Teacher management – addressing the challenges

Over recent years, the professional status and motivation of teachers have been declining worldwide while the expectations of parents, employers and others towards teachers are steadily on the increase. Only new policies and efficient human resource management in the education sector can help redress this situation.

Until the late 1980s, the management of teachers had hardly been a subject of public debate, research or innovative projects in the education sector. Teachers were first and foremost considered and studied as ‘pedagogues’, whose teaching methods and behaviour at school and classroom levels tended to have a significant impact on pupil/student learning and eventually also as ‘agents of change’ in processes of educational innovation.

Since then, the ever harder constraints imposed on public sector budgets have engendered a growing interest in the rational use of public resources, including teachers. Most countries, especially developing countries, spend indeed a large part of the education budget on teachers who are – especially in the rural and remote areas – not always fully or adequately utilized.

Political priorities

Over the last decade, efficient teacher management has become a priority on the agenda of both governments and agencies providing external assistance in education. New policies and initiatives have been adopted with a view to addressing some of the issues...
Managing learning by managing teachers

The most important of all pedagogical tasks is to convey to children and the young that they are continuously making headway so that they gain trust in their abilities and fully exploit all their talents.

Good teachers determine by their manner whether learners’ interest is maintained, whether learners feel competent, and whether learners’ enthusiasm endures. Teachers are leaders of the pupils’ community of work and they make a great difference, not just in the functioning of a class but also in the lives of their students. The most important tools teachers have are themselves.

Hence the most important tools for schools are teachers: how they are recruited and trained, how they are motivated and sustained.

In teaching as in medicine the Hippocratic dictum is valid: First, do no harm! The second is: Something is better than nothing – some qualifications, some training, some motivation.

But quality education requires more. This is the topic of teacher management. Are there general lessons to be learned? The answer is ‘yes’, and here are some of them:

➤ The teacher’s command of his or her field is vital when the experiences of the young are to be converted into insights. A teacher must know a subject well in order to teach with skill and authority—as well as with sensitivity to individual students’ needs and capacities. Good teaching requires good training.

➤ Training shapes the actions and attitudes of teachers, so do the ways they are treated and managed. Learning depends upon the tasks to which teachers are put and the context within which they are placed.

➤ The body of knowledge is always expanding. Hence teachers themselves must have opportunities for learning. Those that are to develop others must themselves be developing.

➤ To teach, teachers must be where the students are. If they are insufficiently remunerated their attention is diverted and their absenteeism increased. Like children, teachers must work at school and spend their time on tasks. They must do so not just for the children of the well-off and in central areas, but in outlying districts and rural communities.

➤ Rewards for teachers are not just remuneration, but also respect. However, respect is not just something you get, but something you earn. This is an additional reason for good teacher training, so that children feel confident in their teacher’s skills and parents rest assured that the teacher provides what it takes.

➤ Good supervision encourages good teaching. Supervision goes beyond knowing what goes on. It implies knowing what matters and supporting schools and teachers in getting what makes a difference.

These are some of the tasks of teacher management: to get sufficient numbers who are adequately trained, motivated and sustained to reach all children and the young.

This task is staggering. Over the next half century the number of children to be educated in the world will increase by a half. They will demand not just a basic education, but more years of higher quality education. Simply put: With the growing world population moving into learning economies, the needs for teachers will double—in many countries more than that. The costs will also be enormous. But the loss from not providing the needed funds are greater.

The task is staggering. But it is the task of educational planners and managers. They should say: Give us the tools, and we will do the job.

Gudmund Hernes
Director of IIEP

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Teacher management – concepts and current issues

Human resource management is widely defined as “placing the right person at the right place – at the right moment”. In short it aims to match posts with those who are occupying them, from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective. Implementing this approach to staff management in the education sector has a number of implications:

➤ first and foremost, personnel management practices and their results have to be satisfactory from the point of view of both the education system and the staff concerned;
➤ over and understaffing of schools have to be avoided;
➤ teachers and other staff should have the level and type of competencies and motivation which is required to do their job as well as possible; at the same time, they should have the opportunity and the support required to develop their skills and progress in their job and professional career.

To achieve these goals, a comprehensive and forward-looking management approach has to be adopted. Unfortunately, this is not the case. Despite some promising policies and initiatives adopted in recent years, particularly to rationalize the use of human resources in the education sector, a certain number of crucial teacher management issues still remain unaddressed. The following challenges deserve attention:

➤ Improving the attractiveness and image of the teaching profession through adequate career development and promotion: In both developed and developing contexts, teachers suffer from a decline of their professional image; enhancing their status, particularly by reviewing career patterns, salary structures and promotion policies, is becoming a priority on the agenda of educational decision-makers and managers.
➤ Reducing teacher costs? To what extent and how this should be done is still a priority issue in countries with a serious teacher shortage and facing at the same time constraints of the education budget.
➤ Overcoming the shortage or high turnover of teachers in the remote rural or underprivileged urban areas: Although a number of incentive and regulatory measures have been taken here and there to alleviate geographical and social disparities in the provision and stability of teachers, it is difficult to find sustainable responses to this challenge, particularly where the urban-rural development gap remains significant.
➤ Optimising the utilization and professional support of teachers from both a quantitative and qualitative point of view: In many countries, particularly in the developing world, teacher absenteeism is high. Teachers are also often under-utilized from a qualitative point of view: both the development of their skills and their job commitment could be significantly enhanced if adequate professional support were provided. The shortage and/or inadequacy of support and supervisory staff and services largely contributes to this critical situation.
➤ Bringing management closer to the actors concerned: In teacher management, as in other management areas, decentralization has been increasingly promoted, and needs to be carefully assessed as a possible strategy for overcoming lengthy and inadequate decision making.
➤ Increased transparency and professionalism of teaching staff management: A major source of teacher dissatisfaction with their situation lies in the lack of information, transparency, objectivity and professionalism in staff management; this is sometimes further aggravated by inadequate and ineffective grievance procedures or the weakness of those bodies defending teachers’ professional interests. Such shortcomings call for serious reviews and adjustments of the existing legal framework as well as of the organization and tools of staff management.

which were found to be most critical (see the above box). Particular interest in many parts of the world, has been devoted to strategies promising drastic reductions of public expenditure on teacher salaries.

As the experiences of Senegal and Madhya Pradesh/India indicate, such strategies have indeed contributed to enhancing teacher supply without an increasing additional burden on the education budget, and apparently also without deteriorating the quality of education provided. It should be kept in mind, however, that in both of the cases referred to here (see the articles on Madhya Pradesh in India, pp. 5-6 and on volunteer teachers in Africa, pp. 9-10) it has been possible to attract and employ new teachers on a contractual (non tenured) basis and at an extremely low salary level because large numbers of unemployed secondary and post-secondary graduates without any better alternative job opportunities were available. In any case, promising solutions in a medium- and long-term perspective still remain to be developed and implemented.

Because of its apparent impact on the presence and pedagogical practice of teachers – and eventually on pupils’ school attendance and performance levels, the search for better supervision and support systems has also attracted wide attention over the last decade. (cf. an article on ‘Teacher supervision and teacher development’, pp. 7-8). In particular, local- or school-based systems of staff supervision and advice have been viewed and explored as possible responses to the widely stated lack of control over and support to teachers.

Managing teachers as a human resource

In between macro-level policies regarding the status, salary level and career of teachers, and the local organization of pedagogical support and supervision lies the crucial area of teaching staff deployment and everyday administration on which the IIEP project on ‘The management of teachers’ has focussed.

continued page 4
Some 12 country monographs have been carried out in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Arabic-speaking region as well as state-of-the-art reviews on selected critical issues and field audits; teacher management has also, more recently, been at the centre of several IIEP training workshops and courses. The list of publications in this series can be found on p. 6.

As the intermediate results of the project indicate, human resource management in the proper sense of the term (see box, p. 3) – i.e. management aimed at achieving an optimal match between staff and posts – is indeed rarely applied to the management of teachers.

But the latter actually often boils down to staff administration done in a rather unprofessional way: teachers are posted, transferred and promoted without previous careful monitoring and planning and hardly accompanied by consequent supportive measures (in-service training; transfer allowances, etc.). The creation of a new Human Resource Development Department within the Ministry of Education may indicate that high-level decision-makers are aware of and willing to address this issue. But staff management practices, have, unfortunately, often proved to be much more difficult to change than organizational charts.

Thus, even the carrying out of routine management tasks, such as updating teacher records, paying salaries and allowances, continues to suffer, particularly in a number of developing countries, from delays, lack of transparency, political interference, etc. This contributes not only to sub-optimal staff allocation and use; it also leads to considerable frustration and lack of commitment among teachers.

However, the investigations conducted by the IIEP also indicate that certain measures or initiatives have helped to improve the situation from three major perspectives: the matching of staff and posts, the efficiency of staff management and teacher satisfaction with the latter.

Promising progress

➤ Matching staff and posts. Achieving a better match between the teaching staff and posts available has become a growing concern for managers. Thus, Morocco, for example, has recently attempted – and succeeded – in absorbing excess primary teachers in changing their level and conditions of recruitment: henceforth, new teachers are recruited at regional level and teacher trainees can only apply and sign a commitment for teaching posts in those regions and districts with vacancies.

In the case of Madhya Pradesh, India, geographical imbalances in both teacher provision and turnover have been addressed to a significant extent in confining staff recruitment and transfer to the sub-regional level (see article p. 5); even relatively centralized countries like Benin were able to reduce high teacher turnover due to frequent transfer from underprivileged to more privileged areas by allowing transfer only in those cases where two teachers agree on ‘exchanging’ their posts (so-called ‘permutations’).

➤ Improving the efficiency of staff administration. Appropriate organization and tools of staff management can help avoid – or at least reduce – delays, work duplication, errors and other problems characterizing teacher administration in many instances. Over the last decade, particular efforts have been made almost everywhere to develop computer-based information systems for educational management in order to increase the reliability and rapidity of administrative decision-making (see article pp. 13-14). Some countries (such as Botswana, South Africa, Uganda, etc.) unified the databases used for teacher management purposes which were formerly scattered among different ministries (ministry of education, ministry of finance, ministry for public affairs/public service commission, etc.) and different departments/divisions within the MoE; certain inefficiencies – such as the existence of ‘ghost teachers’ on the payroll or teacher remuneration based on erroneous and outdated information – could thus been addressed. In Botswana, the consolidation and decentralization (to the regional and district levels) of both the information system and the organizational structure underpinning teacher management (the teaching service management department within the MoE) have enhanced the latter to a considerable extent. It addresses, in particular, the frequent delays and errors in the payment of salaries and other staff management functions as well as teacher absenteeism which were linked to the former centralized system of teacher administration, payroll and record keeping.

➤ Enhancing teacher satisfaction with management. Appropriate organizational structures, rules and procedures of administrative decision-making and their proper application can help improve not only the efficiency but also teachers’ own satisfaction with the latter. Two aspects seem to be of particular relevance in this respect: Firstly, the existence and application of rules of proper conduct in staff administration, including well-functioning mechanisms of defence of teachers’ individual rights. In Botswana, for example, misconduct of inspectors and other management and support staff are severely punished (a Department against Corruption has been set up under the auspices of the Prime Minister’s Office), and teachers can, and actually do, take their complaints about incorrect treatment up to the regional or national teaching service management department, or even to court. Secondly, teacher satisfaction can be greatly enhanced by involving them – both individually and through their associations or unions – in the preparation and implementation of important staff management policies and measures; as reported in the article by Rosa María Torres (see pp. 11-12), certain countries in Latin America, such as Chile and Argentina, have recently achieved considerable progress in this respect.

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Improving teacher provision and utilization in India
Reviewing the management, remuneration and status of teachers in Madhya Pradesh

In Madhya Pradesh, India, a clear cut commitment at the national and the state level to universalizing primary education has had a positive impact on increasing the supply of teachers. The second most important factor in increasing teacher supply at a brisk pace has been the use of cost effective options.

Changing teacher status and remuneration

The state government’s decision to fill approximately 60,000 vacant primary school teachers’ posts, was accompanied by a review of the teacher remuneration structure which aimed at employing teachers at less cost. The government decided to create a new teacher cadre whose management was with the panchayats. Thus the formal primary school shortage gave way to the *shiksha karmi* who is recruited on a lower salary scale. In addition, new cost-effective schemes for universalizing primary education were initiated and a new variety of locally recruited contractual teachers, such as EGS and AS teachers, began to appear.

This has enabled the government to increase the number of teachers at a reduced cost without putting additional pressure on the budget, but it does have implications on state policy for the future: sustaining differential pay structures for teachers as well as sustaining teachers on fixed honoraria. Thus, while reducing costs has swiftly helped to fill the current teacher shortage in a considerable way, the government will have to anticipate and rationally plan future demands from teachers for a more equitable pay structure.

Decentralization

This, too, has had an important influence on teacher supply and allocation. In the *first* instance, by decentralizing the recruitment of primary teacher posts to the block panchayat level, dividing the work previously done by 45 districts into 400 blocks, large scale recruitment thus becomes possible. Secondly, the block panchayats have a far greater interest in recruiting teachers than the District Officers, usually overburdened with procedural problems, political pressures and litigation, for whom teacher recruitment is just another official function. It represents a vital and very visible expression of the panchayat’s authority over the administrative system and the local community.

Furthermore, *shiksha karmis* belong to their block of recruitment and cannot be transferred.

Similarly posts of *gurujis* and AS teachers are controlled at the *village panchayat* level. This also ensures that teachers are available in rural and most remote areas. Thus, there is a more equitable distribution of teachers across the district, in contrast to the district cadre of formal primary teachers (assistant teachers) characterized by a tendency to cluster in or near more developed locations.

Decentralized control in the hands of panchayats at the block and the village level has also had a positive impact on teacher utilization, as in the case of *gurujis* and AS teachers. These teachers belong to the local or neighbouring village. *Gurujis* are appointed at the community’s own recommendation. This lateral bond with the community is a significant factor in reducing teacher absenteeism.

Decentralizing training and supervision to the block and school cluster level is furthermore aimed at strengthening support to schools and teachers, and eventually at improving teacher utilization.

Steps towards decentralizing the management of primary school teachers have been taken recently. Therefore, there are still some problems in the speedy implementation of decisions or execution of functions. *Shiksha karmi* recruitment has taken much more time than expected. There have been delays in release of payments to *gurujis* and AS teachers and of school contingency funds. The main reasons for this are insufficient co-ordination between the panchayats and the bureaucratic executive wing, even though the latter is under the former, and a need for enforcing a check and balance system to ensure that the panchayats exercise their powers efficiently and properly. While such a check and balance system often does form part of most instructions and even of the Panchayat Act, its enforcement is not very frequent.

Nevertheless, it is also to be seen that a large part of this problem lies in the transition stage of decentralization.

Better personnel management and incentives

While better personnel management of the teacher cadre will result from decentralizing and anchoring teacher management comprehensively in district and sub-district levels of the panchayat raj system, there is also a need for conscious focus on teacher motivation, desisting from the practice of using them for tasks unrelated to education and strengthening the supervision system. A detailed school-based management information system needs to be developed and...
used for decision making and monitoring.

Policy reform needs to address in particular two issues: facilitating environment for the teacher, on the one hand, and larger systemic reform on the other. These teacher-related policy issues are:

➤ developing a more rational policy of promotion for all categories of teachers. The headmaster’s post at the primary school should be a promotion post to create one easy promotion post for primary school teachers in order to attract teachers as well as to create a point of effective authority within the school.

➤ establishing a system of performance-based incentives for teachers and headteachers. School-performance indicators could be identified: pupil attendance and attainments would be critical indicators.

Teacher incentives could be both financial and non-financial, small financial increments, selection for special training programmes, award professional credits that count for promotion purposes, etc.

1 Panchayats: elected local, self-governing bodies to which the state governments in India have devolved significant administrative decision-making powers.

2 Shiksha Karmi: a new district category of teachers.

3 EGS teachers: ‘Education Guarantee Scheme’ teachers, also called gurujis, are contractual locally-hired staff, accountable to the community, employed in the framework of an innovative programme.

4 Alternative School (AS) teachers: are also locally hired contractual teachers, accountable to the local community.

5 Block Panchayat: self-governing, elected body operating at state-district level.

6 Village Panchayat: self-governing elected local body covering 3-4 villages.

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IIEP PUBLICATIONS ON TEACHER MANAGEMENT AND SUPERVISION


The supply, condition and professional development of women by Catherine Gaynor. 1997, 60p.


From supervision to quality assurance: the case of the State of Victoria, Australia by David Gurr. 1999, 137p.


Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) - Special mention should also be made of the activities of the ADEA Working Groups on the Teaching Profession. These Working Groups bring together a large number of bilateral and multilateral aid agencies with the aim of supporting and promoting assistance to both French- and English-speaking Africa in selected areas, in this instance, teacher management and support. For further information on these groups, contact: Henry Kaluba at h.kaluba@commonwealth.int or the ADEA website www.adeanet.org
Teacher supervision and teacher development – a complex couple

If supervision is to provide a positive input towards teacher development, it is essential to revise the role of the school supervisor. Although control is necessary, it is essential that more motivation and encouragement be given to those whose vocation is to face battleground conditions everyday.

Teachers, like all other professionals, need regular motivation and support in order to enjoy their job and to do it effectively. Such motivation comes from different sources, for instance the provision of training opportunities, enabling working conditions, productive interactions with the headteacher and other teachers and participation in decision making. At the same time, in almost every education system there is one group of staff whose task is precisely to provide regular support to teachers, namely the school supervisors. Offering advice to teachers figures strongly in the job description of almost every supervisor or inspector. But few supervision systems and few individual supervisors seem to live up to these expectations. The anecdotal evidence is almost overwhelming: a lot of teachers in many countries feel that the work done by supervisors is of little benefit to them; they complain about ‘snoopervision’, about too much control and too little support, and have even, in extreme cases, set up movements aimed at abolishing supervision.

How has a system aimed in part at teacher support and development become one that many teachers decry for its detrimental impact? The main reason might well be that inspectors or supervisors have always had an ambiguous role: they are at the same time expected to control and to advise teachers. This ambiguity has regularly turned into a conflict and control has generally taken the upper hand. This preference for control is - in some cases - an expression of a personal choice by individual supervisors, many of whom feel more at ease in a hierarchical relationship which gives them power, than in a collegial one where they have to prove their worth. But there are more objective reasons underlying this focus on control:

➤ Most supervisors are responsible for large numbers of schools and teachers, the result being that they can spend very little time in each school. Just enough time for quick control, but not enough to offer consistent development-oriented support.

➤ The recruitment and evaluation criteria generally reward years of service rather than innovative pedagogical practices or strong interpersonal skills.

➤ The lack of training, upon appointment as well as later in the service, is a recurring complaint among supervisors. This leaves many of them steeped in outdated practices and with little motivation.

➤ The working conditions are poor: lack of transport, for instance, renders school visits complicated and costly.

➤ The follow-up to school visits is highly inefficient: the recommendations made by supervisors, are seldom, if ever, acted upon by schools, by supervisors, or by the higher administrative authorities.

Does this mean that supervision is condemned to being a service of little help to teacher development? Fortunately, several reforms have recently shown that there is no inherent contradiction between teacher supervision and teacher development.

The reforms in Chile can act as a showcase. In the 1980s, school inspectors were very much agents of a system, intent on controlling teachers and limiting their autonomy. With the political change from a military dictatorship to a democracy came the need for a transformation of school supervision. At present, after some ten years of profound and ongoing reform, teachers now feel supervisors to be of great assistance to their professional development and, in most cases, the relationship has become a collegial one rather than one driven by conflict.

What has allowed such a reform to take shape? It has been a complex process, with three main steps which can be presented - in a simplified form - as follows.

Firstly, school supervisors were...
asked to concentrate on teacher support and advice. They were released from their more administrative or control-oriented duties by the creation of a specific cadre of financial controllers, and their job description does no longer include teacher or school inspection. Evaluation of the performance and effectiveness of schools is done through the generation of a set of achievement tests and a detailed indicator system. Secondly, each supervisor works with only a few schools, namely those facing the most difficulties. It is presumed that schools with rather good results, a strong headteacher and well-trained and stable staff, do not need much external supervision. In other words, supervisors adapt their interventions to the very diverse needs of the schools and teachers. Thirdly, the interventions of supervisors have the guiding principle of helping the school. They spend long days in each school, working and discussing with the teachers, helping them solve their administrative and pedagogical problems and organizing workshops to develop together a school improvement plan. Their contact with the school is therefore not limited to a rare brief visit, without any follow-up, but takes the form of a lengthy and close relationship.

Among the countries where supervision has undergone a comprehensive reform, few have gone as far in the direction of a development-oriented service as Chile. However, some alternativeschool programmes set up by NGOs for instance in Bangladesh, strongly rely on a group of actors who have a similar role to play as the supervisors in Chile. They are known as the Programme Organizers in the renowned BRAC non-formal schools and exist also in the schools set up by another NGO, the GSS. Both of these centres) to offer them support.

The evolution of the inspection system in England stands in stark contrast to that of Chile. Its purpose has become uniquely that of inspecting, or – to use a more appropriate term – auditing schools. Inspection teams, when visiting schools, are not allowed to give any advice to the teachers. They only come to judge the school's functioning, management and effectiveness. They leave the school with a report, which is a somewhat public, and some recommendations, but it is left completely to the school staff to implement these. Teachers can in principle use the school's own budget to 'purchase' support – in the form of training or advice – from private agencies. In practice however, few teachers do so. This, coupled with the complete separation between supervision and teacher development, has led to much dissatisfaction among the teaching force, with a preoccupying number leaving the service and many others demotivated. The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED), as the central inspection body is called, has undoubtedly improved the accountability of schools and has created a rich source of information for the system and for the individual schools, but – from the point of view of teacher development – the new inspection arrangements have been damaging.

For the school supervision service to become an integral part of a teacher development policy, a number of precepts could serve as useful guidelines. Firstly, teacher development has to be the core function of the service. It seems nearly unavoidable that supervisors, who have several roles to play, including control, will do so at the detriment of teacher support. This however implies that, when supervision is asked to focus on teacher development, other services or devices should be in place to assess, evaluate or inspect schools (such as achievement tests or an audit agency). Secondly, supervisors must adapt their interventions to the needs of the schools and the teachers, rather than to offer a standardized service for all. This demands a focus on the 'disadvantaged' or 'weak' schools, who will be able to rely on a long-term commitment on the part of supervisors. Thirdly, the criteria for recruitment and evaluation of supervisors could usefully reflect a support-oriented profile, which should be defined more precisely by every country. Finally, supervisors should have a minimum of resources at their disposal, which, for example, allows them to regularly visit the most remote schools. These resources may also include the authority to take some action which is of immediate help to the schools, so that supervisors can act upon their own recommendations.

What is being demanded if teacher supervision is to serve teacher development, is a complex and challenging reform, but one that potentially has a great pay-off: better supervisors, better teachers, better learners.

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In 1995, Senegal launched a recruitment campaign for new low-cost teachers, called education volunteers. Since then, the experience has spread like wildfire in various forms throughout the West African sub-region and beyond. What justified this call for volunteers? How were they introduced? What were the expected benefits? Towards what long-term goals?

In Senegal, enrolment rates fell from 58.5 to 54.5 between 1990 and 1994, an average of one point a year. This unacceptable decline revealed the structural limits reached in widely propagating an educational model too costly for the country's resources. To maintain enrolments at previous levels, it would have been necessary to recruit around 500 additional teachers each year. However, the state was not able to provide more than 250. The number of classes closed down because the lack of teachers steadily increased, reaching nearly 2,000 in 1994. In conditions like these, stagnation or even worse, decline, seemed inevitable. This was unacceptable for several reasons. It would have meant denying education to one child out of two, condemning at least half of the country's citizenry to illiteracy in the 21st century, handicapping the national potential for development and nurturing the vicious circle of ignorance/poverty. Thus the state was obliged to do something to reverse this trend.

Promoting equity and general interest

Indeed, universal access to education, or education for all, must be an imperative on the ethical level and a sine qua non for sustainable development in all countries. Consequently, this objective becomes an obligation which pushes political choices in two directions. The first consists in significantly increasing the resources earmarked for education. Senegal, with 33 per cent of the state budget, namely 4.2 per cent of the PNB, destined for education, no longer had a significant margin in this direction. It was thus necessary, in addition to increasing resources, to make efficiency gains in the way resources were being used. The student/teacher ratio (59/1) had already reached its limits, with overcrowded classrooms and a widespread use of double-shift classes and multi-grade classroom solutions for over 30 per cent of enrolments. Reducing repetition and the number of drop-outs, linked to the improvement of the quality of learning, meant major educational expenses, while at the same time postponing hoped-for benefits to the long term. Finally, analysis revealed that teacher costs swallowed up more than 90 per cent of public budgets per student at the primary school level. The reduction of the wage bill, therefore, constituted the second and most promising option in view of opening the school doors to hundreds of thousands of children, mostly from the poorest sectors of society, while creating possibilities for investing in other quality factors (teaching materials, training, supervision, etc.). Such a trade-off was not easy, either politically or socially. However, by balancing the risks involved against those caused by the decline of enrolments, the general interest and the principle of equality weighed heavily in favour of an initiative whose benefits were numerous and reach was widespread. The rest was a question of political will.

Training enough teachers and ensuring quality

Lessons drawn from earlier experiences made it possible to develop a volunteer teachers project on a new basis:
➤ to place the project beyond the rigid constraints of the civil service, especially the relationship between a diploma and the pay index, so as to recruit the maximum (1,500 beyond the 500 recruited each year, i.e. four times the usual number);
➤ to avoid recruiting underqualified teachers solely to keep the wage bill down, by demanding from candidates a minimum academic (high school diploma) and professional qualifications (4 months' initial training in classroom skills) to teach at primary level;
➤ to organize an objective and transparent screening process so as to recruit the best candidates;
➤ to place volunteers in rural areas and regions with urgent needs through an equitable allotment of recruitment quotas and by shifting recruitment and management as much as possible to district (Department) levels;
➤ to combine a call to young graduates for social voluntary work with the realities of the workplace in determining pay levels (twice the GDP per capita, i.e. three times less than the average cost of a government teacher) in keeping with the enrolment objectives and acceptable living conditions for a young, unmarried volunteer in a rural environment (criteria set according to age, marital status, and previous experience);
➤ to limit the time of voluntary

Education volunteers: new teachers to take up the challenge of Education for All

In 1995, Senegal launched a recruitment campaign for new low-cost teachers, called education volunteers. Since then, the experience has spread like wildfire in various forms throughout the West African sub-region and beyond. What justified this call for volunteers? How were they introduced? What were the expected benefits? Towards what long-term goals?
services to a reasonable period, while assuring continuity (two-year contract, renewable only once);

➤ at the same time, to open up possibilities for the volunteers to enter into regular teaching positions once the volunteer period is over;

➤ to provide motivational support to the volunteer (free housing offered by the community and a budget for in-service teacher training, both at a distance and on location).

It is with these goals and means in mind that the project was set up in 1995, and is still continuing.

Encouraging results

For 1,500 new positions, the first competition registered 32,000 candidates. Five years later, the trend continues, and recently, it was decided to increase the number of positions open to recruitment.

As for access to education, the decline in enrolments has been stopped. Better still, the enrolment rates have increased from 54.5 to 68.3 between 1995 and 1999. As for gender equity, the parity index between girls and boys has substantially moved towards equality (from 0.72 to 0.88). While the gap between the regions with the highest and lowest rates of enrolments has been reduced by 15 points. An encouraging example in this sense is the region of Tamba whose enrolment rates have increased from 40 to 71 during this same period.

However, what about quality? Contrary to fears expressed, no negative impact on the available quality indicators was noted. Between 1994 and 1999, the dropout rate was steady at about 6 per cent, repeated classes were reduced from 16 to 14 per cent, and graduation figures grew from 21.9 to 41.25 per cent. Although it is impossible to establish a causal link between relative quality improvements and the volunteer project, one can at least note that the latter contributed to substantially lowering the student/teacher ratio (from 59/1 to 49/1), thus making classes less congested. Moreover, the performance of volunteers at professional examinations (to upgrade teacher training certificates) was significantly higher than that of tenured teachers. This is understandable, since the level of education of the former is higher (over 73% of volunteers had a high-school certificate and above on their initial recruitment). Finally, these indications confirm the testimony gathered by external evaluation teams from communities, principals and school inspectors who unanimously expressed their satisfaction with the quality of services provided by volunteers.

Controversies, problems and challenges

All the same, the opponents of the project continue to pepper it with criticisms on issues such as the low esteem and increased precariousness of the teaching profession with the obvious consequences: demotivation among teachers, diversion of the best students from teaching, the instability of volunteers, the low quality of education, etc. Beyond these concerns, it would be proper to examine the real problems which arise from a cohabitation between various categories of teachers doing the same job and receiving unequal remuneration.

Evidently, this is a cause of frustration and potentially a source of rebellion, which makes the benefits at all times vulnerable and poses a real challenge to management. One of the responses was to develop an open and ongoing dialogue to broaden understanding and support among the key players. Since consensus was hard to achieve, given the sectional claims at stake, the communications policy was intensified in the media and public meetings by confronting the various positions so as to arrive at a compromise in terms of public opinion. Thus, what occurred was a settling of grievances and particular interests which underlined some major challenges and real problems. The third response was to set up a monitoring and evaluation apparatus. This made it possible to detect in time difficulties that were arising (irregularities in selection or implementation of service, delays in payment of salaries, strikes, resignations, etc.) so as to provide immediate solutions, while at the same time setting up flexible mechanisms for prevention and corrective action.

Necessary changes and new perspectives

Beyond these adjustment strategies, real changes are necessary. The transition from the cohabitation of various teaching categories towards a harmonization of roles and statuses requires careful incremental adjustments. They can be achieved through compromises that must be found between the legitimate aspirations of volunteers to benefit from the same treatment as their civil service colleagues and the budget constraints which necessitated recourse to the kind of recruitment in the first place. The solution chosen in Senegal was to create an intermediate body of contractual teachers to absorb volunteers at the end of their contract, by offering them a 25 per cent pay rise, an indeterminate contract and a career plan. In order not to perpetuate unfair treatment, recruitment methods for all teachers were revised so as to give everyone exclusive access to former volunteers who had become contractual teachers. Pushing this approach further, some countries foresee promoting experienced teachers into pedagogical support and supervisory functions (educational counsellors or principals) access to which is gained through experience and merit. This would justify the difference in salaries.

Such changes could guarantee the management and financial sustainability of these types of recruitment methods which aim to accelerate the attainment of education for all. However, why should teachers alone bear the full brunt of the sacrifice? Why does the reform not affect other sectors of the civil service? Why cannot other stakeholders in society also be made to contribute? This offers wide scope for enquiry, negotiation and reform by the governments concerned and their education partners.

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Negotiating educational reform with teachers’ unions in Latin America and the Caribbean

Educational reform and teachers have long been at odds in Latin America and the Caribbean. Not only are there conflicts buried inside the schools, but there is also open public conflict between those proposing reform (the government, the international agencies that finance and assist it) and teachers’ unions. This article takes stock of the conflict and also shows some positive signs and recent trends.

In the eternal struggle to “bring reform to the classroom”, both conflicting sides (ministries and unions) are similarly powerful and weak – both have been undermined in recent years by structural adjustment, state reforms, and decentralization. New issues have been added to the teachers’ old claims: in addition to teachers’ pay, there are now working conditions, education and training, career paths, participation, and consultation. Issues such as decentralization, privatization, teacher evaluations, community participation in schools, and new technologies were the focus of conflict in the 1990s. Time – a key variable in learning and educational change – was at the heart of the reforms and of the conflict between their architects and those expected to implement such reforms. From the top, came the decision to increase time of instruction, but at the bottom, difficulties to put the measure in place became evident. Pressure came from the top for speedy implementation, while those at the bottom felt pressurized and anxious in the face of unrealistic deadlines. Changes which, at the top seemed to take place in succession, at the bottom were perceived nonetheless as simultaneous.

Throughout the 1990s, there were numerous and prolonged teachers’ strikes. The longest, and most open conflict, which also had the greatest national and international coverage, took place in Argentina. The White Tent’, set up by the CTERA (Confederation of Argentinian Educational Workers), right in the heart of Buenos Aires, between April 1997 and December 1999, was a visible symbol of a public dispute between the government and the teachers, centered on the budget for education, and the controversial educational reform.

Even cases of teacher agreement considered exceptional, and successful, such as those carried out in Mexico and the Dominican Republic, proved fragile and contradictory. In 1992, in Mexico, the government and the National Union of Educational Workers (SNTE) signed the National Agreement for the Modernization of Primary Education. However, the SNTE is well known as a ‘special teachers’ union’, due to its traditional involvement with the government and the governing party. In the Dominican Republic, the Dominican Teachers’ Association (ADP) participated in the consultation for the 10-year Education Plan in early 1990. Nonetheless, the Pact with the Motherland and the Future of Education in the Dominican Republic, signed by the government and the ADP, eroded over time, and today, both sides warn others about the risks of bureaucratizing social participation and consultation.

The teachers’ view

Traditionally, educational reforms have been described from one single point of view: that of the reformers. To understand the teachers’ reactions to the reforms, one must try to see the various reforms proposed from their particular point of view.

- From the other side: school, teaching, the daily grind of a complex and undervalued profession.
- From a specific social condition: those working in primary education are mostly women, educated in public schools and in the defense of public schooling.
- From a specific working position: relationship, and culture determined historically: functional subordination to a centralized state, loss of salary and social prestige, etc.
- From a conventional educational culture and ideology extended to and sustained by all of society: the school
What kind of reform are teachers opposed to?

Traditional educational reform

- Reform from the outside and from the top down (going down to the schools, landing in the classroom).
- Reform for reform’s sake (change seen as being good in and of itself).
- Sectoral reform, from and for the education sector, and originating in a single ministry: the Ministry of Education.
- School reform (reform of the school system) rather than educational reform in the wider sense.
- Intra-school reform, i.e. centered on supply, with scant attention to demand.
- Reform of the public school system (understood as that of the poor), based on the assumption that public schools are bad, and private schools are good.
- Uniform reform (for developing countries, the country, the poor, etc.).
- Partial reform (focusing on certain parts or levels), with no holistic and systemic vision.
- Quantitative reform, based on quantitative figures and results that are quantifiable, forgetting about the qualitative aspects, which are fundamental to teaching and learning.
- Black-or-white reform, which understands policy making as choosing between options: primary vs. higher education, children vs. adults, formal vs. non-formal education, quantity vs. quality, what works vs. what doesn’t, etc.
- Reform as discourse (reform confused with the reform document or proposal).
- Reform as an event, rather than an ongoing process.
- Assessment-proof reform, with no clear results, lessons learnt, or accounts given.
- Teacher-proof reform, without consultation with or active participation by teachers.
- Change-proof reform, by virtue of all of the previous characteristics.

as the educational institution, the teacher-encyclopedia, etc.

- Based on the experience of past reforms and their continued repetition.

It is simplistic and unscientific to explain away teachers’ resistance to reform as being teachers’ (resistance to) change. At the very least, one must accept that this resistance:

- is framed within a wider social and political context.

In the 1990s, criticism of reforms was part of criticism of the neoliberal model and its tendency to create social exclusion, exacerbate job instability, and foster privatization. The defense of public, free and universal education, is a crucial element in Latin American educational ideology, and has been championed largely by teachers and teachers’ organizations;

- constitutes resistance to a way of thinking and carrying out educational reform (see box above), not necessarily educational change. In fact, innovations coming from schools and from teacher initiative are widespread in the region, but have scant public visibility, and generally remain as tacit knowledge for the teachers themselves.

A few promising signs

The meager advances achieved by educational reforms over the past ten years, aided by expert advice and foreign debt, bear witness to the need to rethink not only the old school model, but also the old way of carrying out educational reform and the roles played by the state, civil society (including teacher organizations), and international agencies.

Ministries of education are more aware today of the importance of social participation, and teacher involvement in particular, as a precondition for successful reform. Teacher organizations are in the process of change, recognizing the need for: a greater capacity to take a more proactive stance towards education and educational change; new strategies and methods for unions; reconciliation with the citizenry and avoiding the isolation of the teachers’ movement; better coordination and exchange with union organizations; and strengthening political and educational movements in defense of quality public schooling.

At least two cases of negotiations underway between government and teachers’ unions – in Chile and in the province of Cordoba, Argentina – are showing promise in the regional context. In Chile, and in the context of a prolonged struggle between the Ministry of Education and the Colegio de Profesores (the Chilean teachers’ union), both parties have begun listening to one another and are learning to dialogue. While it previously had rejected teacher evaluations, seeing them as a method of control and submission, the teachers’ union turned the issue into a research issue at the national and international levels, thus readying itself for an ever more professional and pro-active approach to dialogue. The agreement signed in November 2000 between the two parties includes important issues linked to the improvement of education and strengthening the profession. In the case of federal Argentina, the Cordoba Pact for Quality Education was signed in September 1999, by the provincial government and several teachers’ unions: the Province of Cordoba Teachers’ Union (UEPC), the Association of Technical Teachers, the Argentine Union of Private Teachers, and the Association of Middle School Teachers. The Pact proposes “full concertation”, and covers a wide range of issues, consulting not only with teachers, but also with interests from “the various sectors of the educational community”.

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Using information systems to improve teacher management

Many countries have recently set up initiatives to strengthen their management capacities, and at the same time they have commenced planning to meet the challenge of high quality education for all. These important reforms have been driven forward by a concern for better planning and higher efficiency. However, in some countries, difficulties have emerged that are related to the shortcomings of educational information systems.

Decisions concerning the management of individual teachers and groups of teachers need to be taken on the basis of information which provides details about their situation and offers a coherent analytical framework. Information on the individual status of teachers, how they are deployed according to locality, qualifications and type, the availability of inspectors, the information needs of teachers, their real performance, their job satisfaction, their absenteeism and job abandonment with the reasons, are just some of the questions which are central to the successful management and supervision of teachers. The soundness and relevance of decisions in this area depend on the quality of information in terms of its credibility, its capacity to answer current questions and its relevance. Unfortunately, in many countries, the educational information system suffers from deficiencies.

The causes of breakdown

There are four key factors which often explain the inadequacy of information systems:

➤ An overabundance of services and an absence of effective co-ordination. The ministry of education personnel department is generally responsible for managing teachers, however, it is often the case that other departments also simultaneously generate information for their own specific needs – using different methods and time frames, and co-ordination. For example, the finance ministry may be responsible for paying teachers, but its own data differs from that of the ministry of education, which in turn differs from that of the civil service. The breaking-up of decision-making bodies within the ministry of education also often contributes to this proliferation of inconsistent data.

➤ The complexity of administrative procedures and the lack of a clear sharing of responsibilities. These two factors prolong the time needed to transmit information to the services concerned. In Morocco, for example, the ‘delegations’ (decentralized ministry of education services) are not allowed to update information on teachers under their management. This activity is the sole responsibility of the central authorities.

➤ Poor logistics. The main problem areas here are: transport, postal services, telecommunications networks, the obsolescence of management tools, and the limited use of information technology (IT).

➤ The unco-ordinated involvement of foreign financial partners. The priorities of the ministries do not always match those of the sponsors. Thus, some countries have continued to favour an information system for each educational level.

The need to upgrade

The problems mentioned above largely explain the difficulties that ministries encounter in trying effectively to implement educational policy. Strengthening management capability has become a must. It is a question not only of acquiring appropriate diagnostic and measurement tools in order to develop effective strategies and so draw up relevant action plans, but also of evaluating the real benefits of these choices so as to make suitable modifications. With this in mind, the modernization of the information systems can proceed in different ways:

➤ First, place the teacher at the centre of management operations. Here it is a matter of moving from a personnel management style to a focus on broader human resource management issues. Far from being a simple question of semantics, this change should occur through the constant search for an optimum balance between the profiles of staff, teacher preferences, and the needs of the education system.

➤ Genuinely decentralize the information system. This measure is part of the logic of ‘local responsibility’, but also the pursuit of more efficiency. In some countries, the concentration at the central ministry of activities for entering and processing teacher-relevant data is one of the main causes of delay in the production of statistics and the updating of information.

The effective decentralization of information systems must be accompanied by increased responsibility at the local level and the granting of sufficient means, especially the tools required to collect and process information in keeping with needs. Indeed, a feedback mechanism to confirm that local authorities are fulfilling their...
The legal aspects of educational planning and administration
Claude Durand-Prinborgne
(Available in French; English version forthcoming.)

What provisions are currently contained in the legal framework which national education systems must adhere to? What is the use of a legal framework? To what degree can it contribute to reforming education systems? In what ways can it stall these reforms? Numerous unanswered questions which Claude Durand-Prinborgne, one of the leading specialists in school law, strives to explain in his booklet The legal aspects of educational planning and administration recently published in IIEP’s Fundamentals of Educational Planning series. This study, based on the case of France, a statute law country, is a useful complement to another booklet published in the same series a few years ago, dealing with ‘common law’ countries.

By analyzing in detail the role of the law in the choice of competent authorities when decentralizing the education system, in the application of ‘basic rules’ – from either national traditions or from international conventions – which demand compliance not only from planners and administrators, but also from users of educational services, and finally in the renewal of educational planning tools and procedures by influencing the behaviour of all key players, this study clearly shows the importance that legal provisions play in the modernization of the education sector. However, it also draws attention to the difficulties involved in drawing up provisions which are precise enough to serve as a real guide, without, for all that, dampening initiative through administrative ‘red tape’; provisions which are sufficiently wide in application to be imperatively followed by everyone, without neglecting the necessity of adapting them to local conditions and the special needs of certain school-going publics; measures that provide a real protection for citizens, without hamstringing the administration.

The approach taken by the author will be of interest to everyone, including those belonging to both statute and common law traditions and who are wondering how to improve not only the formulation, but also the application and control of legislation so as to achieve the aims that law strives to promote in education systems. Furthermore, it will interest all those who, anxious to spread democracy, are pondering not only how to further “the democratization of the administration through participation”, but to reinforce accountability, transparency and the control of common rules, thus reducing corruption within the public sector. As Claude Durand-Prinborgne stresses: “Democracy demands clarity concerning education and education-related projects, whether it is situated at the top (parliament) or at the base (school principal). In absolute terms, democracy grows with the development of transparency.”

1 Law and educational planning by Ian Birch. Fundamentals of educational planning, No. 46, IIEP, 1993.
The Virtual Institute

The IIEP Virtual Institute continues to develop distance education courses and continuing education activities in an effort to provide flexible learning opportunities.

In recent years, IIEP increased the number of distance education courses following the positive evaluation by participants of pilot activities. As in other IIEP training activities, courses are targeted to specific UNESCO Member States and are by invitation, thereby allowing IIEP to ensure a balance of offerers.

Continuing education is offered largely in the form of Internet discussion forums on a key topic in educational planning. These forums are intended for former participants, but open to other interested individuals.

Interaction by e-mail

E-mail interaction is used as the main communication method. This means that IIEP needs to have the current e-mail address of all of you who have asked to be put on the mailing list for the IIEP Virtual Institute.

If you change your e-mail address, please tell us. Otherwise we risk losing track of you!

Alumni network

This year, IIEP is establishing an Alumni Network as a means of promoting contact between past participants of the annual Advanced Training Programme. Since its beginnings in 1963, more than 1,100 persons have participated in the annual residential programme of study in Paris. These persons constitute a very important network of educational planners and managers. And, over the years there has been informal ongoing contact between members of the network and IIEP staff.

As a first step, two Internet forums will be created - one for English-speaking and one for French-speaking. Alumni will be able to use the network to maintain regular and active contact with each other and with IIEP. The Internet is going to allow us to animate the network that has existed informally for so many years.

If you are a former ATP participant, please try to gain access to an e-mail address and get in touch. Send your e-mail address and the year of your participation in the ATP to Susan D’Antoni at s.dantoni@iiep.unesco.org.

Activities Autumn 2001

➤ Course on strategic financial management in universities
3 September – 23 November 2001
Open to universities on a fee basis

The course is offered in response to a preoccupation with the need to improve the effectiveness of the financial management of universities. Interested institutions may nominate a group of three to seven participants who will be supported by course materials and an interactive learning environment with the instructor and other participating institutions.

For further information contact John Hall before 29 June at j.hall@iiep.unesco.org.

➤ Education sector diagnosis
Invitational for the Asian region

The course will provide basic information and a practical orientation to the purposes, content approaches and ways of presenting education sector analyses; the main methods, instruments and indicators used for assessing trends, achievements and problems of educational development and the strengths and weaknesses of education sector management; important aspects of implementing an education sector diagnosis.

➤ A forum on the impact of HIV/AIDS on education
Open to former IIEP course participants and other interested persons

A forum will be held on a key topic within the theme of the impact of HIV/AIDS on education. Reference will be made to recent research studies and certain resources will be forwarded to participants as background to the forum. This forum will be in English; a subsequent forum in French is foreseen.

➤ A forum on multigrade classes
Open to interested persons in Francophone Africa

With support from the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs, IIEP has undertaken a study of multigrade classes in seven countries of Francophone Africa. Two Internet forums will be held to discuss the national reports prepared and the recommendations formulated by the members of the country teams. The language of discussion will be French.

Specific information on both forums will be mailed to all those on the Virtual Institute mailing list. Others should indicate their interest to the address below.

Contact for Virtual Institute:
Susan D’Antoni at s.dantoni@iiep.unesco.org
IIEP Web site at http://www.unesco.org/iiep
This course on the management and evaluation of technical and vocational education and training was organised with the Ministry of Education of Mozambique and the Southern Africa Development Community. It was conceived as a capacity building activity following the UNESCO International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education, held in Seoul in 1999.

Contact: d.atchoarena@iiep.unesco.org

A Policy Forum on ‘The organization of ministries of education’ (IIEP, Paris 20 – 21 June 2001)

This policy forum will bring together some 30 decision-makers and administrative officials in ministries of education as well as specialists in public administration in order to discuss current concerns and available options for the organization of ministries of education in both developing and industrialized countries. The discussions will be articulated around four main issues: the mediation between policy/political leaderships and administration; the internal management structures and regulating mechanisms; the interaction with the operational level (schools, teachers, students, etc.); and the relationship with the main stakeholders outside the education system. The forum will allow for an exchange of significant national and institutional experiences and aims to provoke discussion on promising patterns of organization. It should also engender some recommendations on the best way to address change and meet the challenges linked to the modernization of ministries.

Contact: e.zadra@iiep.unesco.org

A Working meeting of SACMEQ National Research Co-ordinators on ‘Data processing and policy reporting for the SACMEQ II Project’ (Mahe, Seychelles 20 – 27 June 2001)

The main objective of this meeting is to undertake computer-based data analyses for the second educational policy research project that is being conducted by the 15 countries involved in the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ). Policy reports will be prepared using the results of these data analyses. Finally, plans will be made for a SACMEQ Policy Forum to be held in Paris in October 2001.

Contact: k.ross@iiep.unesco.org

A Sub-regional workshop on ‘Institutional management in Central Asia’ (Almaty, Kazakhstan 30 July – 3 August 2001)

This course is intended for senior- and middle-level university managers (pro-vice chancellors, registrars, deputy registrars and finance officers) of selected Central Asian universities. It will deal with strategic and financial management in higher education institutions. The course will also provide a forum for the exchange of innovative experiences in university management for participants.

Contact: m.martin@iiep.unesco.org

The IIEP Newsletter is available on Internet: http://www.unesco.org/iiep