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List of abbreviations

EFA	Education For All
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILO	International Labour Organization
OECD	Organisation for economic cooperation and development
PISA	Program for international student assessment
PPP	Purchasing power parity
PTR	Pupil-teacher ratio
SACMEQ	The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

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Module 6: Teacher career and evaluation

..... MODULE 6

This module concerns the career and evaluation policies for teachers adopted and implemented in different countries. It presents the concepts and objectives of evaluation related to teachers' careers, as well as key aspects of organisation and implementation.

Part 1 defines the concepts of these two key elements of human resource management and what they represent, and summarises the main difficulties encountered and the basic principles of effective teacher career management and evaluation.

Part 2 outlines the principal choices regarding remuneration and teaching career systems and their respective consequences on the cost and quality of education.

Part 3 looks at the options and recent trends in teacher evaluation.



Objective of the module:

The central aim of Module 6 is to help you better understand and address the major issues related to the career and the evaluation of teachers. It should also enable you to contextualise the issues of career and evaluation, and the search for appropriate responses.



Content of the module:

The module covers the following points:

- Definitions, context and objectives of career management and teacher evaluation;
- Options and policy choices in terms of career management and evaluation;
- Advantages and disadvantages of different options depending on national context and political and economic orientations.



Expected learning outcomes:

- Demonstrate the role of effective teacher career management and evaluation in the performance of the education system;
- Discuss the different major options regarding the career and evaluation system, as well as their possible consequences, particularly on the costs and quality of education;
- Approach the envisaged policies and strategies contextually, more particularly according to budget constraints and the country's economic growth.



Questions for consideration:

In this module, you will be invited to answer some questions for consideration related to the content of the different parts. 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 6, we strongly recommend that you consult the following documents:

ILO. 2012. *Handbook of good human resource practices in the teaching profession*. Modules 2, 3 and 5. Geneva: ILO.

OECD. 2005. *Teachers matter: attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers*. Chapter 6. Paris: OECD, Directorate for education and skills.

ILO-UNESCO. 1966. *Recommendation concerning the status of teachers*. Paris and Geneva: ILO-UNESCO.

Martinet, M.A.; Raymond, D.; Gauthier, C. 2001. *Teacher training, orientations, professional competencies*. Montreal: Government of Quebec, Ministry of Education.

Pôle de Dakar. 2009. *Universal primary education in Africa: the teacher challenge*. Chapter 5. Dakar: UNESCO BREDA.

Part 1. Issue and concepts: definitions and key dimensions of career and teacher evaluation

1.1 The importance of career and evaluation

1.1.1 Introduction

To improve teacher motivation, the attraction of the profession and retention, teachers must have access to a diversified career structure enabling them to take on a variety of responsibilities, on the basis of clear and transparent criteria. Good teacher career management is essential for the improvement of teaching and consequently for the improvement of pupil learning. It needs to be based on an effective teacher evaluation system. However, the definition of career paths and the evaluation of personnel are complex issues for all education systems. The comparison of different education systems reveals a variety of choices in terms of career organisation and teacher evaluation, and some significant trends over the last years. These options and trends will be discussed throughout this module.

1.1.2 Clarifying the concepts

Career management

A career can be defined as all the steps covered throughout the professional life of an individual. It can be punctuated in many ways, according to changes of environment and/or of profession, success in competitive examinations or other examinations, etc.

All organisations must manage their employees' careers in such a way as to reach the best possible balance between workforce needs in the different structures, costs and the employer's expectations as to the work to be delivered by the employees on the one hand, and the potential and aspirations of staff on the other hand. This is what is called career management. We shall only look at teacher career management here.

According to a classical definition, career management is the overall set of management rules needed to organise the vertical and horizontal progression of personnel, otherwise known as mobility¹. In relatively flat systems with few hierarchical levels, career management refers more to capacity building. This enables employees to take on more responsibility, enjoy greater autonomy and benefit from additional training while continuing to hold down the same job.

Remuneration or reward system

Remuneration or reward is one of the fundamental vectors of staff career management. It is not just a simple economic transaction between an organisation paying for a factor of production and employees delivering the work. Remuneration enables the employees to satisfy a number of needs, which are variable depending on context and individuals and which partly determine their behaviour. Remuneration therefore has, over and above its economic aspect, a psychological and social dimension, which is to be found among others in the employees' attachment to the principle of equity. It also has an indirect impact on staff motivation.

¹ Traditionally, HRM distinguishes vertical and horizontal mobility (also called lateral mobility). Vertical (or ascending) mobility is the most traditional way of moving within an organisation: it is about climbing up the rungs of the ladder resulting in more responsibility and hierarchical recognition and a salary rise. It is considered in career terms and is synonymous of progression. It is acquired through internal promotion, internal recruitment and the recognition of acquired skills. This type of mobility is, by nature, relatively limited since it is conditioned by the possibilities of the organisation's organigram.

Teacher remuneration covers the sum of *monetary and non-monetary rewards*. In addition to the basic salary or wage, targeted allocations, bonuses and a wide range of financial and non-financial incentives, including pensions and other forms of social security, right to holiday and access to continuing training possibilities, all constitute levers for modulating teacher remuneration and strengthening their motivation.

In terms of basic wage, the *salary policy* in the civil service consists of increasing salaries in order for employees to maintain their purchasing power, depending on the economic situation and/or pressure from trade unions. For the education sector in particular, one fundamental question to be asked is what should the salary be in order to ensure both a quantitative supply of teachers and adequate professional returns in a given country?

Evaluation

Evaluation can be defined as the inspection of a teacher's work by the head teacher, an internal inspector and/or one of his/her own colleagues. The evaluation can be conducted in different ways: either according to an official, objective approach (e.g. in the framework of an official system of performance management, together with formalised procedures and criteria) or according to a more informal and more subjective approach (e.g. by means of an informal interview with the teacher) (OECD 2006).

Teacher evaluation systems serve several purposes that can be split into two main functions (ILO, 2012):

- i) Ensure that accountability and career objectives are met:
 - **Accountability:** mechanisms for teacher assessment and evaluation can increase accountability to the overall education system and its stakeholders (head teacher, pupils, parents, etc.).
 - **Career progression:** a key objective of teacher evaluation is the measurement of performance to enable teachers to move to a higher grade or a different position.
- ii) Promote teachers' professional development:
 - **Enhance professional development:** The teacher can, along with his/her evaluator, identify missing or weaker skills and develop a plan for improvement.
 - **Improve teaching and learning:** teacher evaluation should have as its central goal the improvement of teaching and learning. It includes the improvement of practices and reward. Diagnosis is formative, identifying weaknesses in teaching, and holistic, based on all variables in the school setting that affect teaching and learning.

1.1.3 Why enhance career opportunities?

Having a stimulating teaching career management system linked to evaluation is one of the major concerns of many governments with a view to improving the quality of education. There is indeed a relationship between career, appeal of the profession, teacher retention and ultimately, the quality of education. These connections are explored below.



Career and professional development opportunities

Career and training prospects often emerge as an important element for teachers when analysing their motivation and satisfaction. The SACMEQ analyses, for example, have revealed that, when questioned on aspects related to career, teachers place professional development opportunities among their major concerns, sometimes even above financial considerations (salary, housing). In Botswana, almost 96 % of teachers interviewed replied that professional development opportunities are “very important” (Keitheile & Masego, 2005). Moreover, surveys have shown that teacher satisfaction at work is linked to career prospects and the variety of functions (OECD, 2005). It can thus be assumed that teachers are motivated by career and professional development prospects and giving more attention to these areas should improve teacher retention and satisfaction and contribute to good quality teaching.

These studies reinforce the principles of human resource management according to which career, development and professional recognition are important factors of motivation. Motivation plays a role at each stage of the teacher’s career, from choosing to become a teacher to being assiduous at work and wanting to continue in the profession. Motivation theories are a useful aid in understanding what motivates teachers. Some of these are presented briefly in the box below insofar as they help in grasping the link between career and evaluation on the one hand and motivation (and indirectly the quality of teaching) on the other hand.

Box 1.1: Motivation linked to career and evaluation

Herzberg

Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1968), states that intrinsic factors or motivating factors, such as responsibility, recognition, stimulating work or promotion opportunities and capacity building give satisfaction. However, if these factors are lacking, they lead neither to dissatisfaction nor to satisfaction. On the other hand, if extrinsic factors, or what Herzberg calls « hygiene factors » (salary, status, work conditions, supervision and job security), are lacking or poor, they can lead to dissatisfaction.

« Hygiene factors » are so named because, just as a hygienic environment does not improve health, its absence may make health worse. This is why satisfaction at work begins once the basic hygiene factors are satisfactory. Related to teacher career management, this theory is important in that it points out that the basic conditions are needed for teachers to be motivated. When the basic conditions are not satisfactory, this will have a negative impact on teacher performance.

Locke

Locke's goal-setting theory (1968) states that an individual's motivation at work will be greater if he/she has been set goals. According to Locke, an individual guided by a goal thus performs better than an individual left to his/her own devices. However, the degree of influence on performance depends on two conditions: 1) feedback and 2) the individual's acceptance of the goal. This theory is important because it highlights the participative and consultative role of teachers (in setting the goals) and of regular evaluation. These two points are often lacking, especially in developing countries where teachers are rarely assessed and where, when goals are set, teachers have rarely been involved in their formulation.

Vroom

Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) claims that people are influenced by the expected results of their actions. It links an individual's motivation to his/her expectations and the chances he/she has of meeting them. What we do depends on what we expect to achieve from our actions. In other words, related to teachers, they will be motivated to improve their performance if they consider that their efforts will be recognised and rewarded. If teachers consider that the career system in place does not offer adequate opportunities and does not guarantee equal chances, then they could be less inclined to make the effort.

Adams

According to Adams' equity theory (1965), employee motivation depends on how employees respond to the perception of equity in their work environment. The worker is constantly going to compare the different conditions of his/her employment with those of other individuals. The underlying assumption is that employees strive to obtain a balance between their contributions and the benefits they derive from them. Benefits can include salary, incentive measures or other less tangible forms of recognition. If teachers are never visited or assessed, if they have no career prospects, it is hardly likely that they will feel inclined to endeavour to teach better.

This theory is particularly relevant when considering the multiplication of teacher status categories over the past decades, with considerable wage disparities, and the loss of appeal of the teaching profession compared to similar professions in other sectors. The equity principle is respected in the civil service for civil servant teachers but it can be felt as not respected by contract teachers and teaching assistants performing the same functions as civil servants but for lower pay.

Appeal of the profession and teacher retention

It is important to establish appropriate and relevant employment conditions and development possibilities for teachers in order to attract and retain the most qualified, experienced and motivated people; this is especially true in contexts of teacher scarcity experienced in many

developing and developed countries. A skillful combination of policies and incentive measures is required to address the challenge.

However, this task proves particularly arduous in contexts where education systems have had to cope with a significant increase in enrolments, especially in sub-Saharan Africa and in Southern Asia, where the teaching profession has undergone in-depth change. In many of these countries, strategies to address the immediate teaching needs have led to the recruitment of non-professional and contract teachers, contributing to a sort of 'deprofessionalisation' of the teaching profession and in some cases lessening its appeal. For example, a study conducted in Uganda revealed very low levels of satisfaction among teachers: one in five considered they were 'very dissatisfied' and only 41.0% would choose the teaching profession again if they had to start over in their career (UNESCO, 2010).

This is particularly important because society's perception of the profession and that of teachers themselves will have an impact on the inclination of high-quality candidates to choose teaching or not, on the capacity of systems to retain good teachers, and consequently on the capacity of the education system to deliver good-quality education. It is true that countries at the top of international pupil learning assessments, such as the Republic of Korea, Canada and Finland, have a teaching force that is held in high consideration, and teachers there benefit from strong support by means of professional development and adequate working conditions (UNESCO, 2005).

Pay obviously plays an important role in making the profession attractive. Research shows that the high level of salary offered to teachers in the highest performing countries mentioned above represents one of the key factors (among others). On the contrary, when teacher salaries are perceived as not corresponding to the required level of education, training and responsibility, or not enabling teachers to have a decent standard of living without a second job, the prestige of the teaching profession is diminished with negative effects on recruitment, teacher motivation and retention. Thus, very low salaries that are close to the poverty threshold in low-income countries result in recruitment difficulties, increased absenteeism and poor teacher performance (UNESCO, 2014).

1.2 Difficulties observed

Most countries have adopted a career structure organised around grades and within grades (echelons), a classification widely based on academic qualifications and progressive salary increments linked to the number of years of service and hierarchical position (see appendix). While progressive increments from one echelon to another according to the number of years of service is often automatic, more substantial salary rises, corresponding to a change of grade, are usually conditioned by the appraisal reports and/or qualifications obtained. A system where advancement is automatic and where there would be no evaluation of teachers' professional practices would present a dual risk: that of promoting all teachers in their career, whether good or bad, in the same way, and/or that of promoting teachers on subjective criteria that are often unfair and discouraging for the majority of teachers.

Career management is therefore complex and encounters some major obstacles that have to be removed. Studies conducted in different countries witness similarities in terms of the difficulties observed.

- **Career structures that are too flat:** i.e. with few hierarchical levels. This means that there are few positions of responsibility (head teacher, pedagogical advisor, regional manager, etc.) and consequently few possibilities for promotion. Advancement within a grade is often automatic but the prospects of progressing to another grade are much more limited due to the limited number of vacancies associated with the pyramidal structure of jobs in the school system. For example, in Zambia, 83% of teachers in primary schools are employed at the basic level, 8% as senior teachers, 4% as deputy heads and 5% as

head teachers (Pôle de Dakar, 2009). This situation creates tough competition for positions of responsibility.

- **Solely vertical career structures (no lateral mobility):** A vertical career structure means that promotion channels are limited to managerial or administrative posts. Typically, vertical promotion channels for teachers are as follows: deputy head, head teacher, school inspector, regional or district education manager, planning, consultation or management positions at central education, administration, or ministerial level. The lack of possibilities for horizontal mobility, such as positions as mentors, programme design specialists or managers of external relations and partnerships, encourage teachers wanting to progress to aspire to administrative positions in order to be better paid. Thus, for want of opportunities, the best teachers tend to leave the classrooms, which does not help to improve pupil learning.
- **A system based on length of service and not on merit:** In the civil service, both grade and within-grade (echelon) advancement and promotions are subject to precise regulations. Years of service and the rating given by the teacher's superior or passing a professional (competitive) examination are generally the criteria used. Yet there are far too few inspectors and inspection visits are very rare, which does not allow for true career management. Advancement takes place according to length of service and not according to merit, which can be extremely demotivating for teachers since they all progress at the same pace, whether good or bad, present or absent. In addition, this raises problems of equity because teachers in urban areas have an advantage over teachers in schools in remote areas who often do not benefit from inspection visits at all for several years². As for entrance examinations for posts such as inspector, these often seem to be organised very much at random and teachers can wait for several years before being able to apply.
- **Negative perception of evaluation:** In some cases, research shows that teachers have a negative perception of the supervisory or inspection visits instead of considering them as opportunities to improve their performance (CfBT, 2008). In such cases, teachers tend to conceal their weaknesses in order to have the best possible rating and do not benefit as they should from advice to improve their professional practices and, ultimately, to progress in their careers. This is linked to the tension inherent to evaluation, which aims at improving professional practices while having a decisive role in career development.
- **A lack of transparency:** Ratings are often subject to dispute and the staff concerned often consider promotions as being marred by subjectivity and favouritism. Moreover, teacher commitment can be affected by the lack of transparency in the personnel management system. Transparent recruitment processes that impose the publication of a vacancy with a precise job description, the identification of candidates with the right profile and their selection by interviews are often lacking. Besides, a number of studies have also highlighted political interferences and corruption in the teacher allocation processes (VSO, 2002; Hallak and Poisson, 2006; Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; CfBT, 2008).

² Moreover, where teachers do not receive regular feedback through effective inspection, their concerns will not receive any follow-up and consequently their motivation can be affected.

Box 1.2: Lack of transparency in teacher career management

Many countries are reported to have a lack of transparency in teacher management. For example, in Malawi, promotions based on interviews are widely criticised for their opacity (Bennell 2007). Similarly, in Eritrea, Zambia and Liberia, studies have demonstrated that head teachers are mainly appointed by local or regional administrative education officials, which has resulted in favouritism and even corruption (Mulkeen 2010).

Acts of corruption have been registered in the appointment and training of head teachers, bringing to light political interference and the weakness of the regulation system. In Niger, where head teachers are appointed according to their length of service and their training, a study revealed instances of teachers paying a bribe to be registered on training courses (Mulkeen 2010). In Pakistan, incentive measures for teachers are undermined by the patriarchal network that often decides who will be promoted and who will have access to training (Mulkeen 2010).

Providing a transparent promotion mechanism and ensuring that teachers in remote areas are not left out contribute to enhancing teacher motivation. Open competition and clear criteria mechanisms need to be developed in order to minimise interference and favouritism in promotions.

The example of Lesotho below provides a concrete illustration of the major concerns of the Ministry of Education regarding teacher career management issues and emphasises some of the points raised above with their consequences on teacher performance and retention.

Box 1.3: Career structures in Lesotho (2006)

In Lesotho, the Ministry of Education is seeking to revise the career and salary structure of the teaching service that was established in the 1990's. One of the stated objectives is to « enhance the competitiveness of teaching as a career prospect for school leavers in light of increased demand for good quality teachers and other available career opportunities in the public and private sectors » (MOET, 2006: 1). Propositions were put forward in December 2006 and, at the time of writing, the proposed Teaching Service Management structure had not yet been approved. The report (prepared by the Ministry of Education) qualifies the current situation of education as one that: « 1) does not appropriately reward attributes among teachers that have a direct impact on quality education, 2) is not cost-effective and does not offer good value for money and 3) has become increasingly cumbersome to administer » (MOET, 2006: 1).

Among the problems identified are: the lack of professional development of teachers under what is basically a salary structure rather than a career structure; a career progression based solely on experience and qualifications without rewarding competence; an unjustifiable gap between the salary of primary and secondary teachers; 'flat-rate' annual increases across the payroll, widening the gap between those at the bottom of the salary scale and others; fierce competition for few positions of responsibility; retention of untrained people; incapacity of schools in difficult-to-reach areas to attract certified teachers and insufficiency of the hardship allowance to curb the high staff turnover in those areas. The report adds that there is a growing perception that teachers are demotivated and demoralized, as illustrated by rampant ill discipline, high teacher attrition and recent petitions to Government by the teacher associations » (MOET, 2006: 2-3).

Source: Mariti, 2010, p. 33



Question for consideration

Based on the example of Lesotho in Box 1.3, can you comment on the situation in your country? Are there any similarities?

1.3 Key principles

The analysis of the problems observed brings to light the need for diversification in teaching careers and the necessity of setting up objective evaluation systems. In order to make the profession more attractive and to improve teacher retention, teachers must be able to benefit from a diversified career structure enabling them to take on varied responsibilities and to have clear and transparent criteria for professional advancement. These major principles are stipulated in the 1966 ILO/UNESCO Recommendation concerning the status of teachers.

- **Career diversification:** According to ILO (2012), the career structure should be “*flexible, with multiple and diverse career paths*”. Teachers should be given the opportunity to move towards positions such as inspector, head teacher, or director of education. However, a good career structure will also be diversified and allow teachers who want to keep teaching to do so. Though more diversified career structures have been developed since the 1990’s, in many countries most career advancement opportunities take teachers out of the classroom, which can create problems both in terms of rewarding and keeping teachers in place, and in terms of offering flexible and therefore attractive career options”.
- **Evaluation criteria:** Teacher evaluation is only relevant if based on criteria that precisely reflect the main characteristics of the function under consideration. It is therefore essential to have clear criteria for the classification of posts or jobs in order to respect the principles of equity, transparency and impartiality. In addition, the identification of the skills and know-how conditioning the optimal accomplishment of the missions associated with the function is a prerequisite. For each type of job (or type of occupation) or specific post, the activities, competences and job performance indicators should be described in the form of skills frameworks (presented in more detail in Part 3). These reference standards are present in the education sector in all countries for teachers of all levels and are being developed for inspectors, head teachers and administrative personnel.

Box 1.4: What are the components of an effective teacher career system?

- Existence of a career path open to all teachers.
- Career paths related to qualifications, professional competence and other objective criteria.
- Presence of formal reward or recognition systems for good performance.
- Provision of opportunities for professional development.
- Management practices perceived as fair and reasonable (including procedures for transfer, promotion, discipline, and handling of harassment and discrimination).

Source: Halliday, 1995



Highlights

Good career management is a key factor for teacher motivation and retention, the attractiveness of the profession and consequently the quality of education. The key principles and measures to be taken into account in career management include:

- a regular and objective evaluation system that accompanies teachers in their professional development;
- diversified careers and promotion opportunities;
- professional advancement and career progression based on transparent and impartial criteria.

Part 2: The consequences of different choices on costs and on quality of education

2.1 Introduction

This part will cover the main aspects of the career system for teachers, where choices have to be made regarding the consequences in terms of costs and quality of education. These aspects include the level of teachers' qualifications, the average level and structure of remuneration, the status of teachers and the type of career progression (horizontal or vertical) they can aspire to.

The discussion of the possible options concerning the career system will start from some major questions on which to base choices for the management of teaching staff. Some recent trends as to the choices actually adopted in different countries will also be highlighted.

2.2 What should the required level of qualification be?

2.2.1 Options

Teacher qualification standards are diverse. Overall, at secondary level, a minimum of 12 to 17 years of completed education is required to teach. According to the international standard classification of education, that ranges from the end of lower secondary education to the first level of studies in tertiary education (Baccalaureate + 2 years). Standards vary much more for primary teachers (between 9 and 17 years of studies!).

The definition or the adoption of an official qualification norm in a given country does not necessarily guarantee that all teachers in service actually meet this standard. For lower secondary education for example, some countries have only a small proportion of teachers with the officially required level even though this is relatively low (Uganda, Laos, Kenya). On the contrary, some other countries have stipulated high levels of qualification and have also registered a high proportion of teachers with the required levels or even with higher levels (Burkina Faso, Cuba).

Depending on the abundance of the workforce, the average level of the population's qualifications, the priority granted to this criterion, and above all the country's financial resources, the required level of qualification is not the same. The table below gives an idea of the situation for a sample of countries.

Table 2.1: Standards of qualification for teachers by country

	Baseline year	Primary		Lower secondary		Upper secondary	
		Years of study corresponding to the standard qualification	Proportion of teachers with standard qualification	Years of study corresponding to the standard qualification	Proportion of teachers with standard qualification	Years of study corresponding to the standard qualification	Proportion of teachers with standard qualification
Burkina Faso	2002	10	98	16	100	16	100
Lao PDR	2002	9	45	13	46	16	x
Cambodia	2003	13	97	15	98	16	97
Chad	2003	13	38	15	35	15	47
Mali	2003	12	75	12	X	16	...
Uganda	2004	13	82	13	44	15	32
Bangladesh	...	13	67	17	37	17	21
Bolivia	2003	13	74	13	74	15	79
Guinea	2003	14	25	16	...	16	...
Kenya	...	14	88	14	4	14	X
Lebanon	2003	14	60	14	76	17	33
Lesotho	2003	14	67	14	83	16	X
Niger	2003	14	76	15	90	16	92
Senegal	2003	14	95	15	100	15	100
Syria	2003	13	91	13	X	16	69
Cuba	2003	17	100	17	84	17	85
Ecuador	2000	16	87	16	65	16	X
El Salvador	2003	15	80	15	X	15	60
Kazakhstan	2004	14	47	14	56	14	83
Oman	2004	16	100	16	100	16	...
Samoa	2005	16	91	16	92	16	80
South Africa	2003	17	81	17	...	17	...
Zimbabwe	2004	16	83	16	59	16	x

Note: the letter x indicates that, for the country and the level of education being considered, the proportion of teachers for that level is included in the value displayed for the level of education immediately below.

Source: UIS/UNESCO

2.2.2 Consequences in terms of cost

In most countries throughout the world, the public sector associates specific levels of remuneration with levels of qualification. In other words, the higher the teacher's level of qualifications, the more he/she will be paid. Considerations on the respective consequences of different qualification options on salary expenditure lead us to those on the options concerning the level of teacher remuneration and their consequences (below).

It can be noted here however that it is precisely due to this 'rigid' association between the level of qualification and the level of remuneration of civil servants that many low-income countries engaged in the expansion of their education system and of their teacher workforce have recruited more and more teachers without the formally required level of qualification or the status of civil servant.

2.2.3 Consequences on quality of education

A vast debate was initiated a few years ago as to the consequences of lowering the formal levels of teacher qualification on professional performance and on the quality of education. Please refer to Module 3 of the training course in this respect.

In the context of a teaching career reform, lowering the formally required levels of qualification is usually neither desirable nor feasible from a social and a political stand. The core issue to be solved is to know how – through which approach, organisation and training modalities - the targeted level of qualification can be achieved.

2.3 What average level of pay?

2.3.1 Options

The average level and the structure of remuneration throughout a teacher's career have significant consequences on cost (salary expenditure) and indirectly on the volume of teaching staff, on the satisfaction of the latter and so on the quality of instruction.

In practice, the level of teacher remuneration (measured as a percentage of GDP per capita) varies substantially. It ranges from a ratio equal to or under 1 (or even less than average wealth per capita) to a level 8 times (or more) higher than the average national wealth (see Table 2.2). The level of salary varies relatively little between primary teachers and secondary teachers in most areas of the world, except in most Arab countries and especially in sub-Saharan Africa where there is a salary difference of over 50% between primary and lower secondary teachers. It is to be noted that the average teacher salary can also vary according to the required level of qualification (see section 2.2.2).

Table 2.2: Average teacher salary (% of GDP per capita) by level of education (2008 or closest year)

	Primary	Secondary 1	Secondary 2
Arab countries (5 countries)	286	362	388
Eastern and Central Europe (4 countries)	91	91	97
Pacific and East Asia (6 countries)	136	138	139
Latin America and Caribbean (5 countries)	96	106	107
North America and Western Europe (18 countries)	105	112	120
South and West Asia	-	-	-
Sub-Saharan Africa (25 countries)	432	658	807

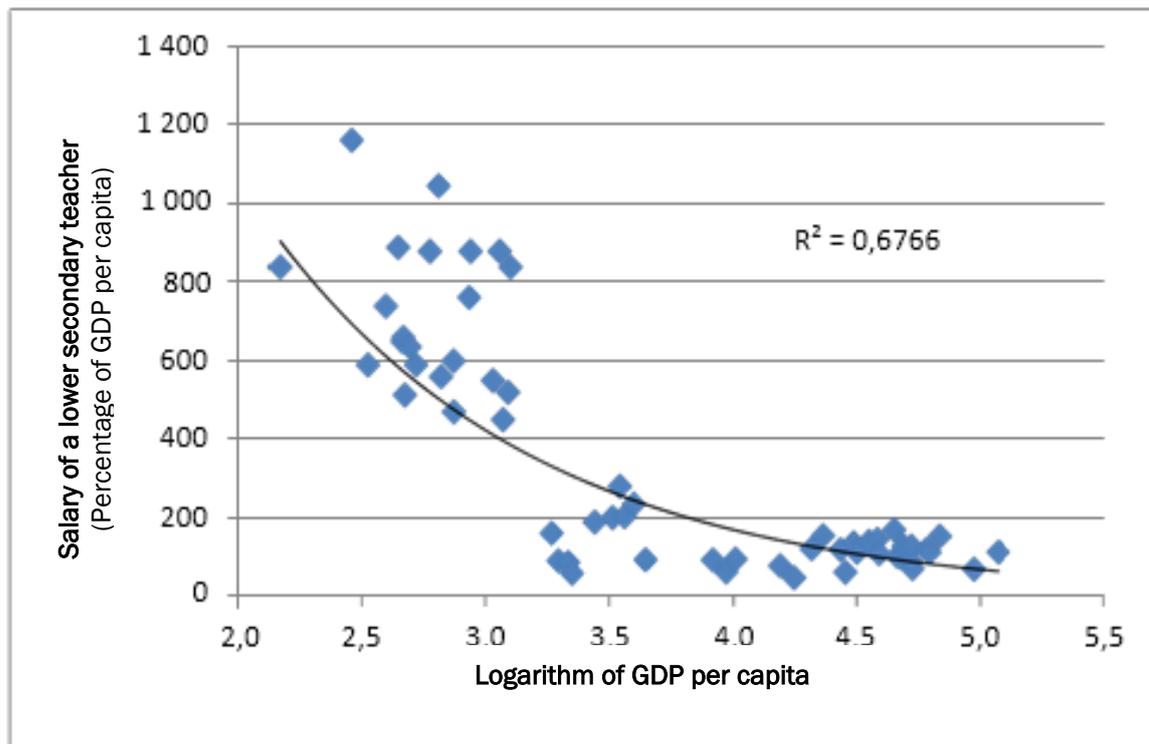
Note: These are simply arithmetic averages based on some countries in the different regions. The number of countries taken into account is indicated in brackets.

Source: UIS World Bank

In fact, the level of teacher remuneration expressed as a percentage of GDP per capita depends mainly on the level of each country's economic development. Empirical studies (Mingat, 2004)

have thus shown that when wealth (in GDP per capita) increases, the average teacher salary/GDP per capita ratio decreases. The graph below provides an overview of the situation for upper secondary education for a sample of countries in the world (same sample as for Table 2.2).

Figure 2.1: Evolution of the salary of a lower secondary teacher in relation to GDP per capita



In nominal terms, teachers' salaries in economically developed countries remain, of course, far higher than those of their colleagues in the least developed countries. However, when brought down to average available wealth per capita, then teachers in economically less developed countries seem to be in a relatively more favourable situation. Moreover, teachers' salaries in some less developed countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), are distinctly higher than in other countries of comparable economic level (Asia or Latin America for example).

However, the comparison of teachers' salaries in relation to GDP per capita proves to be a risky exercise, the difficulties of which are detailed in Box 2.1 below. It is essential to complete the analysis by studying other variables such as cost of living, salary level of other professions in the same context and working a second job as some teachers do, etc.

Box 2.1: Difficulties related to the comparison of teacher salaries

Measuring salary levels, and especially making comparisons between them, turns out to be fairly complex. Firstly, few international data take into account the different salary levels of teachers according to their qualifications and experience (Gannicott, 2009). These analyses should also include teachers' additional advantages (housing, insurance, etc.), which are very significant in some countries (UIS, 2006).

It is even more complex to draw comparisons between countries. Indeed, the official rates of exchange do not always reflect the actual purchasing power of a country's inhabitants and conversions of local currency into a single currency are therefore misleading. Two alternative methods are therefore preferred for international comparisons: use of values measured in purchasing power parity (PPP) and salaries expressed in relation to GDP per capita for each

country. The advantage of the latter indicator is that it is quite simple and intuitive and can compare the evolution of teacher salaries over time, compared to that of GDP per capita, especially in the case of a developing country (Gannicott, 2009).

Nevertheless, this type of comparison can prove misleading: when the salary is brought down to GDP per capita, teachers in less developed countries seem to be at an advantage compared to those in developed countries. The level of teacher remuneration expressed in relation to GDP per capita is a function of the level of the economic development of each country: when a country becomes wealthier, salaries decrease in relation to GDP (Mingat, 2004). In relative terms, teachers' salaries are therefore higher in lesser-developed countries. That is explained by the fact that people in these countries work mainly in the informal sector and live in conditions of extreme poverty, the average GDP per capita usually being insufficient to offer the minimum conditions for a decent standard of living. In comparison, teachers' salaries set by central public administration thus appear high, whereas many teachers have a second job in order to meet their needs. In so-called developed countries, on the contrary, the average wealth per capita is usually sufficient to provide minimum decent living conditions and teachers' salaries are set so that they are not too far removed from GDP per capita. Besides, as the employment sector is much more developed, there is a strong chance that a teacher's family will not depend solely on the teacher's salary for a living. Finally, other issues are at play for comparisons in the framework of tertiary education. Indeed, the latter generally takes place on an international scale and both the price of equipment and teachers' salary expectations are not related to the economic situation of a country, which distorts the comparison (Tan and Mingat, 1992).

The comparison with GDP per capita does not therefore provide a full picture of the reality of each country and other indicators must be used in order to describe the level of teachers' salaries: comparisons with other professions in the country, a study of the cost of living, the number of teachers who have a second job, etc.

It can nevertheless be interesting to study the relationship between salary and GDP per capita in order to assess to what extent the government has the financial capacity to offer salaries that can make the profession attractive.

2.3.2 Consequences on costs and on quality of education

In contexts of continued or accelerated expansion of their education systems, some countries are faced with a double challenge regarding the level of teacher remuneration. How can a level of teacher salary be established that is compatible with both their budget constraints and the quantitative and qualitative objectives of the expansion of their education system?

As already highlighted in the previous modules, in these contexts, teacher salary levels that are too high can make it impossible to recruit sufficient numbers of teachers. The effects of policy choices regarding teacher remuneration and career on the quality of education must however be taken into account. The quality of education is in fact connected to the level of teacher remuneration, even if the relationship between the two factors is complex. A relatively attractive salary can be a considerable source of motivation for teachers. It can attract candidates with the highest qualifications to the profession and retain them in the profession for a long period of time, thus leading to an improvement in the quality of the educational process. A relatively low salary is liable to affect the attractiveness of the profession and teacher motivation but enables the employer (i.e. the government) to have a larger stock of teachers, leading to the reduction of the pupil-teacher ratio, which can, at least in principle, also result in an improvement of learning conditions.

Subsequently, a compromise needs to be found between the policies enabling a reasonable pupil-teacher ratio (as well as other conditions for quality instruction) and the policy enabling to attract and retain the best personnel. While the contexts and challenges are certainly different,

SSA countries where schooling, especially post-primary, is expanding will find themselves in the coming years faced with situations that their Asian neighbours had to face one or two decades earlier. Countries in Asia like Singapore, Korea, Hong Kong, Japan and Taiwan have for example opted for a relatively large class size, so as to employ fewer teachers than other comparable systems within the OECD.

Moreover, while it is true that some of these provisions fall within the legislative sphere (legal texts revising the salary scale and the teacher advancement system for example), others are implicit and fall *de facto* within the economic sphere without a particularly high social cost. This is more particularly the case when the economies of these countries are to experience sustained growth and salaries are also to increase, but at a slower pace than the economy. In this way, despite the increase in salaries in nominal and even real terms, relative salaries (related to GDP per capita) will decrease and gradually level off enabling these countries to have sufficient human resources at their disposal to face the needs for the expansion of their education system coverage. This must be combined with effective teacher allocation and utilisation.

However, analyses do not demonstrate a proven statistical link between the average teacher salary level (and so the level of salary expenditure on teachers) and the development of educational coverage. Everything seems to indicate that teacher remuneration lacks elasticity (i.e. is difficult to modify) in the face of rapidly increasing needs, and that it is basically influenced by the specific context and history of each country (economic situation, strength or weakness of trade unions, inflexibility of legislation to do with teacher recruitment and dismissal, etc.).

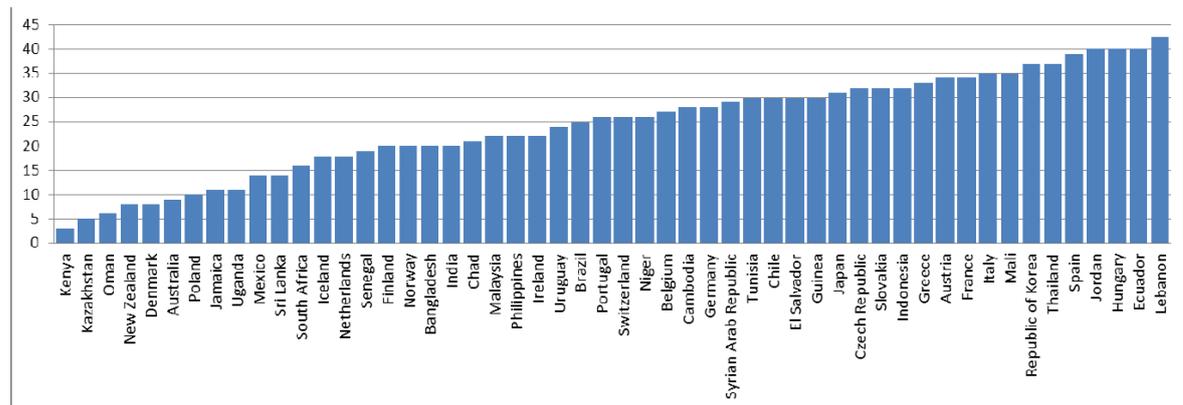
2.4 What remuneration structure?

2.4.1 Options

Just as for the (average) level of salary, the structure of remuneration throughout a teacher's career varies considerably from one country to another. The possible choices (in principle) are therefore multiple: some countries have opted for a (relatively) high level of teacher remuneration upon recruitment at the start of the career, others for a significant salary rise after at least 15 years of service. Some countries have opted for very high increases in the course of the career (the salary at the end of the career being as such a multiple of the entrance salary), others for a very 'flat' salary scale progression, i.e. with very few increases.

Thus, it can be noted from a series of data compiled by UIS in 2003 that the number of years of service needed for a secondary teacher to progress from the minimum to the maximum salary varies from only 3 years in Kenya to 43 years in Lebanon. On average (for the 24 countries where data are available), approximately 24 years are needed for a secondary teacher to earn the maximum salary (see graph below).

Figure 2.2: Number of years to progress from the minimum to the maximum salary (secondary education)



Source: UIS, 2003

Even the best-performing countries in the PISA (Program for international student assessment) do not have uniform regulations on this point. In fact, among the ten highest performing countries in the ranking from the latest 2009 assessment, the number of years needed to progress from the minimum to the maximum salary ranges from 9 (Australia) to 37 (South Korea).



Question for consideration

Do you know what the average salary is for a primary teacher and a secondary teacher in your country expressed in GDP per capita? Have you observed the adoption of measures aimed at reducing payroll costs (diversification of status categories, freeze on advancement, etc.) in the last few decades?

2.4.2 Consequences on costs and on quality of education

Regarding their respective consequences in terms of cost, it is of course obvious that the most 'expensive' remuneration systems are those which combine a high entrance salary level with substantial and continuous progression throughout every teacher's career. The cost lessens when the entrance salary, the degree of progression or the duration of progression, or when several of these factors, are strictly curbed.

For the needs of the quality of learning, a 'long career', i.e. late achievement of the salary ceiling, could encourage teachers to continue performing well throughout their career and to establish an element of competition among teachers (especially when coupled with non-automatic

advancement based on rigorous performance monitoring). This could lead to continuing professional dedication from teachers and, at the end of the day, to good school results for pupils.

However, according to the findings of certain comparative research (conducted in Asia) reviewed in this document, it is noted that in countries characterised by high levels of pupil performance (in international tests) at the end of lower secondary education, teachers have a relatively high level of education and salary, especially entrance salary, and in any case quite comparable to those of similar professions.

Remuneration policy can vary depending on whether the country's priority is to attract candidates to the profession or to retain teachers in the system. In an economy with a fairly low rate of unemployment and plenty of job opportunities for young people arriving on the employment market, competition can be fierce between the teaching profession and other professions. In this case, the policy of remuneration and its accompanying measures (job stability, longer holidays, etc.) must be defined so as to encourage talented youth to enter the teaching profession rather than another profession. The starting salary can then be set in such a way as to be not too far removed from that of comparable professions. At the same time, in order to control salary expenditure, it could be advisable to limit salary progression (at least for automatic advancement) throughout the career.

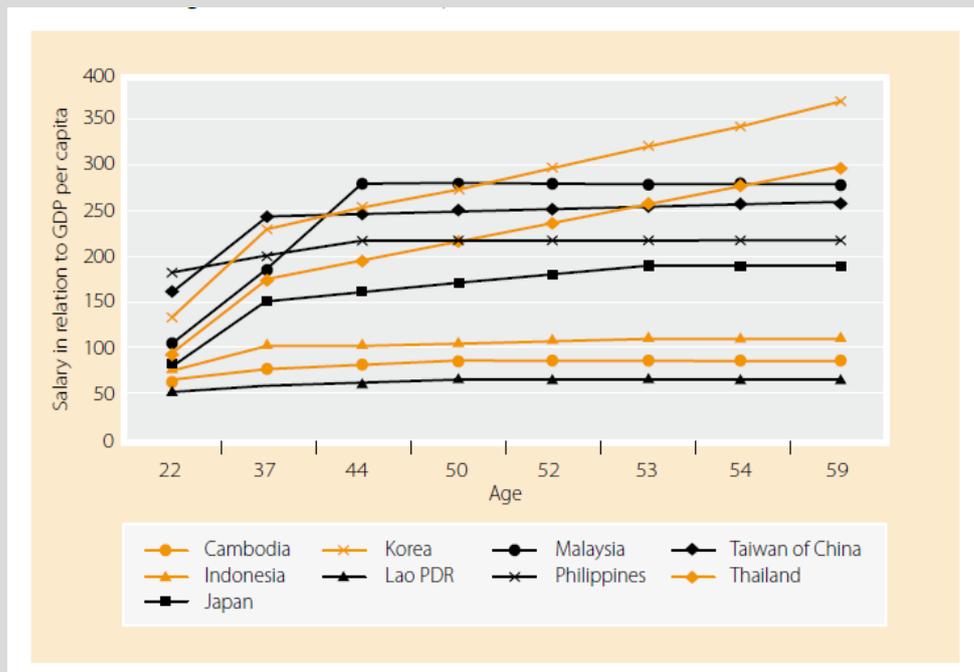
On the contrary, an economy with an abundant supply of graduates compared to job opportunities in the modern sector (in a word, a country with a high rate of graduate unemployment) will have no difficulty finding candidates for recruitment. In this context, competition is very tough, with several tens of applicants applying for a single vacancy. In this case, it may be wise to limit starting salaries. This can discourage just anyone from knocking on the door of teaching. However, a system is required whereby only those candidates effectively able and motivated to embrace a teaching career are selected. An appropriate promotion and salary increase mechanism (based on evaluation or competitive examinations) could thereafter lead teachers to reach a more decent level of remuneration fairly rapidly or more gradually.

Box 2.2: Contextualised choices for teacher remuneration structure

Some countries have introduced a teacher career structure that includes highly competitive salaries and possibilities of promotion. Indonesia, for example, has recently introduced a reform on teacher remuneration based on the principle that teaching is a 'profession' and therefore worthy of appropriate remuneration. The reform enabled teacher salaries to be doubled, thereby reducing the number of teachers having to count on a second job to secure other sources of income (Chang et al., 2014).

Studies conducted by UNESCO in Bangkok on secondary teacher salary policy in Asia have however shown that it is not always necessary to pay teachers throughout their career salaries as high as in comparable professions. A common characteristic of top-performing countries is that the attractiveness of remuneration is concentrated at the start of the career (this is called 'front-loading'), i.e. starting salaries are comparable to alternative public and private sectors and undergo a substantial rate of increase in the first few years (Gannicott, 2009). This is the case in Taiwan for example, as shown in the graph below. Lower secondary teachers start their career with an attractive salary over 1.5 times GDP per capita, with significant increases in the first years of service before reaching a plateau where salary progression is much less pronounced.

Figure 2.3: Salary of lower secondary teachers in relative terms



Source: Gannicott, 2009: 62³

The consequences of a level of remuneration and a career structure that are inadapted to the national context can contribute to lower learning achievements and to teacher dissatisfaction.

2.5 One status or many?

2.5.1 Options

When the members of ILO and UNESCO agreed on the Recommendation of 1966, teachers in most countries were civil servants or had an equivalent status in their country's administrative system (with permanent contracts). However, since the 1990's, the trend in some countries has been to drop civil servant teacher status and favour short-term contracts, sometimes by recruiting less qualified candidates with temporary contracts, a lower salary and fewer benefits. These 'new' teachers are frequently called «paraprofessionals» or are referred to in other terms, and their characteristics and employment conditions vary widely⁴. They are particularly common in some parts of Southern Asia and West and Central Africa.

The multiplication of status categories is the main policy option used by many developing countries to tackle the challenge of the necessary adjustment of the teacher remuneration policy in order to continue, and to accelerate, the development of their education system. This is true for the march toward (primary) Education for All and all the more so in the framework of the development of secondary education. Since, in practice, adopting a measure or a legal text to lower the salaries of existing personnel is not something that can be envisaged by public authorities (as it would go against ethics and above all would have uncontrollable social consequences), the solution has been to create, willingly or not, new teacher status categories. The denomination of the different teacher status categories can vary considerably from one country to another but three main categories can be singled out:

³ Indonesia has modified its teacher remuneration system since then.

⁴ Contract teachers are also called « temporary », « auxiliary », « voluntary », « para teachers » or « community » teachers.

- Permanent State employees (or civil servants) who are the best paid and who benefit from the advantages linked to work in the civil service;
- State contract staff: these are teachers who accept to work outside the framework of the labour convention. As such, they receive a salary for their work, but this is often lower than that of their civil servant colleagues. In addition, they do not have other benefits (such as holidays, pension or health insurance), as provided for by the public sector employment laws and the laws applied in the private sector;
- Community teachers: sometimes also called voluntary teachers, parent teachers or supply teachers. These teachers are directly recruited and managed by the head teachers or the parents. Their salary is often ridiculously low.

By way of example, around two in three secondary teachers in Benin are temporary teachers (part-time contract teachers with a particularly precarious status). In public secondary schools in Togo, in 2010-2011, a little over 22% of classroom teachers were voluntary teachers paid directly by the parents' associations. Their salary is the equivalent of around 10% of that of civil servants. When these teachers are added to the State contract teachers, it appears that approximately half of the secondary teacher workforce in the country are not civil servants.

This situation corresponds more or less to the situation in most sub-Saharan African countries.

2.5.2 Consequences on costs and on quality of education

The rapid growth in pupil enrolments registered in many countries over the past years would no doubt not have been possible without the contribution of these new teacher categories. If the development of secondary education coverage were to be continued, or even to be generalised (at least lower secondary education) in the coming years, it would be difficult for countries to do without these new categories of teachers or to reform the overall teacher career and salary scale with a view to a global reduction in salary expenditure.

At present, policy makers in countries that have opted for the diversification of status categories are faced with the challenge of effectively supervising these new teacher categories, especially teachers directly paid by parents or recruited (as temporary teachers or part-time supply teachers) with no training and no supervision/inspection whatever.

Another major difficulty encountered by this policy option is that of maintaining teacher categories with very different conditions of service on a parallel over the long term. When teachers fulfil similar, or even identical, tasks but with different employment terms and working conditions, it can raise issues regarding the principles of equity.

Box 2.3: Possible effects of an increase in the share of non-civil servant teachers (at lower levels of salary and/or qualification)

Increasing the share of non-civil servant teachers (at lower levels of salary and/or qualification) enables savings on expenditure by limiting the increase in salary expenditure. This may be considered an adequate temporary solution in special circumstances such as (i) the need for a rapid increase in enrolments requiring more teachers to be hired, (ii) the reduction of the pupil-teacher ratio (PTR), (iii) a context of strong budget constraint and (iv) in order to reduce teacher shortages in remote areas.

However, this choice can have consequences on effectiveness. Teachers with lower status and remuneration can leave the teaching profession fairly rapidly and participate little or not at all in in-service training.

The diversification of status categories and remuneration also tends to foster conflict and strikes except if clear arrangements are set up for the subsequent integration of contract/community teachers in the framework of a career system for all.

For example, in Senegal, in 2004 over half of primary teachers were volunteer/contract teachers costing one-third of the average salary cost of civil servant teachers. As a result, the PTR dropped from 49:1 to 33:1 and the enrolment rate increased by 67% between 2004 and 2011. Nevertheless, this created some tension between civil servants and non-civil servants and Senegal has revised its career structure in order to create pathways for contract staff to be granted tenure (subject to obtaining the necessary qualifications).

2.6 Horizontal progression versus vertical progression

A key problem of career structures for teachers in many countries is that they privilege a vertical route, from teacher to head teacher and higher managerial positions. This encourages teachers to leave the classroom and results in a loss of experience and expertise in teaching, where they are most needed.

That is why a debate has been initiated (i) on more 'horizontal' career structures that encourage the best teachers to continue teaching and, more generally (ii) on the diversification of routes for progression (including vertical progression) over the course of a career.

2.6.1 Horizontal progression options

There are a number of ways of keeping experienced teachers in the classroom while ensuring that their skills are more widely shared. A horizontal progression will include several categories with corresponding levels of salary. Horizontal career progression possibilities usually include the possibility of remaining in the classroom as an expert teacher (the main function still being teaching) or of combining teaching activities with other specialised functions such as mentoring, curriculum development or professional development. These different specialised functions can also be performed outside the school (mentoring in a network of schools, forming groups of teachers or developing study or research programmes).

Moving from one category to another, of a higher level, requires the teacher to demonstrate greater degrees of knowledge and skill, constituting the determining factor for advancement. In addition to an increase in salary, these positions can come with additional rewards (grade and subject coordinator allocations or mentoring allocations, reduced teaching hours). It is essential for each category to be associated with a clear skills framework, which describes the required standards of performance and proven evidence for their definition.

Depending on the country, there are a variety of categories based on experience and competence, and accompanied by different levels of responsibility. Thus, in the classroom context, teachers can progress from graduate teachers to leading teachers (as is the case in the State of Victoria in Australia, see box 2.4).

Box 2.4: Diversified career structure for classroom teaching in the State of Victoria, Australia

In the State of Victoria in Australia, there are three categories of classroom teachers, with corresponding salary range, and a fourth category with greater leadership and managerial responsibilities. Beyond these teacher grades, there are also possibilities of moving towards management positions such as grade level coordinator, assistant principal, principal and regional or district official. To move from one grade to the other, especially at higher levels, teachers must apply to advertised positions and demonstrate their skills.

Graduate teachers

- First category for the new teacher, receive support and guidance from teachers at higher levels
- Focus on further developing skills and competencies, classroom management, subject content and teaching practice
- Plan and teach their own classes in one or more subjects
- May also assist and participate in policy development, project teams and organization of co-curricular activities

Accomplished teachers

- Focus on the planning, preparation and teaching of programmes to achieve specific student outcomes
- Teach a range of students/classes and are accountable for the effective delivery of their programmes
- Operate under general direction within clear guidelines following established practices and documented priorities
- May have responsibility for the supervision and training of one or more student teachers

Expert teachers

- Play a significant role in assisting to improve student performance and education outcomes as determined by the school strategic plan and state-wide priorities
- Focus on increasing the knowledge base of staff about student learning and high quality instruction, to assist their school to define quality teacher practice

Leading teachers

- Outstanding classroom teachers
- Undertake leadership and management roles commensurate with their salary range
- Responsible for the implementation of one or more priorities contained in the school strategic plan
- Coordinate a large number of staff to achieve improvements in teaching and learning
- Focus on the introduction and changes in methods and approaches to teaching and learning

Source: Government of Victoria, 2009; OECD, 2005 cited in ILO, 2012.

In the same way, when teachers combine classroom teaching and specialised functions, they can fulfil several roles, such as:

- **Mentor teachers:** they are responsible for the supervision of trainee teachers and/or the induction of new teachers, as well as for providing advice and support, as for example in Brazil where strengthening teamwork and knowledge sharing on good practices are expected of experienced teachers.
- **Advanced teachers:** they provide pedagogical leadership, advice and support to their peers within or outside their school.

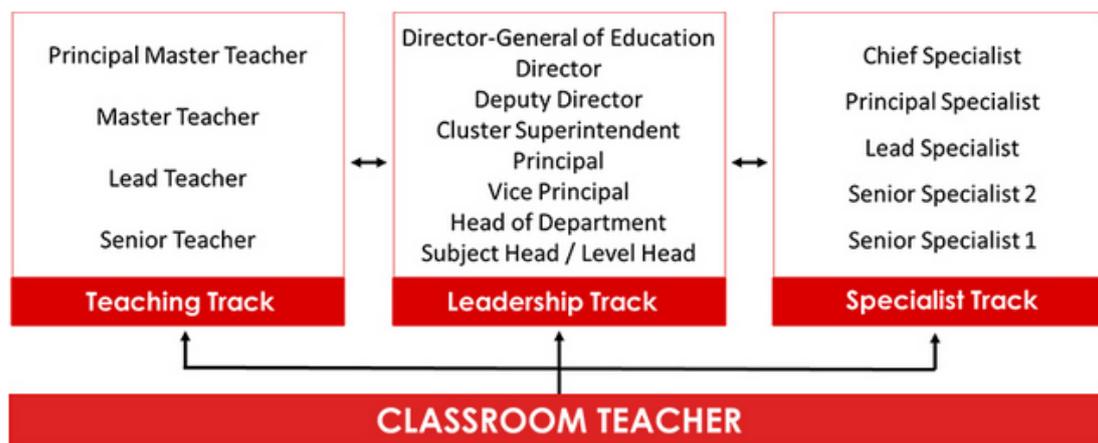
- Curriculum development, research and professional practice specialists: these teachers can be invited to participate in school curriculum changes, research and advances in professional development and practice.

While it is important to offer teachers flexible career options, the vertical route should be kept open towards management and administrative posts and these positions should be entrusted as far as possible to experienced teachers, with provision of appropriate training for these job types, which are more and more demanding and multidimensional, and for which teachers are often not prepared ⁵.

2.6.2 Career diversification

Some countries have opted for the creation of career tracks enabling teachers to change course during their career in order to make teachers' careers more flexible and varied. This is the case of Singapore where teachers can choose between three tracks according to their skills, expertise and interests. As shown in Figure 2.4, teachers can follow a "teaching" track (horizontal promotion in the classroom), a "leadership" track (vertical promotion) or a "specialist" track (horizontal promotion with specialised functions). That enables teachers to progress in their career in a specific branch or to move from one track to another in the framework of their professional development.

Figure 2.4: Different career tracks for teachers in Singapore



Note: The Teaching Track provides professional development and advancement opportunities for teachers who are keen to further develop their pedagogical capability. The Leadership Track gives teachers the opportunity to take on leadership positions in schools and the Ministry. The

⁵ In fact, vertical promotion of teachers is beneficial when accompanied by adequate training and support. Teachers who are familiar with classroom reality and the school environment are more apt to incorporate their knowledge of this environment in their new role. This can mean that their expectations and their management of schools and teachers are fairer and more realistic. However, there is a risk of their contribution being limited through lack of training, in which case they may duplicate existing practice rather than initiate significant change.

Specialist Track is open to teachers who are interested in more specialised areas, such as the development of school curricula for example.

Source: <https://www.moe.gov.sg/careers/teach/career-information>



Question for consideration

What opportunities for lateral mobility exist in your country? Do you think that the balance between vertical and horizontal promotion could be improved?

2.6.3 Differentiating career progression

Some countries have set up systems to differentiate teacher careers by accelerating the career of the most deserving teachers. This is the case in France and Morocco where three rates of progression exist: fast, medium and slow. Depending on their rating, teachers move in the echelons at different paces. The fastest pace is called 'major choice' (*grand choix*) while the slowest pace corresponds to the length of service. In France, teachers who have been in 'major choice' (*grand choix*) throughout their career will reach the last echelon after 18 years and 6 months. Those in 'length of service' throughout their career will reach the last echelon after 26 years and 6 months. There is thus a difference of 8 years, which is huge in financial terms. Similarly, in Morocco, teachers with good evaluations can reach the maximum salary after 21 years compared to 30 years for length of service. For this method to work, teachers must be confident in the evaluation system and the latter must be effective in order for all teachers to benefit from it.

Table 2.3: Pace of advancement in Morocco and France

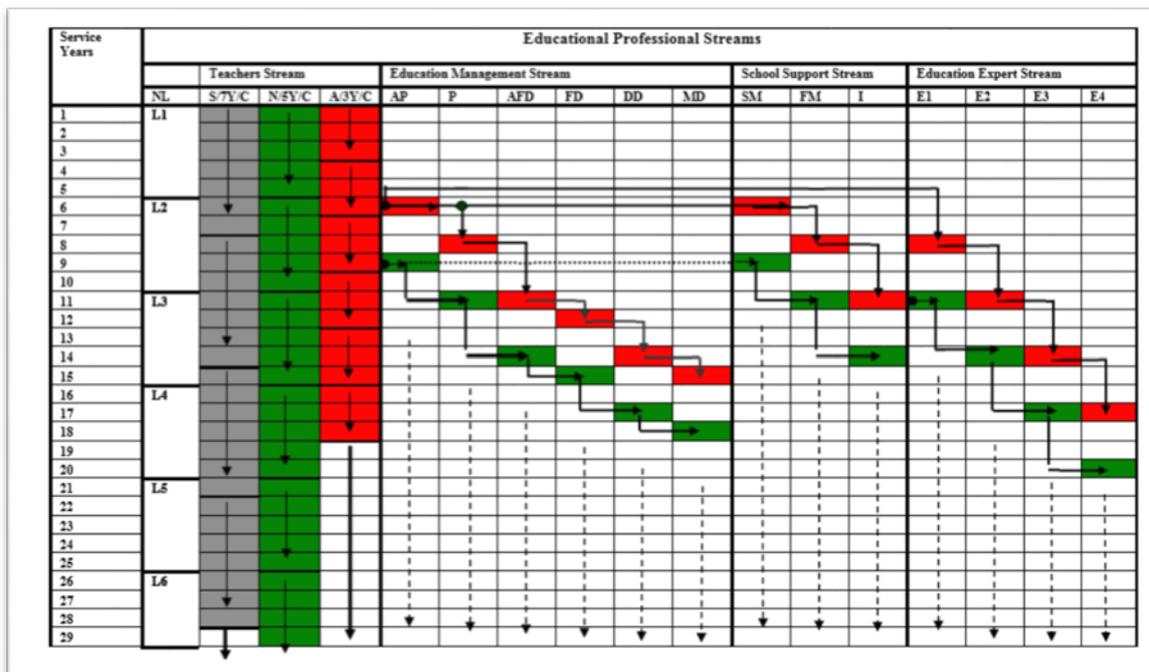
Echelon	Morocco			Echelon	France		
	Fast pace (major choice)	Medium pace (choice)	Slow pace (length of service)		Fast pace (major choice)	Medium pace (choice)	Slow pace (length of service)
1st/2nd	1 year	1 year	1 year	3rd/4th	1 year	1 year	1 year
2nd/3rd	1 year	1 year 6 months	2 years	4th/5th	2 years	2 years 6 months	2 years 6 months
3rd/4th	2 years	2 years 6 months	3 years	5th/6th	2 years 6 months	3 years	3 years 6 months
4th/5th	2 years	2 year 6 months	3 years	6th/7th	2 years 6 months	3 years	3 years 6 months

5th/6th	2 years	2 years 6 months	3 years	7th/8th	2 years 6 months	3 years	3 years 6 months
6th/7th	3 years	3 years 6 months	4 years	8th/9th	2 years 6 months	4 years	4 years 6 months
7th/8th	3 years	3 years 6 months	4 years	9th/10th	2 ans 6 months	4 years	4 years 6 months
8th/9th	3 years	4 years	4 years 6 months	10th/11th	3 years	4 years	4 years 6 months
9th/10th	4 years	5 years	5 years 6 months				
Total	21 years	26 years	30 years	Total	18 years 6 months	24 years 6 months	26 years 6 months

2.6.5 Combining different strategies

Finally, some countries have recently put forward teacher career reforms combining the different strategies mentioned above. In Jordan, for example, the system envisaged combines three different rates of career progression for classroom teachers, and different specialisation streams, accessible via several different pathways. The device would be based on a system of credits obtained according to length of service and fulfilment of professional development objectives (Alexandru, 2010).

Figure 2.5: Teachers' careers and career advancement in Jordan



Source: Alexandru, 2010



Highlights

The race to EFA has resulted in a diversification of teacher status categories and levels of remuneration. Fuelling a feeling of injustice, the different categories and salaries are a source of dissatisfaction, conflict and even strikes. Coupled with the fall in the level of qualifications of the teacher workforce, these changes have a direct impact on the quality of education. Different teacher remuneration and career progression options can thus be envisaged. When envisaging reforms, several points are to be considered:

- There are multiple remuneration choices that vary depending on the country. The best choice will be adapted to context, included in the legislation and take into account the relationship between employment supply and demand in the country so as to attract the right candidates to the teaching profession and to retain them as long as possible. These measures should make it possible to have sufficient teaching stock in order to reduce the PTR and/or increase schooling coverage.
- The implementation of a horizontal or vertical progression plan for all teachers (whatever their category) encourages professional development and gives the teacher workforce enhanced satisfaction and motivation to improve their performance.
- Different ministries, especially the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry for Civil Service, must be involved in designing reform. A revision of teacher careers should take place within the regulatory framework for the civil service. It is highly possible that a reform of teacher careers will have consequences on other civil service professions, which may be a stumbling block. Moreover, to be successful, a reform proposal must necessarily be quantified. Discussions must be held with the partners in order to evaluate the feasibility

of the proposed reform from a financial and regulatory/legislative point of view. Finally, the teacher workforce must be involved in the discussions on policy options concerning careers and remuneration in order to ensure ownership of the reform.

Part 3: Discussion on some of the major options for the organisation of teacher evaluation

3.1 Introduction

Evaluation and the use of evaluation are the subject of debate in many countries. Who evaluates? Based on what criteria? With what tools? To what purpose? While there are many different answers to these questions, there is a consensus on the fact that teacher evaluation constitutes a key lever for improving the quality of instruction in conjunction with in-service training. By recognising and encouraging teachers, an evaluation system can contribute to teacher motivation.

It is essential to develop an evaluation system in order to improve the practices of teachers through their professional development and the recognition of their knowledge and competencies. Formative evaluation of teachers is a key element for the improvement of teacher performance and represents a major element in educational policies aimed at the improvement of pupil learning.

There are a wide variety of approaches to teacher evaluation, ranging from highly sophisticated nation-wide systems to informal approaches left to the entire discretion of the schools. In the context of this training module, we shall nevertheless focus on the articulation between evaluation and career progression (summative evaluation), and the organisation of evaluation.

3.2 Objectives of evaluation

3.2.1 Formative and summative evaluation

As explained in Part 1, the objective of evaluation is two-fold: i) to enhance the practices of teachers by identifying their strengths and weaknesses for further professional development (the improvement function) and ii) to ensure that teachers perform at their best to enhance pupil learning (the accountability function). So, evaluation is both formative, since it aims at the continuous improvement of practices through adequate professional development (evaluation for improvement), and summative, since it also aims at collecting information on performance, which has consequences for the teacher in terms of advancement, remuneration, recognition and sanctions (evaluation for accountability) (OECD, 2009). This double role creates tensions.

- **Formative evaluation:** It focuses on the provision of feedback useful for the improvement of teaching practices and opportunities for professional development. It involves helping teachers learn about, reflect on and improve their practice. It is usually conducted internally at school level and is not always regulated at national level. By identifying the strengths and weaknesses of teachers, school heads can make informed choices on the specific professional development activities that best address teachers' needs in the framework of the school's priorities.
- **Summative evaluation:** It focuses on holding teachers accountable for their performance. Consequently, this type of evaluation can have a series of consequences on their career. It aims at providing information on teachers' past practice and on their performance, collected at different moments of their career and related to what is considered as « good » teaching, and at introducing measures to encourage teachers to perform at their best. This type of evaluation can involve external evaluators and it generally has consequences for the teacher, entailing career advancement, reward or the possibility of sanctions in the case of underperformance.

3.2.2 Finding a balance between formative and summative evaluation

Most evaluation systems combine the two approaches: formative and summative. However, combining both the improvement and accountability functions into a single evaluation process is not simple. When the evaluation is directed towards the improvement of teaching practice, teachers are typically open to reveal their weaknesses, in the expectation that conveying that information will lead to more effective decisions on developmental needs and training. However, when teachers are confronted with potential consequences of evaluation on their career and salary, the inclination to reveal weak aspects is reduced, thus jeopardising the improvement function.

Also, using the same evaluation process for both purposes undermines the usefulness of some instruments (such as self-evaluation) and creates an additional burden on evaluators as their decisions have somewhat conflicting consequences (between improving performance and limiting career progression). In practice, countries rarely use a pure form of teacher evaluation model, but rather a unique combination that integrates multiple purposes and methodologies.

3.3 Approaches to evaluation systems

Teacher evaluation systems are extremely diverse. The implementation of evaluation systems is based on choices concerning the accountability of the different education sector bodies, especially that of schools and teachers, according to different models of education system monitoring.

3.3.1 School and teacher accountability

The choice of different methods of evaluation depends on a vision of the accountability of teachers and schools. Who must teachers answer to? This section gives a rapid description of three forms of accountability, each of which will contribute a different answer.

- **Contractual accountability:** teachers are accountable for their results to the person or the department with which/whom they have a contractual relationship (their employer). Most of the time, this is the Ministry of Education whose local representative will be the school head or an inspector. Teachers are classed as civil servants. As such, they belong to an administration governed by hierarchical relationships. The expression « bureaucratic accountability » is sometimes used for this form of accountability.
- **Professional accountability:** teachers are considered as professionals. They belong to a community characterised by the command of a unique corpus of practical and theoretical knowledge. Two options coexist: the first considers that each teacher can only be held responsible towards him/herself for his/her acts. This option leaves no room for external inspection and has been adopted practically nowhere except perhaps in some tertiary education institutions. The second option consists of considering that each teacher, as a member of a professional community, is responsible vis-à-vis this community and its code of conduct. In other words, teachers are accountable to the professional body they belong to and are thus controlled by their colleagues.
- **Public accountability:** teachers are considered as members of a « public service » and are as such accountable to the public or, to put it another way, to the clients of the education system. The term « client » can be interpreted in two ways, which have different implications. Pupils and parents of a given school can be considered as the direct clients of the school. The teacher is accountable to the local community. Accountability takes place during parent meetings or in reports prepared for limited circulation. The second interpretation is to consider that the word « client » designates the public of the entire education system. In this case, teachers and schools are accountable to the general public through the publication of examination results or inspection reports, for example.

3.3.2 Different education system monitoring models

The implementation of teacher evaluation systems in schools depends very much on the context of each country's governance, and particularly on the level of decentralisation and school autonomy. In a number of countries with no central teacher evaluation frameworks, schools and local authorities have long been in charge of local policies for teacher evaluation, with little participation by the central level. The different approaches to evaluation reflect different education system monitoring models. These models, presented below, provide their own perspective on accountability (based on a combination of the three forms identified above). The whole is highly dependent upon the country's context and more particularly the opinion on the professionalism of teachers, the effectiveness of administration and the civil service and the interest of parents and the community for education. By developing these accountability models, Kogan makes a distinction between the following three types of monitoring (1996)⁶.

- **The state control model:** This is the dominant mode of education monitoring in most countries. It is characterised by a formal bureaucratic hierarchy: teachers are controlled by school heads, who are controlled by district officers, who are controlled by central ministries, that are in turn directed by elected representatives. This monitoring system has democratic legitimacy because of the control chain that emanates from the political level. In this model, external forms of qualitative monitoring will prevail over internal forms, and the traditional inspection system, which can be more or less decentralised, will play a key role. The major problem with this model is that the influence on decisions by those who have to implement them (local school actors) is generally low.
- **The professional accountability model:** The professional model can be seen as an answer to the previous problem. Here, the main focus of monitoring is not with the bureaucracy but with the professional community, in this case, the teaching staff. They are supposed to be the best judges of how to ensure quality education. Two main arguments are generally put forward by the promoters of this model: the first is that the stronger the professional autonomy of teachers and schools, the more responsive they will be to the needs and conditions of their clients; the second is that professional accountability will protect schools against excessive outside pressure, for example to boost school results.

The legitimacy of this model derives from the expertise and ethical code of the teaching profession. Its dominant procedures of monitoring will be internal ones, such as self-evaluation by teachers and peer reviewing. One problem is that responsiveness to the clients might be gradually replaced by professional isolation and complacency, and by self-protective reactions against outside demand and criticism (parents, local authorities and the public at large).

- **The consumerist model:** According to this model, the main actors in charge of monitoring are supposed to be the consumers or beneficiaries of the education system, i.e. the pupils, the parents and the wider community. The justifying principle of this liberal model is that efficiency and quality can be best obtained via free-market mechanisms and competition. The main monitoring device in this model is the regular collection and dissemination of different performance indicators and the publication of league tables, often combined with the imposition from above of a well-defined curriculum framework.

Depending on the approach, the evaluation instruments will be very different.

⁶ This method of classification of monitoring systems puts the emphasis on the main actor responsible for the qualitative improvement of schools.



Question for consideration

Think about the organisation of teacher evaluation in your country. What is the model of system monitoring and of accountability that best corresponds to your context? Does a combination of the different models exist?

3.4 Conceptualisation of evaluation systems

The choice of evaluation model will depend on the objectives and the results expected from the process, as well as the means available to the education system. Teacher evaluation can take on very different forms from one country to another ranging from an absence of evaluation (very rare) to an evaluation based on the recognition of merit with consequences on salary.

3.4.1 Conceptual framework

The conceptualisation and organisation of an evaluation system must address a number of questions:

- **Who?** Who is accountable and evaluated: The individual? The teaching team? The whole school? Does it concern a category of teachers or rather all teachers (civil servants, contract and community teachers)?
- **By whom?** This includes issues such as the choice of the evaluators and the development of the skills needed to perform the evaluation of a teacher.
- **What?** What competencies should be evaluated? This brings us to another much more complex question, which is what makes a « good » teacher.
- **How?** What methods or tools are to be used to carry out the evaluation? This aspect refers to the combination of different tools, criteria and standards used to assess the competencies and knowledge of teachers.
- **Why?** What are the objectives of the evaluation? How to ensure that the evaluation fulfils these objectives? The objectives of a teacher evaluation process are generally made up of formative (improvement) and summative (accountability) elements. Evaluation results can be used through mechanisms such as performance feedback, professional development plans and financial and other rewards.
- **With whom?** Who intervenes in the implementation of teacher evaluation procedures? Depending on the system, a wide range of actors may be involved in evaluation (parents, pupils, teachers, school leaders, teacher unions, educational administrators and decision makers).
- **When?** When should evaluation be carried out and how often? Regular evaluation implies having a sufficient number of human resources in charge of evaluation.

3.4.2 Principles of organisation

- **Internal or external system:** The advantage of an internal evaluation (i.e. with no intervention by actors from outside the school) is that it gives the school ownership of the process and ensures that all aspects are carefully considered by the school. It also ensures that the school context is taken into account: the teacher is assessed against reference standards with criteria that take into account the school's objectives and socio-educational background. However, this may have some disadvantages in systems where teacher evaluation is not part of the culture of the education system, especially when schools have little evaluation expertise (to devise tools and assess teaching performance). In principle, it is more appropriate to use tools developed internally for formative evaluation. For summative evaluation, a national reference framework and standardised procedures are needed to avoid different standards across schools.

Individual or collective: According to the desired outcomes, collective evaluation may be preferred to individual evaluation. Regarding incentives, studies show that collective reward programmes are more effective than those based on the evaluation of individual results (Laderrière, 2007). The interest of collective evaluation is above all that it contributes to the development of teamwork and a common collaborative culture in the school. It is part of a collective school-wide process.

Table 3.1 summarises several internal or external, individual or collective evaluation systems.

Table 3.1: Examples of teacher evaluation systems in different countries

Type	Description	Examples
Internal/collegial forms	Individual teacher	
	Peer evaluation: Rare, but other teachers can be brought into the evaluation process	In the Shanxi province of China, teacher evaluation is done regularly via classroom observations, both by other teachers (peers) and school administrators In Greece, as a complement to evaluation by school advisors, other teachers are consulted during teacher assessments
	Student evaluation: Students are asked to fill in questionnaires about their teachers – common in higher education	
	Individual self-assessment: Teachers evaluate themselves against a set of pre-determined criteria	In Iceland and Hungary, self-evaluation is the main method for teacher accountability
	School head: In many cases, the head teacher is the main evaluator of teacher performance	In large secondary schools in the UK, the school head evaluates the management staff, who in turn evaluate the teachers In Hungary, evaluation of teachers is at the discretion of the school head
	Whole school	
	Whole school self-assessment: Collaborative process of school self-evaluation with teachers, head teachers, pupils, staff and parents	In Sweden, in addition to external evaluation, every school must write a quality report every year In South Africa, the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) includes whole-school and self-evaluation
External evaluations	Individual teacher	
	Teacher inspections: Specialist inspectorates evaluate the work of individual teachers and report to national or regional authorities	In France, outside inspectorates have the main authority over teacher assessment and evaluation. School heads contribute to the evaluation, but they are not considered above teachers in the school hierarchy
	Whole school	
	Inspections of schools by education standard agencies	In the UK, the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) is a government agency responsible for whole school inspection as well as a range of other government educational services
	Advice from a critical friend/outside expert	

Source: Euridyce (2008); Wang (2007); OFSTED (2009) (adapted by ILO, 2012)

3.4.3 Criteria and strategic guidelines

The teacher's career progression depends to an extent, and according to context, on performance assessment. It is therefore essential for evaluation to be transparent, equitable and fair. To be effective, the teacher evaluation system must be well designed and reliable, and be based on a series of criteria presented in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: Criteria and strategic guidelines for the teacher evaluation system

Criteria	Strategic guidelines	Advantages
Formative	Identify strengths and weaknesses in skills and competencies and ways to improve professional practice	Encourages freedom, initiative, responsibility and responsiveness to student needs
Linked to school-wide evaluation	Align teacher evaluation on school-wide evaluation, strategy and goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reinforces teacher evaluation (OECD, 2009 – TALIS) • Fosters teamwork • Decreases the pressure on individuals and competition between teachers
Based on holistic criteria	Take into account all variables in the school setting that affect teaching and learning and are context-specific (teacher profiles, difficult teaching conditions, special education, disadvantaged populations, class size, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensures initial quality in teacher evaluation • Does not sanction teachers who teach in difficult conditions
Transparent	Communicate detailed feedback to teachers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensures equitable assessment and evaluation processes • Evaluation perceived positively by teachers
Objective	Include more than one evaluator and canvass the different opinions (head teacher, external evaluator, pupils, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More comprehensive and fairer evaluation • Can make up for any animosity existing between agents
Equitable and fair	Include the right of appeal by the teacher. These rights and procedures must be clearly stipulated and be part of the evaluation and assessment policy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Protects teachers from evaluation considered as unfair • Fosters teachers' confidence and better inclusion in the evaluation process
Directed towards improvement	Give positive feedback and reward ⁷	Has a positive impact on teacher motivation and effectiveness
Based on professional self-regulation	Include the idea of the professional teacher in the assessment and evaluation framework ⁸	Encourages professional self-regulation

Source: adapted from ILO, 2012

3.5 Organisation of evaluation systems

3.5.1 Who evaluates?

Who are the evaluators and what do they do when they evaluate? The responsibility for teacher assessment is usually shared between the education authorities, including quality assurance

⁷ The TALIS survey (OECD, 2009) showed that teachers often estimated that the improvements they brought to their teaching were hardly taken into account.

⁸ The 1966 Recommendation insists strongly on the fact that teaching is a profession, and that teachers are professionals who possess major competencies, are highly training and have in-depth knowledge on the processes of learning and education.

agencies such as inspectorates, schools and their leadership, and teachers themselves. An inexhaustive list of actors involved in evaluation is presented below.

- **Education authorities:** They play a major role in the conception and application of teacher evaluation, since they set the learning outcome objectives, agree standards for the teaching profession and establish the norms that regulate teacher evaluation. In some countries, they play a direct role in the implementation and monitoring of teacher evaluation procedures. This might include the design of specific evaluation tools and instruments, the determination of evaluation criteria, the distribution of evaluation duties, and the follow-up on evaluation results. In other countries, education authorities establish general principles and guidelines only and give schools considerable leeway to adapt the teacher evaluation model to their particular circumstances (for instance, letting schools define evaluation criteria).
- **Inspectorates:** In many countries, they are in charge of developing teacher evaluation procedures and undertaking individual teacher evaluations. Inspectors are responsible for the teaching and administrative qualities of the teachers and head teachers that they supervise. Their role is critical for teacher career management (assignment, transfer, promotion, advancement). It is two-fold: training and evaluation. This does not always simplify the relationship between the teacher and the inspectorate. In other countries, the inspectorate does not take responsibility for individual teacher evaluations but, instead, has an important role in stimulating both the quality of school leadership and the quality of teaching. This is typically done through sharing the results of external school evaluation, mostly consisting of feedback on leadership and management, feedback on the quality of the teaching and learning processes and feedback on school climate. In general, the inspectorate has an eminent role in modelling and disseminating good practice in teacher evaluation.
- **Pedagogical advisors:** Pedagogical advisors are also involved in state systems. They are present in both primary and secondary education; the difference is disciplinary. They form a team around the inspector that advises and assists the inspector in training and evaluation duties. Their dual role of trainer and evaluator can hamper their function since it is difficult to have total confidence in someone who will later evaluate and so be decisive in the teacher's career progression.
- **Head teachers:** Head teachers are responsible for effective school operation, at both pedagogical and administrative levels. There are two cases, depending on the country: either the school head can enter the classroom and decide on the teacher's pedagogical value or else that is forbidden by law and the school head is restricted to administrative aspects. In other words, in the second case, the evaluation of teaching is the responsibility of the inspectorates, unlike the first case where the school head is involved. In France, the school head gives each teacher an administrative rating every year, which is sent to the inspectorate.
- **Teachers:** In some systems, teacher evaluation is based on reviews by peers, who are often more experienced and with more responsibility. This is more typical of evaluation for improvement purposes. Research evidence shows that this method makes an effective contribution to enhancing the quality of instruction. Nevertheless, when peers are the evaluators in evaluation for accountability purposes (summative evaluation), issues of legitimacy must be addressed.
- **Students:** It can happen that students themselves are asked to assess their teachers. While this practice is frequent at university level, it is rarely used in primary and secondary education, or only for teachers who volunteer. There are multiple objections: incompetence of judges, teacher demagoguery, creating competition among teachers, breakdown of the relationship of authority. Even though it has been proven that pupils

have a good appreciation of the learning situations they are offered, they do not necessarily have the capacity to justify their intuition.

3.5.2 What tools?

Evaluation calls upon different tools to obtain information on the quality of the teacher's work, particularly:

- **Classroom observation with observation grids** modelled on the required skills. Teaching practice and pupil learning are the most relevant sources of information of professional performance. Consequently, teacher evaluation is typically based on classroom observation. This is the most common technique used in OECD countries.
- **Interviews** with the teacher, either one-to-one or with an evaluation team: Most teacher evaluation models require the teacher to define objectives to be achieved over a given period in agreement with school management. The evaluation then assesses to what extent these objectives have been met. The setting of objectives, as well as the evaluation itself, typically involve individual interviews, which are an opportunity to trigger critical reflection between evaluators and teachers.
- **Self-evaluation questionnaire** for the teacher: Another commonly used instrument in teacher evaluation is self-evaluation allowing teachers to express their own point of view on their performance and to reflect on the personal, organisational and institutional factors that have an effect on their teaching.
- **A teacher portfolio or file** showing the teacher's different activities in the form of printed documents or a video. This instrument typically complements teacher self-evaluation. It should be noted that portfolios are not only a tool for evaluation *per se*, but also play a role in supporting a reflective approach to teaching practice that is a hallmark of effective teachers.
- **Standardised evaluation forms:** Evaluators usually use standardised forms to record teacher performance across the aspects being evaluated. They constitute a key tool in the evaluation process.
- **Tests:** In some countries, tests are used for particular purposes such as for access to a permanent position or entry into the profession. Teachers are tested to assess their general competencies. In some instances, the results of such tests can be used for teacher evaluation.
- **Pupil results:** pupils' results are not commonly used as a source of evidence for teacher evaluation given the wide range of factors influencing their results. However, this possibility is currently under discussion and will be looked at in more details below.
- **Surveys of parents and pupils:** These are rarely used in the context of individual teacher evaluation. They are more relevant for whole-school evaluation than for teacher evaluation.

3.5.3 Teacher evaluation based on pupils' results

The principle of an evaluation based on pupils' results and/or on teacher testing can appear attractive for decision makers but it raises several questions and does not seem well adapted. Over the last two decades, a large number of initiatives have been developed throughout the world (for example, in Chile, Japan, the United Kingdom, and in some states in the USA) with the aim of correlating teacher remuneration with the results obtained by their pupils. In this system, evaluation is based on a number of options:

- **Performance indicators:** connected to pupils' results in standardised tests and to other learning objectives.

- Progress measurement: based exclusively on the results of the standardised tests or on a wider range of measures such as the results of teacher evaluation.
- An adjustment to take into account external factors: difficult teaching conditions, disadvantaged background, differences in funding between schools, etc.
- Budget considerations: Will quotas be applied? Will the evaluation of performance focus on the individual or on the school? etc.

However, opinions diverge as to this type of evaluation technique. Thus, research conducted in the USA has demonstrated that this type of evaluation and encouragement has little impact on pupils' results (Springer et al., 2010). On the other hand, the study of a teacher bonus programme in Israel demonstrated that pupils whose teachers were following the programme had better results than the others (Lavy, 2004). Teachers declared having modified their way of working, especially by organising classroom time after school. Similar results were obtained in India (Muralidharan and Sundararaman, 2009).

These contradictory results can be explained firstly by the difficulty of measuring a teacher's performance through the results of his/her pupils. Indeed, it is complex to isolate this from the numerous external factors that have an effect on pupil learning. A teacher in one subject may influence a pupil's results in another subject and the pupil's previous teachers may also have an impact on performance (Koretz, 2002). Finally, and above all, pupils' results are influenced by their characteristics, family background, etc. Factors such as poverty or the absence of support from parents play an important role.

Beyond the difficulties related to the validity of this measure, teacher evaluation programmes based on pupils' results are also criticised for their effects on teachers' behaviour, sometimes less visible and measurable than the simple impact on pupil performance:

- Due to the many factors influencing pupils' results, a teacher performance assessment based on the latter can be demoralising for personnel if they feel that they are not treated fairly.
- This method can also discourage teachers from working with pupils in difficulty. Since the introduction of bonus programmes in schools in North Carolina, the number of teachers leaving schools with disadvantaged pupils has increased (Clotfelter et al., 2008). To avoid this problem, most evaluation systems attempt to measure the progression of pupils and the other characteristics that may have an impact on their results (Podgursky and Springer, 2007). Even so, that does not always enable to take sufficiently into account the difficulty of improving the results of some pupils.
- This type of evaluation can also have a negative effect on teacher behaviour outside the classroom, encouraging individualistic attitudes and introducing an element of competition among colleagues (Murnane and Cohen, 1986). This has a negative effect on teacher morale and reduces teamwork. One solution could be to introduce collective evaluation, but that may lead to cases of « free riding » (Prendergast, 1999).
- This type of evaluation encourages teachers to focus on the subjects directly linked to the tests used for evaluation and to give priority to short-term learning (Glewwe, Holla and Kremer, 2009). An improvement in pupils' results is thus sometimes explained by intensive test preparation and by teaching limited to test subjects, whereas the wider, non-measurable objectives of education include social relations, behaviour and ethics outcomes. Limited instruction of this type has been observed for instance in evaluation programmes in India and Kenya (ILO, 2012).
- Evaluation based on pupil results can also encourage teachers to cheat (Jacob and Levitt, 2003) or to strategically exclude the lowest-achieving pupils from exams (Cullen and Reback, 2006).

Box 3.1: Research showing mixed evidence on performance related pay (ILO, 2012)

Gearing teaching towards the tests can have a negative impact on equity. In **Chile**, for example, a school-based incentive programme for teachers tended to reward teachers and schools with high socioeconomic status, which were already performing well, rather than those improving but still needing to do better. In **India** and **Kenya**, the improved test results reflected a tendency for teachers to focus on the best students and train students for the test, often excluding other aspects of the curriculum. Improved learning achievements were found to be short lived in **Kenya**. In **Mongolia**, a performance related pay system was abandoned a year after introduction, following conflicts prompted by the increasingly hierarchical nature of teacher and management relations and the heavy administrative burden and paperwork imposed on head teachers and inspectors.

Source: ILO (2012)

There are evaluation practices that avoid merit pay based on performance and school ranking. Finland, Canada and Cuba have for instance demonstrated their capacity to produce high learning achievements that are not conditioned by incentive bonuses and where teaching is collegial and based on teamwork (Verger et al., 2013).

Table 3.3: Example of a type of evaluation based on pupils' results: Advantages and disadvantages of bonus systems based on pupils' results

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Motivation	A form of incentive that can motivate teachers. Collective bonuses (for the whole team according to overall school results) can create incentives for teamwork.	A bonus system based on individual teacher results can have perverse effects on whole-school results, by reducing collegial work and lowering the motivation of teachers to work with pupils in difficulty.
Implementation	This system is relatively easy to implement both policy-wise and technically and does not have a long-term effect on expenditure (the number of people obtaining a bonus or the amount of the bonus can easily be lowered). It can be an interesting alternative for countries seeking a rapid way of creating performance incentives in a system with a single pay scale.	Pupils' results are influenced by many other factors that are complex to single out: the influence of teachers in other subjects and previous teachers, the role of the family background, ... This can make such a system ineffective and unfair when an improvement in pupil achievements does not depend on the teacher's performance alone. Financial restrictions that entail setting up quotas for performance-related pay limit the number of employees who can benefit from the reward and consequently make the system inequitable.
Perceived impact	Bonuses enable teacher salaries to be linked to the most valuable measure of performance: pupils' learning achievements. In some countries, these bonus programmes have had a positive impact on pupils' results. However, other bonus	This can be unfair for teachers in schools with pupils in difficulty. Collegial work can diminish in an individual incentive system and problems of "free riding" exist in a collective system. It can encourage teachers to focus on teaching content directly related to the examination and to cheat.

	programmes have enabled no improvement in pupils' results. This proves that bonus systems are context-dependent and that their design is critical.	Bonus programmes give preference to some explicit and measurable objectives and distract from other important objectives and subjects (such as social relations, behaviour and ethics).
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3.6 Evaluation of the teacher's professional competence

The notion of "competence" is of central importance in teacher evaluation. It was introduced to cope with the changing face of work in a complex professional environment before becoming the main reference for HRM practices. Career management in HRM is one of the areas involved in the evaluation of professional competence (Dierendonck et al, 2014). The latter is however made more complicated by a number of characteristics that are intrinsic to the notion of competence:

- It is not easily visible;
- It is contextual and can therefore not be appreciated independently from the conditions of its implementation and context;
- It comprises an individual and a collective dimension;
- It is constructed and evolving and, as such, is less accessible for certain methods of competence analysis.

The validity of the evaluation of competence will not only depend on the choice of the skills to be evaluated or on the assessment tools, but also on the very competencies of the evaluation expert.

3.6.1 Reference documents

Before going ahead with teacher evaluation, it is essential to know what the standards and criteria are for appreciating teacher performance. What is a "good" teacher? What should the teacher be able to do? Thus, an equitable and reliable teacher evaluation model needs reference standards against which teachers are assessed according to what is considered as « good » practice. The principal reference documents are typically:

- *Skills frameworks or professional profiles* of teachers (general teacher skills profile), including specialised profiles for specific types of teachers (by level of education, subject). Teacher profiles often express different levels of performance, from beginning teacher to experienced teacher with associated responsibilities;
- *Job descriptions* comprising a set of teachers' general and professional duties;
- At school level, the *school's development plan*.

The reference documents to be used in the teacher evaluation process must include a series of assessment criteria to determine the level of individual teacher performance for each of the aspects being assessed. This typically implies the development of indicators and of standardised forms to register the teacher's performance. The different aspects evaluated are then weighted to calculate an overall score.

3.6.2 Evaluation areas

What areas should be evaluated? Danielson's framework for teaching is useful for addressing this question. It groups together teachers' responsibilities around four main domains, broken down into sub-domains:

- **Planning and preparation:** being able to demonstrate knowledge of content and pedagogy, knowledge of students through setting of instructional outcomes, designing coherent instruction and student assessments;
- **Classroom environment:** creating an environment of respect and support, establishing a culture for learning, managing classroom procedures, student behaviour and organising physical space;
- **Instruction:** communicating clearly and precisely, using questioning and discussion techniques, engaging students in learning, giving students feedback and demonstrating flexibility and responsiveness;
- **Professional responsibilities:** reflecting on teaching, maintaining accurate records, communicating with families, growing and developing professionally and showing professionalism.

3.6.3 Evaluation criteria

Clear criteria, systematically applied by competent (i.e. trained and experienced) evaluators, are essential for good evaluation practice. This requires the development of explicit guidelines on what is expected of professional practice. Teacher evaluation procedures require the setting up of evaluation criteria to determine the level of individual teacher performance for each of the aspects being assessed. That usually implies the development of indicators and/or standardised forms to register teacher performance. The weighting of the different aspects evaluated in order to calculate an overall score is an additional criterion in the case of summative evaluation.

Criteria will differ depending on the actors in charge of teacher evaluation. Provided below is a series of criteria or indicators that can be helpful for an administrative evaluation.

Table 3.4: Evaluation criteria for school heads in the framework of an administrative evaluation

Criteria	Explanation of criteria
Punctuality, assiduity	Being on time and present on all working days.
Professional ethics	Exercising the profession of teacher within the school as defined by the relevant legislation and applying professional ethics.
Relational capacity	Having good relations with the hierarchy, the school's pedagogical team, the community (parents or guardians, pupils, ...).
Involvement in school or district projects	Participating actively in school or district projects.
Participation in extra-curricular and after-school activities	Participating in activities not directly part of the school curriculum but which are part of youth education.
Respect for the administrative rules in effect	School rules and regulations. Compliance with the timetable. Preparation (journal, lesson plan). Pupils' exercise books (cleanliness, volume, regularity, correction, ...). Regulations to be displayed Attendance register Module distribution Educational posters



Highlights

- Evaluation constitutes a key lever for improving the quality of education and the motivation of teachers.
- Evaluation can be formative (for the improvement of practices) or summative (for accountability and career advancement). Most education systems combine the two approaches, which creates tensions.
- There are many and varied evaluation systems, which reflect different approaches to teacher accountability and education system supervision models.
- To develop an evaluation system, several questions should be addressed: Who? By whom? What? How? Why? With whom? When? What are the benefits of internal or external, collective or individual evaluation?
- Depending on the system, different actors are involved in teacher evaluation. There is a wide range of tools, which can be used together to evaluate teachers. It should be noted that evaluation systems based on pupil performance in tests are under much criticism.
- Finally, an effective evaluation system must be based on standards and criteria, and on skills frameworks and job descriptions drawn up at national level.

Appendix

The table below shows the organisation of career advancement in different countries highlighting the advantages and disadvantages. Nevertheless, it is important to emphasize that countries often use a combination of different promotion criteria, as is the case for instance in Pakistan (seniority and qualifications).

A.1: Promotion criteria

Promotion criteria	Examples	Advantages	Disadvantages
Qualifications: Gaining further qualification or certification can lead to higher career grades.	In Namibia, teachers automatically move up to a higher career grade when they acquire a degree qualification. About two-thirds undertake further training to obtain a qualification for promotion	Can encourage teachers to increase their knowledge and perfect their skills.	Can create incentive for teachers to obtain further qualifications only in the hope of receiving a salary increase. This system can be difficult to sustain when there are not enough new or higher posts available further qualifications.
Seniority / years of experience: Promotion from one teaching grade to another is automatic after a number of years service.	In Senegal, teachers who have civil servant status automatically move to the next career grade every two years. In Pakistan, promotion in primary education is dependent on five years of experience plus an additional qualification.	Simple and transparent system. Rewards teacher experience. May encourage teachers to stay in the profession.	There is no assurance that who are promoted are the best qualified and/or the best performers.
Performance: Promotion, either to higher teacher grades or another position, is based on teaching performance.	In the Cantons of St Gallen and Zurich, in Switzerland teachers can only reach a higher grade if they are given a positive performance assessment.	Can create incentive for teachers to perform better in the classroom. Helps in ensuring that only the better-performing teachers are promoted to higher grades.	Can discourage teamwork through increased competition. Can negatively affect teacher morale.

Source: Senegal (2003), Kucera and Stauffer (2003); Bennell and Sayed (2009) cited in ILO (2012).

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