politicisation in teacher recruitment (De Grauwe and Lugaz, 2011).

When the recruitment of teachers is devolved, local systems can indeed be subject to outside influences, especially in countries with low administrative capacity at regional and local levels. In some African countries, De Grauwe and Lugaz (2011) observe that "there has been a 'district-ization' of teacher recruitment: the district service commission gives preference to candidates from the district even over better qualified candidates from outside the district." That is not necessarily a problem if it is an intentional and institutional strategy in order to retain staff in posts. As we shall see in Module 4, one of the strategies employed to make up for teacher shortages in rural and remote areas is to recruit candidates from the targeted area, who speak the local languages and have no difficulty in finding suitable accommodation. Even so, overly local recruitment can strengthen a regional approach, rather than a national teaching vision.

2.2 What is teacher training? Tentative definition

2.2.1 Different times and types of training

According to the definition of UIS-UNESCO, teacher education or training corresponds to formal teacher training designed to equip future teachers (pre-service training) or practising teachers (in-service training) with the knowledge, attitude, behaviour and skills required for teaching at the required level.

It is useful to distinguish between these two training times and their characteristics. Informal training is also to be differentiated.

Pre-service or initial training takes place before the person starts teaching. What is at stake is knowing what knowledge and know-how are essential for the minimum acceptable level of teaching. This training is usually organised in training institutions for a duration ranging from six months to four years.

In-service or continuing training follows on from initial training. It takes place throughout the exercise of the profession. This type of training enables practising teachers to continue being trained in order to improve their skills and adapt to new technologies, curricula, practices and methods, or to acquire new skills in order to progress in their career.

Informal training: Whereas the two previous types of training take place in a precise institutional framework, informal training corresponds to learning acquired in social situations not always characterised as educational. For instance, an art teacher who takes a course at art school during the school holidays or a primary school teacher who runs a local library. Although little acknowledged, it can be taken into account in teacher evaluation and career progression.

Aside from these different types of training, there is also a form of training, or rather support and guidance practices for new teachers enabling them to gradually enter the profession. This is known as **induction**. It is more or less formal depending on the country and is covered either by the schools themselves or by external specialists. It is of flexible duration and may be organised over a defined continuous period of time or on request.

The concept of **lifelong learning** refers to a continuum between initial and continuing education and all the situations where skills are acquired (professional activities, involvement in associations, etc.) Lifelong learning resembles continuing training but it is organised differently insofar as it is part of an individual's career plan including his/her intentions for promotion or a change of profession. It includes the different steps regarding orientation, taking stock, employment guidance, training and validation of prior experience.

2.2.2 Key dimensions of teacher training

A debate on the impact of initial training on teacher effectiveness was initiated in the early 1990's with the acceleration of the efforts made towards primary Education for All in many developing countries. In fact, for several countries in sub-Saharan Africa:

> *"Studies conducted by PASEC have led to the observation that pre-service vocational training often has little impact. When observed, the effects are usually moderate and do not meet expectations. So, in most cases, teachers with no vocational training would make their pupils progress just as much as trained teachers… This resulted for some in the hasty conclusion that initial vocational training was not a profitable investment and that very short training sessions were perfectly adequate instead of spending large amounts of money on long training courses. It seems to us that, on the contrary, these studies should raise questions in order to change training practices. Indeed, the question of the relevance of existing training should be asked and trigger an analysis of the training systems (content, duration, etc.) in many countries." (Bernard et al, 2004, p.18).*

More recently however, studies on teacher education (Perrenoud, Altet, Lessard, Paquay, 2008) showed to what extent the "business of intervening in the activity of others" is complex and requires a high level of training, at (i) *academic* level (erudite knowledge that is necessary yet not sufficient, since it is also essential to know how to transmit this knowledge), (ii) *didactic* level (didactics being the way of transforming erudite knowledge into knowledge to be taught, knowledge taught and knowledge reproduced by the pupils themselves) and also (iii) *pedagogical* level (offering learners situations that are motivating and conducive to learning). To these professional dimensions should be added (iv) the *personal* dimension, i.e. behaviour, listening ability, empathy and motivation.

"Training through research" can be added to those four dimensions. This opens up a perspective of innovation, insomuch as future teachers study the professional practice of teaching by way of analysing and solving problems and are invited to find new, more pertinent solutions faced with an ever more changing reality.

All these dimensions should be taken into account in teacher training. The degree of fragility and difficulty resides in the personal dimension. How can one know if a teacher's psychological profile is totally compatible with being a teacher?

In countries with a severe shortage of teachers, the first (academic) dimension is usually taken into account because it is easy to find out if the teacher has completed his/her studies. This dimension is essential. However, we have noted that countries with primary teacher shortages recruit teachers, often community teachers, on other criteria, closer to the fourth (personal) dimension; this can pose genuine problems if the other dimensions are ignored.

When these dimensions are considered as a whole with teaching as the pivot, one can then talk about the "*professionalisation of teachers*".

Figure 2.2: Key dimensions of teacher training
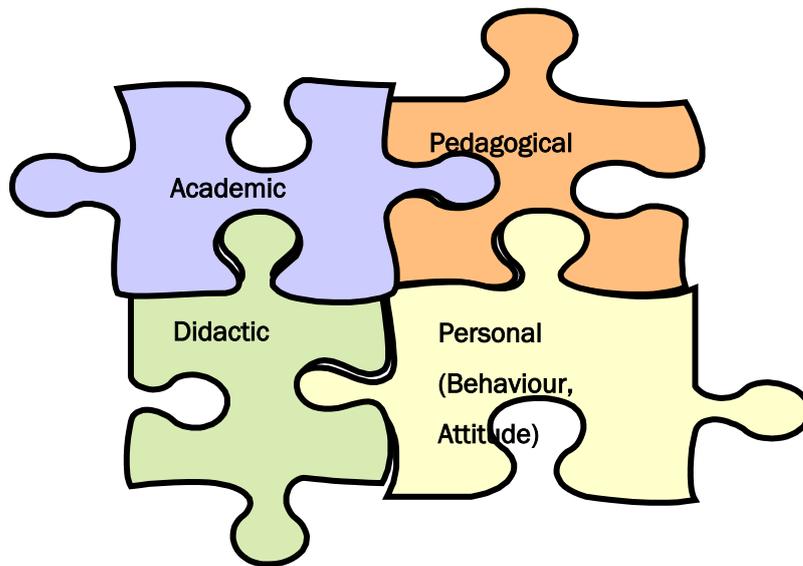
Unfortunately, many countries seem to have forgotten that these dimensions not only interlock but must also all be present.

For example, for a long time, France recruited secondary teachers on the sole basis of university diplomas; whereas we know that someone can be knowledgeable in a subject but still have little ability for teaching it. In the same way, some African countries have recruited community teachers since they know the population of pupils and the parents very well and they speak the local language; however, in some cases, they are characterised by a very low academic level. Similarly, a teacher who abuses or rejects pupils will not develop their learning achievements. Also, if a teacher does not know how to create situations enabling the pupil to learn and be motivated, learning will not be achieved either. Finally, studies have shown that few teachers are prepared for the population of pupils they are to teach (e.g. classes with a high proportion of over-age children or children with severe learning difficulties).

In other words, teacher training must take into account at least the first four dimensions listed above, interlocking as a whole and not taken separately. This is summarised in the jigsaw puzzle diagram above (Figure 2.2).

Teacher education is often presented in two 'stages': on the one hand the share of school and/or university education and on the other hand the years of teacher training. This is simplistic and does not reflect the fact that the professionalisation of the teacher is in fact a *continuum*. Professionalisation is based on skills development (mobilisation of capacities, to which managing their emotions and representations on the ground can be added) in a *constantly changing* professional context. It tends to develop the teacher's understanding of situations and a personal attitude conducive to lifelong learning.

The learner is the centre and the main actor of the process of knowledge integration. One of the main roles of the different training actors (mentors, trainers, teachers) is to accompany the learner in the process and to provide him/her with support taking into account his/her interests and needs.

⊟ Highlights

HRM in the education sector implies planning the recruitment of an adequate number of quality teachers annually for all primary and secondary schools in line with their needs in order to fulfil their mission effectively.

As such, **recruitment** is a process of adapting supply to needs. Il takes place in four main stages:

- Identification of needs: one of the organisation's management levers. A diagnosis requiring reliable data collection, annual planning in the ministries of education. Also serves to determine redeployment.

- Determining profiles: academic level, skills, experience, knowledge, command of the language of instruction, diplomas, etc.

- Selection: by way of a competitive examination to ascertain the level of knowledge; through individual interviews to evaluate motivation, social skills and attitudes; through a written test, etc.

- Recruitment: it can become effective at different moments of training.

Recruitment can be carried out at **different levels**: national, regional or school level. Depending on context and needs, countries will opt either for a centralised or a decentralised system of recruitment.

Training is organised at two distinct times, each with specific characteristics: pre-service or initial training and in-service or continuing training. Informal training, induction and lifelong learning can also be mentioned.

The professionalisation of teachers implies four dimensions of training: academic (erudite knowledge), didactic (capacity to transform erudite knowledge into knowledge to be taught), pedagogical (offer situations that are motivating and conducive to learning) and personal (behaviour, ability to listen, empathy, etc.), to which the research dimension (innovation, changing reality) can be added. This professionalisation is constantly developing, continues throughout the teacher's career and should benefit from appropriate supervision.

Part 3. Discussion on some of the major options for recruitment and teacher training

3.1 Major recruitment options

Some major options are to be taken into consideration at each stage of the recruitment process.

When determining needs, government policy will greatly influence the result of the diagnosis. In fact, from a quantitative stand, decision-makers will explore the possibility of *limiting the recruitment* of new teachers by optimising their utilisation or by multiplying status categories in order to reduce total payroll. Several strategies can be envisaged. From a qualitative stand, when determining profiles, the fundamental role of teachers in the quality of education must be taken into account. Some important choices must be made around the key issue of the *level of academic qualification* required for teaching. As for the selection of candidates, different selection procedures can sway the attraction for the profession. The experience of countries in Asia is interesting in this respect. Finally, different options regarding the time of *final validation* of the recruitment also have implications. The main results of the research on these points are covered in the following sections.

3.1.1 Reducing the cost of recruitment

Optimising teacher utilisation

A number of options for optimising teacher utilisation can be envisaged. These depend largely on context. Examining the different options in depth and in a comparative perspective with other countries can lead to the identification of strategies such as 1) teacher versatility, 2) raising the pupil-teacher ratio, 3) increasing teachers' working hours (presence) or 4) setting up incentive measures. Some of these measures are difficult to implement as teachers themselves and parents are greatly opposed to them. A vast process of consultation and dialogue with the stakeholders is necessary since these measures cannot be implemented without the support of the teachers.

- **Grouping subjects together** (two-subject or multi-subject teachers): This means that secondary teachers teach two subjects or are more versatile and teach two or three subjects. This strategy has a number of advantages: to start with, it makes the transition from primary school to lower secondary school less brutal for pupils (they typically go from one teacher to around eight specialised teachers). Moreover, when secondary teachers are devoted to a single subject, this implies organising numerous and complex competitive examinations for the recruitment process. In addition, it is complicated to replace a one-subject teacher in a school. Finally, the multiplicity of subjects engenders substantial costs: small schools cannot always offer full positions to teachers in their speciality, obliging the latter to work in several schools or letting these teachers work part-time despite being paid full-time. As a result, it becomes difficult for small schools to offer a comprehensive curriculum. Implementing this strategy requires two-subject or multi-subject teaching to be introduced for all lower secondary teachers from the start of initial training.

  Although two-subject or multi-subject teaching has been set up and is widely accepted in many countries (e.g. Germany), the transition from single-subject to multi-subject teaching in countries where this is not the tradition can prove to be a source of much conflict, with the trade unions who are often attached to teaching subject by subject,

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and with the teachers who must consequently be competent in two or three disciplines instead of one, and who question the appropriateness of this strategy for the quality of education.

- **Increasing the pupil-teacher ratio:** The greater the reduction in class size, the higher the number of teachers required in the system. On the other hand, the larger the class size, the lower the number of teachers to be recruited. Class size is a delicate subject since it is understandable that a teacher with a very large class cannot provide the same level of support and attention to each pupil. The apprehension with overly large classes is that of seeing a fall in pupils' achievements, whereas research in developed countries shows that a variation in class size from 15 to 40 pupils does not have a measurable impact on pupil performance (Gannicott, 2009). It can therefore be concluded that only classes with over 40 or 45 pupils would obtain an improvement in terms of pupil performance by reducing the pupil-teacher ratio.

  These results must however be put into perspective. The research was conducted in developed countries meeting all the conditions for optimal learning (qualified, trained teachers, classrooms in good condition, sufficient equipment and textbooks, etc.). It can thus be asked to what extent these conclusions can be applied to the context of developing countries where pupils do not always benefit from the same learning conditions.

  In Asia, research has shown that the highest performing countries (e.g. Korea) have always opted for a compromise promoting large classes with highly qualified teachers, instead of smaller classes with less-qualified teachers. This has involved implementing highly selective criteria in the teaching profession and high standards for teachers (see section 3.1.3). This class-size policy choice has enabled these countries to put aside additional resources to make the profession more attractive (wages, career plans, improvement of the school environment). It is questionable to what extent this strategy could have been used in other contexts, especially in countries in sub-Saharan Africa, where class size is often excessively high and where demographic growth is such that there is a chronic lack of trained teachers.

- **Increasing teachers' working hours (presence):** It is easy to understand the reasoning behind this strategy: increasing the working hours of teachers reduces the number of new recruits. Teacher workload in different countries must be looked at in a comparative perspective. It varies significantly from one country to another (see Module 4). The strong variations can serve as an argument for reviewing the number of hours of teacher presence. Nevertheless, it is very difficult to truly grasp the number of hours worked by teachers. This cannot be based only on the workload in terms of the number of hours of lessons since this does not take into account all the preparation and support activities. It is therefore very difficult to implement this measure because teachers are naturally against it. A process of social dialogue should be initiated and some compensation offered, such as a salary renegotiation. The example of France, where this is currently an issue, well illustrates these difficulties.

Box 3.1: Example of teachers' working hours in question - France

All political parties have taken a stance on what will be one of the themes of the presidential election.
Ten days after the beginning of the new school year, all the major political parties have taken a stance on the reconsideration of the organisation of teachers' working hours. Right and left alike have the same reasoning: society has changed and it is no longer possible to limit teachers' working hours to contact time in the classroom with pupils.
However, regarding the legislation, nothing has changed for over 60 years. The 1950 decree stipulated that lower and upper secondary teachers must provide 18 hours of lessons per

week. This official duration is even lowered to 15 hours maximum for "*agrégés*".

The right wing would like two more hours per week
Depending on the political persuasion, the issue is approached differently. The right is inspired by the very liberal foundation Ifrap, which recommends adding two extra hours of lessons per week for teachers in order to make budget savings. Agnès Verdier Molinié, director of Ifrap indicated: "According to our calculations, we could economise on over 40 000 full-time posts by making teachers work an additional two hours per week".
Those close to Nicolas Sarkozy explain that the additional two hours of lessons per week would make learning more comfortable for pupils and would go along with a salary rise for teachers. To sum up, fewer and better-paid teachers.

Aubry is considering an extension of working hours (presence)
On the left, Martine Aubry lifted a taboo when she cautiously expressed herself on the issue around ten days ago. The socialist candidate for nomination to the presidential election indicated that thought should be given to increasing the working hours (presence) of teachers, taking into account for example team meetings or appointments with parents.
Irritation prevails on the side of teachers. According to them, with lesson preparation and homework correction, they work well over 18h per week. Frédérique Rollet, co-secretary general of SNES (secondary teachers' national trade union), stressed that "the surveys made by the ministerial body itself show that teachers work over 40 hours per week".
Trade unions are well aware that the number of working hours must be tackled. They hope that this will be done with ample dialogue and a true salary review.

Source: [http://www.europe1.fr/france/le-temps-de-travail-des-profs-en-question-714999]

Such a measure seems hardly appropriate in a context where the teacher's salary is too low for his/her own subsistence obliging the teacher to have a second source of income and so an occupation other than teaching. In addition, official teaching time is far from reflecting the actual number of hours of instruction received by the pupils. In other words, increasing the official workload will have the desired impact (limit the increase in personnel and associated expenditure without affecting the number of hours administered to pupils) only if this measure can be made effective without leading to more teacher absenteeism.

- **Differentiated remuneration** related to shortages in some subjects and assignment areas: A country can envisage incentive measures for specific teacher categories that are in short supply. This is a political decision since it requires choices to be made to the detriment of others. For example, offering grants to students in scientific subjects where there is a shortage of teachers or targeting teachers accepting to work in more remote areas (provided that it is checked that money is not the main motivation) are two perfectly feasible options that could prove effective provided that the financial rewards are sufficiently attractive (see Module 4, Part 6).

Multiplying teacher status categories

Options to curb personnel costs while increasing the workforce have often led to a multiplication of teacher status categories, including contract teachers and community teachers and, in some cases, volunteer teachers.

- **Recruiting contract and community teachers:** As mentioned in Part 1, this strategy has been widely used in sub-Saharan African countries. While this has enabled a

considerable increase in enrolments, it is not yet known to what extent it has affected the quality of learning[4].

- **Grouping together volunteers** (temporary student volunteers, short-term unemployed): in contexts of particularly acute teacher shortages, governments can resort to volunteers. A "volunteer' is a young unemployed graduate who has chosen under his/her own responsibility to place him/herself at the disposal of the Ministry of National Education for a time in order to teach in primary schools. For example, Niger recruited 2 389 education volunteers in 2000-2001 (ADEA, 2001). Moreover, studies carried out in Senegal have shown that volunteers who have passed the Baccalaureate and more obtain very good results in professional examinations, and feedback demonstrates the quality of their performance (IIEP, 2001). This strategy can of course only be used on an ad hoc basis and cannot replace a long-term strategy.

3.1.2 What is the appropriate academic level for teachers?

This question is not usually raised for secondary teachers who need a university diploma. However, the question remains open for primary school teachers. In developed countries, virtually all primary teachers have a university degree, whereas in countries with smaller pools of graduates, the levels of qualification vary: from the primary school leaving certificate to a university diploma. Intuitively, it can be asked if the required level of qualification should be raised for teaching in primary school with the aim of achieving better results. Not only would that have considerable financial consequences (salary is generally proportional to the level of qualification) but also *research findings tend to show that above a given threshold, raising the level of teachers' qualifications does not have a measurable impact on pupil performance.* Moreover, this presupposes that there is a pool of potential teachers with a very high level of education. After considering these aspects, at what level of qualification should primary teachers be recruited? The most comprehensive summary of this subject is provided in the Pôle de Dakar's publication (2010), an extract of which can be found below. It appears that, in many contexts, upper secondary education is the most appropriate level.

Box 3.2: What appropriate academic level for primary school teachers in Africa?

We are to start with the situation in developed countries as seen through the results of two major studies conducted in the USA. After all, questions on the ideal academic level of teachers are common to all countries with the same idea of competition regarding teacher qualifications.

[..] These two studies [Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain (2005) and Krueger (1999)] concur with the observations of most research on the subject, which show that a higher university qualification does not automatically translate into better pupil learning achievements. This is a very interesting result in that it demonstrates that the rise in the academic level of teachers in developed countries does not necessarily correspond to criteria of effective teaching.

Nevertheless, this initial observation does not give an indication of what is observed in the African context where academic levels are extremely heterogeneous. It is therefore essential to refer to studies conducted in this context. However, the results observed are very clear: they reveal that the impact of academic education on school learning achievements is moderate, or even nonexistent (Mingat and Suchaut, 2000; Michaelowa and Wechtler,

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[4] Tests administered by SACMEQ on primary teachers in eight African countries revealed that in all the countries, the level of knowledge of around 7% of teachers was insufficient for teaching. Huge disparities were observed across countries. These results are to be considered in the light of the massive recruitment of contract and community teachers (not recruited through a competitive examination). Indeed, it would be interesting to compare the test results of contract teachers to those of civil service teachers.

2006). This does not mean that teachers' academic education is not of use, but rather that the academic levels of teachers in the education systems – generally ranging from lower secondary to tertiary education – make very little difference finally to pupil learning achievements. Based on data from the CONFEMEN Programme for the Analysis of Education Systems (PASEC) for French-speaking countries, Bernard, Tiyab and Vianou (2004) show that, while the BEPC academic level appears to be a minimum threshold, it emerges very clearly that beyond that level, the influence of the teachers' academic level on pupil learning in primary education is moderate".

It is nevertheless important to avoid making generalisations since, in some rare cases, it was seen that the Baccalauréat level could be the most appropriate. Thus, in Mauritania, different studies (PASEC, 2006; Jarousse and Suchaut, 2001) have demonstrated that 4th and 5th grade primary school pupils who have teachers with the Baccalaureate made more progress than those with teachers with a lower or higher academic level. However, this result is not valid in grade 2. It is therefore important to take national contexts into account even when fairly clear trends are seen to emerge.

Thus, to address the question raised in the introduction to this section, studies do not confirm that teachers who have graduated from university are more efficient than teachers with secondary school level. **On the contrary, in many countries, upper secondary education proves the most relevant.** This result, which may be cause for surprise and which has sparked off a great deal of reaction over the past few years, must be explored further. It is true that a large number of studies are now available and that the accumulation of results makes the resulting trends relatively reliable. Even so, experience shows that the results are not always well accepted, probably because they are counter-intuitive.

Source: Pôle de Dakar, p.103

Two reasons may contribute to explaining these research results. The first concerns teacher motivation. The higher an individual's diploma, the greater are the professional aspirations. It can be assumed that university graduates will not aspire to become teachers if the profession is not very attractive. The second reason has to do with the part played by a university education in the teaching profession. In primary school, teachers must be versatile. Specialisation in a particular subject will not be an advantage *a priori.* The capacity to convey knowledge together with pedagogical and didactic aspects will be the most important.

Nevertheless, these results shouls be treated with caution. Even if research shows that there is a minimum required academic level for teaching in primary school of around 10 years of education, it is obvious that someone who does not master the basic knowledge to be taught in primary school cannot be a good teacher.

3.1.3 *Should selection criteria be raised?*

Despite the research results on the level of qualification mentioned in the previous section, some governments, faced with poor results in international assessments of pupils' achievements (PISA, TIMSS), have sought to improve teacher quality by raising the requirements in terms of the number of years of academic education (e.g. Thailand and Indonesia). As seen already, there is however no research concluding that these policies will have the desired effect. On the contrary, what the conclusions of the studies show is that longer initial training, university degrees or a higher level of certification, will only have an impact *if selection policies for the "right" candidates for teacher training are already in place.* Without this prerequisite, complex and costly systems have a little chance of improving teacher quality sufficiently for it to have a measurable impact on pupil performance.

This argument needs to be handled with some care so that it does not become merely a lament for a past era of high-quality teachers. In comparing teacher selection policies in the highest and lowest performing education systems, the study conducted by McKinsey (2007) notes that the highest performing countries have systematically attracted candidates among secondary school graduates with the best results or else high-quality people wanting to make a mid-career move into teaching.

Box 3.3: Recruiting the right people to be teachers

The argument does not say that longer pre-service education, graduate degrees or upgraded certification are a waste of resources, it says that such factors will only have a measurable effect on school outcomes if there are also policies for selecting the right student teachers in the first place. The implication of this line of argument is that in many countries policies have concentrated on improving the measured aspects of teachers such as longer pre-service training, but this does not necessarily boost the quality of teachers when identified by performance of their students. The missing link is that you must get the right people to become teachers. This is crisply summarized in the words of McKinsey and Company (2007) that it is a fallacy to believe **"that it is possible to make substantial long-term improvements to the school system without fundamentally raising the quality of people who enter the teaching profession"**.

Source: Gannicott 2009, p. 23

The top-performing school systems consistently attract more able people into the teaching profession by recruiting teachers from the top third of secondary school graduates. In the case of Finland, teachers are drawn from the top 10%. These systems have more effective methods of selecting people for teacher trainer institutions and limit enrolments to those with a genuine aptitude and motivation for teaching. Nevertheless, this assumes that the profession is attractive and highly considered in these societies.

Unfortunately, in other contexts, where teachers' conditions have deteriorated, teaching is considered by many as a last resort when employment cannot be secured in other fields, and teacher training is considered by many as a springboard for a different profession. Beyond the harmful consequences for the quality of education, this has a negative impact on the future supply of qualified candidates. To reverse the trend, questions must be asked on the way of selecting candidates and of making the profession more attractive.

Box 3.4: Teacher selection in Singapore

The **teacher selection process** in Singapore places a strong emphasis on the academic achievement of candidates, their communication skills and their motivation for teaching. The different dimensions of the recruitment process are summarised below.

CV screen: Check for minimum qualifications

- Applicants should be in the top 30% of their age cohort;
- Applicants should have completed relevant school and university education;
- Applications must show evidence of interest in children and education.

Assessment test: Check literacy

- Applicants must have a high level of literacy (evidence shows that teachers' literacy affects pupil achievement more than any other measurable variable).

Interviews: Check attitude, aptitude and personality

- Conducted by a panel of three experienced headmasters;

- May include practical tests or activities.

Monitoring at the National Institute for Education (NIE): Check attitude, aptitude and personality

- Teachers are monitored during their initial teacher training at NIE;

- A small number of candidates who do not demonstrate the required standards are removed from the course.

Source: McKinsey and Company, 2007

3.1.4 Rethinking recruitment modalities in conjunction with initial training

Rethinking recruitment modalities in conjunction with initial training implies choices in terms of i) the moment the recruitment of the teacher comes into effect (before or after training) and ii) regulating entry into training institutions, according to capacity.

- **Limited capacity of teacher training institutions and recruitment upstream:** Where training institutions do not have the capacity to train a sufficient number of teachers, recruitment into the teaching profession is practically guaranteed upon entry to training. In this case, it is important to avoid wastage. Indeed, training represents a high cost for the education system and when recently trained teachers leave the profession in the first years of service, this represents a significant loss, not only in terms of human resources but also of resources invested. Given that the major share of teacher wastage occurs in the first five years of service, it may be wise to use a professional training model based on alternance (see below). In this way, only candidates with a genuine interest in the profession will complete the full course of training. Besides, registration mechanisms should strive to limit places to those individuals who demonstrate a high ability, aptitude and motivation for teaching.

  Another aspect brought to light by the McKinsey study (2007) is that the highest performing countries limit entry into teacher training to those who demonstrate a genuine aptitude and motivation, and *to the actual number required so that supply matches teacher demands*. In Singapore, applicants are screened, tested and selected before they enter teacher training. As a result, Singapore can spend more per student than systems with massive registration in teacher training. Making teacher training selective in this way makes the profession attractive to high-quality candidates.

- **High capacity of teacher training institutions and post-training recruitment:** Lower-performing systems usually have easier or open access to training institutions, which often leads to an oversupply of candidates. In countries where there are no restrictions on the number of places in teacher training (Thailand for example), the number of available teaching posts could discourage less motivated candidates. But, in fact, the exact opposite happens. Large numbers of candidates register for training with no prior check of their aptitude or ability. The vast majority will not be recruited as teachers due to oversupply. Teacher training then becomes less appealing to the best candidates and mainly attracts candidates who have few other options. Candidates who succeed in obtaining a teaching position upon completing their training will not have been chosen from a pool of candidates selected for their excellent teaching capacity.[5]

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[5] McKinsey (2007) observes that a similar phenomenon is taking place in Korea. To become a primary teacher, selection criteria are very competitive (students must be in the top 5% of their cohort on leaving upper secondary education). Places on the course are limited. In contrast, to become a secondary teacher, there are fewer restrictions. More than 350 institutions

In order to be in a position to restrict the number of places in training institutions, a precise idea of the number of vacant posts is essential. That also requires working in partnership with the training institutions so that they limit the number of places offered. This is relatively straightforward for a country like Sinapore (a very small country) where there is only one training institution. Others, like Taiwan (an autonomous province of the Republic of China), limit the number of training places by controlling the funding granted to universities for teacher training branches. If the government imposes financial restrictions, the universities will adopt adequate selection procedures to ensure that only the best applicants are selected.

3.1.5 Making a probationary period mandatory?

In many countries, recruitment often takes place in two stages: pre recruitment based on the basic knowledge required to exercise the profession and, then, after a training period ranging from several months to several years, recruitment with the granting of tenure. During the period leading up to tenure, future teachers are each supported by one or several mentors to ensure their gradual integration into the profession.

The distinction between the two stages is not always obvious. As mentioned above, when the number of places on training courses is limited, the applicant who has passed the competitive entrance examination for vocational training is almost always sure to become a teacher. Thus, individuals seem to have greater concern for passing the teacher training entrance exam than for acquiring the knowledge and skills needed for the teaching profession. It is therefore advisable for final recruitment to take place after evaluation of the specific skills required for teaching. This comes down to considering that the candidate should be assessed during training and at the end of training, but also when actually teaching.

As a result, OECD studies (2005) recommend making a probationary period mandatory. A probationary period normally lasts from six months to one year in most OECD countries. The decision to grant certification or tenure should be taken by a well-trained panel capable of evaluating newcomers to the profession. Successful completion of probation should be considered as a decisive step in the career of any teacher.

Nevertheless, while the introduction of a probationary period is advisable, beginning teachers must also be assured of obtaining a teaching position at the end of their probationary period; otherwise, it could have a negative effect. As things stand, although the probationary period lasts only around 12 months, some beginning teachers have to wait much longer than that before being appointed a permanent position. Under the circumstances, many newly graduated teachers hesitate to start looking for a vacancy and there is a high rate of wastage in temporary teachers.

Consequently, the system presupposes effective coordination between the different stages of recruitment, the estimation of needs and the number of places to be offered in training institutions, and the tough selection of applicants.

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offer training courses resulting in oversupply. While it is relatively easy to enter secondary teacher training programmes, hardly 10% of those trained obtain a teaching post. This makes secondary teaching less attractive to the most competent students and more attractive to students who have little alternative. The status of secondary teachers has declined. Teaching is still a highly respected profession in Korea, but it is interesting to observe that parents are starting to feel dissatisfied and this could originate from the decline in the quality of secondary teachers.

3.2 Major training options

3.2.1 Initial training models

There are three major options or models of initial training with some variations in reality.

- **The traditional academic model** aims to train a teacher through theory. This is the model most frequently referred to by countries that require teachers to have qualifications such as the baccalaureate, a university degree or a master's degree. Moreover, the university degree often gives direct access to the teaching profession.

- **The artisanal model** aims to train a teacher through the observation, imitation and reproduction of practices used by experienced practitioners, involving practising in the field, mentoring, and modelling of good practice. This is the case for teachers recruited directly in the field who receive support from a mentor. The new recruit is invited to imitate the mentor thus restricting his/her own capacities for innovation and renewal in practice.

- **The professionalisation (or alternance / work-based) model** aims to train a practitioner who is able to reflect on, analyse and understand teaching practices, solve problems and invent action strategies, by alternating "practice – theory - practice". This offers a two-fold affiliation in that the trainee studies in a teacher training institution and combines the theory learnt with practical considerations in the field in a sort of alternance. This type of trainee cannot be accused of not being in contact with local conditions as is frequently the case with trainees in pre-service teacher training institutions. This work-based model actually prefers the future teacher to be confronted directly with the context so that the theoretical training can address the practical issues that have arisen in the field (Practice/theory/practice. Cf. Altet, 1996) and is commonly known as alternance education.

Here, the effective organisation of training between the training institutions themselves and the schools that are to receive the trainee teachers is essential. This model is based on the recognition of the training potential of work situations, of teaching sessions in the classroom and the interactive articulation with theoretical training. The interaction can however take on different forms:

- When the work situation is where training is applied, we talk of "deductive alternance" or, sometimes, of "false alternance";

- When training content is based on the practical experience acquired by trainees "immersed" alone in classroom situations, then it is known as "inductive alternance";

- When the classroom periods and the training periods are not interconnected but simply juxtaposed, then the term "juxtapositional alternance" is used.

When systematic, theoretical and practical learning take place both in the workplace and in the training institution, then this is considered as "true alternance" or "integrated alternance". It combines inductive alternance, where the students' experience is taken into account to illustrate training content, and deductive alternance, where practice is seen as the application of knowledge.

3.2.2 Examples of in-service training

In-service training or continuing training is aimed at teachers in charge of classes. Trainees supported by trainers and/or mentors are excluded from this type of training. It can take on four different non-exclusive forms:

- Training provided **at the actual place of professional practice**, e.g. with support from a trainer, a mentor, a head teacher, an inspector, an expert colleague and/or a teacher collective. An example is presented in Box 3.5 below.

Box 3.5: Example of in-service training at the actual place of professional practice [Guinea]

Local supervision set up through the small grants programme for schools (PPSE - *Programme de Petites Subventions d'Ecole*) in Guinea, from 1995 to 2002, was aimed at teachers in the classroom, whether beginning teachers or those with a number of years experience.

'Supervisors-facilitators' (SF), made up of different supervisory categories, including pedagogical advisors and teachers from the primary school teacher training colleges (ENI - *Ecoles Normales d'Instituteurs*), received training to enable them convey knowledge on the design and implementation of Educational Renovation Projects (PRE - *Projets de Rénovation Educative*) to teachers from several schools, grouped together in Educational Renovation Units (CRE - *Cellules de Rénovation Educative*). First of all, trainers enabled the SF to develop their capacities to assist and support classroom teachers wishing to improve their practice.

Three main functions were allotted to the SF: facilitation, support and monitoring-evaluation. Moreover, the SF were to assume three main tasks corresponding respectively to the three aforementioned functions: "*lead teachers to identify the difficulties that hinder the teaching-learning process in the classroom, provide them with the necessary pedagogical support to guide them in solving their problems, and conduct monitoring-evaluation of the Educational Renovation Projects implemented.*"

The PPSE actors agreed on a knowledge benchmark for the SF requiring them to have academic, professional and relationship competences and attitudes that were to be put to test in the framework of support to a teacher individually or to a group of teachers. Arrangements were made to this effect in order to provide the SF with continuing training in capacity building, which unfortunately slackened over time.

Local support by the SF contributed to teachers being trained at their place of work in each of the three allotted functions. The end-of-year dissemination workshop seminars (SARD - *séminaires ateliers de diffusion*) held in the regional capitals gave teachers the opportunity of presenting the results of their work.

The necessary differentiation of the needs of the different teacher categories

A look back at the PPSE device indicates that it could have better fulfilled its function of continuing training and professional development if the programme had taken care to target at least *three* teacher categories (instead of two as selected), i.e. beginners, those who have started to gain a more assertive professional identity and those who are truly experienced.

Indeed, it seems appropriate to consider a teacher's career in three distinct periods:

- period 1, entry into the profession with fundamental knowledge to be domesticated through "pedagogical recipes";

- period 2, gradual installation in the teaching profession with a more assertive professional identity through better techniques;

- period 3, reflective practitioner confident in his/her stock of professional responses.

- Training provided through a **local group of teachers**, e.g. in the school itself or in another school, in a pedagogical centre or in an ad-hoc training centre. There are, for instance, periodical pedagogical conferences given by the district inspector or by a pedagogical advisor on a specific topic.

- Training presented in **modules validated by a training institution**, by trainers during the holiday period, at weekends or in the evening for urban dwellers. This in-service training

is often compulsory, demanding and related to the implementation of a pedagogical, or other type of, reform.

- **Distance** education, i.e. providing teachers with the possibilities of benefiting from the content of conferences, lessons, exercises, etc. It all depends on the country's technological infrastructure. For example, (Francophone Initiative for Distance Training of Primary Teachers - *Initiative francophone pour la formation à distance des maîtres*) has set up the possibility for teachers from African countries to improve their proficiency in French through online self-study booklets and progressive modules. Moreover, this training is taken into account on the salary scale.

The different forms of continuing training can be combined according to the teacher's lifelong training project. They can be compulsory or optional, evaluated or not, validated or not, taken into account in the teacher's career or not.

Box 3.6: Example of in-service distance education [Ghana]

To overcome the shortage of trained teachers, education policy makers decided to use distance education (...). Distance education is thus used to train untrained practising teachers, and to participate in the professional development of already trained primary and lower secondary teachers (Perraton, 1993; 2000; Perraton et al., 2002; Robinson & Latchem, 2002; Saint, 1999).

With the introduction of distance education, the Ministry of Education (2002) intended to solve not only the shortage of teachers but also the high attrition rates often associated with study leave. In addition, the Ministry of Education wanted to ensure that teachers would not need to move from their duty stations to seek further education. They could remain at post and learn by integrating college work with their teaching work (Darling-Hammond, 1998). Distance education has the potential to stem high attrition rates of teachers and reduce the migration of teachers from K-8 classrooms to high school or college classrooms after they have received higher qualifications and have gained additional experience. (...)

The distance education program of the *Center for Continuing Education of the University of Cape Coast* (CCEUCC) is fulfilling its purpose of upgrading the academic and professional competence of a large number of teachers in schools in Ghana, raising their performance level and equipping them with skills for lifelong learning. The gap between these objectives and the program's performance, as perceived by students in the program, faculty and administrators, is not so big that it cannot be closed. Constant review of performance is needed to completely close the gap. Further, this program would be enhanced if students and tutors were able to provide feedback to the course writers about the manuals of instruction.

Nevertheless, CCEUCC has proven that teacher preparation at a distance is effective. Distance education is feasible over a broad geographic area. It enables students to obtain the necessary education without disrupting their life and work. Distance education can provide an effective and efficient solution to the perennial shortage of trained teachers, in both developed and developing worlds.

Source: Sampong, 2009

Some countries offer continuing training combining distance education, presence of mentors in the classrooms and training in an institution, as shown by the example of Tanzania below.

Box 3.7: Example of in-service training combining several appraoches [Tanzania]

MUKA ("Upgrading programme for Grade B and C teachers to Grade A": Mafunzu ya Ualimu Kazini Kufikia Daraja 'A') is a distance education programme parallel to the regular Grade A teaching certificate programme provided by the teacher training colleges. It consists of three important elements: face-to-face sessions, course materials in modules for self-study and support from tutors in the classroom. (...)

The MUKA course starts with a one-week face-to-face session, for instance at a teacher training college or teacher resource centre. (…) Next, teachers meet their facilitators and receive a guide on how to study independently (…). Twice a year, during the June and December holidays, there is a one-week face-to-face contact with the tutors in the teacher training colleges. (…)

Tutors visit the teachers in their classrooms twice a year. During these visits, the tutors assess whether the teacher is really following the programme. The assessment of the work in school is part of the final examination, together with a theoretical MUKA examination. (…) After passing the MUKA examination, the graduates become equivalent to the Grade A teacher, with salaries (and retirement pay) increased to that level. Teachers have improved career possibilities with a Grade A certificate. They are allowed to become principals and have broadened possibilities to continue their studies. (…)

Through MUKA, teachers are able to improve their subject knowledge as well as their teaching methods. The general impression is that the pupils' achievement is now better than before, but until now there has been no assessment of the effectiveness of the programme. (…)

An important element in the design of MUKA is the support given to participants by other teachers at their own workplace and by the tutors supposed to visit the teachers for classroom observation and the provision of feedback. (…) Yet, several respondents state this support in class was very minimal. They indicate that two visits a year, each less than one hour, is insignificant and only a formality. (…)

The "sandwich" of self-study and face-to-face contact is mentioned as essential to the programme. However, the frequency of face-to-face residential training, one week twice a year has almost unanimously been considered insignificant and too short. (…)

Source: Kruijer, 2010

3.2.3 Duration and modalities of training

The duration of training is a notion that becomes more and more diluted when training is considered as a continuum.

The choice of duration and content of training depends on the necessity for recruiting teachers very quickly to cope with mass education. Indeed, training has a cost in terms of finance and of time constraints, especially in developing countries where there is a qualitative and quantitative shortage of teachers.

The major problem for countries rushed by EFA objectives or the rapid expansion of secondary education, is being able to recruit rapidly operational new teachers while providing them with minimal training. The example of Côte d'Ivoire (see Box 3.8) is interesting in this respect.

Box 3.8: Example of a training device for untrained primary teachers in Côte d'Ivoire

For teachers hired with no initial training, their training takes place in the Facilitation and Pedagogical Training Centres (CAFOP – *Centres d'Animation et de Formation Pédagogique*) during the holidays in two 45-day sessions over a period of 2 years.

The Ministry of National Education provides the major guidelines through a pedagogical team steered by the Department of Pedagogy and Continuing Education (DPFC - *Direction de la Pédagogie et de la Formation Continue*) and the Department for Primary schools and lower and upper Secondary schools (DELC - *Direction des Ecoles, Lycées et Collèges*). These two departments are responsible for the implementation of training, which is provided by CAFOP teachers with the support of DPFC facilitators.

Training takes place locally with activities in the form of pedagogical encounters; the emphasis is on conducting lessons, recordkeeping by the teacher and the head teacher, etc.

At the end of the second year of working in the field, the teacher recruited with no initial training can obtain a teaching qualification by passing either the CEAP (basic teaching ability certificate) or the CAP (teaching ability certificate).

Questions for consideration

Here are two recruitment and training policy options aimed at a better representation of the different ethnic groups among teachers. Identify and note the main advantages and disadvantages of each option:

1. To recruit more teachers from an under-represented ethnic group, a regional administrative office in charge of education in country "X" has set a compulsory quota, whereby 40% of new teachers are to be recruited from this group, without giving any consideration to their level and type of training. In-service training will be set up at a later date.

2. To recruit more teachers from an under-represented ethnic group, a regional administrative office in charge of education in the country "Y" has set a compulsory quota, whereby 40% of new teachers are to be recruited from this group over the next three years. Preparatory training is being set up prior to the recruitment process, targeting potential candidates from this group.

Highlights

- In order to cope with additional recruitment and to **limit payroll costs**, there are several options (increase working hours or class size, introduce multi-subject teaching, multiply teacher status categories, etc.). A broad process of consultation and dialogue must be initiated with the stakeholders since without the support of the teachers these measures cannot be implemented.

- The major problem for countries rushed by EFA objectives or the rapid expansion of secondary education is being able to recruit rapidly operational new teachers while providing them with minimal training. Choices must be made in terms of **selection procedures and training**.

- **The selection process** for applicants implies that training institutions employ effective selection methods and limit the number of places to those who have a genuine ability and motivation for the teaching profession. These criteria are indeed essential in addition to the academic level in order to train good teachers. This procedure also implies having a precise idea of the number of vacancies in order to assure candidates of job prospects.

- **Initial training** has three major options: i) academic; ii) artisanal; iii) work-based. Integrated alternance combines practical classroom learning and theoretical training content.

- **In-service training** can be carried out at the work place; through a local group of teachers; with modules validated by a training institution; by means of distance learning.

- Upon completion of training, a **probationary period** can be set up to ensure that the candidate has the skills and knowledge required before granting of tenure.

Part 4. Toward a more integrated approach to recruitment and training policies

Recruitment and training are closely linked. Policies should therefore be developed in an integrated manner. Before adopting different strategies or options, their relevance should be assessed upstream taking into account the specific context of each country. A typology is indicated below in order to facilitate these considerations. It presents the different recruitment and training options, organised according to recruitment needs, and summarises their implications in different contexts. By way of conclusion, the conditions required for the effective implementation of these recruitment and training policies are discussed.

4.1 Typology of teacher recruitment contexts

Different contextual factors may influence teacher needs and the professional training modalities:

- **The degree of teacher needs**. Countries that have undergone a high increase in enrolment rates recently have to recruit a large number of teachers to cope with demand. In countries where the enrolment rate is already high, the need for recruiting new teachers, although considerable due to a lot of retirements, is easier to deal with.

- **The level of diversification of the teaching profession**. With a growing number of pupils entering secondary education, teachers specialised in the different subjects have to be recruited and trained. The more the branches of education are differentiated (general secondary education, technical education, vocational education), the more diverse the profiles of teachers to be recruited.

According to the need for recruiting new teachers and the level of diversification of the profession, countries find their place in Figure 4.1 below. Countries aiming to increase primary and secondary enrolments may for instance find themselves with a high need for recruiting new teachers and a moderate to high diversification of profiles depending on the diversity of secondary education provided. Other countries may have low recruitment needs but require a very high diversification of profiles due to the different options offered in secondary education (general, technical, vocational).

Figure 4.1: Typology of teacher recruitment contexts
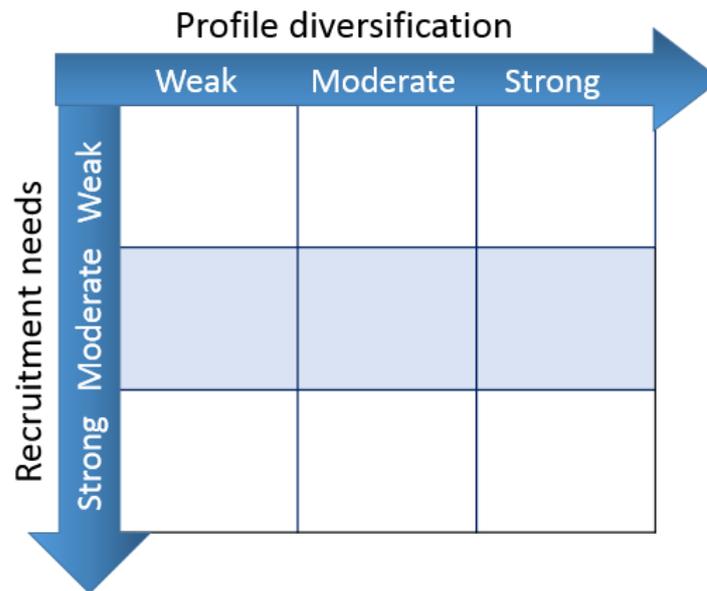
Each of these situations leads to specific requirements in terms of content and modalities of teacher training. In cases where recruitment needs are high, face-to-face training can be shortened and distance education developed. Wherever possible, more places should be provided in training institutions and access facilitated, by creating regional training institutions for example. In cases where the teaching profession is very diversified, measures can be envisaged to attract specialised profiles to the profession and make use of local opportunities (enterprises, associations, etc.).

4.2 Major recruitment and training options in context and their consequences on the quality of training and education

In Table 4.1, we attempt to compare the options targeting a rapid increase in teacher numbers by looking carefully at both the context in which the strategy is envisaged and the quality of training; both these elements interact and are essential for quality education, i.e. pupil learning. Table 4.1 refers only to contexts with **moderate to high** teacher recruitment needs.

Table 4.1: Teacher recruitment and training strategies in contexts of moderate to high recruitment needs and their possible consequences on the quality of training and education

Context	Strategies	Possible consequences on the quality of training and education
Need to recruit a large number of teachers	• Recruit untrained teacher graduates and set up compulsory training followed by in-post teachers either in training centres, in alternance and/or by distance learning.	• Risk of incomplete training; a single element is taken into account, that of the academic level, at the expense of pedagogical, didactic and personal aspects. That can have damaging consequences on the quality of pupil learning.
Need for progressive acceleration in the recruitment of teachers	• Provide traditional short training for graduates (university degree) • Train primary school teachers (those with a university degree, or those who are experienced) in order to transfer them to secondary education and recruit new primary teachers.	• Short vocational training enables to approach the different dimensions of teaching although a large share is focused on the academic upgrading of new recruits to the detriment of the other three dimensions. • This strategy draws on a stock of teachers who are already trained (at pedagogical and personal levels). However, this risks creating a shortfall of experienced primary teachers.

4.3 Conditions of effective implementation of recruitment and training policies

Implementation of the recruitment and training policies adopted by a country depends on a variety of parameters. However, some prior conditions can be highlighted as necessary for the selected options to be implemented effectively.

4.3.1 Political and financial conditions

Education is one of the *priorities* of any nation since it makes a major contribution to preparing the country's future. However given the contexts of some countries and the number of emergencies they have to face, it is sometimes difficult to have most of the attention and resources directed towards school.

Besides, even in countries where the government grants a large and growing share of its expenditure to education, it must be decided to what extent the State should increase the *resources devoted* to the recruitment of additional teachers and/or to the development of their

training rather than to non-salary investments (textbooks, improvement of school facilities and classrooms, etc.), which also essential for the quality of education.

Designing and adopting teacher recruitment and training policies requires national deciders to have a *long-term vision* and, at the same time, the capacity to adjust to significant constraints and temporary events.

Aside from a global, realistic appreciation of the prioritisation of policies, the *continuity of the political commitment* for the options selected is imperative to ensure effective implementation and sustainability.

Finally, recruitment and training policies can only be viable and 'appropriate' as long as the concrete conditions for their *effective implementation on a daily basis* actually exist. In other words: education sector administration must have the 'capacity' of transforming teacher recruitment and training policy choices into a lasting reality, i.e. by managing teachers and available resources in a satisfactory manner on a daily basis. This 'capacity' depends mainly on what are commonly known as the institutional and organisational conditions.

4.3.2 Institutional and organisational conditions

Concrete actions related to teacher recruitment and training are, as for other personnel management areas, directed and shaped by the institutional and organisational framework in which they take place.

Box 4.1: Conceptual distinction between 'institutional framework' and 'organisation'

Here, 'institutional framework' means the legislation, regulations and other provisions that regulate a whole, in this case the education sector and its management sub-sectors. It is the 'institutionalised' result of historical processes of earlier collective actions and is based on norms and values.

Organisation is of a more 'utilitarian' rationality. It forms a structured whole so as to enable its different components accomplish actions that are interconnected, particularly through common objectives.

Institutional conditions

New policies or measures concerning teacher recruitment and training are sometimes adopted as a matter or urgency, i.e. rapidly in order to address pressing constraints or demands.

As such, in some countries, educational development dynamics have led to the rapid recruitment of a large number of additional teachers, together with the introduction of new teacher status categories, the involvement of administrative levels and structures not previously involved, and the development of training programmes aside from the institutionalised ones. Often, existing legislation and regulations have not been adapted at the same pace as these new realities. Even when they have been adapted, this has sometimes been done hastily and inconsistently, and/or not been based on the prior broad consultation of all stakeholders.

In these conditions, an updated, consistent and consensual institutional framework is lacking, which contributes greatly to confusion, ineffectiveness and resistance in the implementation of new teacher recruitment and/or training provisions.

For an effective regulation of the implementation of these arrangements, specific attention should therefore be given to the following institutional aspects:

- Consultation of all parties concerned regarding new provisions envisaged for teacher recruitment and training;

- Formalisation (through legislation, regulations, legal procedures, etc.) of the new recruitment and training provisions, taking into account the results of consultation and the requirement for clarity and operational capability;

- Alignment of new provisions with the existing institutional framework;

- Updating/development of institutional structures (courts, mediation faciities, etc.) and of procedures (individual recourse, sanction, etc.) to ensure the practical application of the revised legislation, rights and duties.

Organisational conditions

Since the organisational (and institutional) aspects of teacher management are covered in detail in Module 7, we shall only highlight here some central organisational issues to be solved in order to ensure effective teacher recruitment and training management.

(i) ***Do the structures in charge of teacher recruitment and training have clearly defined responsibiities and adequate resources to fulfil them?***

- Concerning *recruitment*, education sector administration must meet a number of challenges, such as:

  – clarification of the respective responsibilities of central level, local (or school) level and intermediary levels especially for the recruitment of non civil servant teachers (contract and/or community/supply teachers);

  – assurance of the necessary resources for the structures in charge of recruitment and training in order for them to fulfil their functions (especially financial resources – see box 4.2 below – and a solid database necessary for recruitment).

Box 4.2: Example of organisational challenges encountered when setting up a new in-service training programme (Nigeria)

In Nigeria, the *Special Teacher Upgrading Programme* (STUP), which combines face-to-face training sessions, self-study modules and mentoring at the workplace, was introduced hastily in 2007, to address the urgent demands for teacher training. That may probably explain why the payment of the mentors, qualified teachers trained to support new teachers, had not been scheduled in the training budget. The *National Teachers Institute*, which coordinates the programme, had to reallocate the budgets within the programme, but the salaries of mentors are still too low and are often received late. This is detrimental to frequent and effective mentoring of STUP trainees in their classroom. Indeed, mentors no longer visit all classrooms and teachers in these schools are then assigned the role of mentor, whereas they are not qualified or trained for this function.

Source: Kruijer, 2010

- Concerning *training*, the analysis of experience in this area shows:

  – that new training programmes are all the easier to implement and viable when their design and management are based on *structures* (working groups; ad-hoc administrative missions) involving both *the Pedagogical Departments* and *the Departments in charge of Planning and Management.*

  – that the change in the type of training (more alternance between training in an institution and training on the job, etc.) and in its organisation (throughout the career) implies rethinking the structures in charge: training centres are often too far away to easily supervise training in the school; at the same time, they

frequently lack the necessary tools to deliver an excellent standard of training to teacher trainees. New solutions must therefore be sought such as the strengthening of the pedagogical advisor workforce, of local training networks and of teacher mutual support schemes, etc.

(ii) **Do the administrative procedures for teacher recruitment and (initial and in-service) training guarantee effective management in these areas?**

- The importance of clear, institutionalised criteria and procedures for the recruitment of teachers and their access to initial and in-service training was discussed in the previous parts of this module.

- Beyond this aspect, it is important to ensure their practical application. Management audits and other control, sanction and self-control (codes of conduct) mechanisms for the profession are useful to ensure that teacher recruitment and training management is effective. These instruments and devices are examined in more detail in Module 7.

(iii) **Are there enough actors/employees in charge of recruitment and training with the adequate profile (in terms of training, competences, etc.) to fulfil their respective functions and tasks?**

- Concerning the *personnel in charge of recruitment*, the main challenge is to ensure:

  - the selection and training of *administrative employees* to prepare them to carry out this management task effectively;

  - the selection, training and monitoring of *non-government players* (parents, influential local people, etc.) involved in the recruitment of community teachers, in order to provide them with minimum skills and neutrality in exercising their responsibilities.

- Concerning the *personnel involved in teacher training,* a distinction should be made between *those who train* the teachers (trainers in the training centres/institutions; pedagogical advisors or inspectors; head teachers, experienced teachers) and *those who organise* and manage the training:

  - At the level of the *staff who manage training* (in the ministries or the teacher training centres), these employees are often found either to be untrained for management tasks (financial or other) or to lack direct contact with classroom reality and the concrete needs of teacher training, all pitfalls to be avoided;

  - At the level of *teacher trainers,* the main question to be raised is how are they trained themselves? This has often been given little or no consideration. Where do the teacher trainers in the institutions come from? They are mainly people who have not worked as teachers but are academics or inspectors seconded from their function. In some training institutions, there is a mixture of academics and teachers or pedagogical advisors and even inspectors, the latter being in charge of « practical » training.

There are some sporadic trainer training activities, but they are rare and accorded little value. Similarly, inspectors or head teachers benefit mainly from pre-service training and from little in-service training. In some countries, the initial training of teacher supervisors takes place in separate institutions, directed toward collective management. For example, in France, the Higher Institute of National Education (ESEN - *Ecole Supérieur de l'Education Nationale*) trains head teachers and inspectors in the same way they would train senior officials.

Highlights

- Recruitment and training strategies are closely linked and their relevance should be assessed upstream taking into account the specific context of each country. More specifically, the degree of teacher needs and the level of diversification required of the teaching profession must be taken into account, as well as the consequences on the quality of training and consequently on the quality of education.

- Designing and adopting teacher recruitment and training policies requires national deciders to have a **long-term** vision and, at the same time, the capacity to adjust to significant constraints and temporary events. The **continuity of the political commitment** for the options selected is also imperative to ensure effective implementation and sustainability.

- Finally, recruitment and training policies can only be viable and appropriate as long as the concrete conditions for their **effective implementation on a daily basis** exist. The country's **institutional and organisational conditions** are a guarantee of the quality of training and consequently of education.

Using the grids below as an aid, consider the following questions:

A. What _measures_ have been taken in your country over the past years _to recruit better candidates_ for the teaching profession (by attracting more candidates; being more selective; changing recruitment criteria, etc.)? What *success* (or what *obstacles*) have these measures encountered?

B. What _measures_ have been taken in your country _to improve the skills_ of new teachers _through initial training_ *(new upgrading and/or assessment mechanisms; changes in the organisation, content and/or type of training; provision of support at the start of service, etc)?* What *success* (or what *obstacles*) have these measures encountered?

A. Measure(s) for more selective teacher recruitment

MEASURE	IMPLEMENTATION and EFFECTS		CONTEXTUAL FACTORS		
Measure (Country; short description)	Observable effects of the measure	Favourable and unfavourable factors for implementation	Evolution of secondary enrolments	Job opportunities for graduates (unemployment, attraction of the teaching profession)	Regulation of access to the teaching profession (when?)

B. Measure(s) for improving teacher training

MEASURE	IMPLEMENTATION and EFFECTS		CONTEXTUAL FACTORS		
Measure (Country; short description)	Observable effects of the measure	Favourable and unfavourable factors for implementation	Evolution in number of teaching candidates	Reforms to tertiary education (quality assurance; new entry	Major reforms to (i) teaching (ii) teachers' careers

				requirements, etc.)	(iii) other
			42		

Appendix

How is a training programme established? The example of Haïti

Training programmes are built by experts, often by subject and by transversal professional field such as pedagogy or pupil psychology. They are established according to a curriculum indicating chronological order and modalities (internships, duration, support, etc.). This training programme is then endorsed by the corresponding Ministry departments (Ministry of Primary Education, Ministry of Secondary Education, Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education sometimes with a right of inspection by the Ministries of Culture, Sports, Computer Science, etc.).

For instance, Haïti has created an accelerated initial training programme (FIA - *formation initiale accélérée*) which, when faced with a lesser degree of urgency, is reviewed to be more in line with the country's demands, especially for the quality of education. Revision of the curriculum has been entrusted to a group of national and international experts with competencies in each of the modules, with the idea of training a versatile primary school teacher.

Once the modules are accepted, trainers take over and adapt them. It would of course be better to offer training in the implementation of these modules but that would require time and money, which governments do not always have available. Trainer training is therefore a neglected topic whereas it should be central to effective teacher training.

As a guide, the list of these training modules is as follows:

1. General pedagogy
2. Evaluation
3. Micro-teaching
4. General didactics
5. Classroom management
6. General and developmental psychology
7. Didactics of Creole
8. Didactics of French
9. Didactics of science and technology
10. Didactics of mathematics
11. Didactics of social sciences
12. Didactics of physical and sports education
13. Didactics of arts and cultural education

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